

# **The Status of Food and Nutrition Security Policies and Institutional Framework in Eswatini**

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**A thesis submitted to the College of Agriculture, Engineering and Science, University of  
KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg Campus, in fulfilment of the requirements for the  
degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Food Security.**

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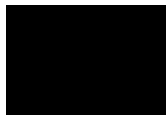
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This is to confirm that contents outlined in this thesis are the original research work done and reported by the author (Kwanele S. Simelane). The research work detailed in this thesis has not been previously submitted to any tertiary institution for award of a degree or diploma. The use of other researchers'/scientists' work in the text has been acknowledged accordingly.

As the candidate's supervisor, I have approved this thesis for submission

**Supervisor**



**Name:** Prof Steven Worth **Signature:** sworth **Date:** 6 July 2022

## Ethics approval

Name of Ethics committee	Date	Reference number
Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee	12/02/ 2019	HSS/0092/019D

## FORMAT OF DISSERTATION

This thesis was presented as a manuscript format, which included submitted and prepared journal articles that have emanated from the research project in this field.

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## DECLARATION: PLAGIARISM

I Kwanele Siyabonga Simelane, declare that;

The research reported in this dissertation, except where otherwise indicated, is my original work.

This dissertation has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other institution or university.

This dissertation does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or other information unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.

This dissertation does not contain other persons' writing, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have been quoted, then: Their words have been re-written but the general information attributed to them has been referenced;

Where their exact words have been used, their writing has been placed inside quotation marks, and referenced.

This dissertation does not contain text, graphics or tables copied and pasted from internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the dissertation and in the references sections.

Signed:  Date: 01/07/2022

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to the institutions that agreed to participate in this study and further selected representatives, as key informants, to share their information with us during the study proceedings. I will not leave out my family. Thank you for your love, support and encouragement you gave me through the course of my studying.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

The course of this PhD has been a really transformational experience for me and would not have been realized had it not been the support and guidance received from numerous people. I would begin by extending my sincere gratitude to my supervisor (Prof Steven Worth) for all the support and encouragement afforded me, during the course of studying at University of KwaZulu-Natal; College of Agriculture, Engineering and Science; Department of Food Security.

I would also like to appreciate the Kingdom of Eswatini government ministries and their affiliating parastatals for opening their doors to conduct the research. These include Ministries of Health, Agriculture, Tourism and Environmental Affairs, Ministry of Housing and Urban Development, and DPM's Office. In addition, may I also thank the support from UN Agencies in Eswatini (UNICEF, WHO, WFP and FAO) for sharing their information through key informants representing the organizations. Further, I am also grateful for the support provided by the Coordination Assembly for NGOs (CANGO) in Eswatini through sharing their information and also recommending other NGOs that are in line with this research, the Food Consortium Organizations.

I am also very grateful to all those at the College of Agriculture, Engineering and Science; Department of Food Security, Dr Denver Naidoo, Tamlyn Skye, Marsha Manjoo, and others who were always been so helpful and provided me with their assistance throughout my PhD studies.

My deepest appreciation goes to my family, especially my wife Dr Cebisile Xoillile Ngcamphalala and my little daughter Amarissa Olwethu Simelane, for their support, patience, and prayers for the success of this project. I love you so much. God bless you.

In everything, I give thanks to God, the source of my strength and my life.

# **ABSTRACT**

## **Overview of this paper**

Food and Nutrition Security (FNS) has a number of components in it; institutions, policies, programs, and projects. This research looked at all of these and the relationship to one another. Hence this dissertation will first present the FNS theory and its framework, the role of multi-stakeholder engagement in FNS, policy analysis theory in the context of FNS, and the policy framework and institutional set up for FNS in Eswatini. Further, challenges and recommendations raised by key informants will also be covered. The findings, discussions and recommendations arising from the results shall also be presented.

## **Objective**

To assess the policy and the institutional set up for FNS in Eswatini in order to identify existing policy challenges and recommendations.

## **Methods**

This is a qualitative study that involved interviews with key informants who were selected by non-probability expert sampling from among twenty institutions with direct or indirect connections to FNS in Eswatini. The methodology of this research involved assessment of deep insight of the multi-sectoral approach used to implement food and nutrition security activities from the Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Natural Resources and Energy, Academia, UN Agencies, Civil Society, and Non-Governmental Organization. The crucial sector policies, and strategic plans, and annual reports were studied so as to determine the effectiveness in participation in relation to functionality in the coordination of multi-sectoral or inter-sectoral activities. These documents (policies and strategic plans) were in current governance structures.

This dissertation starts by introducing the research with a theory paper that defines the two key concepts 'Food security and Nutrition security'. This was critical as it highlighted the knowledge gap regarding the uniqueness, yet equal importance of each of these concepts in policy development and implementation and the interrelation between them. It also sets the stage for the thesis. The next step was to try to elucidate the multi-stakeholder nature of food security and nutrition security dynamics and how these stakeholders are meant to function

seamlessly to achieve food security and nutrition security simultaneously without scarifying one concept over the other. This is important because resources and expertise are not always centralized in one institutions, hence they must be coordinated by a superior body like the central government which has a mandate to do public good. Another critical step was to define policy and the general stages of policy development, and to define the policy analysis process in the context of food and nutrition security. This is vital because analysis can be *of policy* or *for policy*. Hence, one has to know how to analyse the situation for policy to be developed precisely for the existing problem or be reviewed to tackle arising issues which were not there at its inception. Based on these basic theory papers, the research project was designed and implemented to examine the status of food and nutrition security policies and the related institutional framework in Eswatini. The intent of the research was to offer recommendations based on the findings of the study.

### **Results and findings**

The study found that there are a number of FNS-related policies that are used by various government ministries including the Ministries of Agriculture, Health, Tourism and Environmental Affairs, the Deputy Prime Minister's office, and other partners. Unfortunately, there is little coordination and inclusivity in developing and implementing these policies such that the FNS issues of key populations like women, and youth are not adequately tackled by these policies. The FNS-specific policies are mainly held in the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Health. The other entities facilitate a supporting role of the policies and programs held in these two institutions. The dispersed nature of FNS policy implementation by institutions makes the implementation ad hoc and disjointed resulting in the difficulty to track progress and coverage.

### **Conclusion**

FNS is a central concern to public health in Eswatini as it influences child growth and development and affects children's potential contribution to economic growth at adulthood in the long term. One key issue is the pernicious cycle of chronic malnutrition that persists for several generations. FNS cuts across multiple stakeholders, ranging from government ministries, NGOs, civil society, and international development bodies. As such, they require a thorough coordination by a superior body with authority to convene all relevant stakeholders. This body can enforce accountability from all stakeholders on resources assigned to them either

by the government, or development partners. This will help facilitate timely and inclusive policy development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, and review of policy, minimizing waste of resources and maximizing efficient use of available resources.

### **Recommendation**

Based on the final conclusions, policy makers may consider assigning a FNS coordinating body operating at the highest level of government which have authority to summon all key FNS stakeholder to strategize collaboratively on developing, implementing, monitoring and evaluating FNS policy. This body could also coordinate collecting, analysing and interpreting FNS-related data for monitoring and evaluation. Enablers and barriers to achieving FNS will also be collectively documented to be used as reference for future improvement of policy development and implementation including development of comprehensive and coherent strategies and plans to fill in policy and service provision gaps, remove existing hindrances, and intensify FNS enablers.

## ABBREVIATIONS

FNS	Food and Nutrition Security
FNIS	Food and Nutrition Insecurity
NDMA	National Disaster Management Agency
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
EZHRS	Eswatini Zero Hunger Strategic Review
NERMAP	National Emergency Response Mitigation and Adaptation Plan
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
PLHIV	People Living with Human Immunodeficiency Virus
SHIMS2	Swaziland HIV Incidence Measurement Survey 2
AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
NERCHA	National Emergency Response Council on HIV/AIDS
IPC	Integrated Food Security Phase Classification
COVID-19	Corona Virus Disease of 2019
VAM	Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
GIEWS	Global Information Early Warning System
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nation
PCM	Project Cycle Management
UN	United Nations
IFNSPs	Integrated Food and Nutrition Security Programs
FIVIMS	Food Insecurity and Vulnerability Information and Mapping Systems
TC	Technical Cooperation
UNSCN	United Nations System Standing Committee on Nutrition
MSP	Multi-Stakeholder Process
HLPE	High-Level Panel of Experts

EFSA	European Food Safety Authority
NEAS	National Education Assessment System
CNCBC	Community Nutritionist Council of British Colombia, Canada
EUSSC	EU Scientific Steering Committee
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
FAC	Food Aid Convention
UNSCN	United Nations System Standing Committee on Nutrition
OUHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
WHA	World Health Assembly
EMSs	Emergency Management Systems
CFS	Committee on World Food Security
WHO	World Health Organization
WFP	United Nations World Food Program
ICN	International Conference on Nutrition
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
KIs	Key Informants
MOA	Ministry of Agriculture
NAMBoard	National Agricultural Marketing Board
ESWADE	Eswatini Water and Agricultural Development Enterprise
NMC	National Maize Corporation
EDB	Eswatini Dairy Board
KDDP	Komati Downstream Development Project
ENNC	Eswatini National Nutrition Council
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
EEA	Eswatini Environmental Authority
NLIS	Nutrition Landscape Information System
WASH	Water Sanitation and Hygiene

ACAT	Africa Cooperative Action Trust
CANGO	Coordinating Assembly of NGOs
VAC	Vulnerability Assessment Committee
CASP	Comprehensive Agriculture Sector Policy
NHSSP II	National Health Sector Strategic Plan II
UNDAF	Swaziland United Nations Development Assistance Framework
NFSP	National Food Security Policy
NFNP	National Food and Nutrition Policy
NCDCP	National Non-Communicable Disease Prevention and Control Policy
UNHR	United Nations Human Rights
CMI	Chartered Management Institute
SMART	Specific, measurable, achievable, realistic, and time-bound
PLHC	Public Health Law Center
CDC	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
IAEA	International Atomic Energy Agency
UNIDO	United Nation Industrial Development Organization
ROM	Result Oriented Monitoring
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development <a href="#">ENREF 16</a>

## DEFINITION OF TERMS

**This section defines key terminologies used in the study**

**Food and nutrition insecurity:** The inability to access adequate quantities of nutritious foods required for optimal growth and development.

**Food and nutrition security:** All people at all times have physical, social and economic access to food, which is consumed in sufficient quantity and quality to meet their dietary needs and food preferences. It is supported by an environment of adequate sanitation, health services and care, allowing for a healthy and active life.

**Food security:** All people, at all times, have physical, social, and economic access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food that meets their food preferences and dietary needs for an active and healthy life.

**Human rights approach:** A realistic tool to facilitate the formulation of FNS policies in a responsive manner. It encompasses seven principles: participation, accountability, non-discrimination, transparency, human dignity, empowerment, and rule of law.

**Multi-stakeholder engagement:** An engagement of various sectors (public sector, private sector, and civil society) in a collective action, based on appropriate shared norms and rules, consolidating their complementary resources (human, material, financial), and sharing threats and accountabilities, to satisfy a set goal.

**Nutrition security:** A state when a person has a nutritionally adequate diet the food consumed is 'bio-available' for the body to perform adequately in maintaining various physiological processes including growth, resisting or recovering from disease, pregnancy, breastfeeding and physical activities.

**Policy alternative:** A set of alternative actions/policies applied to solve an existing problem which is not responsive to the current applied policy.

**Policy analysis:** A process through which policy solutions to social problems and public health issues are identified, analysed, and presented to policymakers for consideration

**Policy:** A set of actions taken by the government to be in control of [a] system, to help solve problems within it or caused by it, or to help obtain benefits from it

**Right to food:** A statement derived from both the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Article 25) and the 1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), or ICESCR Article 11(1) which states clearly that the "right to an adequate standard of living includes food, housing, clothing." Moreover, article 11(2) recognizes the "fundamental right of everyone to be free from hunger."

**Sustainable Livelihood:** comprises the capabilities, material and social assets and activities required for a means of living. It is applied when an individual or household can adapt to threats such as negative natural or economic trends and crises, and can maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets without compromising the livelihoods of others.

**Vulnerability:** A function of exposure to risks and shocks and the resilience against their impact. In this context, risks and shocks are trends and events that threaten households' food access, availability and utilization and, hence, their food security status by making them susceptible to become or remain below the pre-set minimum FNS line.

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH

This chapter covers the background information, problem statement, aims and objective of the study, and the methodology. In addition, it will present a published manuscript and summary of the chapters of this thesis paper.

### 1.1 Background

Food and nutrition security exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life<sup>1</sup>. Nutrition security emerged with the recognition of the necessity to include nutritional aspects into food security<sup>2</sup>. Over the past decades, countries in the Sub-Saharan have been affected by the global climate changes that have seen countries experiencing harsh weather conditions affecting the Agricultural sector and the general economy. Consequently, food and nutrition security has been compromised. Similarly, Eswatini has persistently experienced extreme food and nutrition insecurity raising the need for social protection interventions to cover the most vulnerable populations particularly children, elderly and pregnant women. In 2016, the country experienced El Niño<sup>3</sup>, leading to extensive crop losses and livestock deaths in the south and east of Eswatini. Water levels in dams across the country have declined below minimum needed levels. The government instituted national-scale water rationing. These climatic changes are predicted to persist in threatening food availability to a greater degree than it is currently is<sup>4</sup>. Food prices have been escalating and will continue to rise further in the immediate future. Under these conditions, the poorest people, who already use most of their income on food, will sacrifice additional income and other assets to meet their nutritional requirements, or will resort to poor coping strategies. As a result, food access is greatly compromised. The National Emergency Response Mitigation and Adaptation Plan estimated 300,000 people, or about 25% of the general population, will be in need of food assistance related to the extreme impact of the drought<sup>3</sup>. When food availability is reduced, due to climate changes and price increases, food utilization is compromised by lowering caloric intake, particularly in areas where chronic food insecurity is already a significant problem.

Nutrition is affected through related impacts on food security, dietary diversity, care practices and health.

A number of efforts have been undertaken by Eswatini towards achieving food and nutrition security (FNS). The recent steps include adoption of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). This comes after the endorsement and localization of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in June 2016. Ending Hunger (SDG 2) is a prioritized goal that the country has embarked on in the medium term. The Eswatini Zero Hunger Strategic Review (EZHSR) was carried out as an initial stride towards accomplishing SDG 2: end hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture. The Review analysed the current food and nutrition security situation in the country and identified opportunities to strengthen programs and strategies towards the attainment of zero hunger. The review confirms that the country is food insecure and cannot meet its national dietary requirements for grain or protein sources. In addition, addressing the matter of hunger hinges on poverty, thus there are positive spill over effects on simultaneously achieving SDG 1 and 2<sup>5</sup>.

In addition, Eswatini has developed a national drought mitigation and adaptation plan called the National Emergency Response Mitigation and Adaption Plan (NERMAP) in consultation with diverse stakeholders. The plan is to take- a sustainable approach towards disaster risk reduction detailing urgent response and recommending long-term interventions. The NERMAP prioritises food and water security through increased local maize production and rehabilitation and expansion of water systems to increase access to potable water. It also challenges the nation to adopt sustainable adaptation measures to climate change<sup>3</sup>. Further, Eswatini has conducted a number of surveys to keep informed of the status of FNS in Eswatini. These include the Swaziland Comprehensive Drought, Health, and Nutrition Assessment 2016, Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2014, and the Vulnerability Assessment & Analysis 2019. In spite of these efforts, the country is still experiencing FNIS.

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

Eswatini has a generalized and matured HIV epidemic, meaning the prevalence of HIV among adults' ages 15 years and older in Eswatini is 27.0 percent: 32.5 percent among females and 20.4 percent among males. This corresponds to approximately 200,000 people living with HIV (PLHIV) ages 15 years and older<sup>6</sup>. HIV/AIDS has the potential to impact on the household by

reducing the sources of income and by increasing household expenditure. It also leads to loss of labour for economic activities (including agriculture and other livelihood activities), and loss of productivity due to absenteeism<sup>7</sup>. Consequently, this increases the populations' vulnerability to FNIS. In addition, this situation has, over the years, resulted in the need to develop community structures for social protection of children that are orphaned and vulnerable. The level of stunting in Swaziland among children under the age 5 years stands at over 25.5% while severe stunting is at 7.2%. In the same age group, the prevalence of wasting and overweight was reported to be about 2% and 9% respectively<sup>8</sup>. These are conditions that can be treated with nutritious food beginning with adolescent girls (potential mothers) to ensure full development of a child from the first 1000 days (from conception until 24 months after birth).

Approximately 262,000 people (22% of the analysed population) in Eswatini suffered high levels of acute food insecurity (IPC Phase 3 or above) between June and September 2021 and require urgent humanitarian assistance. Of these, 240,000 people are experiencing Crisis food acute insecurity (IPC Phase 3) and 22,000 Emergency acute food insecurity (IPC Phase 4). In addition to these, 342,000 people (29%) are Stressed (IPC Phase 2)<sup>9</sup>. This indicates a slight deterioration of the situation when compared to 2019/20 when the food insecure population in IPC Phase 3 or above was 205,000. During the lean season (the dangerous period between planting and harvesting when job opportunities are scarce and incomes plummet), it was projected that the number of people anticipated to suffer Crisis or worse acute food insecurity is expected to escalate by an estimated 5% from the present state of 262,000 to approximately 317,000. The probable shock of the COVID-19 pandemic may result in high commodity prices and a reduced agricultural production season<sup>9</sup>. In spite of the many efforts done by Eswatini to achieve food and nutrition security (FNS), such as the ones listed in section 1.1, food and nutrition insecurity (FNIS) still persists. Therefore, this research work seeks to determine the status of the policy framework governing FNS in Eswatini, and the knowledge of the entire sector involved in FNS to solicit factual information, and also to recommend affordable remedies towards improving the country's FNS.

### **1.3 Hypotheses**

A fight to achieve FNS begins with proper development of policies using a multi-stakeholder and right to food approaches. Implementation of the set policies must be well coordinated and be monitored and evaluated to necessitate amendment of policy to capture arising issues like

that of COVID 19 pandemic. Without coordination, monitoring and evaluation of policy, milestones cannot be tracked resulting in haphazard implementation of policy. Hence wastage of scarce resources and policy failure is eminent.

#### **1.4 Research Questions**

- Is there an understanding of the linkages between food security and nutrition security among the relevant stakeholders in Eswatini?
- How is the policy framework of Eswatini toward achieving food and nutrition security?
- To what extent are the policies and strategies implemented in Eswatini?

#### **1.5 Aim and objectives**

##### **1.5.1 Main aim**

To determine the link between food security and nutrition security in the context of Eswatini giving attention to the policies and strategies developed to complement the two concepts without sacrificing one over the other.

##### ***1.5.1.1 Specific objectives***

To assess the understanding of the linkages between food and nutrition security in Eswatini;  
To determine the policy and legislative framework toward achieving food and nutrition security in Eswatini;  
To evaluate the extent at which the policies and strategies are implemented in Eswatini; and  
To suggest recommendations for mending gaps and improvement of service delivery by duty bearers.

#### **1.6 Methodology**

This was a qualitative study to assess the policy framework and the institutional set up for FNS in Eswatini in order to identify existing policy gaps and recommendations. This part of the study involved interviews with twenty key informants who were selected by non-probability expert sampling from among twenty-five institutions with direct or indirect connections to FNS in Eswatini. The researcher communicated in writing to the selected institutions providing a

brief description of the study, highlighting the main goal of the research, and requesting them to identify and give permission to interview a relevant official in their institution who was competent to represent the institution as a key informant in the study. Ultimately, twenty institutions agreed to participate and nominated a key informant. Subsequently, twenty key informants were successfully interviewed. The methodology of this research involved assessment of deep insight into the multi-sectoral approach used to implement food and nutrition security activities from the Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Natural Resources and Energy, Academia, UN Agencies, Civil Society, and Non-Governmental Organizations. The crucial sector policies, and strategic plans, and annual reports were studied to determine the effectiveness in participation to ensure functionality in the coordination of multi-sectoral or inter-sectoral activities. These documents (policies and strategic plans) were located within current governance structures. The effectiveness of multi-sectoral or inter-sectoral was determined through the exploration of annual reports.

### **1.6.1 Data Collection**

Semi-structured questionnaires were developed and administered by the researcher in-face-to-face interviews with key informants. The questionnaires comprised primarily of open-ended questions to give the informants maximum latitude in responding. Each interview took between 45 minutes to an hour to complete. In the process of responding to the questions, the informant was allowed to elaborate while the researcher captured the responses in writing and noted areas that would require further elaboration. Where supporting documents were available, they were provided by the key informant. The contents of these documents formed corroborating data for the data gathered from the key informants.

### **1.6.2 Data analysis**

Content analysis was used to analyse the responses from the key informants<sup>10,11</sup>. The general procedure entailed analysing each interview, and assessing the role and level of involvement of the key informant in the FNS activities. Stakeholder groupings were used to ascertain the institutional category and its mandate in the FNS system. The categories were Government Ministries, Parastatals, United Nations Agencies, Non-governmental Organizations, Civil Society, Coordinating Bodies, and Private Sector. Within this framework, interactions of these agencies with FNS were assessed across stakeholder groups, focusing on the nature of their mandate, programs and activities, target group, location (rural or urban) and policies informing

their programs. From this analysis, key themes were developed and critical relationships were identified<sup>12</sup>.

### **1.7 Ethical Considerations**

In keeping with the requirements of the University of KwaZulu-Natal through which institution this research was conducted, ethical clearance was duly acquired. The research was carried out in compliance with the clearance thus granted.

Informed consent was obtained from each participant by issuing the consent form with the information about the study. The consent form outlined a summary of the role of the participant in the study, and the study procedures and risks. It was made clear to the participants that partaking in the study is completely voluntary and they have the right to withdraw at any point of the study and that had no bearing on their work.

### **1.8 Data Safety**

To ensure data safety, security measures were put in place, including physical and electronic procedures. All electronic devices were password protected and accessible only to research personnel. Paper based material containing institution's credentials were separated from the document with data from the institution. Connection between credentials and data was a code which was given sequentially during interview sessions. These were stored separately in a designated locked cabinet and was shredded once data was uploaded into a password protected computer and external hard drive. The electronic data will be stored for a period not more than 3 years after completion of the study period.

### **1.9 Benefits of the study**

We believe that the study findings will form a reference point for policy makers to develop or review FNS policies, and monitor and evaluate the implementation of the policies in order to perpetually be abreast with current trends of challenges associated with FNS. This will further guide resource allocation and prioritization of intervention strategies aimed at alleviating FNIS in Eswatini.

### **1.10 Data confidentiality**

The researcher has a binding agreement with participating institutions that all data gathered was handled ethically in accordance with corporate principles which include confidentiality and accountability. Therefore, data was presented in a manner that does not disclose the key informants' information and organization's confidential information to avoid victimization and any other possible harm that it may cause.

### **1.11 Dissemination of findings**

The research findings shall be shared to the international audience through publications in international peer reviewed journals. In addition, a summary report will be submitted to the participating institutions.

### **1.12 Thesis Overview**

This thesis meets the requirements of a thesis by manuscript. However, Chapters 2 to 6 (inclusive) are presented as stand-alone papers in journal article format in preparation for submission for publication. They do, however, conform to the overall numbering of headings and subheadings used throughout the thesis as required by thesis by manuscript. Further, due to using this format, each chapter has its own reference list; however, the reference system is consistent across the thesis. Only Chapter 1 is not presented in paper format as its purpose is to provide the overall context for the thesis for examination purposes and is not intended for publication. Finally, given the requirements of publication there is, some unavoidable repetition of information and overlap of themes in some of the chapters.

**Chapter 1:** This is an introductory chapter outlining the background information about the research topic, and the problem statement. It further presents the study hypotheses, research questions, aim and objectives, and the methodology of the study. It also gives an overview of the different chapters of the research thesis.

**Chapter 2:** This is a literature review that discusses interpretations and applications of the two concepts, food security and nutrition security. In the interpretation, the key dimensions of FNS are presented to ensure accurate applicability of the concepts without omitting any aspect even

during time of emergencies. In addition, a theoretical framework to achieving FNS is presented in this section. The manuscript was accepted and published <https://doi.org/10.1177/0379572120925341> on the 17 November 2020. Proof of publication of this chapter can be found in appendix 6. However, to keep it consistent with the requirements of a thesis by manuscript, the paper is not presented in the thesis in its final publication format.

**Chapter 3:** This chapter presents the role of multi-stakeholder engagement in FNS response. It highlights the primary mandate of government in FNS, which is to facilitate the development and implementation of policy through engagement with multi-stakeholders using a right to food approach. A theoretical framework of multi-stakeholder engagement and right to food approaches to FNS is also presented in this section of the study.

**Chapter 4:** Policy analysis theory in the context of FNS is presented in this chapter. This chapter starts by defining policy and the general stages of policy development. It also defines policy analysis processes in the context of food and nutrition security (FNS). The main purpose of this paper is to raise awareness on the importance of policy in alleviating food and nutrition insecurity (FNIS) and also to emphasize on how imperative policy analysis is in ensuring the continuous alignment of existing and proposed policies to the need of the people. A theoretical framework detailing the policy development and analysis to attain FNS is also presented in this chapter.

**Chapter 5:** This chapter presents detailed results and findings including a brief literature review on FNS, a statement of the research design and methodology, and the findings which are organized around the institutions, policies, and the FNS programs pursued by the institutions. This is followed by a consolidation of the challenges to and recommendations for FNS in Eswatini as raised by the respondents, key informants. The paper ends with an initial discussion to highlight key issues related to the policy and institutional frameworks governing FNS in Eswatini.

**Chapter 6:** This chapter presents a summary of the findings and contributions of the investigation into the status of Food and Nutrition Security (FNS) in Eswatini. This involves detailed categorization of the existing policies in terms of whether they address the pillars of FNS in full or in part, and also examine whether they contribute to FNS directly or indirectly. In addition, the discussions of the findings and conclusions detailing lessons learnt from this

research are also presented in this section. Finally, recommendations, strengths and weaknesses, and the areas of future research are also covered in this chapter.

**Chapter 7:** This chapter summarizes the research work. It presents the research questions and key informants responses to see if the research was able to answer the questions we had at the beginning of the study. Over and above, it gives spill-over findings that were not necessarily intended for at the beginning of the study, but worth noting as they provide impactful information to the FNS cadre.

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## CHAPTER 2

### FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY THEORY

#### Overview

This chapter introduces the two concepts: food security and nutrition security which are misunderstood by many policy makers and implementers. Often, nutrition security is omitted in implementation of food and nutrition security policy. The main focus is usually on production of food grains rich in carbohydrates (maize & rice) and proteins (legumes) without necessarily addressing the nutritional value of the food being produced. Moreover, the ability to access the food, the acceptability of the available food, and the health of the individual, the utilization of nutrients by the body, are key thematic areas that are usually neglected during the fight against food and nutrition insecurity. No matter how nutritious food maybe, if it is not sustainable, then there is no food and nutrition security. The chapter attempts to highlight these thematic areas to raise an awareness of the need to critically examine food and nutrition security policies. This chapter have been prepared into a manuscript was accepted and published on 17 November 2020 by Food and Nutrition Bulletin. [<https://doi.org/10.1177/0379572120925341>]

#### Abstract

Food and nutrition insecurity continue to affect societies globally even in years of bounty harvest. This confirms that availability of food does not automatically translate to food and nutrition security. Even when food is available it may not be accessible to everyone who needs it, and sometimes available and accessible food may not provide essential nutrients for the body to grow and develop. Sometimes, food is plenty and accessible but not acceptable or sustainable. All such instances constitute potential food and nutrition insecurity. This review found that it is imperative to consider carefully the two concepts, food security and nutrition security, to ensure that food policies, in design and implementation, adequately and coherently address both concepts without sacrificing one in favor of the other.

Key words: *food security, nutrition security, availability, accessibility, utilization, sustainability.*

## **2.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this paper is to explore the importance of integrating in practice food security and nutrition security without sacrificing one concept over the other. To lay a base, a definition of food and nutrition security (FNS) is presented. It paints a clear picture of the factors to be considered when dealing with FNS issues. Specifically, four dimensions (categorical, socio-economical, managerial and situational) of FNS are presented to provide context for understanding FNS theories. Much attention will be given on the key factors to be considered during assessment, program development, policy formulation, and provision of food and nutrition support. The whole purpose of this is to unearth the tools required to implement strategies that focus on identifying, categorizing, and prioritizing responses to food and nutrition insecurity and further develop sustainability programs. In addition to unearthing tools required, this paper also seeks to explore the engagement of key stakeholders from grassroots level to policy makers, and from household to regional level, based on the knowledge and understanding acquired from the dimensions of FNS.

## **2.2 Food and Nutrition Security**

FNS can only be achieved when all people have, when needed, physical, social and economic access to adequate, safe (free of contaminants) and nutritious food to satisfy their dietary needs and choices for an active and healthy life. To establish a comprehensive definition of food security, first requires a definition of food: a substance one eats and/or drinks to support life and body development<sup>1</sup>. Thus, for this paper, food excludes water (even though it is essential to life) and commodities such as alcohol and medicines. Secondly, it is useful to consider the dimensions of FNS, of which, conceptually, according to<sup>2</sup>, there are four:

- Categorical;
- Socio-organizational;
- Managerial; and
- Situation-related.

### **2.2.1 Categorical dimension**

The categorical dimension of food security most commonly has four pillars: availability; access; utilization; and stability<sup>1,3</sup>. To achieve FNS, each of these four pillars must be satisfied at all times without neglecting one in favor of the others. Thus, it is essential to explore each pillar.

Each pillar can and should be viewed from at least three perspectives: individual, household, and national/regional food security<sup>2</sup>. These are vital distinctions because it is entirely possible (as is often the norm) for a nation or region to be considered ‘food secure’ while simultaneously households and individuals within that nation or region experience food insecurity. Conversely, it is also possible for individuals and households to be food secure when a nation or region is not, as is often the case with highly inequitable economies.

Each of these pillars (in particular the first three) are functions of the physical environment, social environment and policy environment. They directly influence FNS, particularly at the household level<sup>4</sup>. Factors such as extreme weather (e.g. floods and droughts), inadequate roads and transport, social conflict and ineffectual government policy may limit the ability to produce, distribute and/or access food and the stability thereof. Such vagaries affect not only current production and availability, but often lead to the loss of productive assets such as land, livestock, equipment and infrastructure, affecting individual households, regions, and even whole nations. This loss of productive capacity is not always easily regained, and usually requires a considerable amount of time to recover, potentially creating long-term challenges to achieving FNS.

#### **2.2.1.1 Food Availability**

[ENREF 23](#)Riely and others<sup>5</sup>, define food availability [ENREF 23](#)as the physical existence of (potentially obtainable) food, either from own farm produce or purchased from off-farm (e.g. from markets). It is evident from this definition that, particularly in the case of own production, land and the other means of production such as funds, work force, knowledge and skills are important components of availability and, therefore, of food security. Food availability at national level is a combination of commercial production, household production, food imports, international donations, and domestic food stocks. Most commonly, food availability refers to food at household or regional levels. It is rarely considered at individual level. Food availability at these latter three levels is part of, and is influenced by, the national availability of food. However, as noted earlier, it is possible for a household to be food and nutrition secure when a region or nation is not. Thus, determining food availability is complex, and it is often difficult to distinguish between household and national or regional food availability. Of course, availability of food on its own does not translate to FNS because it represents only potentially accessible food in a society. Determining that food is available does not necessarily confirm

whether individual households or individuals within households can actually access, use, and utilize the food.

#### ***2.2.1.2 Food accessibility***

Accessibility is a state of households and individuals within households having sufficient means and/or resources to obtain the food required for a nutritiously complete diet – in this instance the food is taken to be available<sup>4</sup>. Access to food has two fundamental aspects ‘physical accessibility’ and ‘financial accessibility’. Accessibility is determined by availability of resources such as capital (to pay for the food), human mobility (to physically obtain the food), and knowledge (to enable decisions about accessing the food). This suggests that adequate access to food cannot only be determined by households being able to produce food, but also having the ability to get to and purchase food from the market. Thus, even when a household is able to produce food, its ability to generate income is pivotal to achieve food and nutrition accessibility. Simply put, food accessibility ensures people are able to acquire food, both physically and economically, through various means which include growing, purchasing, gifts, food aid, and bartering or trading<sup>6</sup>.

#### ***2.2.1.3 Food utilization***

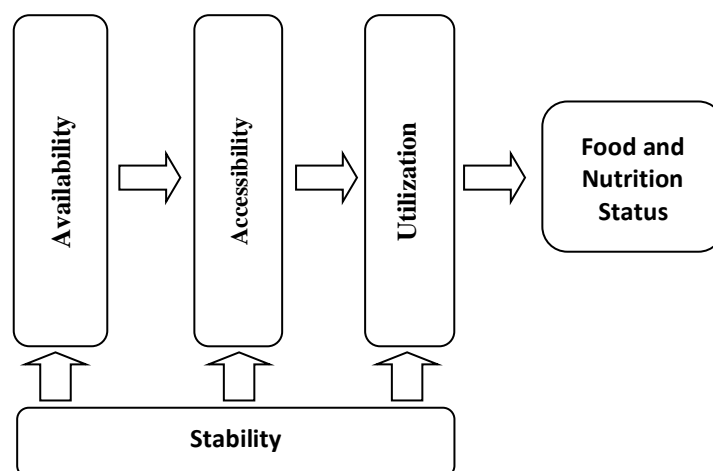
Food utilization is defined as the ability of a person’s body to assimilate nutrients in consumed food. Optimum calorie and nutrient consumption by a person is an outcome of good care and dietary habits, food preparation, variety of the diet and intra-household distribution of food. Combined with good biological utilization of food consumed, all of these factors determine the nutritional status of individuals<sup>7</sup>. Another element of utilization is the socio-economic aspects of food including knowledge, habits, and decision-making (which are greatly affected by culture and education levels) regarding what food to buy, the methods of preparation and, of particular importance, about who in the household consumes what food and when– with an eye on fair distribution<sup>8</sup>.

#### ***2.2.1.4 Stability/sustainability***

Stability/sustainability refers to the timeframe over which FNS is being considered<sup>4</sup>. There is always a prevailing possibility, that at any time, food security could be lost or gained<sup>9</sup>. This suggests that, even if one’s food consumption is optimum today, one may still be food and/or nutrition insecure if access to the correct food cannot be sustained as long as it is needed.

Specifically, intermittent access to (correct) food is associated with compromised nutritional status. Therefore, to sustain FNS, stresses and shocks like climatic conditions, conflicts borne of unstable political environment, and economic attributes (e.g. unemployment, rising food prices) need to be managed as they may have an impact (directly or indirectly) on FNS status<sup>7</sup>. Hence, the need to put in place means to stabilize all the factors that impact on ensuring the stability of FNS.

As shown in Figure 2.1, the ultimate aim of food security is nutrition security. It also highlights the consequential relationship among the three pillars – availability, accessibility, and utilization. Utilization is possible only if food is accessible, which is possible only if food is available. Stability of each of the three pillars is critical. To achieve nutrition security, availability of the correct food must be stable, access to that food must be stable, and utilization of that food must be stable. The stability of food availability is self-evident. The stability of access implies that the physical and monetary means to access food is stable. And the stability of utilization suggests, at the very least, stability of the health of the body to assimilate the required nutrition and the consistency of preparation of food to ensure it consistently delivers the required nutrition. Further, the complex nature of stability of each of the three pillars, and the dynamic relationship among the four pillars, suggest that FNS is not the responsibility of just one entity or agency, but requires coordination and collaborative efforts from various stakeholders and role-players in the whole food system to ensure FNS at all levels.



**Figure 2.1: The Relationship among the categorical elements of framework of food and nutrition security<sup>4</sup>**

### 2.2.2 Socio-organizational dimension

The elements of the socio-organizational dimension of FNS are macro-, meso- and micro-perspectives which can, respectively be defined<sup>4</sup> as follows:

- Macro: Encompasses world, regional, and national food and nutrition status;
- Meso: Focuses on community (province/city; district/town; village) food and nutrition status; and
- Micro: Centers on the household/family and individual food and nutrition status.

As shown in Table , the categorical elements of FNS are applicable to all the levels of the socio-organizational dimensions. However, the significance of each element varies with each level. For example, instruments to assess FNS at different social levels vary.

**Table 2.1: Example of varying instruments to assess food and nutrition security situation at different social levels<sup>2</sup>.**

Social Level	Availability	Accessibility	Utilization	Stability
<b>Macro</b>	Precipitation Record, Food Balance Sheet	Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping (VAM)	Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS)	Global Information Early Warning System (GIEWS)
<b>Meso</b>	Food Market Survey	Food Focus Group Discussion	District Health Survey	Anthropometric Survey in Children
<b>Micro</b>	Agricultural Production Plan	Intra-household Food Frequency Questionnaire	Immunization Chart	Weighing Chart of Pregnant Women

At the macro-level, food availability (at least in terms of coarse grains) can be determined through the amount of rain recorded to predict yield. Food balance sheets can also provide data on food availability at national level. The Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping (VAM) intervention helps analyze the vulnerability to food insecurity of target populations which speaks to the accessibility and relates to food availability. The common survey periodically done in countries, Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), provides health data for national policy formulation which informs utilization. The Global Information Early Warning System (GIEWS), developed by FAO, gathers information relevant to short-term food insecurity which corresponds to the stability pillar.

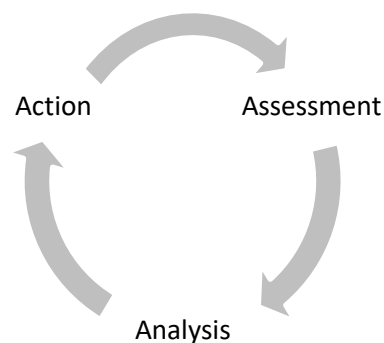
At the meso level, food market surveys give information on the availability of food. Surveys like food focus group discussions provide data on accessibility of food, especially for

populations at risk of malnutrition. Health outcomes that reflect food utilization can be traced through District health surveys.

At micro-level, several instruments exist. Agricultural production plans, intra-household food frequency questionnaires and interviews, immunization surveys, and anthropometric measurements of pregnant women and children under five can be used to assess the availability, accessibility, and utilization of food and its stability<sup>2</sup>.

### 2.2.3 Managerial dimension

The third dimension of FNS is the managerial dimension. [ENREF 20](#) Alshuniaber<sup>10</sup>, argues that “food security governance is a complex issue”. He suggests that understanding food security frameworks facilitates planning and managing food security systems. Concerns were raised by Tibbo, Drimie<sup>11</sup> [ENREF 28](#) that many development initiatives fail to have real impact because the management of programs focuses on what the programs “look like, not what they do”. Both authors promote employing iterative, reflexive management systems to provide mechanisms for managing processes, programs and initiatives, in this instance, related to FNS. Figure 2.2 presents a project management cycle with key elements of a project cycle (assessment, analysis and action)<sup>12</sup> [ENREF 32](#), embracing the underpinning elements of planning, intervention, monitoring and evaluation or reassessment.



**Figure 2.2: Concept of 'Triple A' or Project Cycle Management (PCM)<sup>12</sup>**

The concept of the ‘triple A’ project management cycle illustrates the fundamental process that can be followed to address problems such as FNS and possible remedies to be identified through what is essentially a reflexive process<sup>12</sup>. When this process is followed, it helps make available necessary information to identify critical root causes of food and nutrition insecurity through a comprehensive and systematic analysis that involves all stakeholders. This leads to identifying

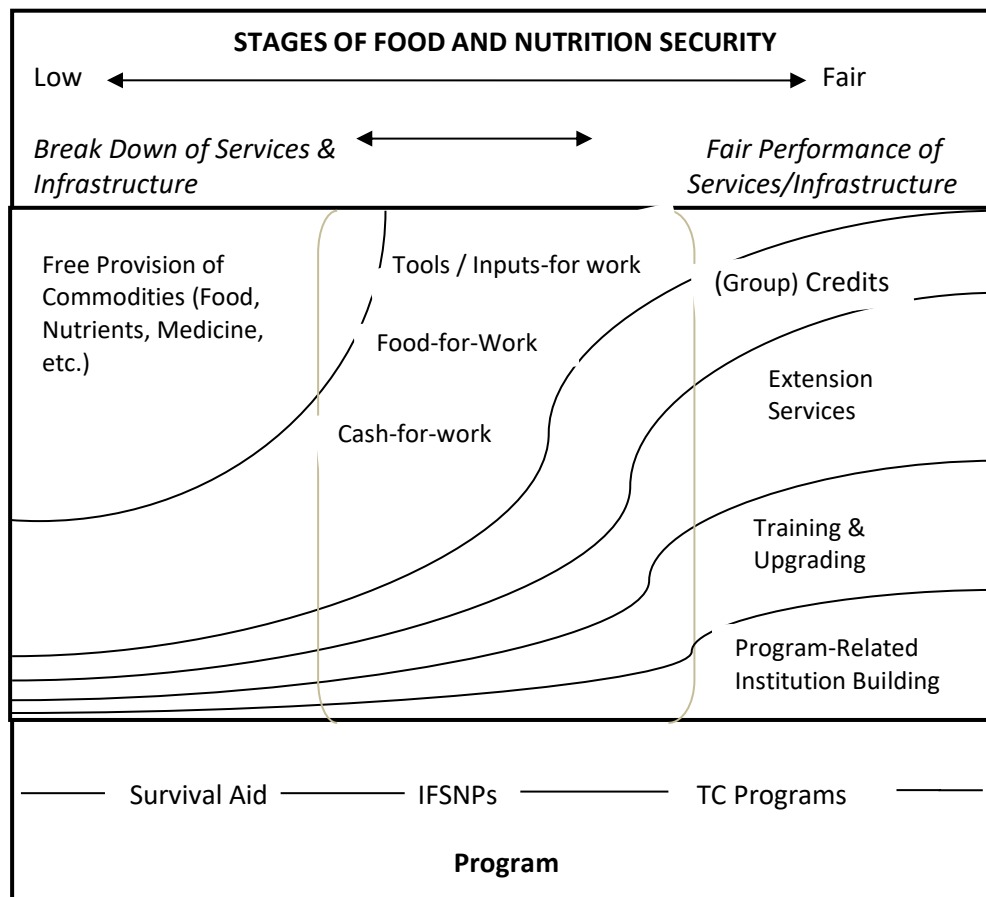
and implementing interventions which, in turn, will be subject to scrutiny and assessment – renewing the cycle. Following the process will make actions and interventions more efficient, effective and sustainable and also acceptable to all stakeholders, in particular the affected population targeted by the intervention<sup>2</sup>. In other words, the managerial dimension highlights the necessity of fact-finding and analysis before implementation to minimize errors, unintended consequences and lack of ownership by those most affected by the initiative(s). It encourages a balanced approach embracing bottom-up and top-down approaches to project design and implementation. As posited by Bellamy<sup>12</sup>, ‘the ‘triple A’ cycle of Assessing a problem, Analysing its causes and taking Action based on this analysis can be used at all levels of society to create processes whereby people's right to good nutrition is fulfilled”.

#### **2.2.4 Situation-related dimension**

The fourth dimension of FNS is the situation-related status of a program. The situation – its underlying causes and short- and long-term impacts – influences the response. Figure captures three key stages of FNS: Survival Aid; Integrated Food and Nutrition Security Programs; and Technical Cooperation Programs<sup>2</sup>. This scale is similar to the four generations of development identified by United Nations (UN)<sup>13</sup> [ENREF 20](#), addressing relief, community development, sustainable systems development and people’s movements. Both frameworks speak to a continuum of response in action influenced by the situation – dealing first with the immediate crisis (if there is one) and moving toward more enduring and sustainable responses that address core causes – ultimately focusing on developing human capacity.

Figure specifically outlines the trajectory of action for FNS programs. When the food insecurity situation is critical (e.g., no food is available), emergency response is required to rescue the affected lives. Relief programs are necessary in such situations to alleviate an immediate threat – in this instance providing food relief. Services are normally provided very quickly as and when they are needed, and, thus, require flexibility on the part of the service providers. Once lives have been rescued, sustainable development measures can then be established among the affected population, in this instance, Integrated Food and Nutrition Security Programs (IFNSPs), which include self-help measures such as cash-for-work, food-for-work, tools and inputs-for-work. The outputs of IFNSPs include basic infrastructure such as drinking water, toilets, irrigation systems, reforestation, health posts, and waste management. The third stage is the Technical Cooperation (TC), which involves a range of activities implemented gradually and gaining intensity – including credit programs, extension services, training, and institution-

building. All of these target building sustainability and resilience to reinforce FNS and the human and institutional capacity that support it.



**Figure 2.3: Importance of Implementation Tools at Meso Level in Different Stages of Food and Nutrition Security<sup>2</sup>**

### 2.3 Nutrition Security

Dating from the early 1970s, food security was conceptualized primarily as sufficiency of food on a global scale. The 1974 World Food Conference defined food security as the “availability at all times of adequate world food supplies of basic foodstuffs to sustain a steady expansion of food consumption and to offset fluctuations in production and prices”<sup>12</sup>. It was not until the 1990s that the concept of nutrition security was included in the definition. Despite the passage of more than two decades, nutrition is not implicit in discussions, policy, or practice of food security. Thus, current nomenclature uses the term ‘food and nutrition security’. This helps ensure that nutrition is not lost in theory, policy, or practice. Nutrition security is defined<sup>14</sup> as a state when a person has a nutritionally adequate diet, the food consumed is ‘bio-available’ for the body to perform adequately in maintaining various physiological processes including

growth, resisting or recovering from disease, pregnancy, breastfeeding and physical activities. Additionally, Wall<sup>15</sup> posits that nutrition security encompasses physical, economic, and social access to a balanced diet, safe drinking water, environmental hygiene, primary health care and primary education. As seen, nutrition security involves both food and non-food attributes. Hence, while water, for example, may not be considered food in the definition of food security, it is a vital part of nutrition security. Further, these definitions suggest that nutrition (and food) security are, in part, dependent on health services, healthy environment and care practices<sup>16</sup>, and that nutrition security can only be realized when there is secure access to an appropriately nutritious diet in a healthy environment (including clean water and sanitation, and no pollution) together with adequate healthcare services for all members of the household. Thus, the difference between nutrition security and food security is that nutrition security demands access to essential nutrients, not just calories as is most often the case when food security is considered.

A review by Hwalla, Labban, Bahn<sup>17</sup> [ENREF 17](#) argued that nutrition is an integral component of food security and should be embedded within all four of its dimensions - availability, access, utilization and stability. The review highlighted that the availability, accessibility, utilization, and stability of both macro- and micro-nutrients should be incorporated into all four dimensions of food security as applied to analysis, policy, and programming. Thus, it can be argued that if one is not nutritionally secure, one is not food secure.

With regard to food availability, improvement of the quality and quantity of nutrients within foods can be made to achieve nutrition security. For instance, staple foods can be fortified with beta-carotene to improve its nutritional composition to alleviate a vitamin A deficiency in a population. Government policies can be structured to support such fortification programs Hwalla, Labban, Bahn<sup>17</sup> and other processes that support the improvement of the nutritional value of food.

#### **2.4 Importance of nutrition security in food security**

Nutrition security and food security are interconnected and must be dealt with simultaneously<sup>18</sup>. Diet quality is an important factor of the FNS of a society. It is determined by food availability, access, utilization, and affordability at national, household, and individual level, and by the nutritional quality of the available and accessible food. Within this dual context, it is understood that poor diet quality is often linked with compromised socio-economic status<sup>19</sup>. Further, food price increases (which affect accessibility) lead to diets lower in micronutrients<sup>20</sup>. Hence, it can

be argued that income, socio-economic status, and food prices significantly influence FNS, and should, thus, be taken into account when considering food and nutrition security and insecurity.

In the quest to improve their economies through agriculture, governments often promote cash crop (as opposed to food crop) farming. However, under-nutrition is significantly greater in regions that primarily produce cash crops<sup>21</sup>. Lack of nutrition leads to decreased productivity levels among adults and poor performance of scholars. Further, under-nutrition often passes from one generation to another. When under-nutrition is not dealt with, children will grow into malnourished adults and their children will experience similar problems. This affects not only families, but also the overall local economy<sup>21</sup>. In 2016, 155million children were reported stunted, which implies that these children will fail to achieve their genetic potential and will not realize their full developmental ability, and will suffer, among other things, cognitive deficits and diminished economic opportunities<sup>22</sup>. Specifically, Skoufias<sup>22</sup> highlighted that stunting happens early in a child's life– within the first 1000 days (between conception and 24 months of age) – causing permanent damage to brain development. This has educational, income, and productivity implications throughout the life of the individual – from childhood through to senior adulthood.

The human cost of under-nutrition is devastating, impacting negatively and significantly on the most vulnerable in the developing world. Under-nutrition in developing countries causes populations to suffer from deficiencies of one or more micronutrients, and, in addition to retarded and limited development, can also lead to child deaths<sup>23</sup>. Malnutrition is the main contributor to child morbidity and mortality worldwide<sup>24</sup>.

Another substantial nutrition-related concern is the concurrent burden of obesity among adults and children, and stunting among children, occurring in developing countries. This occurs mainly among those of low-income and middle income status<sup>22</sup>. It is unfortunate that the poor are the ones suffer the most by this double burden which predisposes them to health risks and economic shocks.

## **2.5 Analysis of Food and Nutrition Security**

Analysis of FNS is pivotal when addressing food security issues. Before developing food security policies or programs, it is essential to analyze the current FNS situation of the population. This analysis helps to understand clearly the circumstances of people who are food

and/or nutrition insecure and vulnerable in terms of quantities, quality, location, and possible reasons for being insecure. Thorough understanding facilitates developing appropriate interventions. Commonly used approaches for analysis are vulnerability approach and sustainable livelihood approach<sup>25</sup>.

### **2.5.1 Vulnerability approach**

Vulnerability is one of the measures of the stability pillars in food security. The greater the vulnerability, the less the stability of FNS. Vulnerability can be viewed in three aspects: an outcome of an event; a product of a threat of damage, injury, liability, or loss; and an outcome of the failure to ameliorate these threats<sup>1</sup>. Vulnerability is a function of exposure to risks and shocks and the resilience against their impact. In this context, risks and shocks are trends and events that threaten households' food access, availability and utilization and, hence, their food security status Lovendal, Knowles<sup>26</sup> by making them susceptible to become or remain below the pre-set minimum FNS line. The line could be caloric-based, nutrition-based or may include other basic needs that impact indirectly on FNS<sup>27</sup>. This paper would argue that the line must address food and nutrition – not only one element.

Another aspect of vulnerability to food and nutrition insecurity is that insecurity may not be experienced at the moment but could be a challenge in the future. It is, therefore, important to have two kinds of responses: one to alleviate the risk; and the other to improve resilience against potential food and nutrition insecurity<sup>1</sup>. A person can be vulnerable to food and nutrition insecurity even if having a surplus of nutritious food at a particular moment. The FAO<sup>7</sup> suggested a vulnerability analysis that aligns with<sup>1</sup>, and argues that there are two major responses to vulnerability to food and nutrition insecurity: addressing the current risk exposure to insecurity; and fortifying the capacity to withstand and manage the risk. Food security policies and programs must be broadened to cover both current and future challenges to FNS so as to accurately account for vulnerability<sup>7</sup>. Fortifying the capacity to manage risk aims at creating resilience which is a function of risk management strategies (mitigate, transfer and cope) and the availability of necessary resources<sup>26</sup>.

Vulnerability correlates with the unpredictability of events, which, again, is an aspect of stability. As a result, all people are potentially at risk to food insecurity, but the risk is

disproportionately greater among some sectors of the population. For an example, people living in an area where households are poor and depend primarily on their farm produce for food or to earn a living, are much more vulnerable to food insecurity in the event of a natural disaster that destroys crop fields, than those who have other sources of food and income. Essentially, the less diversified the livelihood strategies of farming households and the more dependent they are on the crop for survival, the greater their vulnerability<sup>28</sup>.

Vulnerability can be potential or chronic, and it can be created by a range of factors including climate change (and other natural ‘disasters’), as well as social, political and economic factors<sup>29</sup>. The vulnerability of families (individuals, regions and countries) that have generally been able to sustain themselves through their own production (e.g., for food or income) experience potential vulnerability created by the many risks associated with production, such as weather and price risk. The probability of the realization of these risks varies according to many factors, including historical trends. Chronic vulnerability is self-evident; it refers to situations where families have experienced, continue to experience and are likely to continue experiencing vulnerability to food insecurity. This is often the result of structural problems and/or of altered climate that perpetuates their vulnerability. Understanding food security vulnerability is critical and, in many aspects, supersedes the narrower focus on food availability to a “broader understanding of risk, including the role of access and entitlements in food insecurity”<sup>11</sup>.

There is need to pay attention to risk factors that seem to threaten food security at any point in time as they increase the probability of vulnerability. For instance, at the household level, a main risk factor is health that can present in the form of illness, disability, and/or injuries. Another risk factor can be life cycle-related (old age, death). Social related risk factors include those which can arise due to inequitable food distribution among households in a society or among household members within individual households. Economic related risk factors may manifest due to unemployment, and harvest failure<sup>26</sup>. These risk factors exacerbate food and nutrition insecurity by decreasing food production (availability), diminishing income and other assets (access), escalating debt (stability) and decreasing recommended consumption of macro- and micro-nutrients (utilization) as a consequence of the other risk factors materializing.

One of the main merits of the vulnerability approach in analyzing food insecurity is that it is dynamic and progressive in that it focuses not only on the immediate outcome, but also scans

for possible future incidents. In this way, the approach is applied *ex ante* (based on forecasts rather than actual results)<sup>30</sup> rather than *ex post* (based on events that have occurred)<sup>31</sup>. The second advantage is that the vulnerability approach is cast in a stochastic (randomly determined) framework and can, therefore, fully consider the uncertainties associated with future FNS, such as the role of external shocks and the strategies that households, communities and institutions can adopt in order to minimize the likelihood of negative outcomes<sup>32</sup>.

### **2.5.2 Sustainable Livelihoods Approach**

The sustainable livelihoods approach was developed to understand the context in which households pursue livelihoods and food needs. It examines the assets available to develop livelihood strategies and investigates the influence of macro-level policy and institutions on assets and strategies. Livelihoods comprise the capabilities, material and social assets and activities required for a means of living<sup>33</sup>. A livelihood is sustainable when an individual or household can adapt to threats such as negative natural or economic trends and crises, and can maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets without compromising the livelihoods of others<sup>34</sup>.

A livelihoods approach focuses on people and tries to analyze the diversity of (poor) people's livelihoods in totality giving particular attention to the inter-relationship between community-level activities, broader policy, and institutional frameworks. 'Sustainability' covers economic, environmental, institutional, and social parameters. Thus, adopting a livelihoods approach requires focusing on the people's way of life and factors influencing their ways of living and dynamic lifestyle patterns. The approach efficiently exposes gaps and possible points of action<sup>35</sup>.

One of the most basic livelihood activities is food production which can be a main source of food availability and access, especially for rural households. Also important is the capacity of households to buy food in the market which is a determinant of food access; purchasing capacity rests mainly on the household's means to generate income.

FNS is supported by livelihoods in a way that households get access to resources and assets in their dwellings in order to satisfy their needs. Livelihood analysis of households and individuals starts with investigating the five livelihood assets—physical, financial, natural, social and human

capital– present in the assessed area. Then identifying the range of livelihood strategies into which people translate assets follows. Therefore, a successful livelihood strategy is seen in the outcome of achieved FNS<sup>36</sup>. In brief, FNS is a fundamental goal of all livelihood strategies. In addition, the focus of FNS and livelihood approaches is on the household FNS elements of the underlying agencies of malnutrition, examining the availability, quality and use components related to household FNS. The vulnerability aspect is incorporated into livelihood assets and strategies and also into FNS<sup>36</sup>. The integration of the three concepts results in a conceptual overlap; hence they should be treated inseparably during a FNS analysis.

## **2.6 The overall conceptual framework for food and nutrition security**

As the discussion thus far suggests, measuring FNS is complex. It is difficult, if not impossible, to observe FNS outcomes directly<sup>37</sup> “Food security indicators for food-supported maternal and child health programs, for example, might be quite different from those which are appropriate for food-for-work programs. Similarly, food security indicators that are appropriate in the humid tropics of Latin America may have little validity in the semi-arid areas of Sub-Saharan Africa. And, finally, indicators that are useful for on-going program monitoring purposes may not be appropriate in the context of an impact evaluation.” Thus, one of the great challenges of measuring, monitoring and intervening in FNS is establishing a common framework of indicators to capture both the dynamics of FNS and the multiple contextual variations in which FNS must be addressed<sup>37</sup>.

Figure 2.4 presents the Food Insecurity and Vulnerability Information and Mapping Systems (FIVIMS) framework<sup>35</sup>. It addresses food insecurity and vulnerability across three fronts: Collective (including National, Sub-national and Community-levels); Households; and Individuals. Some of the key elements of the framework are discussed below.

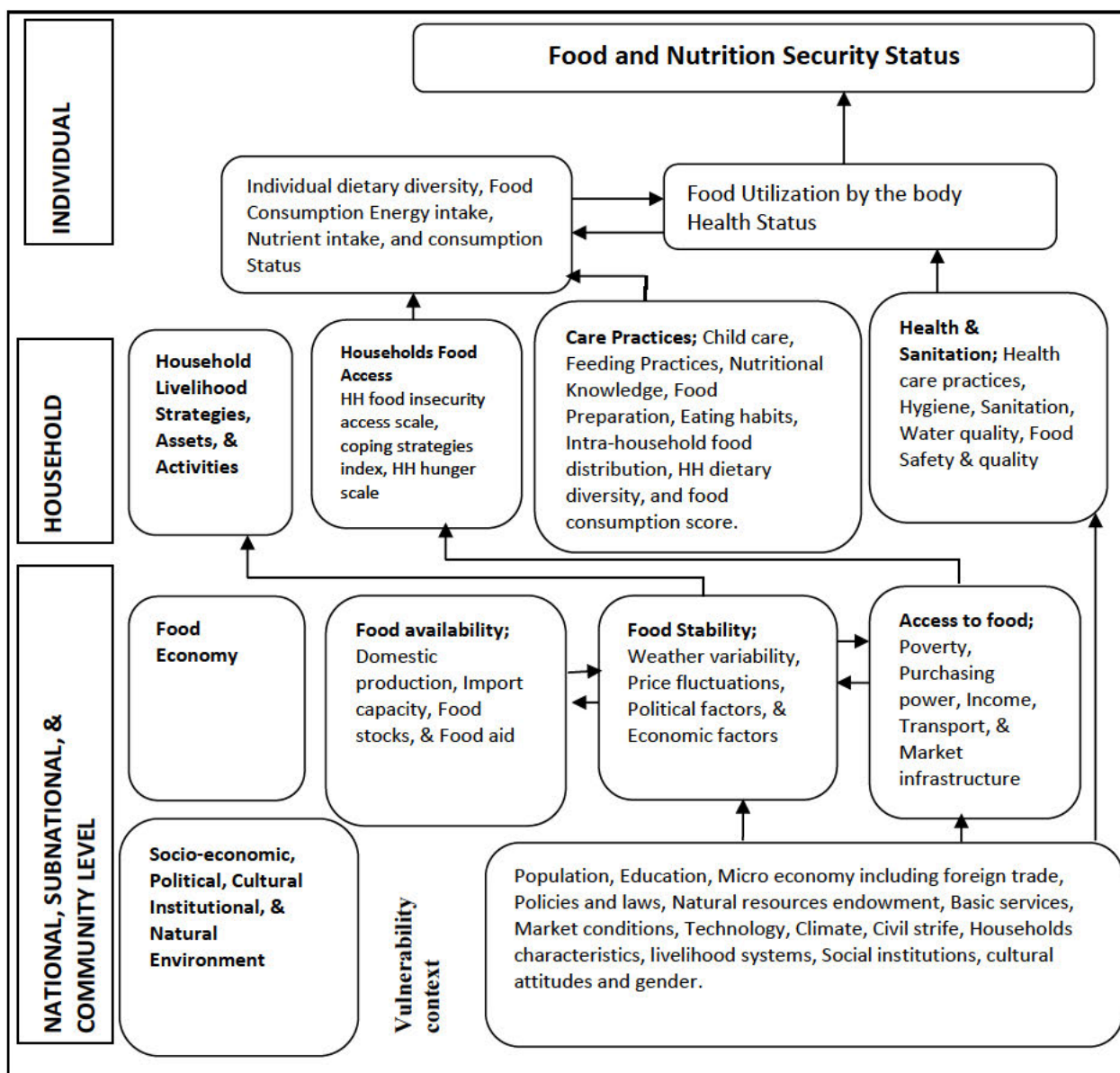


Figure 2.4: FAO-FIVIMS Framework<sup>35</sup>

- **Socio-economic, political, institutional, cultural and natural environment issues**

This part of the diagram (residing under national, sub national& community level) depicts the underlying factors in the food economy that affect the FNS availability, access, and stability pillars. These include population, the macro-economy, technology, climate, livelihood systems and market conditions. These factors also have direct and indirect impacts on household-level activities and processes including livelihoods, food access, care practices, and health and sanitation. Together these elements create the overall “vulnerability context” of households.

- **Food consumption and utilization at the individual level**

Ultimately, as seen in Figure 2.4, food security is essentially a matter of the nutritional status of individuals. The mapping highlights the fact all of these processes affect the nutritional status of individuals by affecting food consumption and utilization of food by the body. Specifically, individual nutrition security is affected by food access and care practices at household level. Because an individual's food consumption is reliant on access to food at household and higher levels, it is, in effect, determined by poverty/income, buying power, transfers of income, market infrastructure and quality of transport. The care practices that affect consumption encompass allocation of food within households, cultural beliefs and practices, and understanding of nutrition and food preparation. Specifically, the health status of an individual determines the efficiency and effectiveness of the body to utilize (assimilate) food; and health status is dependent on the overall health and sanitation conditions. As the diagram depicts, these conditions are directly influenced by the vulnerability context prevailing at the collective levels. It is thus argued that, even where appropriate foods are stably available and accessible, if the body (particularly because of external factors in society and the environment) is limited or compromised in its ability to utilize the food, then the individual cannot be food secure.

The FIVIMS framework clearly shows the linkages and interactions of key factors contributing to an individual's nutritional status. And while food security is often reviewed from grander perspectives, in the end, food security is about the nutritional status of each individual in a societal setting. Thus, exploring the challenges of food security must embrace – in addition to the well-established four pillars – the factors affecting, directly and indirectly the nutritional status of individuals.

## **2.7 Conclusion**

A filled stomach is not enough. The food a person eats should be complete; safe, balanced (containing all required nutrients), and available and accessible for as long as it is needed. FNS is possible only when the four pillars, (availability, accessibility, usability, and sustainability) are in place. Thus, a person is considered food and nutrition secure only when the food consumed is nutritionally adequate and assimilated by the body to nourish itself for development, growth, resist diseases, and meet ordinary physiological demands of work and life. Understanding the different dimensions and approaches to FNS, helps enable the provision of efficient and effective food and nutrition support. This understanding also draws attention to

the fact that not only do many players form part of the FNS network, but they must also work coherently in collaboration.

Where FNS is achieved, sustainable livelihood in households thrives, health improves, education improves, and the economy thrives. But the reverse is also true. Where livelihoods thrive, FNS is possible and sustainable. When livelihoods are vulnerable, household FNS is also vulnerable. Thus, FNS analysis must always give priority in assessing vulnerability in the context of sustainable livelihood in order to identify and classify populations at risk, to estimate the extent of vulnerability and to determine kind of response be it relief, community development, sustainable systems development or broad “people’s movements” – making sure to address the root of the vulnerability and not simply the symptom of immediate hunger or shortages.

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## CHAPTER 3

# ROLE OF MULTI-STAKEHOLDER ENGAGEMENT IN FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY

### Overview

This chapter presents the role of multi-stakeholder engagement in FNS response. It highlights the primary mandate of government in FNS, which is to facilitate the development and implementation of policy through engagement with multi-stakeholders using a right to food approach. A theoretical framework of multi-stakeholder engagement and right to food approaches to FNS is also presented in this section of the study.

### Abstract

Central governments have a mandate to ensure that food and nutrition security (FNS) is achieved through the setting and implementing of relevant laws and policies. The entire process should be carried out using the human rights approach and multi-stakeholder engagement and coordination. Stakeholders should be involved at an early stage of policy development to unearth critical public concerns which necessitate the policy. The stakeholders contribute diversely to ensure the realization of humans' right to FNS. However, stakeholders' roles are often not clear or well understood and thus require exploration. This paper explores the roles and responsibilities of various stakeholders in realization of FNS. It has been found that employing a multi-stakeholder process operating in a rights-based context makes the implementation of policies more affordable, and achieves a sustainable FNS.

**Keywords:** *food security, nutrition security, human right approach, multi-stakeholder engagement, policy.*

### **3.1 Introduction**

Food and nutrition security (FNS) continues to be a challenge in many nations in both developing and developed countries, even in seasons of bounty harvest. To make matters worse, climate change exacerbates the already dire situation. As the impact of climate change increases, food and nutrition insecurity (FNIS) increases, affecting the health of the most vulnerable - mainly women and children. Adaptation strategies must focus on the right to food and health<sup>1</sup>; preserving the well-being of the vulnerable and affected populations by embracing a human rights-based approach to FNS. This approach will enable alignment of the adaptation strategies to international (legal) frameworks thus providing sure a foundation to deal with FNIS. FNS is a fundamental human right and is integral to a person's dignity. However, people's capacity to access food is determined by organizational and social systems. Thus, it is not surprising that the impact of FNIS is evident in almost every facet of society<sup>2</sup>. Hence, it has attracted attention from numerous and varied stakeholders including policymakers, academia and practitioners all over the world<sup>3</sup>.

However, following a human rights approach to FNS requires collaborative efforts among many parties<sup>4</sup> aimed at adopting and adapting international laws and standards for advocating for FNS with a view to ensuring sustained improved health. In this instance, the parties could include health agencies, various levels of government, affected population groups, civil society, human rights ombudspersons (or guardians), academics, and international organizations<sup>2</sup>. This is a form of a multi-stakeholder process to FNS<sup>4</sup> [ENREF 5 ENREF 5](#).

### **3.2 Rationale and assumptions**

The rationale of this chapter is that collaborative action, mobilization and coordinated use of resources are needed to address the problem of FNS. This is captured in Figure 3.1 which presents a schematic illustration of the interdisciplinary nature of multi-stakeholder process and approaches used in achieving FNS which is detailed from Section 3.3 through Section 3.6. In as much as FNS is a mandate of state governments, resources are often insufficient to satisfy the need of the affected; hence the need of multi-stakeholder process. The assumption here is that multifaceted problems can only be solved with multi-stakeholder engagement following the human rights approach to adequate food.

### **3.3 Multi-stakeholder process (MSP)**

MSP (Figure 3.1) can be established when various sectors (public sector, private sector, and civil society) engage in a collective action, based on appropriate shared norms and rules, consolidating their complementary resources (human, material, financial) together, and sharing threats and accountabilities, to satisfy a set goal<sup>4</sup>.

The term stakeholder is defined as any group or individual who is affected by or can affect the achievement of a course of action<sup>5</sup>. Nowadays, in addition to the people directly affected by initiatives, stakeholders include civil society, the private sector, and even governments<sup>6</sup>. The main benefits of multi-stakeholder processes are (i) relevance: local stakeholders understand well those activities that are truly relevant to their needs, context, and realities; (ii) ownership and sustainability: local stakeholders share and exchange information, develop common understanding and vision and agree on a way forward; and (iii) building partnerships and alliances: all stakeholders having a common goal fosters partnerships and open doors for interactions while leveraging on each other's resources<sup>6</sup>.

Multi-stakeholder processes are fundamentally characterised by participatory decision-making and information sharing where key stakeholders are fairly represented and enabled to take a stand on issues to deliberate on and what actions to take<sup>6</sup>. Blum, Worth<sup>4</sup>, state “MSPs are processes that seek to bring stakeholders together to participate in the dialogue, decision-making, and implementation of solutions to common problems or goals. They are based on democratic principles of transparency and participation, and aim to develop partnerships and strengthen networks among stakeholders”. Note that participation extends to multi-stakeholder implementation suggesting that stakeholders must be willing to make practical contributions beyond words.

### **3.4 Why Multi-stakeholder process?**

There are two complementary approaches in achieving food and nutrition security: direct nutrition specific interventions and an indirect multi-sectoral approach. Interventions using both are imperative. Multi-sectoral approach helps reduce under-nutrition in three ways by<sup>7</sup>:

- speeding up action on causes of under-nutrition like lack of income and agricultural production and improving gender equality and girls' education, which are common and important factors in achieving FNS;

- integrating nutrition in programs in other sectors. For instance, curricula in schools should incorporate basic knowledge of recommended nutrition practices including family nutrition; and
- increasing “policy coherence” through government-wide attention to unintended negative consequences of nutritional policies in other sectors.

### **3.5 The areas of performance of MSP**

There are five broad areas of performance of MSP identified by the High-Level Panel of Experts (HLPE). These include: (i) knowledge of co-generation and capacity building; (ii) advocacy; (iii) standard setting; (iv) action; and (v) fundraising and resource mobilization<sup>8</sup>. These domains have key activities in research, training, and food distribution that can yield results ranging from:

- Outputs such as guidelines, standards, tonnes of food distributed;
- Short-term Outcomes e.g. number of people reached;
- Middle-term Outcomes e.g. reduction of global levels of malnutrition on children; and
- Long-term Outcomes e.g. enhanced FSN status of a targeted population.

### **3.6 The acknowledgement of human-rights approach to FNS**

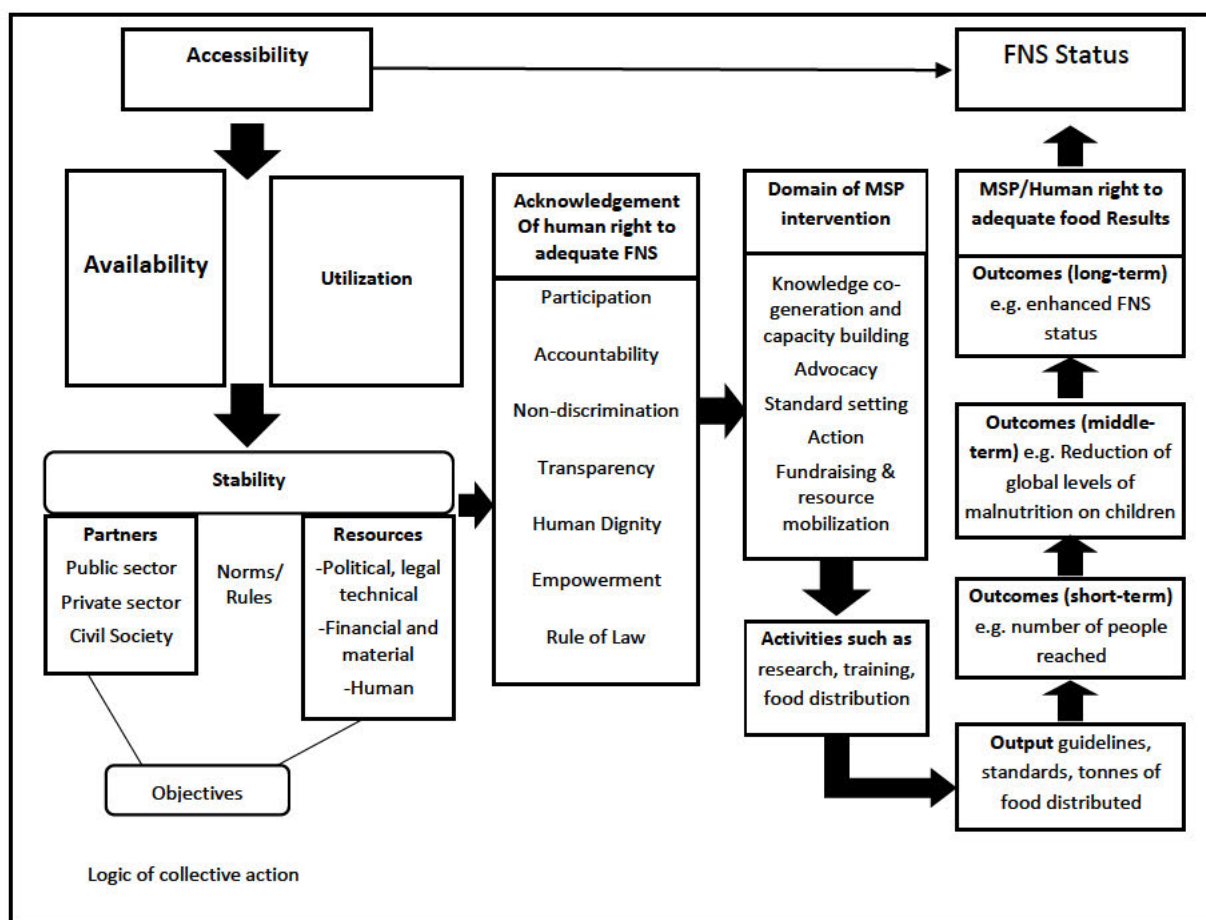
The primary purpose of the rights-approach intervention is to stop or prevent human suffering. The aims of this approach are more likely to be realised through polygonal operations that are clearly supported by regional opinion and the affected parties. There are seven basic principles (Figure) to ensure the implementation of human-rights based policies on FNS<sup>9</sup>. This is a realistic tool to facilitate the formulation of FNS policies in a responsive manner. These principles are as follows:

- *Participation:* All stakeholders, especially social groups and local communities affected by malnutrition, should be involved in evaluating, planning, decision-making, implementing, monitoring and evaluating strategies, policies, programs and projects relevant to FNS. This demands presenting and otherwise clarifying all relevant information so even the illiterate is able to make informed decisions. There should be no barriers to participation, but a level playing field for every stakeholder;

- *Accountability:* The human-rights and the central government mandates go together. Enforcement of rights can only be achieved when they are effectively enforced. The realization of the accountability to the right to food ultimately alleviates FNIS because “International human rights law can serve a critical role in guiding governments that are struggling to protect the health of their populations, particularly among the most susceptible groups, in responding to food and nutrition insecurity”<sup>2</sup>. Accountability must be applied and carry effective consequences.
- *Non-discrimination:* Segregation based on race, language, religion or sex is forbidden under international human rights law. The international law realizes that there are certain situations and embedded patterns in society that can promote discrimination; it is the state’s responsibility to eliminate any such conditions that perpetuate inequality. The state needs to establish processes and mechanisms to curb this pernicious and destructive environment, such as open public forums, to unearth all the hindrances to non-discrimination, and then act on them. For example, one such hindrance is the price of food, and a possible solution is to make selected basic foods affordable for everyone through subsidies.
- *Transparency:* Stakeholders, particularly those affected by food insecurity, have the right to be granted all information from government on the progress of decision-making about policies, programs and projects that may impact in any way on achieving their right to food.
- *Human dignity:* Human rights must always be in line with human dignity. Thus, the FNS must also be provided in a manner that is in line with their dignity. For example, the food must be sufficient, nutritious, acceptable and sustainable, and the method of distribution or access must not be degrading, meaning the proposed food intervention systems be founded on researched facts or need assessments before planning or providing help.
- *Empowerment:* FNS interventions should not just bring relief; they must also strengthen the ability of right holders, particularly those impacted by FNIS, to successfully claim and exercise their rights, to partake in decision-making processes, to hold the state accountable, and ultimately sustain their own FNS.
- *Rule of Law:* All stakeholders involved in FNS initiatives must observe the rule of law. Government itself must respect the law as the citizens do and that any public entity fulfilling its mandate must have the legal authority to do so.

As shown in Figure 3.1, FNS is an outcome of MSP that can be established mainly when various stakeholders such as public sector, private sector, and civil society employ a collaborative action, based on common norms and rules, and through sharing of resources (human, financial and material, political and legal, technical). The approach to this endeavour must be cognisant of and consistent with the human right to adequate FNS. Within this context, achieving adequate FNS rests upon the seven principles detailed in section 3.6 – participation, accountability, non-discrimination, transparency, human dignity, empowerment, and rule of law. The multiple stakeholders contribute to FNS through various areas of performance including advocacy, setting standards, direct action, and fundraising and resource mobilization. These performance areas have key activities including research, training, and food distribution that give four levels of results ranging from:

- *Outputs such as guidelines, standards, tonnes of food distributed;*
- *Short-term Outcomes e.g. number of people reached;*
- *Middle-term Outcomes e.g. reduction of global levels of malnutrition on children; and*
- *Long-term Outcomes e.g. enhanced FSN status of a targeted population.*



**Figure 3.1: Role of Multi-Stakeholder Process and Human Right Approach to FNS<sup>4-6,8,9</sup>**

### 3.7 Example of multi-stakeholders and their role in FNS

Multi-stakeholder participation can be categorized into three broad spheres; public, private and civil society<sup>10</sup>. Exploring the role of these agencies in FNS is relevant because they are key players in, and often at the centre of food security initiatives, particularly those in the developing world. This paper will look at central government, strategically positioned institutions (public schools and health services), research and higher learning institutions, donor agencies and non-governmental organisations, and the United Nations; as these contributes a great deal in the FNS of Eswatini.

The private sector is deliberately excluded from the discussion in this chapter. Although the private sector is essential to economic development and poverty alleviation (key determinants of FNS), it cannot and does not function alone – while it is part of the bigger picture it is not intrinsically responsible for governing the economy and addressing poverty and FNS. The core responsibility to enhance economic growth and reduce poverty is on government. This entails

providing good policy, strong institutions and efficient public goods and services to guarantee the private sector can flourish and the benefits of growth reach all citizens. In addition, government develops and enacts policies which encourage growth, and also commits to develop and maintain the institutions that implement, administer and control those policies. This is the enabling environment that encourages the private sector to invest<sup>11</sup>. The common constraints to growth identified by the private sector are directly associated with government decisions and action. This means government policy and legislative decisions impact on the extent and quality of economic growth and the private sector's task in it. The provision of public goods is a vital factor of the well-being of individuals and communities and, thus, bringing an appealing environment of a country to private investment<sup>11</sup>.

### **3.7.1 Central Government**

In this chapter, public sector refers to the agencies, institutions and organisations owned and run by one or other level of government including all agencies that provide some form of public service<sup>12,13</sup>. The United Nations (UN)<sup>14</sup> states that the main mandate for central government is to ensure the effective delivery of essential public services, including access to food, health care and education to all people. In addition, the UN states that providing social services is central to the government's mandate and obligation to its people, and that public sector organization should be improved with the main goal of satisfying the needs of the various population groups of society, particularly the most vulnerable.

Paarlberg<sup>12</sup>, submits that “government's first task is to provide the public goods needed by societies to remain peaceful and prosperous, goods that are unlikely to be produced in sufficient quantity by private markets alone or by non-governmental institutions”. Food security (and by extension, nutrition security) are public goods, which means they should be available to all, that they are a right, not a privilege. Paarlberg<sup>12</sup>, argues further that public goods should be inexhaustible; they are “not diminished in their availability even when consumed” – suggesting that governments should ensure permanently sustained FNS.

One of the key roles of government is to establish and maintain internal peace “by providing rule of law, and by making the public investments in rural infrastructure and agricultural research to support farm productivity growth and facilitate rural poverty reduction”<sup>12</sup>. Responding to Paarlberg and others, Rivera, Qamar<sup>15</sup> recommended three lines of action for governments related directly to FNS:

- Create policy for agricultural extension and communication for rural development “focusing national attention on food security and income generation of the rural poor”;
- Activate institutional change within the public sector to support, promote and implement (new) extension and food security policy; and
- Implement mechanisms to “promote dialogue and cooperation among relevant institutions and programs in all sectors” and to develop and support networks for food security and income generation.

Exploring this further, in the 2017 State of Food Security and Nutrition Report, the FAO and others<sup>16</sup> argue that the ambitious aim to “end hunger and prevent all forms of malnutrition by 2030...can only be fulfilled if agriculture and food systems become sustainable, so that food supplies are stable and all people have access to adequate nutrition and health”. The report argues further that the governments of the world are individually and collectively responsible to lead the way in fulfilling this aim. The central government creates the legal, policy and institutional environments that affect directly and indirectly FNS. Directly, in terms of policy, the FAO report cautions<sup>16</sup>: “Contributing to improved food security, nutrition and sustainable peace will require a change in mind-set to a more deliberate, preventive approach, and from short-term and output-based interventions to longer-term sustainable and collective outcomes linked to a strategic focus on resilience building”. The link between government and food and nutrition security is further highlighted by understanding that food and nutrition security is not just about “sufficient, nutritious and safe food”. FNIS is an outcome of interdependent factors including access to resources, to clean drinking water, quality health care, education, sanitation, and living free from conflict<sup>16</sup>. Central governments are best positioned to resolve these broader issues, and are advised to do so holistically and collectively where warranted<sup>16</sup>.

In regulating the food system, governments have a mandate to establish and enforce compliance with standards for primary production, processing factories, markets and other elements of the food system. Enforcing mandatory and supporting voluntary programs is paramount to establishing a ‘level playing field’ for non-biased, transparent competition providing assurance to the consumer that information about products (e.g. labelling about ingredients and nutrient values) is trustworthy. In the absence of enforcement, consumers can be easily misled as to the nutritional value of a product. An example is unfortified or semi-fortified products being sold as fortified, but at a lower price to create unfair business competition, with the consumer being the hapless victim<sup>17</sup>. Even though every enterprise or company owes to their customers’ good

faith and trust, some do not honour this, and, thus, government must regulate this and similar elements of the food system.

*Food safety:* As a component of food and nutrition security, governments need to establish and enforce food safety regulations. Food safety is about reducing as much as possible risk associated with unsafe food. An effective national food control system is essential to protect public health, prevent fraud, avoid food adulteration, and facilitate trade in safe food produced domestically and imported internationally<sup>18</sup>. In this way, governments protect the health, nutrition and other interests from food-related harm that may occur from publicly marketed food. Such regulation can be fulfilled through implementation of an effective and transparent food control system which encompasses all stakeholders in the food value chain, farm-to-table, including: production, harvesting, food-processing, storage, transport, retail sale and consumption<sup>19</sup>. Thus, the key role for governments is enacting policies and legislation that stipulate minimum food safety standards and marketing standards with which the food industry must comply. Additionally, governments must then make it a point that the food industry, at every link in the value chain, complies with these set standards - through training, inspection and enforcement<sup>19</sup>.

*Stabilizing food prices:* Price is a major determinant of food choices and is another area for government involvement. High food prices may redirect households from a diverse diet rich in micronutrients (vitamins and minerals) to one that is predominantly rich in carbohydrates comprised of staple foods such as rice, maize, and cassava, which are much cheaper than fruits, vegetables and animal-sourced foods<sup>20</sup>. This is particularly true for low-income households that are likely already struggling to achieve nutrition and health goals. FNS associated with price shocks may undermine the resilience, at the micro level, of vulnerable people and households, and, at the macro level, of low-income countries and thus foster economic decline, often weakening societal peace and tranquillity. When food prices rise, the power of political leaders may be challenged violently<sup>21</sup>. The government has a role to play to ensure that food prices are governed to promote access to healthy food. A market-based approach, using for example a careful mix of fiscal incentives and disincentives, facilitates bringing food prices to a level suitable for the society in question, including direct and indirect costs on health, and can help reduce industry opposition<sup>22</sup>. Examples of this approach include employing a national soda and junk food levy<sup>23,24</sup> and subsidising fruits and vegetables in national food assistance programs<sup>25-</sup>  
27.

As noted earlier, a key role for governments is to coordinate the actions across ministries, agencies, and other stakeholders and actors at local, national, and international levels. This coordination requires an executive structure at a ministerial level with oversight and budgetary authority for cross-agency food and nutrition policy. The level and expanse of coordination is considerable and should include supervision of agricultural, trade and other policies to promote cultivation, transport, storage, trade, and sale of healthy foods. It is also vital to coordinate nutrition policies with neighbouring countries, close allies, and trade partners in order to sustain a healthy market<sup>22</sup>. The role of government in food and nutrition security is substantial and not to be underestimated.

***Strategically positioned institutions: public schools and health services***

Public Schools and Health Services are strategically positioned institutions for food and nutrition security to be addressed through both information sharing (to deal with perceptions and attitudes through knowledge) and also provision, within their respective spheres, of nourishment to correct malnutrition. The two ministries, health and education, can also work hand in hand to achieve FNS through training teachers to identify students that may need hospital-based nutrition support and also conduct an induction for teachers on the ministry of health's referral system so as to capture all referred clients (students) for treatment<sup>28</sup>.

- *Public Schools*

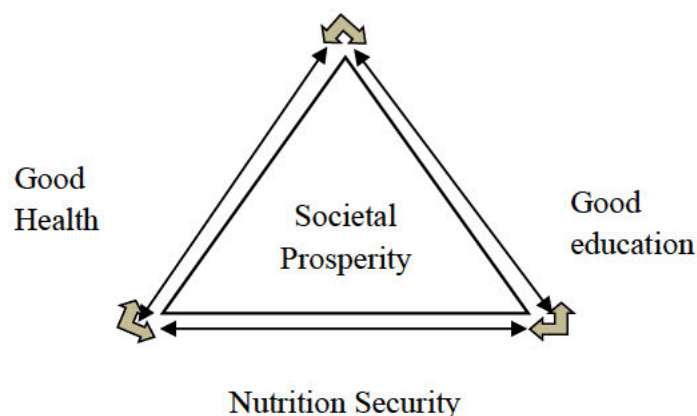
According to an American education policy brief NEAS<sup>29</sup>, providing nutritious food together with nutrition education to school children will yield both short- and long-term rewards in as far as health of the student is concerned as well as learning outcomes. Similarly, in South Africa, teachers found that providing food at school had several positive effects on learners including better attention in class and helping to prevent learner pregnancy, but noted also that one meal a day was insufficient<sup>30</sup>. This suggests that nutrition education and provision of meals at schools improves learning abilities of children and also long-term benefits in the overall health of the students.

The American policy further highlights that schools are an important part of children's lives and can greatly influence dietary behaviours and improve a lifelong healthy culture. This is because children spend more time in school than any other single place with an average total of 15500 hours from pre-school to grade 12<sup>29</sup>.

School feeding programs have been instrumental in addressing food, nutrition and health in schools, especially in developing countries. For example<sup>31</sup>, found that school feeding program policies in developing countries have been instrumental in achieving goals such as “improving the nutritional status of schoolchildren, while also addressing important issues of attendance, enrolment, cognitive development and gender imbalances”. They also noted that creative and well-structured school food programs beyond the school walls such as the home grown food from local farmers have other benefits including enhanced livelihood opportunities, better natural resource management, higher incomes, and improved household management<sup>32</sup>. Even in developed countries, school food programs have also had a positive impact in reducing obesity among children<sup>33</sup> and also improved consumption of fruits and vegetables<sup>34</sup>.

- *Public Health Services*

Public health services have a particularly important role to play in FNS. As noted by the Community Nutritionist Council of British Columbia, Canada [CNCBC]<sup>35</sup>: “On the surface, lack of food security presents itself as hunger, illness and disease. When we look deeper, we find that food security expresses itself in many different forms, including diet-related medical conditions and even obesity”. They comment further that food systems were not designed to ensure “optimal nutrition and food security”, noting in particular that the health sector has often been excluded from food security policymaking noting, ironically, the cost of food-related illness and disease and the fact that nutritional risk is “single best predictor of physician and emergency room visits, hospital readmission and increased length of stay” (CNCBC, 2004: vii). However, involvement of health services should not be done in isolation. As shown in Figure , a prosperous society results from the simultaneous and integrated application of three essential pillars of development: nutrition; health; and education.



**Figure 3.2: The Interdependency of Nutrition, Health and Education<sup>35</sup>**

As noted by the 2004 position paper on food security in South Africa [HSRC]<sup>36</sup>, of particular relevance to public health services is the prevalence of malnutrition and nutrition-related diseases as two of the main manifestations of FNIS. The public health service can address this with programs aimed specifically at promoting sanitation and clean water, establishing accessible health care (to address nutrition related diseases), promoting adequate care and feeding of infants (including pre-lacteal feeding).

- **Research and Higher Education Institutions**

Academics and researchers play a major role in advocating for the implementation of fortification by convincing food industry leaders of the importance of industry in participation in improving the national public health<sup>17</sup>. This highlights the responsibility of research and higher education institutions and their role in the effort to ensure food and nutrition security. It also highlights that continuous interactions must be maintained between academics and researchers with industry<sup>17</sup>. To strengthen research and this partnership, government should focus on at least sustaining and, preferably, increasing budgets for research related to FNS and support implementation of research findings. Public-private partnerships such as research and development incentives must be employed to encourage innovations and marketing of nutritional products<sup>22</sup>. Government also has a responsibility to ensure the research agenda is relevant and that it covers the full range of issues including the following

- Improving public health through nutrition;
- Food safety and quality;
- Post-harvest losses and waste (food chain);

- Sustainable rural development in varying ecosystem services;
- Sustainable increase of agricultural production;
- Food markets in the globalised food system; and
- Increasing equity in the food system.

### **3.7.2 Donor Agencies and Non-Governmental Organizations**

The relationship between donors and NGOs is complicated. NGOs are established to respond to a specific need of a community or society but, unfortunately, the response requires resources which may not be available, hence a need for funding. On the other hand, donors may have funds but may lack expertise or capacity to reach the affected societies. These circumstances create common ground for working together. Usually, the donor initiates collaboration by calling for proposals for NGOs stating the terms of reference and eligibility criteria. The tricky part here is that NGOs may abandon their original objectives and align themselves with requirements of the donor. This creates an unsustainable response to the problem beyond the project duration.

The Overseas Development Institute<sup>37</sup> highlights three factors that have influenced donors to use the expertise and services of NGOs:

- Donors have been working with NGOs for many years for emergency and relief activities, so providing fund for NGO development projects was noted a natural progression;
- Poor performance of official donor programs and the contrasting success of NGOs in addressing the needs of the poor and in implementing rural development projects has led donors to turn to NGOs to assist them; and
- Donors have seen NGOs as a means to by-pass governments to avoiding obstacles to aid impact arising from inefficient and corrupt governments, and/or channel funds to programs in countries where they have suspended aid through the government.

NGO response to FNS issues can vary. Korten<sup>38</sup>, [ENREF 23](#) identified four levels (or “generations”) of responses taken by non-governmental organisations (NGOs) to human suffering since the proliferation of NGOs after World War 2: Relief; Community Development; Sustainable Systems Development; and People’s Movement. These generations are useful to understand the role of donor agencies and NGOs in FNS.

The *first-generation strategy (relief)* entails direct delivery of support to meet basic needs such as food, health care, shelter and schools. Beneficiaries are considered passive victims. Such victims may include the poor and refugees. This level of assistance is based on an assumption that small support will help the victim recovery before long-term intervention is provided. The *second-generation strategy (community development)* focuses on developing the people to meet their own needs through their own means and local strategies. The main aim is to ensure sustainability of the community projects beyond the time of NGO assistance. The community is engaged as partners who participate in decision make-decisions and implementation. The *third-generation strategy (sustainable systems development)* aims at advocating for change of local, national and global policies and institutions where these existing structures are viewed as hostile or barriers to self-reliance strategies, and thus stand in need of reform. This generation may prompt creation of new institutions to avail essential services in the community or provide access to those previously denied access. The *fourth-generation strategy (people's movement)* happens when an NGO initiates and energises a movement of loosely coordinated self-governing organisations. The theory behind this strategy is development failure stems from the absence of a well-articulated mobilizing vision. Thus, the main goal of this final generation is to mobilize people's movement around alternative people-centred development.

In the realm of FNS, donors function under a set of rules and regulations set through a progressive series of agreements by Food Aid Convention (FAC) members. Evidence shows that FAC has been the most important international instrument controlling the food aid provision since mid-1960s<sup>39</sup>. It is an international grain agreement first reached in 1967. It has been renegotiated four times (1971, 1980, 1995 and 1999). A fifth round of re-negotiations started in 2002 (after the 1999 agreement expired) and was finally signed in 2012 and was effected into action in 2013. The purpose of this convention was to put in place a framework of cooperation that obliges donors to minimum commitments of aid and to demarcate limits on the use of food aid as export promoting strategies<sup>39</sup>. This is evidence of the significance of conventions, as integrated actions of institutions and/or governments, in playing a major role in ensuring ethical consideration in provision of donations, a part of public institutions that contribute to FNS.

### 3.7.3 United Nation (UN) Agencies

UN is defined Alshuniaber<sup>40</sup> as “an international organization designed to make the international law, security, and human rights; economic development; and social progress for countries around the world.” It comprises 193-member states with voting powers and two permanent observer entities that cannot vote. The main function of the UN is to maintain the integrity of international peace and security for the member countries<sup>40</sup>.

In 2015, the UN established 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), seven of which are directly or closely related to FNS. SDG 2, zero hunger, is directly related to FNS; it focuses mainly on ending hunger and achieving food and nutrition security through sustainable agriculture. Other SDGs with more indirect relation to FNS are SDG 1, 3, 6, 13, 14 and 15. SDG 1, no poverty, focuses on poverty reduction which has a bearing effect on accessing food. Good health and well-being, addressed by SDG 3, determines the ability of the body to assimilate nutrients – a major part of nutrition security. Similarly, SDG 6 also promotes health well-being through clean water and sanitation. Climate change adaptation and mitigation (SDG 13) and land use (SDG 15) influence FNS through their direct bearing on food production hence food security. More distantly, SDG 14 addresses life under water which can be a source of food. It is argued that all the SDGs contribute in some way to food and nutrition security<sup>41,42</sup>. The spread of these SDGs indicates the complex nature of attaining a sustaining FNS.

The UN has specialised agencies that provide support to member states on implementing the international laws – including laws governing the right to FNS. For example, the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) worked with an Interstate Working Group to develop the “*Voluntary Guidelines to support the progressive realization of the right to adequate food in the context of national food security*”, which gives practical guidance to affiliate governments in their gradual implementation of the realization of the right to adequate food applicable to the country’s constitution<sup>43</sup>. The FAO’s Voluntary Guidelines motivate countries to achieve FNS through, among other things, policies governing land-use issues (most importantly increasing women’s access to land), social safety nets (to assure economic accessibility), local and international markets (through transportation, storage, and distribution infrastructure), and sustainable agriculture (supporting farmers to diversify crops based on nutritional content)<sup>43</sup>.

Together, the World Health Organisation (WHO), Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) and FAO have continuously provided guidance to government programs to promote nutrition, and appreciate the importance of nutrition as an underlying determinant of health<sup>44</sup>. In addition, the World Food Program (WFP) assists in the development of nutrition policies through which the UN engages in nutrition, detailing nutrition-specific and nutrition-sensitive programs<sup>45</sup>. At the international level there is a series of legal and practical guiding tools. These tools are available for governments to leverage on such issues as the development of human rights policies and to harness the implementation approaches stipulated on these tools to deal with food and nutrition insecurity at national level. These include the World Health Assembly (WHA) guidance on the significance of abiding by the international obligations such as preventing improper marketing of food which includes, for example, misleading marketing of food for infants and young children. Member states are urged to take all necessary measures to eliminate any inappropriate marketing of food for the benefit of the public health<sup>46</sup>.

#### **3.7.4 Civil Society**

Civil society comprises a wide array of entities: community groups, NGO's, labour unions, indigenous groups, charitable organizations, faith-based organizations, professional associations, and foundations<sup>13,47</sup>. The African Development Bank defines civil society as a voluntary expression of the interests and aspirations of citizens organized and united by common interests, goal, values or traditions and mobilized into collective action<sup>48</sup>.

Civil society facilitates state accountability for FNS and also partners with experts to provide technical capacity and financial support within countries. Civil society groups participate in different activities nationally and internationally by putting pressure on state governments through advocacy to comply with international human right obligations. They also monitor compliance, investigate human rights situations, avail data, and support litigation<sup>49</sup>. Within the international system, each government is required to provide a periodic report detailing the extent of compliance to the human right obligations. Civil society (as well as local NGOs) can also submit their reports, normally called a "shadow report", to the UN treaty bodies to either approve or reprove government reports or parts of these reports. Additionally, civil society is welcomed to the universal periodic review sessions where they can present a statement where the results of the State reviews are considered<sup>50</sup>. According to the United Nations Committee on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights [United Nation Committee on Economic<sup>51</sup>,

governments are expected to work collaboratively with civil society, in addition to other sectors, in the right-to-food legislation framework. Therefore, civil society can provide a critical role in advancing the recognition and protection of human rights and encouraging answerability to the obligations of the right to FNS.

### **3.7.5 Disaster management and emergency response units**

Any number of disasters can befall a society, including storms, wildfires, floods, armed conflicts, landslides, extreme temperatures, drought, excessive precipitation, and volcanic eruptions. Such events often negatively affect FNS even in households that are normally food secure. Disasters often destroy crops or otherwise interrupt the availability of food. They also often interrupt access to food through damage to roads and transport systems. And they affect utilization of food through factors such as the loss or shortage of power for cooking, clean water, and hygienic food storage facilities which reduces the ability to prepare and consume available food<sup>52</sup>. Further, constrained food supply combined with limited access to food in events of emergency disasters can predispose victims to malnutrition<sup>52</sup>. Hence, it is imperative to have emergency management systems (EMSs) to assist victims of disasters<sup>53</sup>. EMSs collect information to ascertain the magnitude of the damage and to identify victims and their needs. This enables the EMSs to determine and implement the required emergency response. Properly designed, EMSs also include early warning mechanisms to anticipate potential disasters and the likelihood of occurring, again to enable both prioritised policy and practical preparations<sup>54</sup>.

### **3.8 The case of Eswatini**

As alluded earlier, Eswatini has all the multi-stakeholders mentioned from section 3.7.1 to 3.7.5 and they contribute to FNS through funding, technical support and capacity building. An analysis of the source of funding in Eswatini identifies the African Development Bank, United Nations Agencies, the United States, Taiwan, and the European Commission as the main donors for general development activities in Eswatini<sup>55</sup> [ENREF 55](#). The European Union for instance, supports government sector interventions such as agriculture, water, governance, health and education. The Taiwanese government also got involved in 2016, through supporting government infrastructure projects<sup>55</sup>. The United Nation, through the Global Fund, has supported funding for health and gender programs, HIV/AIDS treatment and prevention, poverty reduction activities in Eswatini<sup>55</sup>. In addition, these donors have supported Eswatini by providing technical support to Eswatini government in delivering its mandates explained in

section 3.7.1. For an example, the United State President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) helped enhance the Ministry of Health through report writing and policy development initiatives. Further, the Institute for Health Measurement (IHM) Southern Africa has been vital in providing health system performance reviews and program reviews for HIV/AIDS, non-communicable diseases and child health<sup>56</sup>.

In 2021<sup>57</sup>, a landscape analysis for Eswatini on prioritizing nutrition in its development strategies was conducted using WHO guidelines for assessing the strength of nutrition governance of countries. The assessment indicated that Eswatini prioritizes nutrition in its development strategies. This is evidenced in part by the establishment of the Eswatini National Nutrition Council (ENNC) by an Act of Parliament in 1945, the adoption of the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) in the National Development Strategy, and the routine nutrition surveillance conducted<sup>57</sup>.

In spite of all these support provided to government of Eswatini, and the prioritization of FNS, food and nutrition insecurity has been ravaging the country even in recent years. The poverty rates are high, and approximately one-third of the population lives below the national poverty line<sup>58</sup>. FNIS is a main public health challenge. About a quarter of the nation were reliant on food aid in 2011<sup>58</sup>. The double burden of malnutrition has been observed because, while Eswatini is dealing with FNIS, about 6% of men and 17% of women are obese<sup>59</sup>. This situation has been exacerbated by the high rates of HIV/AIDS<sup>60</sup>. FNIS influences social relationships negatively. For example, food insecure women are more likely to indulge in alcohol use, engage in unprotected sex with a non-primary partner, and engage in intergenerational sexual relationships<sup>61,62</sup>. In addition, poverty dominates the rural areas where 79% of the country's population dwells<sup>63</sup>. In the rural areas, income is four times lower compared to urban areas<sup>64</sup>. The main livelihood of Eswatini include formal labour 18%, remittances 17%, small business 14%, food crop production 12%, social grants 11% and casual labour 11%<sup>65</sup>.

The country's failure to achieve FNS even after much as been done can be associated with the lack of coordinated nutrition governance. A study<sup>57</sup> conducted in 2021 examined the governance of FNS in Eswatini using policy documents. Firstly, the finding revealed that there are multiple actors (elucidated in section 3.7) in policy making in Eswatini. Secondly, strength of the nutrition governance was medium. Thirdly, coordination of multi-stakeholder was ad-hoc. These findings are in agreement with previous research<sup>66-68</sup> which also found that nutrition

governance is weak in low and middle-income countries. In the Southern region of Africa, Zambia, Madagascar, and South Africa have similar strength of nutrition governance to Eswatini<sup>69</sup>. This indicates that progress on nutrition governance in Eswatini is stagnant and below the WHO standards of set indicators for strong nutrition governance<sup>70</sup>. Specifically, the lack of dietary guidelines inhibits the capacity of practitioners to give context-specific guidance on healthy lifestyles and diet<sup>69</sup>. The lack of coordination of nutrition governance kills the interest from partners to fully appreciate the investment of working collaboratively. Therefore, the government should consider rectifying these gaps in order to meet all the standards set by WHO to attract more support from partners and donors.

### **3.9 Conclusion**

If the central governments would treat FNS as a human right, and also improve coordination of FNS governance, their respective countries would be less likely to experience FNIS. This is because the human rights approach to FNS necessitates continuous engagement between the central government and the stakeholders involved in the FNS system where governments actively seek input and support in the formulation and implementation of laws and policy and welcomes monitoring ensuring that promises made in laws and policy are kept. A key input to governments from the stakeholders is factual and scientific information used when developing laws and policies. Unfortunately, it is not easy to come to this conclusion because of the human rights dilemmas. Achieving human rights entails overcoming multiple obstacles<sup>71</sup>. Firstly, some governments, political parties and/or candidates, social and economic players and civil society actors utilize the words of human rights without genuine commitment to human rights objectives. This may be due to a limited knowledge and understanding of what the human rights standards call for. It may also be due to intentional misuse of the human rights to fulfil their own agendas while being seen as acceptable in the eyes of the world and being “politically correct”. Secondly, governments, political parties or candidates and/or civil society actors may disapprove of human rights violations by others but fall short in adhering to human rights standards themselves. Thirdly, there may be instances when human rights are constrained in the name of defending the rights of others. These could, certainly, be justifiable. Human rights are not unlimited, and realizing one’s rights should not encroach on the rights of others. Therefore, caution must be taken in order to guard oneself from intruding on the human rights of others. The work of an active civil society and autonomous judiciary is essential in monitoring such situations. Fourthly, there are cases when defending the rights of one group of people may, in

itself, entail constraining the rights of others. This is different from the above case of denying rights. Thus, it should be acknowledged that it is not always easy to judge such cases. In a real sense, The Bill of Rights is simply words on paper. It can form real meaning only if it is supported by a living politics anchored in the constitution's foundational values manifested through public policy that is implemented effectively. These values include democracy, the rule of law, accountability and transparency, human dignity, non-racism and non-sexism and also placing the impoverished and marginalised at the centre of society's concern<sup>72</sup>.

Further, the implementation of policy is shared among the public institutions and stakeholders who may have technical and/or financial resources which alleviate the burden from the central government. All of this suggests that achieving sustainable FNS requires a multi-stakeholder process, which requires transparency, and especially collaboration particularly between governments and other stakeholders in developing and implementing laws and policies. The multi-stakeholder process operating in a rights-based context makes the implementation of policies more affordable and results in more sustainable FNS while concurrently supporting human rights.

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## CHAPTER 4

### POLICY ANALYSIS THEORY IN THE CONTEXT OF FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY

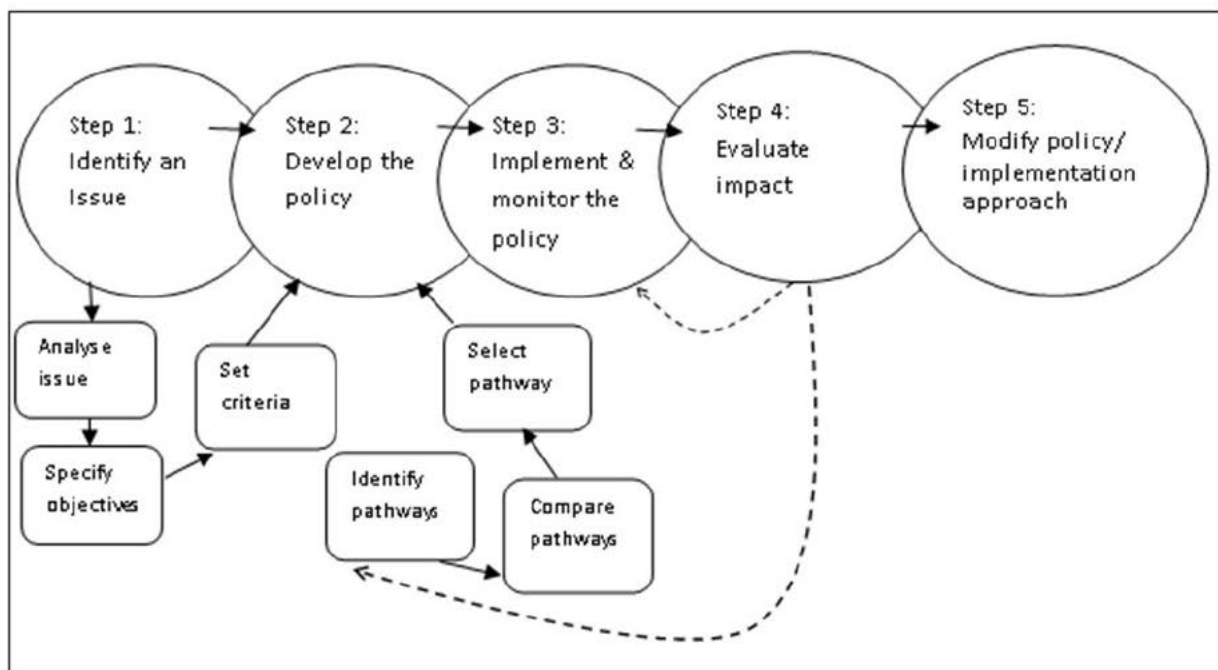
#### **Abstract**

Just or unjust, public policy has vast influence on the daily lives of people – or at least it is meant to have such influence. It is meant to address important social issues; ostensibly making things better for some sector of society. The closer policy is to the realities on the ground, the greater potential it has to be effective. SDGs are serving as guiding lights from which governments around the world drawn on them to develop a range of policies to better the lives of their respective peoples. One such area is food and nutrition security (FNS). Around the world there exist many FNS and FNS-related policy. Given the generally slow progress in creating sustainable FNS, the question arises as to how FNS policy is formulated, implemented, monitored and evaluated. This paper explores this theme. It is hoped that this exploration will raise awareness of the role and importance of policy in alleviating food and nutrition insecurity, and emphasize how imperative policy analysis is to ensure the continuous alignment of existing and proposed policies to the realities of the people the policy is intended to help. Developing, implementing, monitoring, evaluating and realigning public policy is complex, costly and fraught with many choices and assumptions. More often, there are multiple alternatives, many doubts, many stakeholders and multiple vested interests. There are even many decision-makers with diverse preference and agendas. Thus, it is likely impossible to find an ideal solution to a problem. Therefore, policy development and analysis demands care diligence and objectivity.

*Key Words: policy development, policy analysis, policy implementation, policy monitoring and evaluation, food and nutrition security.*

## 4.1 Introduction

Public policy, in theory, is meant to have a vast influence on the daily lives of people. It is meant to address important social issues; making things better for some sector of society. As argued<sup>1</sup> [ENREF 1](#)“...public policy seeks to achieve a desired goal that is considered to be in the best interest of all members of society. Examples include clean air, clean water, good health, high employment, an innovative economy, active trade, high educational attainment, decent and affordable housing, minimal levels of poverty, improved literacy, low crime and a socially cohesive society....” Similarly, Walker<sup>2</sup> [ENREF 1 ENREF 16 ENREF 3 ENREF 9 ENREF 9](#), defines policies as “a set of actions taken by the government to be in control of [a] system, to help solve problems within it or caused by it, or to help obtain benefits from it.” Figure 4.1 shows the overall process of developing, implementing and evaluating public policy. There are five essential steps, some with important sub-processes. The five essential steps involve identifying an issue, developing the policy, implementing and monitoring the policy, and modifying the policy and/or its implementation.



**Figure 4.1: General Stages of Policy Development and Implementation<sup>1,2</sup> [ENREF 2](#).**

Step 1 follows a more detailed process which involves analysing the issue to establish the nature, scope and context of the issue and to start the process of identifying how the issue should change. The change is captured as objectives for which criteria are then set. Similarly,

Step 2 follows a more detailed process. Torjman<sup>1</sup> [ENREF 3](#), suggests there may be several “pathways” to achieve the objectives of the policy. Once identified, the pathways are compared and tested against the criteria until the most suitable or appropriate pathway is selected. If a suitable pathway is not found from among those considered, the process reverts to identifying additional pathways and the process is repeated until an appropriate pathway is identified. The selected pathway forms the basis for developing the policy, which can then be approved, implemented and monitored (Step 3). Of course, the policy must be evaluated (Step 4) and, depending on the results, the policy may be amended and/or the implementation may be modified (Step 5)<sup>1,2</sup> [ENREF 1 ENREF 3](#).

## **4.2 Policy analysis**

Policy analysis is a systematic evaluation of the policy process, alternatives and policy outcomes. It refers to the process through which policy solutions to social problems and public health issues are identified, analysed, and presented to policymakers for consideration [ENREF 1](#). It is essentially an assessment process that “seeks to inform decision-makers by predicting and evaluating the potential impacts of policy options”<sup>3</sup>. The process is meant to be objective and based on facts and evidence<sup>4</sup> and, therefore, [ENREF 2](#) must rise above personal political and ideological opinions and produce outcomes that are of the best interests of the people [ENREF 5](#). Policy analysis must presume a political setting in which there is inadequate awareness or time to consider problems, and where some policy solutions will be politically infeasible. The policy problem must be described for the audience: to draw their attention and see the need to invest their effort and resources. The analysis process should highlight possible solutions to the problem, identify the substantive differences between them, and clarify the costs attached to each solution and the associated gains. The analysis should include mechanisms and tools to provide sufficient understanding of the complexity of the problem and potential intervention to enable sound decision-making and commitment, and avoid creating the sense that the problem beyond solving<sup>5</sup>.

There are two types of policy analysis: retrospective (analysis *of* existing policy; and proactive policy analysis (analysis *for* policy)<sup>6,7</sup>. Retrospective policy analysis is a descriptive form of analysis. It tries to ascertain why and how a policy was selected. Proactive policy analysis is an analysis of policy options. The purpose is to inform the formulation of a policy or predict the

performance of a policy if introduced. Frequently, proactive policy analysis is carried out or funded by interested parties to ascertain prospects and to manage the politics of policy change in a manner that satisfies the desired policy objectives<sup>6</sup>. Thus, policy analysis can be done not only for existing policies but also for policies that are yet to be developed.

Policy analysis process can be divided into five thematic areas. These include defining and analysing the problem, constructing policy alternatives, choosing and evaluating criteria, assessing the alternative, and draw conclusions<sup>8,9,10</sup>. Referring to Figure 4.1, these steps refer to Steps 1 and 2, which together form the essence of policy formulation. Thus, the order of the problem-to-policy process more logically is as set out in Figure 4.2.



*Figure 4.2: Expanded outline of the steps from problem to policy*

#### **4.2.1 Identifying, defining and analysing the problem**

At this stage of the analysis, boundaries are set for the next stages. Identifying and defining a problem is an exercise that demands technical abilities carried out with limited resources and in collaboration with others. The analyst is required to put together enough data to ascertain the magnitude of the problem, its cause, and the capability to rectify it. Several fundamental questions drive the analyst such as:

- What is the problem?
- Where does it exist?
- Who does it affect?

Understanding the problem from the beginning is necessary for many reasons. It gives the policy analysts direction<sup>11,12</sup>. In defining the problem, one needs to acknowledge that one is not an necessarily an expert in the particular policy problem<sup>13</sup> and recognize the importance of multiple view points from other numerous stakeholders with different opinions<sup>9,10,14</sup>. Once a problem has been identified and basically understood, the analyst would have some clues about which to consult, what information is needed (i.e. statistical evidence or information concerning the problem), where to get this information from, and initial ideas about possible solutions.

FNIS is one such problem requiring action guided by policy. FNIS continues to be societal problematic in both developing and developed economies, even when there is abundant food. Hence, it is imperative to conduct policy analysis to develop the most appropriate and effective policy. The first step in the analysis would be to define and analyse the problem. As suggested in Figure 4.1, the analysis process itself has several steps. Analysing the problem should be sufficiently in depth to enable setting objectives for correcting the problem. The nature of these objectives will vary according to the nature of the problem. In the case of a national policy for FNS, the objectives would reflect the status of FNS in the country, perhaps giving special attention to vulnerable groups or a particular level or element of nutrition. An example of this is a study carried out in the UK between 2004 and 2016, which analysed the risks of severe food insecurity among adults. In this case, the analysis sought to define the problem in terms of the demographics of potential food insecurity. Demographics included age, ethnicity, the presence of children in the household, level of education, employment/unemployment, life-limiting health problems and disabilities, and incomes. The focus was on disadvantaged people. In the UK study, three characteristics were significantly associated with increased risk of severe food insecurity: unemployment; long-term health problems or disability; and low income<sup>15</sup>. In this case, the results of defining and analysing the FNIS problem helped prioritize the focus of policy; boundaries were clearly set to move to the process of setting objectives.

#### **4.2.2 Setting objectives**

An objective is a declaration which defines what an individual, team or organization intends to accomplish<sup>16</sup>. A good objective must be specific, measurable, achievable, realistic, and time-bound depicted by the acronym (SMART).

- **Specific:** entails a precise statement of what is required
- **Measurable:** covers a measure to enable institutions to monitor milestones to be alerted when the objective has been attained
- **Achievable:** The objective must be designed in a manner that failure is not built into the system. Objectives should be agreed upon by authorities and subordinates to guarantee commitment to them
- **Realistic:** emphasis on relevance as an outcome rather than the means of attaining the outcome. There is clear knowledge how the objective is going to be achieved and there is no circumstance or obstacle that will render the objective impossible to achieve.

- Time-bound: agreed date by which the objectives must be attained<sup>16</sup>.

This means meeting a policy objective is an anticipated consequence that policymakers aspire to attain. Policy objectives ascertain what is necessary to attain policy goals. Objectives are frequently aligned with one or more functional components and are usually short term such as annual budgets. They require regular adjustments in response to institutional changes in response to changes in resources and environment<sup>17</sup>.

“Objectives help define goals, identify conflicting activities, guide elements of the decision-making process, and ensure accountability of personnel within an organization. Without clearly defined goals and supporting objectives, goal displacement often occurs. Goal- and objective-setting are influenced by values”<sup>18</sup>. Taking into consideration the features of objectives, monitoring and evaluation of policy in terms of SMART makes it simpler to capture data for analysis to ascertain whether the policy addresses the existing problems it was enacted to solve. Objectives help evaluators to craft indicators which are continuously monitored and evaluated to see if the policy is achieving the desired goal.

In the case with Malawi<sup>19</sup>, objectives were set specifically and separately for food security and nutrition security. The Malawian policy also specifically covers the four pillars of FNS and adds elements of ethics such as human dignity. Nutrition security objectives speak to healthy choices and lifestyles being “easy choices”, to the absence of malnutrition, and to reducing “the burden of diet-related illness”. One can infer from these objectives that they speak specifically to the FNS realities in Malawi. The specificity of the objective facilitates identifying a range of options.

#### **4.2.3 Choosing criteria for evaluation**

Criteria are defined by Puentes-Markides<sup>20</sup> as dimensions of the objectives used to evaluate alternative policies. In policy analysis, criteria are evaluative standards that give direction to the processes towards decision making. They enable the ranking of policy options in order of preference. The principal evaluative criterion is that the anticipated outcome will solve the policy issue to an acceptable level. A criterion may entail measures, rules, standards, and all those attributes deemed applicable by the decision maker(s) in the given circumstance. Great care must be exercised in setting criteria because they will determine the kind of action taken on the ground. Implementers will do what is measured. Policies are measured by their objectives, and objectives are measured by their criteria.

Examples of criteria for evaluation may include the following<sup>20</sup>;

- Legal Feasibility: Consistency with the current constitutional or legal framework, and national, federal, state, or local mandates as appropriate.
- Political Viability: Acceptability of the policy option to various relevant stakeholders that hold political power such as voters, legislators, and president's cabinet.
- Sustainability: Ability of the policy option to maintain its beneficial effects in the longer term.
- Social or Cultural Feasibility: Consistency with national or local traditions, policies and institutions, acceptable for the local population.
- Technical Feasibility: Availability of necessary resources and competencies.
- Administrative Feasibility: Degree of ease of implementation, financial or managerial factors.
- Cost Effectiveness: Achieving policy goals at the least cost.
- Economic Efficiency: Maximization of satisfaction by society.

#### **4.2.4 Identifying alternative pathways**

Once the problem has been sufficiently defined and understood, and goals and criteria have been set, the next step is identifying alternative pathways or constructing alternatives for addressing the problem<sup>21</sup>. Policy alternatives and pathways are the policy options, lines of action and strategies of interventions that potentially can solve or mitigate a problem by achieving the objectives for the policy<sup>12</sup>. In reality, a policy is likely to be a collection of strategies.

One of the challenges of choosing pathways is sustainability. [ENREF 15](#)Korten<sup>22</sup>, effectively argued that there are four kinds of responses to address human problems: relief, project development, sustainable systems development, and vision-led people's movements. Each has its value, but each also comes at a cost. Relief, for example, meets an immediate need. People who do not have food are given food. The problem is solved immediately. But in providing relief, the cause of the problem (i.e. why there is a lack of food) is not addressed, and there is a high risk that the problem will reoccur and require additional relief. This is not sustainable as a long-term strategy or line of action. On the other hand, creating a vision of FNS and empowering people to achieve it through their own efforts is sustainable but it would take a

long time to achieve that level of capacity. In the process, many people may suffer, particularly in the short term. The selection of pathways requires serious consideration for the short- and long-term costs and benefits<sup>22</sup>.

Another consideration is ethics. It is expected that policy analysts must evaluate possible benefits of alternative policy responses to any given issue. This must be done systematically to establish a set of criteria for evaluating each alternative. There are three commonly used criteria to analyse policy alternatives: efficiency, equity, and administrative simplicity<sup>23</sup>. Combined, these criteria facilitate the consideration of the relative costs of each alternative, the equity by which various groups of people are affected by each alternative, and the relative degree of liability that each alternative would impose on those expected to implement it and those expected to comply with it. It is argued that these three criteria are the basis for ethical policy. This is augmented when assessing policy alternatives. These criteria, especially equity, are considered in terms of the impact on personal freedom, human dignity, social harmony, and environmental sustainability<sup>23</sup>.

Specific to FNS, ethics can, for example, be applied in issues of land ownership by women and youth. It could be more efficient and fairer (equitable) to allocate land without discrimination especially when doing so will facilitate achieving FNS. Women and youth are commonly precluded from accessing land in rural settings where customary law is practiced, yet they form a major part of the population in those rural settings. With due consideration to the longstanding nature of such traditional practices, it can be argued that such practice is unethical because those who are excluded are the very people who are often expected to provide for their households. This is particularly true for women who, in addition to being the majority of smallholder farmers in the Global South, usually have the responsibility to care for the most vulnerable members of the household (children, elderly, disabled). Therefore, land policy that addresses the needs of both women and the youth is necessary. This is a challenging example of considering ethics in policy analysis.

A third consideration is practicality. This is a function of cost and the capacity of the state and its partners to deliver the policy. Determining capacity to act on evidence is often a neglected part of policy analysis. This is because capacity is a challenging theory to outline and subsequently to measure<sup>24,25</sup>. Capacity denotes the capability to implement defined objectives; it is the skill and resources at the individual, organizational, and system levels for the production

and application of new knowledge about and to problems<sup>26</sup>. At the individual and organizational levels, capacity is often evidenced in skills and ability, leadership, partnerships, the establishment of suitable personnel and organizational structures, and the ability to mobilize and allocate resources<sup>27</sup>. All of these must be considered objectively when analysing and assessing policy alternatives.

Table shows how alternative policy pathways could follow Korten's<sup>22</sup> [ENREF 15](#) four generations of NGO strategies and its four levels of response to a problem, in this case FNIS. Although the framework was developed around NGOs, it is applicable to any agency, including state ministries, parastatals and other development structures. The framework presents a principle for considering initiatives in response to any societal issue; in this example food shortage.

**Table 4.1: Alternative Policy Pathways responding to food shortages<sup>22,28</sup>**

	Generations			
	First	Second	Third	Fourth
<b>Defining features</b>	<b>Relief and Welfare</b>	<b>Community Development</b>	<b>Sustainable Systems Development</b>	<b>People's Movements</b>
<b>Problem definition</b>	Shortage e.g. food shortage	Local inertia	Institutional and policy constraints	Inadequate Mobilizing Vision
<b>Time frame</b>	Immediate	Project period	Ten to twenty years	Indefinite future
<b>Spatial scope</b>	Individual or household	Neighbourhood or community	Region or nation	National or Global
<b>Chief actors</b>	Agency	Agency + beneficiary organizations	All public and private institutions that define the relevant systems	Loosely defined networks of people & organizations
<b>Agency Role</b>	Doer	Mobilizer	Catalyst	Activist/Educator
<b>Development education</b>	Starving children	Community self-help initiatives	Failures in the interdependent systems	Creating a vision
<b>Management orientation</b>	Logistics management	Project management	Strategic management	Coalescing and Energizing Self-Managing Networks
<b>Response</b>	Provide food	Projects to improve food production and storage of food crops for household use.	Establish policies and structures to facilitate post-harvest food storage and processing with special focus on rural women and youth	Foster population-wide adoption of food as a human right and consumer preference for local products

In describing the four generations, *Relief and Welfare* involves mainly the service of agencies in response to urgent and critical needs such as food, emergency health services, and shelter. *Community Development* focuses the dynamisms of the NGO in capacitating the people to better satisfy their own needs through self-reliant local action. These are normally termed

community development strategies. *Sustainable Systems Development* is a generation that goes over and above individual community but also regional, national and globally. It addresses systemic and structural factors that create the environment that give rise to the issues requiring attention. They generally facilitate or constrain the power of individuals, groups or sectors of the population (e.g., women) to act. *People's Movements* focus beyond initiatives intended at altering a particular policy and organizational sub-systems. The main purpose is to motivate a critical mass of self-governing, distributed initiative in support of a social vision. Each generation manifests the eight defining features differently and generally along a spectrum. Of particular note is the problem definition; immediate shortages define the relief response; local inertia defines the community development response – each increase in the ‘level’ of response addresses an ever-deeper cause of the problem. And across the levels, the role and orientation of the responding agency moves from direct to indirect. For example, the role of the agency moves from “doer” under relief to “catalyst/educator” under people’s movement.

In response to a food shortage, the first generation in Table , which focuses on relief and welfare, the proposed response is providing food. While immediately resolving the food shortage issues, this generation, and more importantly its impact, usually lasts for a short period and covers only individuals or households. Such action is common among those responding to urgent food shortages.

The second-generation focuses on community development fostering self-reliance within a neighbourhood or community. It may last for as long as the project life usually implemented by the agency together with the beneficiaries of the project. In this example, the main purpose of this generation is to initiate community self-help. Specific FNS initiative proposed in response to the food shortage involves projects to improve food production and storage of food crops for household consumption.

The third-generation pathway focuses on institutional and specific policy constraints. Given the focus on policy, actions in this generation are intended to last for a long-term period and cover a wider scope such as a region or nation. This pathway is used to change the landscape in which the societal problem arose and address structural issues that contributed to the problem. In general, it would be facilitated through all relevant public and private institutions. In this example, a proposed pathway (one of many possible alternatives) at this level is to establish policies and structures to facilitate post-harvest food storage and processing with special focus

on rural women and youth. Other possibilities could include developing or amending policies and institutions affecting market ownership by farmers, infrastructure supporting food production and storage, and transportation in the agri-food sector.

Finally, in the fourth-generation pathway – the people’s movement – all relevant organizations are dedicated to attaining a shared vision about the particular societal issue. The duration and impact are long term to indefinite, and coverage is more universal. A key element is that the people become the drivers of the movement. Thought and action on the particular societal issue are reshaped. The example in Table 4.1: Alternative Policy Pathways responding to food shortage is food shortage, but it could be any relevant issue such as the environment, human rights, women, and peace. The specific pathway suggested in this example is to foster population-wide adoption of food as a human right and consumer preference for local products. While they do require them, people’s movements are not driven by budgets or resources or by a single organizational structure. They are driven by a unique quality – the vision of a better world.

#### **4.2.5 Comparing and choosing alternative pathways and drafting the policy**

At this stage in the process outlined in Figure 4.2, the analyst is concerned with the outcomes of the proposed alternative intervention<sup>29</sup>. It involves forecasting both positive and negative outcomes of each alternative<sup>8</sup>. This can be a very challenging task, more so because the analysts are speculating about the future perhaps in a context where none of the proposed alternatives has been implemented<sup>30</sup>. Considering the example of alternative pathways in Table , alternatives could be first generation or second generation or third generation. Different scenarios will influence the choice of an alternative. For instance, in a situation where people are stricken by a natural disaster like a flood which leaves them without shelter and clothing, the first-generation response (relief) is a relevant response as it directly (and swiftly) relieves the immediate shock. The analysis must take into account that relief is temporary and not sustainable but does save lives that could have been lost and alleviates immediate suffering. Similarly, other generations of response can be explored and considered. In fact, it can be argued that a good policy would address all four generations; providing a framework for how they are to be interlinked and integrated.

Further, Public Health Law Centre [PHLC]<sup>31</sup> highlights that stakeholder participation throughout the policy development process is essential. It gives better understanding of the real issues to be addressed, and which pathways are more likely yield desirable results and which

are likely to fail on practical level. It also encourages community backing and buy-in, and can also help anticipate or minimize the likely opposition.

#### **4.2.6 Draft the policy and make decision**

This is the final step shown in Figure 4.2. Drafting the policy is an obvious step but can also be challenging. According to the PHLC<sup>31</sup>, in drafting the policy one needs to make sure that the wording, length, complexity of the policy are suitable to the targeted implementers of the policy. Developing the text of the policy through multi-stakeholder processes which include consultation and verification processes with relevant stakeholders will make a policy most effective and more inclusive<sup>32</sup>.

Once the policy is drafted, it needs to be checked for accuracy, relevance and consistency. Some of the critical elements to crosscheck include ensuring that the trade-offs have been clarified sufficiently, that thorough consideration has been given to the likelihood of encountering severe implementation problems, that all key cost estimates are clear and that none is vague and/or uncertain, and that sufficient flexibility has been created to meet changes in the problem and problem setting and the respective policy responses<sup>12</sup>.

#### **4.2.7 Implementing and monitoring the policy**

Referring again to Figure 4.1, once policy analysis has been completed and the policy drafted and approved, the next step is to implement the policy. At this stage, all the relevant agencies and organizations carry out their assigned responsibilities coordinating with one another as required<sup>33</sup>. According to CDC<sup>34</sup>, there are additional steps that may be required to implement the policy in a way that can increase chances that the policy will attain its anticipated goal. These steps may include educating the people and organizations affected by the new policy, creating new and/or changing existing administrative operations and systems to facilitate implementing and monitoring the policy, and enforce the policy if required.

In order to maximize achieving the desired outcome, CDC<sup>34</sup> further highlights three points that implementing organization and stakeholders should consider:

- Keep the desired outcomes in mind: before the policy is implemented, everyone involved must have a clear understanding of the goals of the policy;

- As certain resources that can enhance one to implement the policy: This generally include a funding, human resources, and infrastructure; and
- Describe who is involved and who does what during implementation: Identify those involved in the implementation and their assigned roles and responsibilities. This includes identifying individuals and/or organizations that may take charge of implementing the policy, as well as outlining the roles and responsibilities of partners and stakeholders, opportunities and processes for partnership, and the relation to existing policies to ensure and coordination coherence on the ground.

Implementing is effective only if it is accompanied by monitoring which is a “continuous function used to follow up, inform and take corrective actions when needed for the project management and stakeholders of the progress achieved against the planned results (out puts and outcome)”<sup>35</sup>. Monitoring also requires “systematic collection and analysis of data on specific, predetermined indicators to track actual project performance for management decision making. It is a key responsibility of the project team”<sup>35</sup>.

Monitoring generally serves policy implementation and keeps policy implementers informed. It requires continuous collection and analysis of data and reporting the resulting information that enables the responsible individuals and organizations to ascertain whether the goals are being attained within the scheduled timeframes and budgets and, where necessary, to take suitable remedial action. Monitoring also assists stakeholders see the results of their efforts and contributions<sup>36</sup>.

#### **4.2.8 Mobilizing and allocation of resources**

As noted earlier, implementation requires resources. According to the World Meteorological Organization, resource mobilization is a method of organizing monetary and non-monetary resources from within or external sources to provide for the implementation of the policy or organizational activities. This can be viewed as a process of cultivating sustainable relationships with donors and partners<sup>37</sup>.

Once the resources have been mobilized, they must be allocated efficiently among the identified role-players, generally based on allocated programs<sup>38</sup>. Allocations should be done in accordance with the approved implementation plan. Resource allocation forms an important

part of monitoring, specifically tracking the amount and cost of work being carried out to prevent under- or overutilization of the resources<sup>39</sup>.

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As has been implied in the foregoing discussion, the state or government is no longer the only role player in public policy management. A complex range of stakeholder act together in formulating, implementing and monitoring public policy. Responsibilities of public policy are shared among multiple organizations –state, private sector and civil society organizations. Thus, implementing policy runs the risk of being a disjointed process, and, therefore, managing implementation demands and will only be effective if there is rigorous coordination<sup>40</sup>. In short, to maximize the utilization of resources, for the policy to succeed, policy implementation must be coordinated effectively using a multi-stakeholder process.

#### **4.2.9 Evaluating and modifying the policy and its approach**

Evaluation is defined as “an objective, independent and systematic examination of the extent to which a [policy] has achieved its stated objective and, therefore, is meeting the needs and priorities” the policy was developed to address<sup>35</sup>. Further, the IAEA indicates that an evaluation should assess “the efficiency, effectiveness, relevance, impact, and sustainability” of the policy and should generate “information that is credible and useful, enabling the incorporation of lessons learned into the decision-making process” of all relevant stakeholders<sup>35</sup>. Thus, on one level, evaluating a policy should measure the efficacy, effectiveness and efficiency of the policy pathways chosen. This implies that it also assesses the appropriateness of the implementation processes. On another level, evaluation provides policymakers with evidence needed to consider the need to amend, improve, augment, or even replace the policy.

In both cases, evaluations are based on the foundation of data and evidence provided through results-oriented monitoring during the implementation stage as discussed earlier. It demands precise investigative efforts, at particular times during and post-implementation. Evaluation is also the means through which clarity is given to questions concerning the performance of the activities that facilitate policy development, and about the reason (why) and how this performance is recorded<sup>41</sup>. In other words, the evaluation should even evaluate the implementation, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms and processes. Modifying policy or reforming policy is a process through which changes are made to various aspects of the policy

itself (particularly in terms of impact), as well as the policy development and implementation processes,<sup>42</sup> within the specific context within which the policy is operating. After the policy has been evaluated, recurring problems are identified and diagnosed and new decisions made to make better progress on the next policy cycle<sup>43</sup>.

A particularly useful model, the Kaleidoscope Model of Policy Change<sup>44</sup>, highlights three main variables featuring as prominent factors in explaining the probability of policy refinement. The first one is the *changing beliefs of existing policy champions* about the effectiveness of policy or initial policy objective<sup>45</sup>. The change of beliefs can occur at three levels: routine modifications to prevailing policy instruments; adopting new policy instruments to tackle prevailing policy goals; and policymakers taking lessons learnt from previous policy efforts resulting in shifting the goals as they get inspired by new concepts and debates. At the policy design stage, drivers of belief change may arise from research findings, media, parliamentary questions, donor evaluations, and advocacy groups.

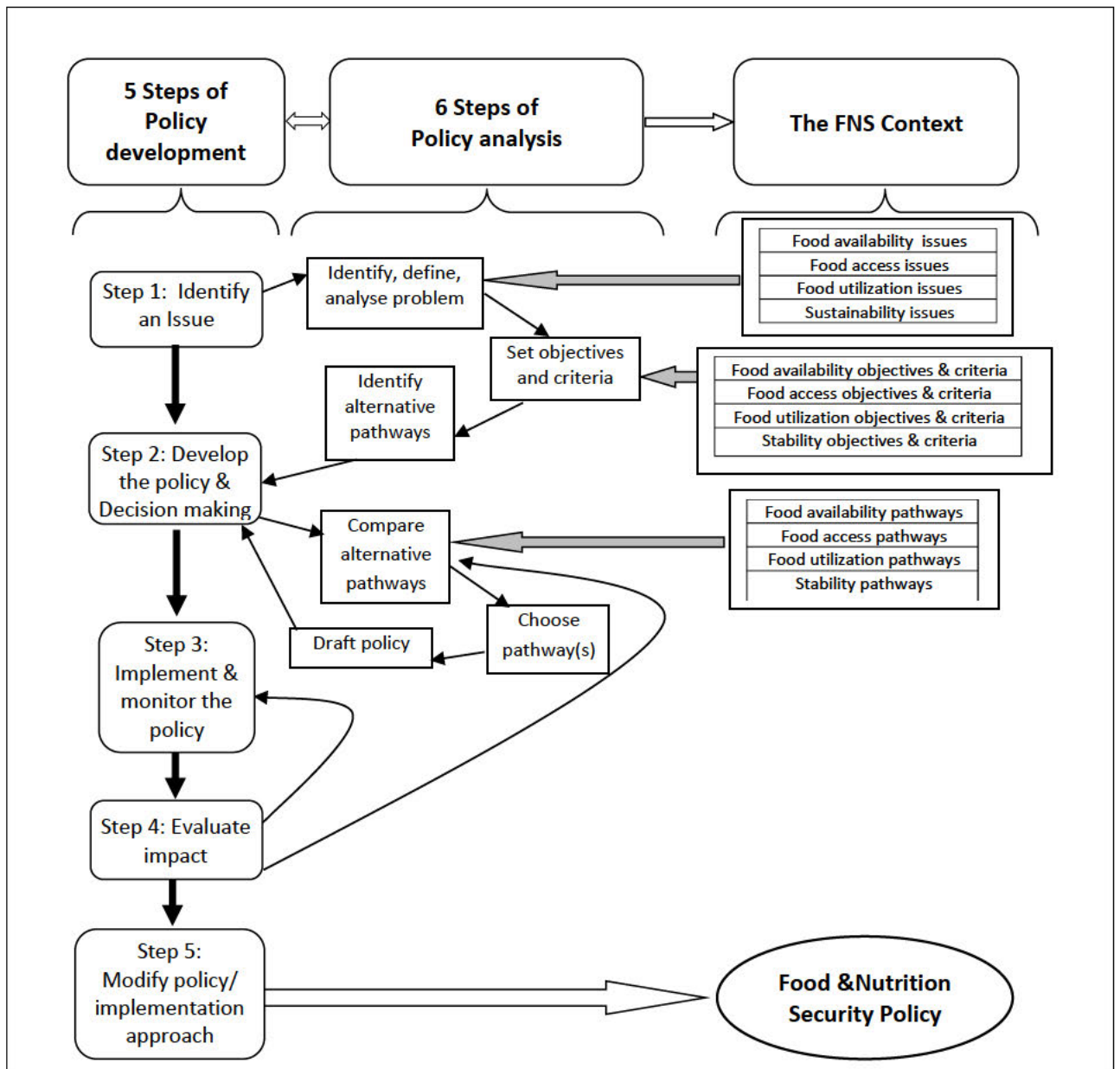
The second variable is *changing material conditions*. One aspect of this refers to the continuous availability of financial resources – particularly for those policies that demand a constant amount of expenditure such as subsidies or social transfers. The development of new technologies such as electronic smart cards for accessing subsidised food can also shift the beliefs about what is feasible. A substantial change in material conditions also happens when the initial relevant problem that prompted the policy has been resolved<sup>44</sup>.

The last variable is the occurrence of *shifts in the institutional setting* which can alter key policy mandates and preferences. Institutional change is a very critical factor that can overturn the whole policymaking system. This change may include the election of a new president, arrival or appointment of new cabinet ministers, promulgation of a new constitution that re-allocates authority or power over operations, or reassigning of parliamentary committees such as the food and nutrition security portfolio committee. These shifts may kill institutional memory and open an opportunity for players who are hungry to establish their own legacy and create a new direction<sup>46</sup>.

### **4.3 Policy Analysis Framework in the context of FNS**

Figure 4.3 shows the policy development and analysis processes discussed earlier in the context of FNS. It encapsulates the key elements of the preceding discussion. The analysis process has

five stages: define and analyse the problem, construct policy alternatives, choosing criteria for evaluation, assess the alternatives (at this stage it may be necessary to go back to construct another alternative), and draw conclusions. Between the two stages (policy development and policy analysis), the dual-directional arrows signify that policy analysis can be retrospective (analysis of existing policy), or proactive policy analysis (analysis for policy) where policy options are sorted from existing policies and/or anticipated from proposed policy options. The FNS policy context draws attention the need to incorporate (as depicted by the three grey arrows) the four pillars of FNS when identifying, defining and analysing the issue; setting objectives and criteria; and identifying alternative pathways.



**Figure 4.3: Policy analysis framework in the context of FNS**

Applying the five steps of policy development including the six steps of policy analysis in the context of the four pillars of FNS facilitates developing and implementing public FNS policy that will be efficacious, effective and efficient in addressing the persistent threat of FNIS.

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## CHAPTER 5

### THE POLICY FRAMEWORK AND INSTITUTIONAL SET-UP FOR FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY IN ESWATINI: PERSPECTIVES FROM KEY INFORMANTS

#### **Abstract**

In many publications, the UN has revealed there will be population increase to 9.1 billion by 2050. This increasing population is continuously demanding increased food production. Many efforts have been made by the UN, such as the ICN, World Declaration on Nutrition and Plan of Action for Nutrition, MDGs, and the SDGs. The main objective of the study was to assess the policy and the institutional set up for FNS in Eswatini in order to identify existing policy challenges and recommendations. This is a qualitative study that involved interviews with key informants who were selected by non-probability expert sampling from among twenty institutions with direct or indirect connections to FNS in Eswatini. The methodology of this research involved assessment of deep insight of the multi-sectoral approach used to implement food and nutrition security activities from the Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Natural Resources and Energy, Academia, UN Agencies, Civil Society, and Non-Governmental Organization. The crucial sector policies, and strategic plans, and annual reports were studied, so as to determine the effectiveness in participation to ensure functionality in the coordination of multi-sectoral or inter-sectoral activities. These documents (policies and strategic plans) were in current governance structures. The effectiveness of multi-sectoral or inter-sectoral was determined through the exploration of annual report. It was found that the direct FNS policies are mainly held in the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Health. The other entities facilitate supporting role of the policies and programs held in these two institutions. These ministries are involved in policy development, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation of the policies. There is lack of a top-level government coordinating body that can unite all FNS institutions to facilitate policy monitoring and evaluation. Therefore, the government should consider establishing a coordinating body at the highest political position to have authority to convene all the FNS multi-stakeholder and also influence state budget.

**Keywords:** *Institutions, policy, programs, food and nutrition security, key informants, challenges.*

## **Overview of this paper**

As is the case in most countries FNS in Eswatini comprises a number of components including institutions, policies, programs, and projects. This research presented in this paper looks at all of these and the relationship to one another. This paper first presents a brief literature review on FNS, a statement of the research design and methodology, and the findings which are organized around the institutions, policies, and the FNS programs pursued by the institutions. This is followed by a consolidation of the challenges to and recommendations for FNS in Eswatini as raised by the respondent key informants. The paper ends with an initial discussion to highlight key issues related to the policy and institutional frameworks governing FNS in Eswatini.

## **5.1 Introduction**

The United Nation (UN)<sup>1</sup> has indicated in a number of publications that the world's population will increase to 9.1 billion by 2050. This increase is mainly expected in the developing world. Urbanization will increase at a faster rate, and it is expected that nearly 70 percent of the world's population will live in urban areas. This has direct implications for food production and food security with predictions that food production would need to increase by 70 percent to meet the impending demand<sup>2</sup>.

Several efforts by the UN to prepare for this future have been implemented since 1992, when FAO and WHO convened an International Conference on Nutrition (ICN) where governments pledged to endeavor to eliminate or drastically reduce, before the year 2000: starvation and famine; widespread chronic hunger; under-nutrition, especially among children, women and the aged; micronutrient deficiencies, especially iron, iodine and vitamin A deficiencies; diet-related communicable and non-communicable diseases; impediments to optimal breast-feeding; and inadequate sanitation, poor hygiene and unsafe drinking-water<sup>3</sup>. Additionally, the World Declaration on Nutrition and Plan of Action for Nutrition is a guide to the technical issues of nutrition policy and program development, is another example of the efforts made to address issues related to food and nutrition security<sup>3</sup>.

Following the ICN conference, in September 2000, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were established. MDGs were a global effort to tackle the humiliation of poverty. The MDGs established quantifiable, universally-agreed objectives for confronting life-threatening poverty and hunger, precluding fatal diseases, and increasing primary education to all children,

among other development priorities<sup>4</sup>. For 15 years, the MDGs facilitated improvement in various vital aspects: reducing income poverty; improving access to safe water and sanitation; reducing child mortality; and drastically improving maternal health. They also initiated a global move toward free primary education, encouraging investment to the future generation, and impact in combating HIV/AIDS and Malaria.

The recent effort of the UN to improve FNS is entrenched in the sustainable development goals (SDGs) which were established at the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development in Rio de Janeiro in 2012. The SDGs are an urgent call to direct the global community toward sustainable development routes. All the 17 SDGs are interconnected with FNS being addressed directly and indirectly.

Establishing and sustaining FNS at all levels is a challenge to which governments must respond. As a member of the United Nations since 11 September 1968, The Kingdom of Eswatini has endorsed the UN recommendations on people's development. It is therefore imperative to ensure current and long-term FNS through the government giving practical expression to its commitment to meet the SDGs. This is only possible through developing and implementing appropriate policies and programs that will tackle the immediate life-threatening FNS needs and simultaneously lay the foundation for addressing long-term FNS concerns. Thus, this aspect of the study sought to establish the perspectives of the main role-players in Eswatini about Eswatini FNS. The process followed led them to identifying challenges and recommendations.

## **5.2 Methodology**

This was a qualitative study to assess the policy framework and the institutional set up for FNS in Eswatini to identify existing policy gaps and recommendations. This part of the study involved interviews with 20 key informants who were selected by non-probability expert sampling from among 25 institutions with direct or indirect connections to FNS in Eswatini. The researcher communicated in writing to the selected institutions providing a brief description of the study, highlighting the main goal of the research, and requesting them to identify and give permission to interview a relevant official in their institution who was competent to represent the institution as a key informant in the study. Ultimately, 20 institutions agreed to participate and nominated a key informant. Each of the key informants from the 20 institutions were successfully interviewed.

Semi-structured questionnaires were developed and administered by the researcher in-face-to-face interviews with key informants. The questionnaires comprised primarily open-ended questions to give the informants maximum latitude in responding. The questionnaire guide sought to ascertain the categories of the organization; Government Ministries, Parastatals, United Nations Agencies, Non-governmental Organizations, Coordinating Bodies and Private Sector. In addition, the questionnaire guide explored the nature of the organization's mandate, programs and activities, target group, location (rural or urban) and policies informing their programs.

Each interview took between 45 minutes to an hour to complete. In the process of responding to the questions, the informant was allowed to elaborate while the researcher captured the responses in writing and noted areas that would require further elaboration. Where supporting documents like policies, strategies and annual reports were available, they were provided by the key informant. The contents of these documents formed corroborating data for the data gathered from the key informants.

Data analysis was informed by the Grounded Theory by Glaser and Strauss<sup>5</sup>. Content analysis was used to analyse the responses from the key informants<sup>6,7</sup>. The general procedure entailed analysing each interview, and assessing the role and level of involvement of the key informant in the FNS activities. Stakeholder groupings were used to ascertain the institutional category and its mandate in the FNS system. The categories were Government Ministries, Parastatals, United Nations Agencies, Non-governmental Organizations, Coordinating Bodies and Academia. Within this framework, interactions of these agencies with FNS were assessed across stakeholder groups, focusing on the nature of their mandate, programs and activities, target group, location (rural or urban) and policies informing their programs. From this analysis, key themes were developed and critical relationships were identified<sup>5</sup>.

## **5.3 Results**

### **5.3.1 Overview of participating institutions**

Data was gathered from institutions which are to some degree engaged in FNS in Eswatini ranging from Government ministries, Parastatals, NGOs, UN agencies, Coordinating bodies and Academia. KIs from the participating institutions included senior managers, program coordinators and officers, and researchers. Most of the institutions (75%) have their head offices

in Mbabane (the administrative capital of Eswatini) and provide their services nationally. Most of the participating institutions (65%) serve all population groups; 25% focus on women, 20% focus on children, 15% focus on youth. About 80% of the participating institutions provided health and nutrition services as well as evidence-based information on FNS. Some 60-65% of the institutions focus on vulnerability reduction, safe drinking water, and availability of food during disasters. Some 50-55% addresses agricultural production and awareness on postharvest losses.

### 5.3.2 Policies and Strategies for improving Food and Nutrition Security (FNS) in Eswatini

Institutions were asked to highlight key policies and strategy documents that govern their mandates. The dominant policies and strategies having a bearing on FNS in Eswatini and the percentage of the participating institutions are captured in Table 5.1: *Dominating Policies and Strategies for improving FNS in Eswatini*

**Table 5.1: Dominating Policies and Strategies for improving FNS in Eswatini**

Policy/Strategy	Date of Original Publication	% of institution that use the policy	Hosting departments or Institutions
Strategy for Sustainable Development & Inclusive Growth	2014	80%	Ministry of Tourism and Environmental Affairs, Ministry of Agriculture, National Disaster Management Agency (NDMA), Eswatini Red Cross, University of Eswatini, WFP, Coordinating Assembly of NGO (CANGO), Save the Children, WHO, FAO, Municipal Council of Mbabane, ACAT Lilima Eswatini, Eswatini Dairy Board, Eswatini Environmental Authority (EEA), NAMBoard, & ESWADE.
National Food and Nutrition Policy ( <i>still Final draft stage</i> )	2016	65%	Ministry of Agriculture, Eswatini National Nutrition Council, UNICEF, University of Eswatini, WFP, CANGO, Save the Children, WHO, FAO, World Vision Eswatini, ACAT Lilima Eswatini, NAMBoard, & ESWADE.
National Development Strategy	2014	55%	Ministry of Agriculture, Eswatini National Nutrition Council, Eswatini Red Cross, UNICEF, University of Eswatini, WFP, CANGO, Municipal Council of Mbabane, ACAT Lilima Eswatini, Eswatini Dairy Board, ESWADE.
Food Security Policy	2005	45%	Ministry of Agriculture, University of Eswatini, CANGO, FAO, World Vision Eswatini, ACAT Lilima Eswatini, Eswatini Dairy Board, NAMBoard, & ESWADE.
Comprehensive Agriculture sector Policy	2005	45%	Ministry of Agriculture, Eswatini Vulnerability Assessment Committee (VAC), CANGO, FAO, World Vision Eswatini, ACAT Lilima Eswatini, Eswatini Dairy Board, NAMBoard, & ESWADE.

<b>Policy/Strategy</b>	<b>Date of Original Publication</b>	<b>% of institution that use the policy</b>	<b>Hosting departments or Institutions</b>
National Health Sector Strategic Plan II (NHSSP II)	2014	45%	Eswatini National Nutrition Council, Eswatini Red Cross, UNICEF, University of Eswatini, WFP, CANGO, Save the Children, WHO, &ESWADE
National NCD Prevention and Control Policy	2016	45%	Eswatini National Nutrition Council, UNICEF, University of Eswatini, WFP, CANGO, Save the Children, WHO, FAO, World Vision Eswatini.
Eswatini Nutrition Mainstreaming Strategy	2019	35%	Ministry of Agriculture, Eswatini National Nutrition Council, WFP, World Vision Eswatini, ACAT Lilima Eswatini, Eswatini Dairy Board, & ESWADE.
Eswatini Agricultural Investment Plan	2015-2025	35%	Ministry of Agriculture, Eswatini National Nutrition Council, Eswatini VAC, FAO, World Vision Eswatini, Eswatini Dairy Board, & ESWADE.
National Climate Change Policy	2016	35%	Ministry of Tourism and Environmental Affairs, Ministry of Agriculture, University of Eswatini, Municipal Council of Mbabane, ACAT Lilima Eswatini, & Eswatini Dairy Board, EEA.
Swaziland United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF)	2016-2020	30%	UNICEF, WFP, CANGO, Save the Children, WHO,& FAO

The Strategy for Sustainable Development is the most commonly used strategy; it is used by 80% of the agencies. This appears to be because the Eswatini government adopted the Sustainable Development Agenda 2030 and, further, gave focus on the SDG 1 and 2 in an effort to achieve zero hunger and ending poverty by 2030. The strategy is crosscutting in that it is implemented by stakeholders directly involved in FNS and by those that focus only on poverty alleviation. On the other hand, the Food Security Policy is one of the oldest and yet it is used by less than half the organisations. This is because it is centralized in the Ministry of Agriculture, its parastatals, and the supporting partners in the agriculture sector and does not speak readily to the other agencies that participated in the study. Further, some of the concerns with the Food Security Policy have been captured into the Strategy for Sustainable Development & Inclusive Growth which may obviate the need for agencies to be guided by it.

### **5.3.3 Institutional Set-up for Addressing FNS**

Among these participating institutions, the ministries of Agriculture and Health are directly involved in FNS and directly responsible for the above policies and strategies. The other

institutions are guided by the policies and strategies and support and facilitate their implementation.

#### **5.3.3.1 Ministry of Agriculture**

The Ministry of Agriculture is the main institution contributing to FNS in Eswatini. Its mandate includes offering a range of support services to the agricultural sector that improves FNS. The departments and sections with direct impact on FNS are Agriculture Research and Specialists, Veterinary and Livestock Production Services, Agricultural and Extension Services, Fisheries Development, and Home Economics (the latter being where nutrition services are situated).

Within the ministry, the main focus of Agricultural Research and Specialists is identifying crop varieties that are adaptable and suitable in the various regions of the country, establishing efficient water management practises, providing soil testing and advice on soil restoration and improvement. Veterinary and Livestock Production Services has a largely regulatory role and specializes in improving livestock management and upgrading grazing land management. Agriculture and Extension Services focuses on effective and efficient farming systems and technologies to facilitate resilience and improve harvests. It has the express mandate to enable the country increase food production and access to nutritious and state food products for food security and improving nutritional status of the Swazi nation<sup>8</sup>. Fisheries Development is mandated to foster sustainable fisheries management and aquaculture development as a specific strategy to contribute to securing FNS at household and national level. Home Economics is responsible for improving household economics and livelihoods by promoting improved nutrition, home management, child care and development, consumer education and income generating activities.

The Agriculture ministry has four parastatals whose collective mandate is to transform the predominantly subsistence mode of agriculture on Swazi Nation land (traditionally-held land) to sustainable commercially-oriented agriculture through a process of commercialization and diversification. The four parastatal institutions are the National Agricultural Marketing Board (NAMBoard), Eswatini Water and Agricultural Development Enterprise (ESWADE), the National Maize Corporation (NMC), and the Eswatini Dairy Board (EDB).

The main function of NAMBoard is stimulating local production through providing technical services and marketing. It focuses mainly on smallholder farmers. Additionally, it regulates importation of fresh produce through levy collection at the point of entry, collects fresh produce from farmers and distributes them to consumers, provides marketing extension services, pack house facilities, and quality assurance services, and provides shops where farmers can access seeds, seedlings, and other farm inputs, to support timely planting. NAMBoard's programs keep the local market continuously flourishing while encouraging continuous production, livelihoods, and minimizing postharvest losses. Thus, FNS is directly supported through continuous availability of food. The livelihoods created make it possible for farmers to diversify their diets by facilitating access to other foods different from food produced at home.

The National Maize Corporation (NMC) is a state-owned enterprise established in 1985. Its functions involve trading white maize. It contributes to food security through grain purchasing, storage and distribution thereby assuring year-round supplies of maize which is a staple in the Swazi diet.

The Eswatini Dairy Board (EDB) regulates the dairy industry. It also supports milk producers through training and advisory services including needs assessment for establishing dairy farming, siting and building dairy structures, forage production and conservation, and monitoring milk hygiene. EDB also provide advice on pasture development and management, procuring dairy animals (goats and cattle) and artificial insemination. They also regulate the dairy industry and balance local dairy production through charging levies on imported milk and dairy products. Restriction of dairy imports promotes local dairy production which facilitates growth of the local dairy industry. Such growth creates jobs, improves livelihoods, and increases purchasing power there by also increasing opportunities to diversify diets.

The Eswatini Water and Agricultural Development Enterprise (ESWADE) was established in 1999 to facilitate planning and implementing the Komati Downstream Development Project (KDDP) and the Lower Usuthu Smallholder Irrigation Project, as well as other bulk water and agricultural development projects the government may commission. ESWADE contributes to mitigating the potential shock of drought triggered by climate-change by developing infrastructure that facilitates irrigation and access to safe water for households and livestock. With this facility, communities are able to produce a wide range of food irrespective of the

amount of rains received, thus making its contribution to FNS by enabling continuous year-round food production and improved livelihood both of which are determinants of FNS.

### 5.3.3.2 *Ministry of Health*

The Ministry of Health addresses nutrition services through a regulatory body, the Eswatini National Nutrition Council (ENNC) that was established by an Act of Parliament in 1945. ENNC is mandated to promote food and nutrition activities and to advise the government accordingly. ENNC seeks to enhance the nutrition and health status of the nation at all levels of society by creating an enabling environment for the provision of food and nutrition services in Eswatini. The ENNC does this in part by regulating the development of nutrition policies and simultaneously implementing the programs stipulated in the Nutrition Policy. The key interventions are infant and young child feeding, integrated community-based growth monitoring and promotion, integrated management of acute malnutrition in children and adults, nutrition & HIV, prevention and control of micronutrients deficiencies, and nutrition surveillance. The ENNC is overseen by a board on which sit, among others, representatives of the Ministries of Agriculture and Health who, respectively serve as chair and vice-chair of by board. This demonstrates the leading and collaborative roles the two Ministries play in developing, implementing, and monitoring FNS policy.

### 5.3.3.3 *Other key institutions*

Other institutions playing substantial roles in FNS, and the role they play are shown in Table 5.2. These institutions have mandates that indirectly influence FNS; many of them have direct links to national FNS policies held by the Ministries of Agriculture and Health.

**Table 5.2: Other key institutions for FNS**

<b>Institution</b>	<b>Function and Role Played in Food and Nutrition Security</b>
<b>Government and its Parastatals</b>	
Meteorology in the Ministry of Tourism and Environmental Affairs	This department is Designated National Authority for climate change issues and operates through the National Focal Point to the UNFCCC. Its primary role is to oversee meteorological issues and to build national climate resilience and facilitate low carbon development in line with national priorities of inclusive growth and sustainable development. Promotes FNS through building resilience in the agriculture sector by reducing vulnerability to climate change and raising adaptive capacity through issuing timely information on climate change for emergency preparedness.

<b>Institution</b>	<b>Function and Role Played in Food and Nutrition Security</b>
Eswatini Environmental Authority in the Ministry of Tourism and Environmental Affairs	Key mandate is to ensure that the environment in Eswatini is treated properly now and in the future. “Environment” is defined very broadly and includes the atmosphere, water in all its forms, land, soil and subsoil, flora, fauna, energy sources, minerals, and various other aspects linked to energy and human living conditions. EEA regulates environmental policies and monitors the state of the environment. Contributes to FNS by promoting eco-friendly food production technologies, processing, climate smart systems and incentives of sustainable production. One of their targets is to make sure all areas under agriculture; aquaculture and forestry are managed sustainably, ensuring conservation of Eswatini’s biodiversity by 2022.
Municipal Council of Mbabane in the Ministry of Housing and Urban development	Establish waste minimizing initiatives focusing on waste recycling, re-use and reduction practices for use as a resource to promote livelihoods. One major initiative in line with food security is the food waste composting for use as organic fertilizer for backyard gardening and also for sale to increase access to a variety of food from shelves hence nutrition is improved in the urban communities. Food safety is also a major component that ensures the sale of safe and healthy food in the city.
National Disaster Management Agency (NDMA) under the Deputy Prime Minister’s Office	NDMA’s mandate is to prevent and mitigate the impact of disasters by promoting an integrated and coordinated system of disaster management focusing on reducing vulnerability, strengthening preparedness and mitigation capacity. Among its objectives is the mandate to ensure national food security and to support disaster-affected households restore their agricultural productive capacity and eventually build resilience to future climatic shocks.
<b>UN Agencies</b>	
UNICEF	Promotes and supports good maternal and child nutrition status through technical and funding support to the Ministry of Health and other implementing partners. The life cycle approach has been adopted by government and UNICEF to ensure that children’s needs are met at every stage of development. Much attention is given to the second decade of life ensuring, in particular, that adolescent girls are learning, protected and growing well.
WFP (World Food Program)	Provides support to government through technical assistance, services and coordination support for national food and nutrition security policies and programs through strategies that allow progress on gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls, and HIV-sensitive actions. Also provides assistance on disaster reporting for government to respond to.
WHO (World Health Organization)	Provides technical and financial support to government, especially the Ministry of Health. Its main role in nutrition includes the Nutrition Landscape Information System (NLIS) indicator summary, WHO Global Database on Iodine deficiency, WHO Global data bank on infant and young child feeding, and WHO Global Database on Child Growth and Malnutrition.

<b>Institution</b>	<b>Function and Role Played in Food and Nutrition Security</b>
FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization)	FAO assistance covers the formulation and implementation of food security and nutrition policies, including risk reduction and management strategies, and activities to increase agricultural productivity. More recently, cooperation has included a focus on market access and agricultural competitiveness with support to smallholders' transition from subsistence to commercial agriculture. Emphasis is also given to the sustainable management of natural resources.
<b>NGOs (Food Security Consortium)</b>	
World Vision	World Vision's focus is taking care of a child through food security, economic development, water sanitation and hygiene (WASH), health, education, social justice and spirituality. They facilitate raising the voices of boys and girls in discourses on protecting children from violence thereby empowering children to speak up to protect their rights, report cases of child abuse, and particularly protect women and girls.
Save the Children	Facilitates access to basic services such as food, health, and education for children. Overall protection of children includes thematic areas such as food security, sexual reproductive health, education and humanitarian services.
ACAT (Africa Cooperative Action Trust)	Promote household food security in the rural areas primarily targeting women and children. Their main focus is on ecologically sound food production and building capacity to adapt to the effects of climate change, especially drought.
Red Cross	Aims to alleviate pain and suffering in emergencies. Services are provided following fundamental principles of humanity, impartiality, neutrality, independence, voluntary service, unity, and universality. They provide services without segregation of religion, faith, political affiliation. Focus mainly on disaster management which include food security.
<b>Coordination Body</b>	
CANGO (Coordinated Assembly of NGOs)	Coordinates NGOs in Eswatini, builds capacity of its members to fulfil their specific mandates, and to influence national and international policies through advocacy. The food security consortium is a group of NGOs under CANGO whose mandate is to ensure food security in the communities.
VAC (Vulnerability Assessment Committee)	Provides evidence-based information on the state of livelihoods and household -level vulnerability to inform policy and programming in the government and development partners.
<b>Private sector</b>	
University of Eswatini	Promotes FNS and innovation. The university nurtures talent and builds skill to promote livelihoods. It develops, manages and implements FNS initiatives for value chain development and improvement. Facilitates learning at various levels (academic, vocational and specialist). Advises on policy and education for food security and rural development.

### 5.3.4 Food and Nutrition Security Programs

Key informants were asked to highlight key FNS programs that their organizations were pursuing. Table presents the summary of their responses. The percentage values represent the

proportion of the institutions that pursue the programs in the field of FNS. Institutions that reported that they are pursuing policy implementation such as food production, nutrition education and communication, community development, food distribution, household health, and social welfare reached 60-70% than those pursuing policy oversight such as providing policy framework & guidance (40%).

**Table 5.3: Major FNS Programs as highlighted by study participants**

<b>Program</b>	<b>Proportion of institution reported pursuing these programs</b>	<b>Institutions pursuing these programs</b>	<b>Role in the FNS Policy</b>
Food Production	70%	Ministry of Agriculture, NDMA, Eswatini Red Cross, WFP, CANGO (Food Security Consortium), Save the Children, FAO, World Vision Eswatini, Mbabane Municipal, ACAT Lilima Eswatini, Eswatini Dairy Board, Eswatini Environmental Authority, NAMBoard, & ESWADE.	Policy Implementation
Nutrition education and communication	70%	Ministry of Agriculture, Eswatini National Nutrition Council, Eswatini Red Cross, UNICEF, University of Eswatini, WFP, CANGO (Food Security Consortium), Save the Children, WHO, FAO, World Vision Eswatini, Municipal Council of Mbabane, Eswatini Dairy Board, & ESWADE.	
Community development	70%	Ministry of Agriculture, Eswatini Red Cross, University of Eswatini, WFP, CANGO (Food Security Consortium), Save the Children, FAO, World Vision Eswatini, Municipal Council of Mbabane, ACAT Lilima Eswatini, Eswatini Dairy Board, Eswatini Environmental Authority, NAMBoard, & ESWADE.	
Food distribution	60%	Ministry of Agriculture, NDMA, Eswatini Red Cross, WFP, CANGO (Food Security Consortium), Save the Children, FAO, World Vision Eswatini, ACAT Lilima Eswatini, Eswatini Dairy Board, NAMBoard, & ESWADE	
Household health	60%	Ministry of Agriculture, NDMA, Eswatini Red Cross, UNICEF, CANGO, Save the Children, WHO, World Vision Eswatini, Municipal Council of Mbabane, ACAT Lilima Eswatini, Eswatini Dairy Board, & ESWADE.	
Social Welfare	60%	Ministry of Agriculture, University of Eswatini, WFP, Save the Children, FAO, World Vision Eswatini, Municipal Council of Mbabane, ACAT Lilima Eswatini, Eswatini Dairy Board, Eswatini Environmental Authority, NAMBoard, and ESWADE.	
Providing Policy Framework & guidance	40%	Ministry of Tourism and Environmental Affairs, Ministry of Agriculture, Eswatini VAC, UNICEF, WHO, FAO, Municipal Council of Mbabane, Eswatini Environmental Authority.	Policy oversight

### 5.3.4.1 Key National Development Projects

The key national development projects with existing infrastructure that have been established with continuous contributions to FNS are shown in Table . These projects were established to improve food security and livelihoods of the country particularly in the communities that are within the project area. These include agricultural schemes where sugar cane plantations owned by the communities are grown, and promote back yard gardening and potable water supply is brought closer to the people.

**Table 5.4: Key national projects with continuous contribution to FNS**

<b>Project</b>	<b>Maguga Dam</b>
History	Construction work started in 1996.
Primary purpose (why it was established)	Its purpose was to provide water supply to the Komati Downstream Development Project in Eswatini and also irrigation water to South Africa downstream of the river.
What it provides	The dam drives the power production which contributes about 8% of the national power requirement. It is also a major supplier of water to the Pig's Peak town and the rural communities along the piping system to the town. Improving food security in Eswatini through transition from subsistence to communally managed cash cropping.
What it has accomplished	It has enabled 6,000 hectares of semi-arid lowveld, in a region with low and highly variable rainfall, to be converted from subsistence to irrigated commercial farming, mainly sugar cane.
Contribution to FNS	It has indirectly improved food security in Eswatini by enhancing livelihood through transition from subsistence to communally managed cash cropping.
<b>Project</b>	<b>Komati Downstream Development Projects</b>
History	Started in 2004
Primary purpose (why it was established)	To establish an irrigation system to about 7400 ha of land to defeat widespread rural poverty, raise incomes.
What it provides	Water supply for sugar cane plantations
What it has accomplished	It impacted 19500 people; of these 14500 were direct participants.
Contribution to FNS	Indirectly improved food security by promoting commercialisation of subsistence farms.
<b>Project</b>	<b>Lower Usuthu Smallholder Irrigation Project</b>
History	It was approved in December 2001 and became effective in January 2004 after an effectiveness lag of 25 months.

<b>Project</b>	<b>Maguga Dam</b>
Primary purpose (why it was established)	Integration of smallholder farming households into the commercial economy through the provision of irrigation infrastructure, development of the policy and legal framework for smallholder irrigation, as well as establishment of farmer-managed irrigation institutions; and sustainable improvement in environmental health in the project area to ensure that the population derives the full benefits of agricultural commercialisation.
What it provides	(a) Irrigation infrastructure to permit the production of high-value crops by smallholders; (b) a complete package of measures empowering smallholders to benefit from access to valuable water resources; and (c) health and environmental measures that will mitigate negative health and environmental impacts, and also enable the target group to derive the full benefits of the investment.
What it has accomplished	Infrastructure with ability to impound, store, and distribute 155 million cubic metres of water per annum. Approximately 115 farmer-managed institutions benefitting 4600 households. All households in the project area with access to potable water and sanitation facilities. All negative impacts of the project are mitigated against and positive impacts enhanced.
Contribution to FNS	Source of income from the cash crop, sugar-cane, and the availability of water which enhances continuous production of other diverse crops.

### **5.3.5 Key Challenges and possible solutions for implementing FNS programs**

The key informants were asked to identify key challenges their organisations encounter when implementing the FNS interventions. They were also asked to suggest possible solutions to these challenges. Ten challenges emerged from these interviews. These are captured in Table 5.5 and thereafter described in some detail.

**Table 5.5: Key challenges and solutions for implementing FNS Programs**

<b>Challenge</b>	<b>% of KIs identifying challenge</b>	<b>Potential solutions</b>
Climate change impact	45	Seasonal planning for the impact of climate change to facilitate preparedness, resilience, and adaptation of the society to the change
Limited financial and technical capacity	25	Advocacy for national prioritization of FNS programs
Conflicts and disputes: between chiefdoms; within chiefdom councils; between households; and between households and the authority of the chief.	30	Better communication between and within chiefdoms Regional Administrators (RA) should be included in the planning processes and in settling disputes The health, development and well-being of the community must always come before politics
Limited market yet high risk products	25	Commercial horticulture farming and other high value crops Investment on training in agriculture value chains and marketing Strengthen markets through incentives such as ‘tax holidays’ Centralizing levy collection to the central government
Lack of promulgation of policies	25	A high level government body is required to coordinate and mobilize all contributing parties to finalize and endorse working/draft policies and documents
Lack of coordination of FNS policies and strategies	35	High level government coordinating body to track the implementation of policy institution supporting FNS processes and also avail resources according to the work needed to be done or completed
Duplication of efforts	30	Develop a database of projects as a cross-reference for planning and coordinating new projects with ongoing and concluded projects and, where possible, building on them Redesigning or retargeting overlapping proposals
Commitment fee for Farm input subsidies is still very high	30	Reduction of the commitment fee by the government
Lack of land policy targeting women and youth	30	Traditional policy/practice be amended to include an arrangement that requires the woman to return the land should she take up residence elsewhere with her husband Chiefs could lease rather than permanently allocate land to any applicant who might later lose the land through marriage or relocation.
Lack of inclusiveness in policy development	25	Consultation employing a bottom-up approach in policy development, including the process of adopting international policy recommendations must be instituted

#### **5.3.5.1 *Climate change impact***

Forty-five percent (45%) of the key informants highlighted that the agricultural environment is very dynamic and it is difficult to predict the future which, they indicated, is more often than not, the result of the impact of climate change. This challenge can be dealt with by seasonal planning for the impact of climate change to enhance resilience and adaptation. Another solution proposed was to develop and timely disseminate/implement mitigation measures to ensure preparedness for the negative impact of climate change. These could include rehabilitating existing water schemes, establishing new boreholes, promoting drip irrigation, decentralizing irrigation services and infrastructure, and drought resistant seeds.

#### **5.3.5.2 *Conflicts and disputes***

It was raised by 30% of the key informants that chiefdom and community conflicts inhibit progress in implementing FNS programs. The conflicts have four facets: between chiefdoms; within chiefdom councils; between households, and between households and the authority of the chief. The chiefdom's disputes usually emanate from disagreements over area jurisdiction with chiefdom. Sometimes within the same chiefdom there are disputes concerning who is the rightful successor of a late chief resulting in division in leadership. Household to household disputes emanate from compound boundary encroachment of a neighbour or the chief allocating land that has already been allocated. The household becomes angry for transferring the household's land to another household or reallocating the household land without compensation for community development. The household-chiefdom disputes, in particular, stall development and/or provision of services.

The potential solutions to the range of conflicts recommended better communication between and within chiefdoms, especially when considering projects that might encroach on existing land allocations. Regional Administrators should be included in the planning processes and in settling disputes. Specifically, if a proposed project will encroach on an existing household allocation, the relevant chief should be engaged to arrange fair compensation.

A second element of solving disputes is to put greater effort into ensuring that all parties are aware and act in accordance with the principle that FNS and other development projects should not be affected by politics (local or national). It should be stressed that the health, development and well-being of the community must always come before politics. Specifically, no chief should exclude a household from benefiting from FNS initiatives as a punishment for

disobeying the local leadership or for engaging with another chief with whom the chief is in dispute.

#### ***5.3.5.3 Limited financial and technical capacity***

Twenty-five percent (25%) of the key informants cited that government's constrained fiscal situation resulted in over-reliance on development partners (i.e. donors). This causes the domestic budget for FNS programs to be below 10% of the national budget which is far below what is required. This challenge could be dealt with through advocacy for national prioritization of FNS programs, for creating posts to decentralize FNS services to the regions of the country, and for strengthening partnerships with academia to improve pre-service training in FNS research and practice.

#### ***5.3.5.4 Limited market yet high risk products***

Twenty-five percent (25%) of the key informants raised a challenge related to risks and vulnerabilities related to the limited capacity of the market. They argued that Eswatini is, geographically and in terms of population, a very small nation. Farming is less diverse and there are few processors of raw agricultural produce. This results in overproduction of perishable produce from smallholder/ small-scale farmers which cannot be absorbed by the local market. Thus, postharvest losses are at an unnecessarily high rate. Several solutions were suggested. Farmers should be encouraged and assisted to venture into commercial horticulture farming and other high value crops. Investment should be made in training in agriculture value chains and marketing to motivate productivity. Strengthen markets through incentives such as 'tax holidays' to attract investment into diversifying food production, especially nutritious products. Delink levy collection from parastatals to create a more coherent environment for market development. Specifically, the levy collection should be removed from the parastatals and centralized within government, and separately sub-vent the relevant parastatals to develop local production and markets. The current arrangement is seen as causing conflict of interest because the major revenue of the agricultural development parastatals is from levy, and levies are raised and collected based on produce and products imported into the country. Hence, it can be argued that these entities may frustrate local production so that the parastatals will collect more revenue from the import levy.

#### ***5.3.5.5 Lack of promulgation of policies***

Twenty-five percent (25%) of the key informants highlighted that a number of policies such as the National Food and Nutrition Policy have been in draft form for many parliamentary terms. They suggested that is because nutrition cuts across multiple government institutions (e.g. Health and Agriculture) and also has a direct bearing on the Ministry of Education. The key informants argue that a high level government body is required to coordinate and mobilize all contributing parties to finalize and endorse working/draft policies and documents. The proposed national coordination body could also help mobilize resources and allocate them to the FNS role players. This challenge is also related to the following challenge.

#### ***5.3.5.6 Lack of coordination of FNS policies & strategies***

There is a disparity regarding the duty bearers of the FNS policies ranging from the government ministries (Agriculture and the Health) to the various parastatals (listed in Table 3) which cut across other ministries. Thirty-five percent (35%) of the institutions cited the lack of an oversight body to track the implementation of policy and monitor the indicators from each institution supporting FNS processes. The proposed body must be positioned at the highest governmental level to convene all the relevant institutions to finalize and, where needed, develop additional FNS policies, and allocate responsibilities to institutions to implement different aspect of the FNS policies. Assignment should be allocated according to technical and financial capacity to implement the policy. The body must be allocated a dedicated budget covering finalizing/developing and implementing monitoring and evaluating policies. The body would then apportion budgets to the FNS role-players according to their assigned roles. It was further suggested that a budget would be replenished only after a performance appraisal of the previous financial year, thus assuring accountability.

#### ***5.3.5.7 Duplication of efforts***

It was observed by 30% of the key informants that organizations in the rural areas sometimes target the same area for similar projects. This results in wasting resources due to some (partially implemented) projects being abandoned because the beneficiaries find the 'other' developer providing better incentives. Participants migrate to the other project provider leaving unfinished work. A possible solution was to develop a database of projects as a cross-reference for planning and coordinating new projects with ongoing and concluded projects and, where possible,

building on them. Overlapping proposals, particularly in target areas where a project that has already been established, should be redesigned/retargeted to avoid duplication.

#### **5.3.5.8 *Commitment fee for Farm input subsidies is still very high***

The Ministry of Agriculture provides subsidies for farm inputs but farmers are required to pay commitment fee of approximately USD214. About 30% of the key informants submitted that the commitment fee paid by farmers to access the subsidised farm inputs is excessive for poorer farmers. Only those already affording to purchase these inputs benefit from the subsidy. One solution was to advocate for the reduction of the commitment fee by the government.

#### **5.3.5.9 *Lack of land policy targeting women and youth***

Thirty percent (30%) of the key informants raised the point that women and youth constitute a major percentage of rural communities. Unfortunately, there is no land policy targeting women and youth involvement in agriculture and enabling women to access land for farming. A major issue is that traditions inhibit granting access to land to a woman who is without his husband or single and has no male child. Although Eswatini's constitution grants women the right to access land without requiring a male figure, many chiefdoms are thwarted by traditional practice.

Briefly, when land is allocated it is recorded in the surname of the person to whom the land is allocated. Thus, if a woman is allocated land for building a home and farming, the chief must record the land in the woman's surname. If the woman marries or husband decides they should move to an alternative place, she changes surname and/or joins the husband's household or they build their home on land acquired by the husband, usually in a different area. In Swazi culture, it is shameful for a man to take up residence in his wife's home and not build his own home. It is believed that a man should build a home for his wife. In addition, a male youth who is single is also not allocated land unless he has married a wife. Traditionally, a young man seeks for land to build a home for his own wife and children. If he builds a home alone then later marry a woman who may not like the area where the home is located, they may abandon the place and look for another they both prefer. Hence traditional authorities do not find it worthwhile to allocate land to any single person.

Regarding the challenge around women marrying, the KIs suggested that (traditional) policy/practice be amended to include an arrangement that requires the woman to return the land should she take up residence elsewhere with her husband.

Regarding women and youth (of either gender), a solution could be that chiefs could lease rather than permanently allocate land to any applicant who might later lose the land through marriage or relocation. The lease would be exclusively for farming and income generation and renewed or revoked based on performance. This arrangement would need to be put in writing to avoid misunderstandings.

#### ***5.3.5.10 Lack of inclusiveness in policy development***

A number of policies are adopted by the country through international affiliations and conventions – which are external to Eswatini. Hence, 25% of the key informants felt that this encourages Eswatini to follow a top-down approach to development, neglecting the consultation with and inputs from the intended beneficiaries, specifically the vulnerable sector of the population. Thorough consultation employing a bottom-up approach in policy development, including the process of adopting international policy recommendations must be instituted. The process must be implemented using language (e.g. in explaining the proposed policy) and communication practices that ensure no one is left out. Specifically, where a policy clause stipulates restrictions, an alternative should be provided so that the livelihoods and wellbeing of the population is protected. For an example, if an approved policy restricts fishing from a river that has been a source of food and livelihood for the community, an alternative source of food and livelihood must be provided. These may include aquaculture in fish ponds, open window for seasonal fishing, promote livestock farming to complement the fishing, and encourage backyard gardening for short-term maturing crops and vegetables.

### **5.4 Summary of finding and preliminary discussions**

As stated earlier, the purpose of this section of the study sought to establish the perspective of the FNS from the main role players from Eswatini. The process followed led to them identifying challenges and recommendations.

The study found that there are at least 11 national documents contributing to FNS. Their development is facilitated mainly by the government ministries including the Ministries of Agriculture, and Health. Following these, Tourism and Environmental Affairs and the Deputy Prime Minister's Office provide support with the latter having responsibility and oversight for the management of disasters in Eswatini. Once approved and published, it is expected that these national documents are implemented by every government ministry and partners.

Among the 11 sighted policies that are used by the FNS main role players to inform their work, only two, Food Security Policy of 2005, and the Draft National Food and Nutrition Policy of 2016, directly address FNS. The National Food and Nutrition policy has not been officially promulgated since 2016 when it was reviewed from a 2009 draft policy; hence it is still technically in draft form. This gap was also picked by Phungwayo and others<sup>9</sup>, in the assessment of governance of FNS in Eswatini and in the 2018 Eswatini Zero Hunger Strategic Review (EZHSR)<sup>10</sup>. Also, the Food Security Policy has not been updated since 2005 which is concerning because there have been many changes over the years in the conceptualisation and practice of food security, not the least of which is the significant addition of nutrition as an explicit element of what was previously considered food security. The main recommendation of the EZHSR is “*there is a need to finalize policies that have remained drafts and review those that are outdated and develop a comprehensive implementation framework to guide full integration and implementation of the FNS related policies*”<sup>10</sup>.

It was also found that there is greater focus on policy implementation than on monitoring and evaluation of the FNS policies, making it difficult to track the extent of policy implementation by all the institutions involved. This is due to the fact that regulating bodies, government ministries and parastatals engage in both enforcing FNS policy and also participate in the implementation of the policy. This then enlarges the scope of work which then weakens the focus on determining whether policy is fulfilling its intended objective or not and taking corrective measures accordingly. Thus there is lack of reviewing and refocusing of policy.

The data show that about 65% of the participating institutions mentioned that they are focusing on vulnerability reduction. However, when it comes to addressing the key population groups in FNS, women, children and youth, only 25%, 20% and 15%, respectively, of the institutions address these population groups. It is not at all clear that they coordinate amongst themselves. This raises questions on the efficacy, efficiency and outcome of the work of these institutions.

The data also highlights an illuminating paradox. Women and youth are precluded *de facto* from accessing land yet they are major contributors into FNS. The restrictions emanate from the lack of policy allowing them to lease land for farming and for livelihood purposes while single, but strictly tied to acquiring land for permanently building a home when they are married. While possible in law, it is inhibited by practice. One of the key priority intervention

areas to alleviate FNIS from the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Food and Nutrition Security Strategy 2015-2025<sup>11</sup> is ‘improved access to land and water for agriculture’. The key performance indicators of this intervention are; number of women and youth with access to land, land allocation to women and youth, number of states with programs on land and water for women and youth, land allocation by gender, land allocation to disabled and other vulnerable groups, existence of best practices being shared on land reform, and percentage of arable land under irrigation. As Eswatini is a member state in the SADC region, it is expected that the government of Eswatini’s performance be guided by these indicators elucidated in the SADC Food and Nutrition Security Strategy 2015-2025.

Among the challenges raised by the institutions, the key challenges the lack of a coordinating body which should be at a high level of government, that should coordinate all contributing institutions to FNS, and enhance the renewal or updating of policies and also play a major role in sourcing and allocating funds necessary to implement the FNS policies. Existence of this body could bring ministries and their implementing partners together to draft policies that could address human rights issues such as land allocation to women and youth and develop national strategies to implement FNS policies. In addition, the major identified challenge, climate change, can be dealt with through the strong coordinating body that will coordinate the fight against the negative impact of climate change by the multi-stakeholders.

A similar approach of a coordinating body at highest level government was successfully implemented by Ghana in 1994 when the National Development Planning Commission (NDPC) was created<sup>12</sup>. This yielded substantial achievements in term of poverty reduction, stability, democracy, and economic growth, making Ghana one of the few countries that exceeded the Millennium Development Goal of halving poverty by 2013<sup>13</sup>. By 2015, Ghana had a 50% reduction in the number of hungry people and had achieved a major decline in the prevalence of stunted, wasted, and overweight children<sup>14</sup>. Concerning food systems, the NDPC played a vital role in the establishment of Ghana’s Food and Agriculture Sector Development Policy (FASDEP)<sup>15</sup>. In addition, the NDPC assists the President with development planning, policy, and strategy via its three technical divisions, the Development Policy Division (DPD), the Planning Coordination Division (PCD), and the Monitoring and Evaluation Division (MED)<sup>12</sup>. Further, the NDPC is also involved in designing national policy and programs together with cross-sectoral planning groups including representatives from different agencies, such as the relevant ministries, private sector organizations, and technical experts. Amongst

these, the NDPC coordinates a Cross Sectoral Planning Group (CSPG) on Nutrition which was created in 2012 following Ghana's commitment to reducing stunting among young children. Finally, NDPC is also represented within several public bodies including the National Council for Tertiary Education, the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, the Local Government Service Council, the Ghana Investment Promotion Centre, the Energy Commission, and the Institute for Statistical, Social and Economic Research which encourages collaboration and promotes mutual learning<sup>16</sup>.

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## CHAPTER 6

### DISCUSSIONS OF PROJECT FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

#### Overview

This chapter presents a summary of the findings and contributions of the investigation into the status of Food and Nutrition Security (FNS) in Eswatini. This involves a detailed categorization of the existing policies and the extent to which they address the pillars of FNS and whether the contribution to FNS is direct or indirect. This is followed by discussion of the findings including conclusions detailing lessons learned from this research. Finally, recommendations, strengths and weaknesses, and the areas of future research are presented.

#### 6.1 Introduction

The response of government to societal issues is manifested usually through policy. There are two strong and fairly overlapping reasons for government intervention by public policy in the issues of FNS: moral and ethical reasons; and reasons arising from economic and market failures to provide for the needs of the society<sup>1</sup>. Moral and ethical issues, such as poverty, hunger and human rights invite government intervention as they require a level and breadth of approach greater than the private sector and civil society are positioned to undertake<sup>2</sup>. Market failure refers to the technical term used by economists to describe circumstances in which the market forces are unable to generate and allocate resources in the most effective and efficient manner<sup>3,4</sup>.

However, several authors argue that the ability of government to intervene is limited by scarcity. Scarcity refers to the fact that governments cannot do everything its citizens' want because in any society resources are limited while human demands are unlimited<sup>5</sup>. In addition, Cochran, Malone<sup>6</sup> argue that scarcity is always a part of the human condition. Because of the tension between limited resources and unlimited wants, we must choose among the goods and services to be produced and in what quantities. Scarcity implies that governments' ministries are compelled to allocate the scarce resources among competing policies. This phenomenon of scarcity is one reason governments are forced to make painful choices concerning the goods and services to be produced by the state<sup>6</sup>. Thus, it is often that one policy is enacted at the expense of other possible choices. However, any such decision made by government incurs costs. This cost is termed “opportunity cost” and it is equivalent to the value of the most desired

goods or services omitted<sup>6</sup> in order to attain other goods and services. In this case, where government is fully involved in both enforcing and intervening into FNS policy implementation, often implementation of policy is skewed in one area or lacks monitoring and evaluation. Thus inter-sector engagement to allow contribution from all stakeholders is essential to neutralize the total control of one body to solve problem. In such engagement, contribution is needed at all stages -policy development, implementation and evaluation. This was a qualitative study involving interviews with twenty key informants (KIs) who were selected by non-probability expert sampling from among twenty-five institutions with direct or indirect connections to FNS in Eswatini that were approached to participate in the study. Semi-structured questionnaires were developed and administered by the researcher during face-to-face interviews with the key informants. Content analysis was used to analyse the responses from the key informants<sup>7</sup>.

## **6.2 Synopsis of the Key Findings**

### **6.2.1 Overview and analysis of the policies**

The study found that there are at least 11 national policy documents that deal with FNS. Their development is mainly facilitated by the government ministries including the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Tourism and Environmental Affairs, and the Deputy Prime Minister's Office with the latter having responsibility and oversight for managing disaster response in Eswatini. Every government ministry and partners operating within the arena of the FNS program is expected to implement these policies as a collective. These results align with the recommendations of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)<sup>8,9</sup>, and Malabo declaration<sup>10-12</sup> that bridging the silos in the implementation of policies is key to achieving FNS goals. This suggests that FNS must be a crosscutting feature in all policy making processes and implementation. And, according to this study, this seems to be the case in Eswatini, at least in policy.

Table 6.16.1 presents a brief analysis of the relevant policies to FNS in Eswatini. The first policy in the table is an international policy from the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) which has been adopted by the Eswatini Government. The rest are all Eswatini Government policies.

**Table 6.1: The analysis of the Contribution of policies to FNS of Eswatini**

Policy/ Strategy	Contribution to FNS <sup>1</sup>	Direct	Indirect	FNS Pillars Addressed			
				Availability	Accessibility	Utilization	Sustainability
UNDP Strategy for Sustainable Development & Inclusive Growth (SSDIG)	<p>Emanates from SDG 8. It identifies three broad priorities as critical for enabling countries to achieve this goal:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Integrated planning for inclusive and sustainable growth</li> <li>• Supporting employment creation, decent work and redistributive programs to address poverty, inequality and exclusion</li> <li>• Mobilizing and scaling up financing for enabling transition to inclusive and sustainable growth<sup>13</sup>.</li> </ul>		✓		✓		✓
National Food and Nutrition Policy ( <i>still Final draft</i> )(NFNP)	<p>Main focus is to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• guide decision-making among policy makers on food and nutrition strategic areas</li> <li>• facilitate domestication, adoption, implementation and monitoring of global, regional and national food and nutrition resolutions</li> <li>• inform and influence developing enabling legislation, especially food fortification and supplementation</li> <li>• promote mainstreaming of food and nutrition services and concepts into developmental programs in various sectors</li> <li>• generate data on food and nutrition to inform planning, programming and decision-making <sup>14</sup>.</li> </ul>	✓	✓			✓	

<sup>1</sup> The wording used maybe exactly as it appears in the document or a close summary thereof. For the ease of presentation, exact quotations are not denoted with quotation marks. The documents are the sources.

Policy/ Strategy	Contribution to FNS <sup>1</sup>	Direct	Indirect	FNS Pillars Addressed			
				Availability	Accessibility	Utilization	Sustainability
National Development Strategy (NDS)	Aims to increase the capability of the agricultural sector to generate efficiently higher volumes of goods and services, without damaging the environment. Important elements are: food security at household and community levels; commercialization of agriculture on Swazi Nation Land; efficient water resource management and usage; and rational land allocation and utilization <sup>15</sup> .	✓		✓			✓
National Food Security Policy (NFSP) (2005)	National policy with a multi-sectoral approach. The specific purpose is to provide clear guidance regarding the strategies and measures that must be adopted to improve food security for all people in Eswatini while concurrently supporting related initiatives on reducing poverty, improving agricultural production and marketing, enhancing environmental management, strengthening disaster preparedness, improving health delivery and broadening access to water and sanitation. The policy and its implementation strategy and action plan are to ensure that development is guided and facilitated within a structured and balanced framework that respects physical limits, equity concerns, and institutional capacities. The policy requires a right-to-food approach in implementation <sup>16</sup> .	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Comprehensive Agriculture Sector Policy (CASP)	Addresses the crop and livestock sub-sectors on rain-fed and irrigated land. The emphasis is on small-scale production, but also covers large-scale production, and on the primacy to Eswatini of such production as a generator of agricultural value-adding and its immense potential to contribute to food security and poverty reduction. It also speaks to equitable access to land and water resources <sup>17</sup> .	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Policy/ Strategy	Contribution to FNS <sup>1</sup>	Direct	Indirect	FNS Pillars Addressed			
				Availability	Accessibility	Utilization	Sustainability
National Health Sector Strategic Plan II (NHSSP II)	<p>Focuses on promoting awareness of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• healthy food consumption</li> <li>• availability, accessibility, and utilization of macro and micro nutrients at health facility and household level</li> <li>• Strengthening nutrition services and social protection in schools and communities</li> <li>• Integration and documentation of micronutrient deficiencies.</li> <li>• Insure food and nutrition preparedness through information sharing<sup>18</sup>.</li> </ul>		✓			✓	
National Non-Communicable Disease Prevention and Control Policy (NCDP)	<p>Addresses nutrition-related non-communicable diseases and their risk factors. This includes highlighting the risk factors of cardiovascular diseases and diabetes mellitus which can be dealt with nutritionally<sup>19</sup>.</p>		✓			✓	
Eswatini Nutrition Mainstreaming Strategy (ENMS)	<p>Applies a life-course approach and promotes multi-sectoral collaboration to address sustainably the social determinants of malnutrition to improve the nutrition status of the Eswatini population. It aligns with four other key policies: CASP, NFSP, NFNP and NCDP. The goal is to significantly reduce food and nutrition insecurity in Eswatini by 2023. It includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• improving knowledge and attitudes of the population on nutrition and healthy food choices</li> <li>• increasing the production and consumption of diversified foods with more focus on vulnerable groups such as infants, young children, adolescents, women of child-bearing age and the elderly.</li> <li>• increasing women's social and economic agency to facilitate better agriculture and nutrition outcomes<sup>20</sup>.</li> </ul>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Policy/ Strategy	Contribution to FNS <sup>1</sup>	Direct	Indirect	FNS Pillars Addressed			
				Availability	Accessibility	Utilization	Sustainability
Eswatini Agricultural Investment Plan (EAIP)	Main goal is to increase the contribution of agriculture to economic development, reducing rural poverty and improving food security. The key areas of focus are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• natural resources management</li> <li>• improved access to markets and value chains</li> <li>• food supply and reducing hunger</li> <li>• research, extension, training and education</li> <li>• institutional support and agricultural knowledge management systems<sup>21</sup>.</li> </ul>		✓	✓			✓
Swaziland United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF)	Negotiated commitment from the UN to support Government's efforts to reduce and ultimately eradicate poverty as set out in the NDS. UN agencies are engaged in a wide range of areas, including social protection, and sustainable ways of addressing hunger and malnutrition for vulnerable groups <sup>22</sup> .	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
National Climate Change Policy (NCCP)	Reducing vulnerability by minimizing the impact of climate change and raising adaptive capacity. It emphasizes preserving natural resources to sustain livelihoods in communities relying on those resources for income and food <sup>23</sup> .		✓	✓			✓

The analysis of the policies in Table 6.1 reveals that, among the identified FNS policies, four policies comprehensively address FNS on all of the conventional pillars of FNS – availability, access, utilization and sustainability. These policies are NFSP, ENMS, CASP, and UNDAF. However, despite covering all the pillars of FNS, the NFSP is outdated and requires re-examination. It does not address challenges that have emerged more recently such as the impact of COVID 19 on FNS.

The UNDAF addresses all four pillars of FNS. The policy is used by the UN Agencies to collectively provide support to government on FNS and health programs. The UN system

contributed to improving treatment adherence and outcomes through supporting the mainstreaming of nutrition in treatment of HIV and TB patients, as well as direct support to patients in the National Food by Prescription program. HIV and TB patients received nutritional assessments, nutrition education and counselling as part of routine clinical consultations. According to the WHO<sup>24</sup>, the nutritional recovery rates of patients participated in the National Food by Prescription program have improved over previous years. The improved capacity of the Ministry of Health to monitor outcomes and reports are also thought to contribute to the improvement in nutritional recovery rates.

The NFNP address the utilization pillar of food security by focusing on promoting nutrition information to enhance the use of nutritious food, so as to improve the health of the society. It also generates data on the country's statistics on nutrition indicators which serves as evidence to advocate for programming for improving nutrition indicators.

The NCDP indirectly addresses utilization of food through highlighting the causes and effects of cardiovascular diseases and diabetes mellitus and through promoting eating nutritious food in order to minimize the prevalence of these conditions.

CASP and the NCCP indirectly promote food production (availability) and sustainability through continuous production of food irrespective of climatic changes. The former promotes appropriate land use, crop zoning and diversification in order to optimize yields. The latter entails early warning systems to climatic changes such as drought, floods, and storms, so as to promote resilience and adaptation to these climate change stressors. It also speaks to environmental protection and management of natural resources to ensure sustainable development.

Three of the four policy documents that are entirely encompassing FNS (NFSP, ENMS and CASP) fall under the Ministry of Agriculture. The fourth encompassing policy, the UNDAF, fall under the United Nation Agencies that partner with the Government.

The other policies, whether they contribute directly or indirectly to FNS, only partially address FNS. They emanate from several ministries including Health, Tourism and Environmental Affairs, and Deputy Prime Minister's Office. This scattered coverage by diverse institutions necessitates a strong coordination of FNS policies in Eswatini to ensure coherent coverage of all the pillars of FNS – including eliminating duplication, disconnections and contradictions. In addition, coordination will also facilitate the involvement of all other key stakeholders to

contribute coherently. This will ensure greater efficiency in the use of resources and completeness of efforts to achieve FNS.

In the context of this study, direct contribution includes producing food, providing diverse and nutritious food, availing food without restricting any particular population group, and providing ready-to-eat nutritious food in times of emergencies. Indirect contribution entails projects that empower people to have capacity to either produce food, access food, or also enable proper utilization of food. These may include livelihood programs, job creation, nutrition education and research, and provision of public health services to treat infections and diseases that can have a bearing to body ability to assimilate nutrients.

In the context of coordination of public policies, the main three-fold goal is to: resolve conflicts arising from overlapping programs and policies; seek common priorities; and introduce a global perspective on public policy-making process as opposed to sectoral perspective<sup>25</sup>. In considering the definition of the concept and aim of coordination of public policy, coordination is differentiated between vertical and horizontal coordination<sup>26</sup>. Vertical coordination refers to the hierarchical structure of public administration that guarantees coordination of public policies. Even though it is rigid, vertical public policy coordination is necessary especially in setting priorities and implementing public policy. Horizontal coordination entails the process of ensuring a functional framework for institutional and/or interdepartmental debate and negotiation that facilitates creating coherent public policies that reflect the contributions of different actors and stakeholders involved in public policy development<sup>27</sup>.

### **6.2.2 Lack of coordination**

This study found there is a lack of coordination of FNS policies in Eswatini. The lack of coordination was perceived to be due to the absence of a statutory coordinating body to oversee the development and implementation of the various policies related to FNS. The absence of such a body made bridging the silos in the implementation of FNS policies a formidable challenge that has hampered the fight against FNIS. This type of challenge was posited by de Arruda Leite, Buainain<sup>28</sup> when they highlighted that policy development requires interaction of a “complex array of organizations” and that policy implementation is too often a disjointed procedure involving these numerous players. This dynamic, multi-party policy process, particularly the implementation in stages, necessitates and relies on coordination. The

importance and demand for policy coordination was earlier identified by Pressman, Wildavsky<sup>29</sup> who argued: *“No phrase expresses as frequent a complaint about the federal government as does ‘lack of coordination’. No suggestion for reform is more common than ‘what we need is more coordination’”*.

In 2013, WHO<sup>30</sup> conducted a review of the availability and implementation of nutrition policies in 123 countries in order to spot loopholes. Over 90% of the participating countries indicated they have policies and programs addressing nutrition aspects such as under-nutrition, obesity, non-communicable diseases that are diet-related, infant and young child nutrition, and vitamin and minerals. However, alarming gaps were discovered in the design and components of some policies and programs, including nutrition governance, policy implementation and monitoring and evaluation. Four major gaps in line with coordination were identified which are similar to the situation in Eswatini<sup>30</sup>:

- Countries have insufficient coordination systems to tackle current nutrition problems. A number of countries submitted that they had mechanisms for coordinating nutrition activities; nevertheless, these mechanisms are not always successful. The review indicated that the existence and availability of the coordination mechanisms is significant. For instance, countries with a high prevalence of stunting were more likely to have appropriate coordination mechanisms if they had scaled up key interventions.
- There is inadequate or ineffective coordination within and between ministries, and with UN agencies and other development partners. Sufficient coordination is crucial to guarantee a multi-sectoral response to malnutrition. Similar to Eswatini, among all the participants, coordination and administration of policy implementation were frequently carried out within the Ministry of Health, with inconsistent input from Ministries or Departments of Education, Agriculture, And Social Welfare; the Finance Ministry or Department was rarely mentioned. Participating peripheral partners that are mostly active in the development and implementation of nutrition policy were NGOs and civil society organizations, and UN agencies.
- Coordination mechanisms are rarely included in high-level policy-making frameworks or structures, such as a prime minister’s or president’s office, or a planning commission, in which all relevant sectors could be involved. Like Eswatini, few countries outside the

South-East Asia Region submitted that their coordination mechanisms for nutrition were placed under the office of the prime minister or president, signifying that nutrition is not highly prioritized. In addition, the authority of the coordinators was limited to assigning tasks; it seldom covered managing budgets.

- Frequently, there are inconsistencies between policies at the national level and programs being implemented at the provincial or district level. The availability of a policy at the national level does not guarantee that the action taken and implementation of programs at the provincial or districts will automatically be in line with the national level. The Review discovered that some programs are carried out even though they not included in the national policies.

Therefore, coordination of FNS policy implementation must be a deliberate effort carried out by nations to curb the escalating prevalence of FNIS and also focus the scarce resources towards the critical policy indicators. Coordination must be done at the highest possible level to ensure that FNS receives the prioritization it requires to realised.

### **6.2.3 Implementation, monitoring and evaluation**

The study found that there is more focus on what can be called the mechanics of policy implementation than on monitoring and evaluating the FNS policy. The objective of monitoring policy is to ensure, through the policy implementation process, that allocated resources are used as efficiently as possible, that the various processes are duly followed, that necessary adjustments are made, and to ensure that the desired goal is achieved. The standards used to monitor efficient resource utilisation and effectiveness of policy implementation is intrinsic in the policy-making process. The monitoring system has to be able to assess resource use, technical activities, and policy implementation results with adequate information that allow him to make changes or corrections when necessary. Lack of monitoring and, specifically, coordinated monitoring of policy makes it complex to track policy implementation by all the institutions involved and may lead to misappropriation of resources and failure to achieve the intended output<sup>31</sup>.

The lack of policy evaluation results in failure to ascertain whether implementation and its effect correlate with the set goals<sup>32</sup>. Similarly, Walker<sup>33</sup> states that evaluation is imperative to

ensure that the policy precisely fulfils its intended objectives; failing which, it may be required that the policy be reviewed, amended or replaced following careful research. In other words, evaluation examines whether the policies provide solutions to the existing needs and problems in the society which they were created to address so that a decision can be taken to either fortify the policy or restart the policy formulation process. This means some data emanating from implementing the policy must be obtained. This data can and ideally should be planned for first when developing the policy and again, in more detail, when preparing the implementation plan which should refine the data required and suggest ways in which data can be generated and recorded in the regular course of policy implementation. Data recording and capturing instruments may include records, documents, feedback from program clients, diary entries of staff, ratings by peers, tests, observation, and physical evidence<sup>34,35</sup>. Looking at the importance of policy monitoring and evaluation, regulators should simultaneously apply policy monitoring and evaluation to ensure continuous effectiveness and relevance.

#### **6.2.4 Vulnerable populations: implementation targeting**

The study found that while 65% of the institutions were focusing on reducing vulnerability to FNIS, they excluded the most vulnerable populations. Only a few organizations focused on women, children and youth. Specifically, 25% focused on women, 20% focused on children and 15% focused on youth. And yet, the Universal Declaration on Human Rights 1948, section 25; to which Eswatini is a signatory declares that:

*“Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and his family, including food”.*

In addition, the Universal Declaration on the Eradication of Hunger and Malnutrition 1974 as presented in United Nations Human Rights [ENREF 16](#) (UNHR)<sup>36</sup>, to which Eswatini is also a signatory, states that:

*“Every man, woman, and child has the inalienable right to be free from hunger and malnutrition in order to develop fully and maintain their physical and mental faculties”*

##### **6.2.4.1 Women**

Rural women play an essential role in the availability, accessibility, utilisation and stability of food (i.e. the four pillars of FNS). In South Africa, for example, woman in the formal and informal sectors are constrained by the fact that they lack access to the same opportunities or

resources as men, leaving them more vulnerable to FNIS<sup>37</sup>. FNIS is entrenched in the imbalanced power women possess over resources directly related to food production, storage and processing, including land, energy, technology (including genetic material and equipment), pesticides and fertilisers as well as to the credit that might help them obtain these resources<sup>38</sup>. Moreover, women have less access to training, information, public services, social protection and markets<sup>39</sup>.

Article 14 of The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women specifically highlights that states (i.e. government) are obligated to abolish discrimination against women<sup>40</sup>. However, despite such commitments, governments are not responding with adequate exigency in order to attend to the needs and priorities of rural women. Globally, women comprise 43% of the world's farmers and account for much of the world's population<sup>41</sup>. If women in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) had the same opportunities as men in terms of access to productive resources (seeds, fertilisers, tools, loans, etc.), they could increase their yields by 20-30%<sup>42</sup>. This would mean an increase in the production of agro-food of between 2.5 and 4%, thereby decreasing the number of people affected by FNIS by around 12-17% or 100 to 150 million people. Evidence has also shown that across Ethiopia, Malawi, Rwanda, Uganda and Tanzania, mending the gaps of gender disparity could increase outputs by up to 19% and could raise hundreds of thousands of people above the poverty line<sup>43</sup>. Additionally, in households where women own livestock, meat is consumed more often and have sustainable food for many months than households where women own no livestock<sup>44</sup>. Such compelling evidence flags the importance of gender issues in achieving the objectives of all the SDGs. In short, addressing this issues "food security would be greatly improved and societies would grow richer, and not only in economic terms"<sup>41</sup>. In the period of eight years between 2011 and 2019, in SSA, there was a 10% decline in the number of women in the workforce in agriculture due to the unbearable conditions women are facing in this sector<sup>45</sup>. Urgent strategies must be employed to empower rural women in all aspects and from a holistic viewpoint, including implementation of sustainable rural development policies on the part of governments. FNS policy should prioritise women.

#### **6.2.4.2 Youth**

The study found that, like women, youth are restricted from access to land which hinders their ability to participate in producing food through farming. The ability to do so would not only

facilitate their ability to control or at least influence their own FNS and livelihood, it would contribute to immediate and future FNS. Youth ranging from 15-34 constitute over 37% of Eswatini's population<sup>46</sup>, thus highlighting their significance to Current and future FNS policy. The Malabo Montpellier Panel (MaMoPanel) stated that "Africa's young people are its most valuable asset<sup>47</sup>". Feighery, Ingram, Li, Redding<sup>48</sup>, found that youth usually face numerous hindrances to attain FNS that are distinctive to their demographic. These hindrances can be classified into two categories: production barriers and income generation barriers. Production barriers include lack of access to productive land, lack of agricultural technologies and farming technique necessary to improve production, lack of knowledge to utilize the available food appropriately and absence of zeal to follow a career in agriculture. Income generation barriers include youth's lack of education, training, and market access, and the failure of migration to urban areas, despite hope to the contrary, to generate sufficient revenue to support their family FNS. These barriers exist for youth in Eswatini, half of whom are female, further exacerbating their situation. The findings of this study suggest that FNS is not aligned in practice with the National Youth Policy specifically directs attention to the particular FNS needs of youth, especially female youth<sup>46</sup>. About 20 million young people join the work force yearly in SSA and these young people are concentrated in the rural areas<sup>49</sup>. Therefore, intensifying efforts in rural areas will help create employment opportunities for the new labour force as well as help provide amenities similar to those enjoyed by their urban counterparts<sup>47</sup>. There is great opportunity in the food sectors to reduce unemployment in Africa<sup>47</sup> because over 50% of the workforce is employed in agriculture systems<sup>50</sup> making this an ideal target for government job creation agendas. Unfortunately, at present, the major proportion of the jobs in the agriculture sector are informal. The International Labour Organization (ILO) rank the informal employment at 97.9% in the Africa's agriculture sector<sup>51</sup>. Therefore, by embracing and building upon the informal agriculture sector, governments can accelerate improvement in dealing with malnutrition, poverty, and unemployment.

Although informal employment continues to provide jobs in the African agriculture sector, it does not imply that government must settle for this status quo; they must continue to address the quality and sustainability of jobs created. In the Eastern and Southern African regions, a study of six countries was conducted which revealed that less than 10% of the jobs in the agriculture sector is found beyond the farm gate. Merely 6% are found in downstream services like transportation and marketing, and just 3% in food manufacturing and industry. More than 90% of the food systems in Africa concentrate on primary production<sup>52</sup>. This means these are

jobs that are full of hazards and insecurity and also have low wages. Hence youth are discouraged from joining the agriculture sector.

### **6.3 Conclusions**

FNS is a combination of two main concepts: food security and nutrition security. The first speaks to the availability, accessibility, utilisation and stability of food. While ostensibly implied in food security, nutrition security speaks to the requirement that the food provide the essential nutrients needed by humans. Thus, it is critical that these two concepts must simultaneously be addressed in policy and service delivery. Far too often, however, the primary focus, particularly in service delivery, is on availability of food despite the fact that availability of food does not always translate to accessibility and (healthy) utilization. The available food may not be accessible; it may not be acceptable in the society; and consumers may not be able to utilise it. Even the acceptable and accessible food may not contain the complete nutrients (proteins, carbohydrates, vitamins and minerals, and fats) necessary for good health. Sometimes, the health of an individual may prevent utilisation where the food is not physiologically compatible with the consumer. Hence, to the original concept of food security, nutrition security must be explicitly added. The FNS policy and service delivery must ensure that all the pillars of FNS are addressed for the whole of a population, even in emergency response.

In addition, the study has realized that response to FNS and FNIS cuts across multiple stakeholders including policy makers, policy implementers, interested parties, and beneficiaries. All these have an influence on successfully achieving the desired goals of FNS for all at all times. Hence, the actions of these stakeholders must be well coordinated and the stakeholders themselves engaged in each of the different stages of planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating FNS policy.

In cognisance of these theories highlighted above, the study has noticeable findings that have implications for the fight of FNIS and also on public health strengthening of Eswatini. Against the general background of FNS theory and good practice, three key challenges were found. First, the study found that there are a number of FNS-related policies that are used by various government ministries: The Ministries of Agriculture, Health, Tourism and Environmental Affairs; Deputy Prime Minister's office; other partners. Unfortunately, there is little

coordination in developing and implementing these policies. This lack of coordination has made it difficult to track progress made in policy implementation. It has made it difficult to determine resource needs to pursue FNS. It has made it difficult to monitor implementation and evaluate the outcome of the interventions. As a result, policy review and revision is not done timeously or with sufficient hard evidence.

Second, women and youth, especially in the rural areas, are not well covered in the existing policies, yet they are of great importance in the fight against FNIS because they are a majority and they are vulnerable. Women and youth are precluded from accessing land because customs and practices governing land allocation favour adult males; the traditional eligibility criteria to be allocated land can rarely be met by women and youth. Thus, they fail to get land to produce food to improve their livelihood and contribute to the FNS of their own households. When they could be part of the solution to FNIS and contributing to the betterment of society, many end up relying on assistance from social grants and donations. The situation is worse for women. In Eswatini society, women are the main caregivers of children. Women's inability to access the requisite resources not only affect them, but contribute to exacerbating malnutrition of children which, in turn, increases the burden to the already constrained public health system of Eswatini. There is much justification for changing the status of women and youth in accessing resources to participate in food production.

Third, it came out clearly that the regulators of the agriculture markets are conflicted in that they are mandated to promote local food production and simultaneously regulate agricultural imports through enforcing levies. The regulators make profits from allowing more imported agricultural produce into the country. This makes farmers suspicious that the regulators will favour imports over developing the domestic markets in order to collect more import levies. This current arrangement of the food system will continuously discourage investments by smallholder farmers to engage in agriculture. Hence, food production will be constrained and will be unlikely to expand. As a result, the domestic food supply will increasingly be lower than the demand which will increase as the population increases. This will lead to greater reliance on imported food which, while available, is often not affordable (accessible) driving poorer consumers to purchase cheaper foods which will not provide the required nutrition, thus compromising nutrition security.

## 6.4 Recommendations

Based on these conclusions, policy makers may consider assigning a FNS coordinating body that will be at the highest level of government to be able to summon all key FNS stakeholder to strategize collaboratively on developing, implementing, monitoring and evaluating FNS policy. This body could also coordinate collecting, analysing and interpreting FNS related data for monitoring and evaluation. Enablers and barriers to achieving FNS will also be collectively documented to be used as reference for future improvement of policy development and implementation including developing of comprehensive and coherent strategies and plans to fill in policy and service provision gaps, remove existing hindrances, and intensify FNS enablers.

Key hindrances are clearly those preventing women and youth from accessing land and other resources. At the very least, a policy can be developed to allow women and youth to lease land temporarily to produce food and for other livelihood activities.

Specifically, women can be supported in four different ways. First, by expanding access to education for girls and young women, especially in rural areas. Investment in girls and young women on nutrition education can have much greater impact in FNS than will similar investments in men<sup>53</sup>. Second, women must also be supported with legal rights to possess and otherwise access resources and useful assets to reinforce their decision-making power that can bring positive influence in their households as well as society. This may include crafting products (inputs, machinery and technology) and services (finance and extension) compatible to the needs of women, and designing work timetables and preferred learning methods to fast track their adoption and practical implementation by women<sup>47</sup>. Third, strengthen the social and economic resilience of women by protecting and enhancing their informal employment. This can be done by making sure that local markets are kept open (including the provision of appropriate sanitary facilities) to ensure that they continue supplying their customers and generating income during and post pandemics (like COVID-19)<sup>54</sup>. Finally, making sure that women are represented throughout policy development levels and decision-making will help ensure that women needs are represented and accounted for.

For the youth, provision of an attractive agriculture food sector that gives high quality jobs as well as good remuneration to the work done will improve FNS in rural areas – particularly going into the future. In addition, entice private capital through investment-friendly

environments which in turn will create demand for upgraded skills upgrades. This suggests making youth the focus of the skills upgrading process. Making agriculture attractive to youth will require collaboration between public and private sectors actors along the value chain – particularly between the business sector and educational institutions. Thus, continued investment in appropriate education in rural areas is essential to help ensure that the emerging youth workforce is ready and equipped with relevant skill to contribute meaningfully. In addition, strengthening socio-legal empowerment, and supporting legalization of informal employees and expansion of social protection systems will help ensure that jobs are acceptable, provide fair incomes or wages, and are attractive to a wide range of job-seekers, including women<sup>55</sup>.

Another key gap is the conflict faced by import regulators. This can be sorted by reviewing the food market system through engaging of all the affected parties to find a common ground and to reach agreement between the regulators and the farmers so that trust can be restored. This would best be done by the proposed high-level coordinating body.

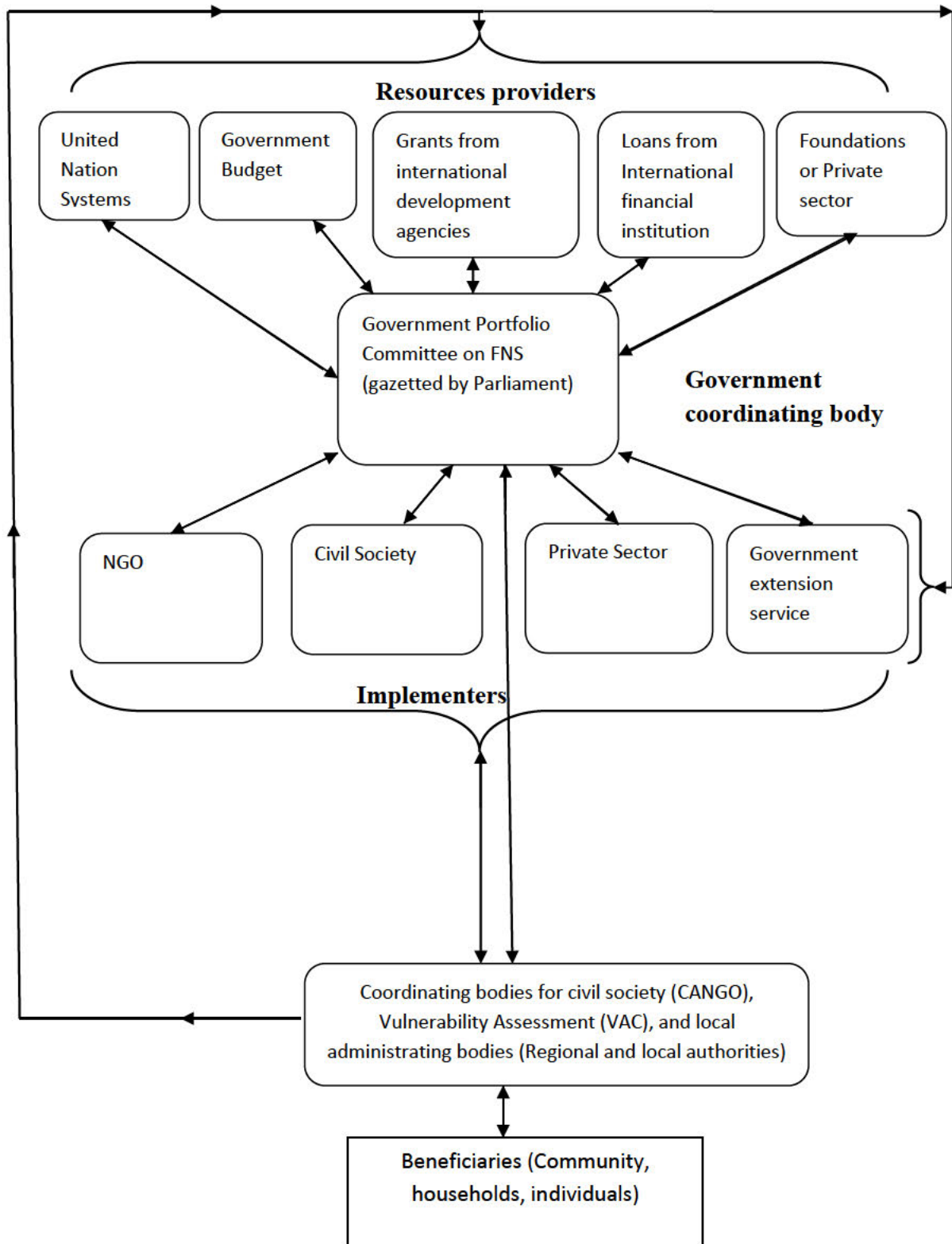
To better understand the implications of these results, future studies could address the level of engagement in policy development and the impact of the policies to the needs of the society at community and household level.

#### **6.4.1 Framework on recommended coordination of resources to reduce duplication**

Figure 6.1 displays recommended institutional arrangements that will cater for resource mobilization and also manage and coordinate the implementation of projects and programs to achieve FNS without duplication or gaps. In Eswatini there are various sources of resources towards achieving FNS. These include United Nation systems, government budgets, grants from international development agencies, loans from international financial institutions and foundations, and private sector. To ensure that these resources are efficiently allocated and well utilized, the state must enact a structure (e.g. government portfolio committee on FNS) that will coordinate the allocation of the resources. This structure must comprise representatives from the government line ministries, civil society, NGOs, and private sector and be chaired by the Parliament's FNS Portfolio. The purpose of this body would be to endorse proposals for funding prepared by the FNS implementing institutions before they can be submitted to resource providers. Recommended determining factors for endorsement of proposals should include the following:

- (i) No similar project is in progress in the targeted community (endorsement from local administrating body);
- (ii) If there is a similar but completed project or towards completion, the new applicant must indicate lessons learnt from the previous project and also justify how this project intends to improve the outcome of the previous project;
- (iii) The applicant must have conducted a fact-finding mission of the situation on the ground including consultations with coordinating bodies, local authorities and also the beneficiaries where the project shall be implemented;
- (iv) The applicant must have the capacity (expertise) to implement the proposed FNS services;
- (v) In case they have been implementing projects, the applicant should provide a clear audited report on the previous performance and management of allocated resources.

When these factors are satisfied, the government portfolio committee on FNS can then endorse or accredit proposals of the vetted institutions for funding. Endorsement does not guarantee funding because these proposals would still need to undergo further scrutiny by the donor to get best NGO(s) meeting the donor's requirements. Allocated resources would still be handled by the resource provider, not the government portfolio committee on FNS. This is to minimize the bureaucracy in the flow of funds. Once approved, the resource providers would then set terms with the selected implementing institution and allocate the funds. They would liaise with the government portfolio committee on selected institutions. This is to ensure accountability of the institutions to both the state and the funder. During reporting, both the funder and the government body should receive reports on performance of the institution. The overall purpose of this framework is to minimize duplication of efforts and also wastage of resources which can occur due to project failure emanating from beneficiaries abandoning one project for another with similar benefits and also to instil accountability on allocated resources among FNS policy implementers.



*Figure 6.1: An ideal institutional framework on flow of resources to reduce duplication of effort in the fight of food and nutrition insecurity in Eswatini*

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## CHAPTER 7

### SYNTHESIS OF THE FINDINGS

The main purpose of this study was to assess the linkages between food and nutrition security in Eswatini, to determine the policy framework toward achieving food and nutrition security in Eswatini, and to evaluate the extent at which the policies and strategies are implemented in Eswatini. This final chapter reviews the original research questions as presented in Chapter 1. It also discusses the implication of the findings presented and discussed in earlier chapters.

#### **7.1 What is the existing policy framework toward achieving food and nutrition security in Eswatini?**

The study determined that there are at least 11 policy documents that contribute either directly or indirectly to FNS. These policies were provided by the key informants as their operational policies when interviewed during data collection (Table ). As indicated in the table, these policies are under the stewardship of mainly the Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Tourism and Environmental Affairs, Ministry for Economic Planning and Development, and United Nations Agencies. From these agencies, they are then cascaded to other government ministries and NGOs to use as a reference in their service delivery.

What have been observed is that nearly all (80%) of the agencies participating in the study use the Strategy for Sustainable Development & Inclusive Growth (SSDIA) which makes sense because it is a multi-sectoral policy agreement with all the ministries. What is concerning is that while the majority (65%) of agencies use the National Food and Nutrition Policy (NFNP), a substantial percentage do not. This suggests that quite a few of the policies/agencies may in fact marginalise nutrition security. Even more concerning is that only 45% of the agencies use the Food Security Policy (FSP) and 35% the Eswatini Nutrition Mainstreaming Strategy (ENMS). This reinforces the concern that agencies may be going their own way on food security, nutrition security and the integration of them.

## **7.2 What is the understanding among the relevant stakeholders of the linkages between food security and nutrition security in Eswatini?**

A significant part of this study was to analyze policy documents currently in use in Eswatini directly or indirectly related to FNS. One part of the analysis was to determine how these policies treated food security and nutrition security. As argued in earlier chapters, nutrition security has often been overlooked in favor of a commonly used simplistic view of food security which focused primarily on food availability – irrespective of its nutritional value beyond calories. Making nutrition more explicit with the emergence of the concept of nutrition security has helped ensure that food security programs address the important issue of nutrition. This also makes it possible to analyze policy content and implementation in terms of nutrition security as well as food security.

Generally, nutrition security is embedded within the utilization pillar of the FNS framework used throughout this study. A key element of utilization refers to the ability of a person's body to assimilate nutrients in consumed food. Optimum caloric and nutrient consumption by a person is an outcome of good care and dietary habits, food preparation, variety of the diet and intra-household distribution of food. Combined with good biological utilization of food consumed, all of these factors determine the nutritional status of individuals. Another element of utilization is the socio-economic aspects of food including knowledge, habits, and decision-making (which are greatly affected by culture and education levels) regarding what food to buy, the methods of preparation and, of particular importance, about who in the household consumes what food and when – with an eye on fair distribution.

In as much as there are several policy documents, at least four– NFSP, CASP, ENMS, and UNDAF – that address all the pillars of FNS, only ENMS clearly demonstrates an understanding of the linkage between food security and nutrition security. It is a good example because it applies a life-course approach and promotes multi-sectoral collaboration to address the social determinants of malnutrition sustainably to improve the nutrition status of the Eswatini population. The goal of this strategy is to significantly reduce food and nutrition insecurity in Eswatini by 2023. Key goals include:

- Improving knowledge and attitudes of the population on nutrition and healthy food choices;

- Increasing the production and consumption of diversified foods across the lifecycle with more focus on the vulnerable groups such as infants & young children, adolescents, women of child-bearing age, and the ageing population; and
- Increasing women's socio-economic agency to facilitate better agriculture and nutrition outcomes.

In addition, in terms of the organizational setup to implement policy (i.e. service delivery) there is an understanding of the need to link food security and nutrition security. A good example is the Ministry of Agriculture which has departments focussing on food production and safety, and a Home Economics Department whose responsibility is improving household economics and livelihoods by promoting improved nutrition, home management, child care and development, consumer education and income generating activities. While the degree to which these departments integrate and harmonise their work was beyond the scope of this study. That these two departments exist and function is evidence that the ministry gives attention to both food availability and nutrition. Moreover, the Eswatini Nutrition Council is core-chaired by the Director of the Ministry of Agriculture and the Director of Health Services from the Ministry of Health. Again, although the degree of operation was beyond the scope of this study, the assumption is, and the potential and structure exist, that these two ministries can update each other with data related to food security and nutrition security potentially even to the point of the nutrition data informing the actions of the Department of Agriculture with respect to food production advice given to farmers.

### **7.3 To what extent are the policies and strategies implemented?**

The study was not able ascertain with any certainty the extent to which policies and strategies are implemented in Eswatini. This was partly because, as the study revealed, there are many stakeholders implementing FNS but little coordination of FNS policy development and implementation. Formal, empirical evaluation of FNS policies was essentially non-existent, much less an evaluation of the overall implementation of these policies across multiple actors and service providers. Hence, it was difficult to know and verify the extent of policy implementation. What could be gathered is the number of major projects that were established towards improving FNS in Eswatini which contribute to the implementation of policy. What the study did find is a range of key national projects with substantial continuous contribution to

FNS. These are captured in detail in Table in Chapter 5. These projects have an indirect contribution to FNS in Eswatini by enhancing livelihoods through a number of strategies. These include encouraging transition from subsistence to communally managed cash cropping and promoting commercialisation of subsistence farms; encouraging conversion to cash crops such as sugarcane to generate income from the cash crop; extending the availability of irrigation water to promote continuous production of diverse crops. These projects are based on the assumption that, posited by Shutes, Kuiper, Smeets, Rutten<sup>1</sup>, cash crops generate income, and therefore enable access to food available in the market. But here again, the focus is on availability and access. The issue of nutrition (in the pillar of utilisation) does not feature.

## **7.4 Implications of the findings of this study**

The study was able to address fully two of the research questions and provided some insight into the third question about policy implementation. When reviewing the findings and conclusions of this study with a wider perspective than the mechanistic framework of FNS and its pillars, the study shed light on the impact of a few cross-cutting issues which, unless addressed, will ultimately render any FNS policy impotent. Three of these cross-cutting were of particular relevance and seem applicable not only to Eswatini, but to any country seeking to ensure FNS for its population: Collaboration and coordination in FNS policy development and implementation; Equitable access to land and other resources by women and youth; and Conflict of interest in cohabiting FNS and FNS-related policy and implementing agencies.

### **7.4.1 Collaboration and coordination in FNS policy development and implementation**

FNS policies are held in multiple institutions (see Table 5.1), and these policies are implemented by many other government institutions and their partners whose mandates are related to FNS. This current arrangement is too autonomous and dispersed to track progress of policy implementation. Hence, as noted earlier, it is difficult, and effectively impractical, to measure holistically the extent at which FNS policy is implemented, much less the impact it has on FNIS. The study found that there was no deliberate, structure or mandated collaboration among the multiple agencies in the development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of FNS and FNS-related policy. Almost inevitably, this will lead to inefficiency and ineffectiveness, and by all observations has already done so. Thirty percent (30%) of the key informants observed that organizations in the rural areas sometimes target the same area for

similar projects. As noted by Ayala-Orozco, Rosell, Merçon, Bueno, Alatorre-Frenk, Langle-Flores, Lobato<sup>2</sup>, lack of multi-stakeholder coordination of public policy leads to chaos characterised by factors such as these, “differing timeframes”, “tensions within and between sectors”, “divergent visions”, “limited participation and inadequate stakeholder organization” and “problems of communication and lack of information”. Similarly, Blum, Worth<sup>3</sup> identified challenges with logistics and stakeholder participation particularly outside of organized meetings when developing policy. All of these challenges and more appear to be manifest in the FNS policy arena of Eswatini.

Collaboration and coordination are requisite for successful development and implementation of FNS policy. Therefore, a coordinating body and framework are required that will be responsible for ensuring collaboration and coordination of the institutions contributing to FNS. As identified by Ayala-Orozco, Rosell, Merçon, Bueno, Alatorre-Frenk, Langle-Flores, Lobato<sup>4</sup>, beyond the coordinating body, coordination requires shared vision, values and attitudes, planning, capacity building and learning, and effective communication and information systems. Also needed are, among others, consultative processes, validation processes, efficient information gathering, and, above all, leadership from government<sup>3</sup>.

Such a level of collaboration and coordination will enhance the processes of developing, reviewing and amending policies. It will also facilitate effective and efficient resource mobilization and allocation of funds necessary to implement the FNS policies. Coordination helps prevent wastage of resources caused to duplication of efforts and other inefficiencies.

#### **7.4.2 Equitable access to land and resources by women and youth**

Women and youth are a majority population in the rural communities of Eswatini. These population groups include unemployed graduates and people with minimal education with informal employment, often as labourers. They lack any form of stable livelihoods and yet many of them are considered breadwinners. Hence, these women and youth are vulnerable to food and nutrition insecurity. It is nearly impossible for them to escape their ordeal because they are precluded from accessing land and other resources for food production. In rural areas, land is only issued on basis of building a home through the continued application of long-standing cultural practices that effectively exclude women and youth. These restrictions emanate not only from traditional practice, but also from the absence of any substantive policy allowing

women and youth access to land for farming and for livelihood purposes. Their access to other critical resources like credit and training is also limited, and are of little value if they cannot access land.

This is not unique to Eswatini. The marginalisation of women and youth is endemic in the global south. While policies to improve the lot of women and youth abound, the lack of access persists. This requires bold decision-making to overcome the inertia of deeply embedded practices that prioritise men and marginalise women and youth in any area that gives them economic choices and freedom. If it is not possible to do away with outworn gender- and age-discriminating traditions and practices, then at the very least policy can be created facilitate short-term access to land for women and youth for the specific purpose of agricultural production and related livelihood activities. Failure to make a substantive move in this direction will effectively render FNS unachievable and unsustainable.

#### **7.4.3 Conflict of interest in cohabiting FNS and FNS-related policy and implementing agencies**

In Eswatini, smallholder farmers produce food for two main purposes: feeding their households and earning income through profits gained from selling their surplus agricultural produce. The main markets in Eswatini are the residents where the farm resides, retail markets such as supermarkets, and the Ministry of Agriculture through its parastatals – National Maize Corporation, National Agricultural Marketing Board, Eswatini Meat Industries, and Swaziland Dairy Board. The outcry by the organizations that participated in this study and are working with farmers was that these parastatals are crippling farmers' business because the parastatals are buying their produce at a price that is far below the market value resulting in losses to the farmers, while making profits from reselling to the retail market at "exorbitant" prices. The key informants indicated that the farmers feel these parastatals are sabotaging their efforts to produce foods and that the local retail market will continuously rely on agricultural produce imported from South Africa in order to collect more import levy for profits. The conflict of interest stems from the fact that these same parastatals have a mandate to promote the local agricultural market while at the same time having a mandate to regulate the imports and export – part of which is to charge levies on imported foods as one of their operational income streams. The study found that, from the perspective of the study participants, the parastatals give priority to earning levy income at the expense of developing profitable markets for smallholder farmers.

These functions must be separated and managed by separate agencies; one to promote local production, and the other to regulate the market.

### **7.5 Strengths and weaknesses of the study**

The study was able to collect inputs from key informants working with major contributing institutions on FNS policies in Eswatini. The institutions covered government agencies, NGOs and civil society which are working with households and farmers in the communities, with development partners from the UN, and also with the academic institutions, particularly the University of Eswatini in the Faculty of Consumer Science which houses food security and nutrition units.

This study gained insights from almost every sphere of the FNS cadre. Thus, it can be safely said that the study was inclusive and covered a broad spectrum. The key informants of this research were all professionals in their respective fields and work spaces and well-versed on FNS and its principles. Hence, the information they provided presented the reality on the ground in terms of policy and service provision. The data collected from the different categories of institutions was easily validated by the existing national policy documents of Eswatini.

The main limitation of the study was its scope. The study focused on the institutions contributing to and implementing Eswatini's FNS policies. It did not investigate policy and service provision from the perspective of households and farmers who are affected by the policies. Time and resources did not permit this level of investigation. Thus, even more understanding about and insight into Eswatini's FNS policy and service provision could be gained by a parallel study. Such a study could, in particular, explore the extent of inclusivity in the development of policy and implementation, and the impact of the policies on households, farmers, and communities in rural, peri-urban and urban areas.

### **7.6 Conclusion**

Over and above all the findings, the lesson learnt from this study is that policy is an organ of governance that enables authorities to provide needed services to the society utilizing scarce resources as efficiently as possible. In order to enact effective policies, policy-makers should adopt a bottom-up approach to ensure that the beneficiaries articulate all their needs and

concerns in the scoping stage and that they are genuinely included in the early stage of the policy development. In implementing policy, government must have a data collecting tool that will capture every milestone covered within its departments and beyond (the partners and other stakeholders). This means there should be legislated standards with which any agency involved in FNS must comply before embarking on a project. Also required are functioning mechanisms and structures to coordinate and manage the whole policy cycle. This will eliminate the siloed implementation of FNS policy and the lack of accountability from implementers. This will result in proper policy development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation by the government, thus enabling policy review and redevelopment. Finally, when all systems are put in place and well implemented, justified prioritization and maximization of the scarce resources will be achieved.

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# APPENDICES

## Appendix 1: Ethical Approval

### Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee



12 February 2019

Mr Kwanele Siyabonga Simelane 218086322  
School of Agriculture, Earth & Environmental  
Pietermaritzburg Campus

Dear Mr Simelane

Protocol reference number: HSS/0092/019D

Project title: The linkages between food security and nutrition security in The Kingdom of Eswatini (Swaziland) and the impact of the country's policies and strategies in complementing these two concept without sacrificing one of the other

#### Full Approval – Expedited Application

In response to your application received 31 January 2019, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

**PLEASE NOTE:** Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully,

.....  
Dr Rosemary Sibanda (Chair)  
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

/pm

cc Supervisor: Professor S Worth  
cc Academic Leader Research: Professor H Shimelis  
cc School Administrator: Ms Marsha Manjoo

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee  
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Founding Campuses: ■ Edgewood ■ Howard College ■ Medical School ■ Pietermaritzburg ■ Westville

## Appendix 2: Gate Keeper Letter



### Agricultural Extension and Rural Resource Management

28 August 2018



Department of Meteorology of the Ministry of Tourism and Environmental Affairs  
Department of Water Affairs of the Ministry of Natural Resources and Energy  
National Disaster Management Agency  
Swaziland Environmental Authority  
Swaziland National Agricultural Union  
Swaziland Promotions Investment Authority  
Swaziland Standards Authority  
University of Swaziland

Greetings,

**REQUEST FOR ASSISTANCE: DOCTORAL STUDENT**  
**MrKwanele Siyabonga Simelane \* Student Number: 218086322**

Mr Simelane is a student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN). He is registered for PhD in Food Security in the School of Agricultural, Earth and Environmental Sciences, in the College of Agriculture, Engineering and Science. This is a research degree investigating "The linkages between food security and nutrition security in the Kingdom of Eswatini (Swaziland) and the impact of the country's policies and strategies in complementing these two concepts without sacrificing either". In order to complete his research, he needs to interview representatives from your agency. These individuals will be interviewed individually.

Before he is allowed to start this research, UKZN requires that he obtains written permission from you to interview the relevant officials in your organisation. I would highly appreciate if you could assist him by granting permission to conduct the interviews, and to confirm your permission in writing. You may sign and stamp below or issue a letter on your own letterhead.

For your information, I have attached his proposal and a draft interview schedule.

Kind regards and many thanks,

Steven Worth (PhD)  
Director: African Centre for Food Security  
Associate Professor: Agricultural Extension  
and Rural Resource Management

Agency Consent

I, ....., do hereby grant Mr Kwanele Siyabonga Simelane [Student Number: 218086322] permission to interview officials in my organisation for the purpose of conducting his research for his PhD in Food Security at the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Signed \_\_\_\_\_ at \_\_\_\_\_

On the ..... day of ..... 2018.

Official stamp

A rectangular box with a thin black border, containing the text "Official stamp" at the top left. The rest of the box is empty.

## Appendix 3: Participant Information Sheet

### The Status of Food and Nutrition Security Policies and Institutional Framework in Eswatini

Date: ..... Research Number: .....

Greetings

My name is Kwanele Siyabonga Simelane. I am a PhD in Food Security student at the University of KwaZulu Natal, School of Agriculture, Earth and Environmental Sciences Pietermaritzburg Campus.

You are being invited to consider participating in a study on food and nutrition security. The aim of this research is to try and determine the policy status of food and nutrition insecurity in the Kingdom of Eswatini so that gaps are mended. The study is expected to enrol key informants from about five different sectors. These sectors include representatives from government offices, NGOs, Civil Society, Private Sector and Development Partners.

If you choose to be part of the study, you will be asked questions about your understanding of food and nutrition security, your contribution of your organization in food and nutrition security, and challenges and opportunities in implementing food and nutrition. In addition, questions about legislations and/or policies governing work in food and nutrition security will be asked. In addition, strategies and plans in place guiding the implementation of the existing policies will also be enquired. Answers given will not be identified with the respondent. There will not be any connection between your credentials and the answers to the questions. The duration of your participation, if you choose to enrol and remain in the study is expected to be forty-five minutes to an hour of your time. The study is privately funded by the researcher without any external funding organization who may have special interest in the outcome of this research.

There are no risks associated with the study. Information gathered will be kept confidential and will not be open for use by unauthorized persons and will only for use for the purposes of this research. We hope that the study will provide clear information that will improve service delivery by duty bearers (your organization) in the field of food and nutrition security as a result food and nutrition insecurity will be drastically reduced.

This study has been ethically reviewed and approved by the UKZN Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (approval number: HSS/0092/019D).

In the event of any problems or concerns/questions you may contact the researcher at (Telephone number: Work +26825170798, Home +26824101153; Cell: +268 78158505; email: [kwasiyas@gmail.com](mailto:kwasiyas@gmail.com)) or the UKZN Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee, contact details as follows:

**HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION**  
**Research Office, Westville Campus**  
**Govan Mbeki Building**  
Private Bag X 54001  
Durban  
4000

KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA  
Tel: 27 31 2608350- Fax: 27 31 2604609  
Email: [hssreclms@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:hssreclms@ukzn.ac.za)

Participation in this research is voluntary and participants may withdraw participation at any point, and in the event of refusal/withdrawal of participation the participants will not incur penalty or other benefit to which they are normally entitled. Even if superiors have permitted the research to be undertaken in the organization that doesn't undermine the freedom of choice of the participant. Under no circumstances will the researcher intimidate the respondent by threatening to report the matter to superiors. The participant may decide to withdraw participation without justifying his/her decision.

You will not be personally identified in any reports or publications that may result from this assessment. Any personal information that is gathered during this assessment will remain confidential. The information you give will only be used for the purpose of the assessment.

Sign below only if you understand the information given about the research and choose to take part. Make sure that any questions have been answered and that you understand the assessment. If you have any other question/s or concerns about your rights as a research subject, we will be glad to answer these to help you understand and make informed decision. If you decide to take part in this research assessment a copy of this consent form will be given to you.

## Appendix 4: Individual Participant Consent Form

### The Status of Food and Nutrition Security Policies and Institutional Framework in Eswatini

I ..... have been informed about the study entitled The linkages between food security and nutrition security in The Kingdom of Eswatini (Swaziland) and the Impact of the country's policies and strategies in complementing these two concept without sacrificing one of the other by Kwanele Siyabonga Simelane, researcher.

I understand the purpose and procedures of the study.

I have been given an opportunity to answer questions about the study and have had answers to my satisfaction.

I declare that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without affecting any of the benefits that I usually am entitled to.

I have been informed about any available compensation or medical treatment if injury occurs to me as a result of study-related procedures.

If I have any further questions/concerns or queries related to the study I understand that I may contact the researcher at (Telephone number: Work +26825170798, Home +26824101153; Cell: +268 78158505; email: [kwasiyas@gmail.com](mailto:kwasiyas@gmail.com)).

If I have any questions or concerns about my rights as a study participant, or if I am concerned about an aspect of the study or the researchers then I may contact:

Print your name: _____	Research No.: _____
Signature: _____	
Dated: _____	Time _____
Consent administered by	
Name: _____	
Signature: _____	
Dated: _____	Time _____

**Appendix 5: Data Collection Tool (Interview Questions)**

**The Status of Food and Nutrition Security Policies and Institutional Framework  
in Eswatini**

**Demographic Information**

Name of Respondent: .....Research No: .....

Institution/ministry/Organization:  
.....

Job title:  
.....

Briefly explain your role:  
.....  
.....

Date: .....Location: .....

Phone Number:  
.....

Email:  
.....

**Research No: .....**



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3. Which food and nutrition security program(s) are mainly implemented by your institution.
- A. Food, Agriculture, Fisheries, Livestock and Forestry: For increased production, proper distribution and food security.
  - B. Health, Family Welfare and Environment: For primary health care, caring practices, care of elderly, disease control, sanitation and hygiene.
  - C. Nutrition Education and Communication: For creation of awareness at different levels with formal and non-formal education.
  - D. Community Development and Social Welfare: For poverty alleviation, income generation and economic growth.
  - E. Other < Please Specify>

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4. What were the overall outcomes and main challenges of each program implemented? What were the implementation period, the program objectives, outcome, challenges encountered, and solutions?

*NB: Add several tables when necessary*

Program	
Timeframe	

Objective	
Outcome	
Challenges*	

*\*Take listed challenges to question No. 5.*

5. How these challenges were listed in question 4 been dealt with and how effective were these solutions?

*NB: Add several tables when necessary*

<b>Challenges/Constraints</b>	<b>Solutions</b>	<b>How effectiveness?</b>

6. What policy informs your institution?
- A. National Food and Nutrition Policy 2016
  - B. National NCD Prevention and Control Policy 2016
  - C. Swaziland United Nations development assistance framework (UNDAF)
  - D. Development Strategy for Swaziland Promoting Sustainable Development and Inclusive Growth 2014
  - E. National Health Sector Strategic Plan II (NHSSP II) 2014
  - F. Ministry of Health Strategic Plan 2010
  - G. National food and nutrition strategic plan 2010
  - H. Food and Nutrition Policy 2009
  - I. Poverty Reduction Strategy 2008
  - J. National Health Sector Strategic Plan 2008
  - K. Comprehensive Agriculture Sector policy 2005
  - L. National food security policy for Swaziland 2005
  - M. The Irrigation Policy 2005
  - N. Other<Pleasespecify>\_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_

7. Which organizations are you collaborating with in implementing the policy?
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_

8. What informs the collaboration with those institutions?

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9. What (can be done) is needed to ensure that food and nutrition security policies are improved in terms of relevance, equity, efficiency and effectiveness?

	<b>What is needed to improve</b>
<b>Relevance</b>	
<b>Equity</b>	
<b>Efficiency</b>	
<b>Effectiveness</b>	

10. What can be the view of the organization on the impact of food and nutrition security activities on gender equality and equity taking into cognizance the role of women and youth?

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11. How have/can food and nutrition security activities been/be affected by gender equality and equity factors?

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12. In your opinion, what are the key challenges of implementing food and nutrition security policies in the country? How can these challenges be overcome?

<b>Key challenge to implementing food and nutrition security</b>	<b>Possible solution</b>

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13. What opportunities do you think remain untapped in food and nutrition security in Eswatini, and why do you think it's so?

<b>Untapped opportunity</b>	<b>Reasons why still untapped</b>

<b>Respondent</b>	
Print your Code:	_____
Signature:	_____
Dated:	_____ Time _____
<b>Questionnaire administered by</b>	
Name:	_____
Signature:	_____
Dated:	_____ Time _____

**Definition of terms which are commonly used loosely or interchangeable**

*Gender Equality* means that women and men have equal conditions for realizing their full human rights and for contributing to, and benefiting from, economic, social, cultural and political development. Gender equality is therefore the equal valuing by society of the similarities and the differences of men and women, and the roles they play. It is based on women and men being full partners in their home, their community and their society. *Gender Equity* is the process of being fair to men and women. To ensure fairness, measures must often be put in place to compensate for the historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from operating on a level playing field. Equity is a means. Equality is the result (UNESCO, 2003).

## Appendix 6: Proof of publication of Chapter 2

The screenshot shows a web browser displaying the article page for 'Food and Nutrition Security Theory' on the Sage Publications website. The URL is <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/0379572120925341>. The page header includes the journal title 'Food and Nutrition Bulletin' and the International Nutrition Foundation (INF) logo. The article title is 'Food and Nutrition Security Theory' by Kwanele Siyabonga Simelane, MSc, PhD Student, and Steve Worth, PhD. It was first published on November 17, 2020. The article information section includes links for 'Review Article', 'Find in PubMed', and 'Check for updates'. The abstract section is titled 'Background:' and discusses food and nutrition insecurity. The 'Objective:' section states the intent to establish a theoretical framework. The 'Method:' section describes the paper as a theoretical drawing on previous publications. The 'Results:' section details the findings of the review. The 'Conclusions:' section discusses the impact of the information gathered. The 'Keywords' section lists: food security, nutrition security, availability, accessibility, utilization, sustainability. On the left side, there is an 'Article Menu' with options to 'Download PDF', 'Open EPUB', 'Full Article', 'Content List', and 'Figures & Tables'. A 'Lean Library' banner is also visible.

Food and Nutrition Bulletin

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Content List

Abstract

Introduction

Discussions of the Dimensions of FNS

Nutrition Security

Figures & Tables

### Food and Nutrition Security Theory

Kwanele Siyabonga Simelane, MSc, PhD Student, Steve Worth, PhD

First Published November 17, 2020 | Review Article | Find in PubMed | Check for updates

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0379572120925341>

Article information

Abstract

#### Background:

Food and nutrition insecurity continue to affect societies in both developed and developing countries even in years of bounty harvest. This confirms that availability of food does not automatically translate to food and nutrition security (FNS). Even when food is available it may not be accessible to everyone who needs it, and sometimes available and accessible food may not provide all the nutrients required to nourish the body to develop, grow, resist diseases, and meet ordinary physiological demands. Sometimes, food is plenty and accessible but not acceptable or sustainable. All such instances constitute potential food and (especially) nutrition insecurity.

#### Objective:

We intend to establish a theoretical framework for investigating food and nutrition security.

#### Method:

This is a theoretical paper drawing on previous publications within the scope of food security and nutrition security.

#### Results:

The review found that it is imperative to consider carefully the definition of FNS to ensure the two concepts (food security and nutrition security) are adequately and sufficiently addressed in the implementation of food policies and strategies without sacrificing one concept over the other. This balance can be achieved through a thorough needs assessment analysis following the livelihood and the vulnerability approaches to FNS. The analysis should take into account the four conceptual dimensions to FNS to holistically cover every aspect of FNS.

#### Conclusions:

The information gathered from the analysis will help prioritize and focus food and nutrition support efforts to the people who really need it, yielding impact measured in public health indicators, education, productivity and the broader national/regional economy.

#### Keywords

food security, nutrition security, availability, accessibility, utilization, sustainability