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SPECIAL FEATURE SEAR

**ENERGY ACCESS
BUILDING RESILIENCE IN ACUTE
AND PROTRACTED CRISES**

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ENERGY ACCESS

BUILDING RESILIENCE IN ACUTE AND PROTRACTED CRISES

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INTRODUCTION

Almost every month, developing countries make the headlines with stories of food and livelihood emergencies, whether driven by natural disasters, conflicts, or political instability. Take the following examples involving Sub-Saharan Africa, the Middle East, and Asia, all of which have resulted in calls for emergency humanitarian assistance since mid-2015:

- In the Central African Republic (CAR), three years of conflict and ongoing displacements continue to severely constrain people's access to food as they struggle with the effects of multiple poor harvests, disrupted markets, and soaring prices for many staple foods. Half of the population faces hunger.
- In southern Africa, still in the grip of an intense drought—driven by one of the strongest El Niño events in the past 50 years—crop and livestock production are projected to decline sharply, triggering shortages and price hikes, and threatening the livelihoods of at least 2.5 million people. This could undercut recent gains in reducing malnutrition and leave a greater number of people vulnerable to food insecurity (especially women, children, and HIV-affected people).
- In Syria, after six years of war, half of the people that remain lack enough food to eat and are unable to meet their basic food needs. The conflict has decimated the agriculture sectors, and food prices have soared.
- In Myanmar, heavy storms, floods, and landslides across nearly all provinces have dealt a major blow to the country's agriculture, severely limiting the availability of food. Rice is the most affected crop, with some parts of the country losing entire paddy plantations. And the loss of poultry will especially hurt women, who often rely on small animals to support their families.

One thing that all of these emergencies have in common is that they magnify ongoing difficulties in accessing energy, which constitutes a key component of the physical capital required by individuals and households to pursue sustainable livelihoods. Indeed, modern energy services are essential for ensuring the well-being of people, playing a key role in providing clean water, sanitation, health care,

reliable and efficient lighting, heating, cooking, mechanical power, transport, and telecommunications services (International Energy Agency 2015).¹ However, an estimated 1.3 billion people currently lack access to modern energy services (Practical Action 2014) and almost 3 billion people rely on wood, coal, charcoal or animal waste as sources of fuel for cooking and heating (Sustainable Energy for All 2014). In emergency settings, even basic access to traditional biomass may be constrained.

A major problem for the international community is that the importance of providing fuel and appropriate cooking technologies in emergency settings is often overlooked or inadequately prioritized by humanitarian and emergency response actors. While food may be provided—for example, through the World Food Programme food basket—the means to cook that food is not consistently provided, and when aid agencies do provide cooking fuel, they often do not provide enough to cover needs (WFP 2012).

The need for energy is highly acute in displacement contexts, especially in developing countries that host large numbers of refugees or internally displaced persons (IDPs)—and the gap between the needs of growing numbers of IDPs and the resources and political will to meet these needs is increasing (Moving Energy Initiative 2015). There are currently 60 million forcibly displaced people in the world (19.5 million refugees, 38.2 million IDPs, and 1.8 million asylum-seekers)—higher than the combined populations of Australia and Canada. (UNHCR, 2015). In the CAR alone, over a quarter of the population (about 1 million people) has been displaced by violence (OCHA 2015).

The UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) is tackling these challenges by engaging in the Safe Access to Fuel and Energy (SAFE) Humanitarian Working Group—which works to facilitate a more coordinated, predictable, timely, and effective response to the fuel and energy needs of crisis-affected populations. FAO also implements projects that address both the supply and demand for fuel in multi-hazard contexts (FAOa 2013).² The new emphasis is on taking a holistic approach to the multisectoral challenges, which range from natural resources (including forestry and land tenure) and climate change to nutrition, gender, protection, and livelihoods.

INCREASING RESILIENCE BY IMPROVING ENERGY ACCESS

While humanitarian responses have helped to save lives, it is widely acknowledged that they have not done enough to enable affected populations to withstand or absorb shocks and avert future crises. As a result, there is a growing consensus on the importance of building the resilience of people and their livelihoods. For this purpose, the FAO defines resilience as: “The ability to prevent disasters and crises as well as to anticipate, absorb, accommodate or recover from them in a timely, efficient and sustainable manner. This includes protecting, restoring and improving livelihoods systems in the face of threats that impact agriculture, nutrition, food security and food safety.”

The FAO’s SAFE work contributes to reducing risks and vulnerability at the household and community levels by improving access to sustainable energy. This work supports resilience building by helping to diversify income and energy sources, reduce environmental impacts, and improve food security and nutrition.

For the purpose of assessing energy needs and designing appropriate responses, FAO distinguishes between two types of emergency contexts: acute emergencies and protracted crises. However, disasters caused by natural hazards—and complex emergencies characterized by outbreaks of violence—can be both acute and protracted, often causing the large-scale displacement of people. FAO’s work on energy applies to both acute emergency responses and protracted crises, including longer-term Disaster Risk Reduction/Disaster Risk Management interventions that facilitate the transition from relief to development.

Acute emergencies

Acute emergencies involve rapid onset disasters and humanitarian contexts that require a quick response to cover the immediate needs of affected people.³ After Typhoon Haiyan made landfall in the Philippines in 2013, a Level 3 Emergency⁴ was soon declared to respond to the needs of 14 million people. Fortunately, an effective emergency response surge effort and rapid self-recovery of communities ensured that the duration of the emergency was limited and that households subsequently have been able to resume livelihood activities.

In this type of emergency, the collection, production, and use of biomass cooking fuel create a myriad of risks for crisis-affected people and their environment (FAOa 2013). The SAFE guidelines focus mainly on the direct provision of cooking fuels and stoves, taking into account issues like: (i) availability and environmental sustainability of local fuel sources; (ii) development of alternative fuel sources; (iii) local regulations and laws on using forest resources for fuel purposes; (iv) familiarity of users with the fuel provided; and (v) presence of a market for fuel sales.

Protracted crises

Protracted crises are characterised by recurrent natural disasters and/or conflict, longevity of food crises, breakdown of livelihoods, and insufficient institutional capacity to react to the crises. Displaced people and their host communities often constitute the most vulnerable popula-

tions in a protracted crisis. Large refugee camps in Sub-Saharan Africa in some cases host people for several decades, and challenges of covering fuel and shelter needs have had significant implications for the well-being of these displaced populations, host communities, and the surrounding environment.

The guidelines for responding to fuel needs fall into three main categories (IASC 2009):

- **Availability of fuel:** local materials/biomass for use as energy, the environment and climate, and funding available for developing local production of fuel-efficient stoves and/or alternative fuels.
- **Access to fuel:** protection risks associated with the collection of fuel, the state of infrastructure for transporting fuel, laws, and regulations pertaining to access to land and natural resources, and the relationship between displaced and host communities.
- **Use of fuel:** cultural considerations regarding fuels and stoves and health and safety when cooking, and opportunities for promoting fuel and stove production as a livelihood activity.

These considerations can be used by humanitarian and development organizations to support comprehensive and long-term planning of how to introduce fuels and technologies that reduce social and environmental risks while contributing to building resilient livelihoods.

KEY CHALLENGES RELATED TO ENERGY ACCESS IN EMERGENCIES

The cross-cutting nature of the energy sector in emergencies (whether protracted or acute) poses a range of challenges—touching on the environment, gender, nutrition, safety, and earning a living.

Environmental degradation and depletion of natural resources

In the absence of a stable and sustainable supply of energy, surrounding forests and tree resources are often used to provide the wood needed as fuel for cooking. With the additional pressure stemming from the influx of displaced people, the most immediate and lasting impact of fuel needs in emergencies is deforestation and forest degradation, as illustrated in Tanzania, Sudan, and Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) (see box).

In post-emergency contexts, the needs of returnees can also have a profound ecological impact. In the Tigray region of northern Ethiopia, the return from Sudan of several hundred thousand refugees since the mid-1990s has resulted in the unsustainable exploitation of vegetation for fuel, fodder, and building materials (UNHCR 2005). In Kenya, the towns of Dadaab and Kakuma host large refugee populations (from Somalia, Sudan, and South Sudan), and the added population pressure has resulted in significant environmental degradation around the camps (WFP 2013).

Protection risks and women’s work burden

Women are often tasked with collecting fuel and cooking. In protracted crises, this often exposes them to the risk of

BOX 1

Conflicts and Deforestation in Sub-Saharan Africa

NORTHWESTERN TANZANIA: Following the influx of Rwandan refugees in the wake of the Rwandan genocide, tree resources in a 5-kilometer radius around refugee camps were cut down to satisfy fuel needs. A year after the arrival of refugees, the average walking distance to collect fuel was 10 kilometers (Van Dorp 2010).

DARFUR, SUDAN: Conflict has been the main driver of the rapidly increasing demand for fuel as a result of large-scale displacement. An estimated 50 percent of the population in Darfur, around 3.5 million people, are directly affected by the conflict through violence, displacement, and disruption of livelihoods (ProAct 2012). Internally displaced persons (IDPs) are forced to find fuelwood in areas near camps because humanitarian organizations are not providing a consistent and

reliable supply of fuel. Furthermore, fuelwood is used to fire bricks in inefficient open brick clamps. Brick production is a livelihood activity in both IDP and host communities in Darfur (ProAct 2012), and brick production may use as much as 200 trees per day in some IDP camps (Van Dorp 2010).

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO: A large number of refugees from neighboring countries (like Angola, Burundi, and especially Rwanda) entered the country in the immediate aftermath of the Rwandan genocide (Van Dorp 2009)—settling in and around the Virunga National Park, a UNESCO World Heritage site. Within two years, 105 kilometers had been deforested as a result of refugees cutting trees for use as building materials, fuelwood, and large-scale charcoal production (Van Dorp 2009).

assault, harassment, and rape as they walk long distances in search of fuelwood. The collection of fuelwood is particularly dangerous in displacement settings and areas of scarce or depleted natural resources, given that the increased population pressure may heighten competition for resources between displaced and host communities. The time women spend collecting fuel also takes time away from income-generating activities, child care, and leisure. Children are also often tasked with collecting fuel for the household, which exposes them to protection risks and reduces the time they spend on their education.

In a study carried out by the Women's Refugee Commission (WRC) in South Kivu, DRC, women reported that either they or women they knew had been raped while collecting fuelwood for cooking. Men who earn income producing charcoal are also at risk of physical assault and kidnapping. In both cases, the perpetrators of these attacks are often members of armed groups who also rely on fuelwood and charcoal as income sources (WRC 2014). In the Karamoja region of Uganda, WFP reports that the widespread reduction of forest cover is forcing women and girls to travel increasing distances to collect grass and wood for cooking fuel, in turn, creating grave protection risks for women and girls (WFP 2012).

Malnutrition

Emergencies often involve the large-scale displacement of people to places where there are few livelihood opportunities. Despite this, displaced populations must ensure that they have enough food to eat—which means that they often spend all their savings on food or rely on the distribution of food rations. But with few livelihood opportunities and meager savings, there is little money to spend on cooking fuel.

In the Karamoja Region of Uganda, where rainfall has been unreliable, more than 80 percent of the population is

classified as experiencing some level of food insecurity and is largely dependent on food aid—and the situation has only worsened over the past decade. In these situations, the scarcity of fuelwood and other sources of energy can increase the risk of malnutrition. As cooking fuel becomes scarce, households may resort to negative coping mechanisms such as switching to less nutritious food, undercooking food, or reducing the number and size of meals. WFP reports that selling or bartering food for fuel is a commonly adopted strategy, especially in contexts where food is the main, if not the only, source of income. These practices hurt the quantity, quality, and nutritional value of the food consumed. (WFP 2012).

Health and safety risks

Populations that have been affected by emergencies often rely on the use of a three stone fire or other forms of open fires to cook their food. Cooking is often carried out in crowded and poorly ventilated dwellings, exposing women and other household members to indoor air pollution. The indoor burning of biomass fuel releases smoke into the environment that contains numerous pollutants (including carbon monoxide, particulate matter, and other organic compounds) (Barnes 2014). Over 4 million people die each year as a result of inhaling lethal smoke from open fires (Practical Action 2014)—and in emergencies, these health risks rise. The use of a three stone fire for cooking also greatly increases the risk of women and children getting burned, which has been known to cause child mortality.

Following a mission to four refugee camps in Upper Nile State, South Sudan, three agencies—the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA)—reported that nearly all households in these camps were using a three stone fire for cooking (UNHCR 2012). FAO

has also carried out rapid fuel needs assessments in protracted crisis settings in Kenya, Somalia, Ethiopia, South Sudan, and Myanmar, and the use of the three stone fire was found to be widespread in all of the locations visited. The negative impacts of using this cooking technology were reported by female respondents (which included refugees, IDPs, and host populations).

Unsustainable livelihoods

Vulnerable populations in emergencies and protracted crises often rely on the sale of fuelwood and charcoal, which are risky and unsustainable livelihood activities. Charcoal production is highly inefficient—as little as 10 percent of the wood used in traditional charcoal making is actually marketable as charcoal.

In crisis-affected parts of Somalia, charcoal production is the main source of income especially for the poorest and most marginalized parts of the population. In South Sudan, charcoal production is becoming an important livelihood activity for many people, including ex-combatants, who have few other livelihood opportunities to rely upon. An increasingly significant share of this charcoal is exported to Sudan, Uganda, and the Middle East (Thulstrup & Henry 2014). In the Karamoja region in Uganda, women have few options other than to collect fuelwood which they can sell to earn income.

Disaster risks

Many countries face multiple natural and man-made disasters, which hurt people, goods, services, and the environment. Livelihoods are disrupted and resources for recovery (in the short or medium term) are often lacking. In this way, disasters set back developmental efforts. Drought, floods, landslides, and fires are some of the major hazards faced by populations who depend on fuel and energy for cooking and productive activities. Drought pushes people into other areas in search of natural resources, such as woodfuel, which increases tension between various livelihood groups and can result in conflict and associated violence. As woodfuel resources decline as a consequence of droughts, women also have to walk longer distances, in even more difficult conditions, to obtain fuelwood.

ACTIVITIES AND INTERVENTIONS

A multisectoral challenge requires a multidisciplinary approach

FAO—in coordination with many other organizations like WRC, WFP, and UNHCR—is adopting a multi-disciplinary approach to address the multisectoral challenges associated with energy in emergencies. This approach comprises three interlinked pillars:

Ensuring a sustainable supply of energy by establishing and promoting agro-forestry, which can provide fuel and food from the same land, communal woodlots and other modes of reforestation and afforestation, sustainable natural resource management, use of agricultural residues, and other alternative fuels (like renewables). For example, Integrated Food-Energy Systems (IFES) produce food and energy on the same land or in the same integrated produc-

tion system. Synergies that exist between renewable energy production processes and the processes involved in crop and livestock production can also be maximized by using a variety of agro-industrial technologies—like gasification or anaerobic digestion that recycle or reuse by-products, and using other residues created during the production processes (Bogdanski et al. 2010).

Addressing energy demand by promoting fuel-saving cooking practices and fuel-efficient technologies for cooking and productive uses. The use of fuel-efficient stoves can save from 10–50 percent of the biomass that would be consumed when using a three stone fire.⁵ Fuel-saving cooking techniques include saving on water for boiling, cutting food into smaller pieces before cooking, pre-soaking beans before cooking, using the fire continuously, preventing the loss of steam by using lids, managing the fire, and other simple procedures that can reduce the amount of wood or other biomass needed for cooking.

Promoting sustainable livelihoods and diversifying livelihood activities by establishing and sustainably managing woodlots and agro-forestry. FAO has identified a number of IFESs that can produce food, energy, and marketable products for income-generation from the same land or integrated farming system (Bogdanski et al. 2010). Women can also produce fuel-efficient stoves using local materials (like mud, ceramic, and metal) that constitute safer and cleaner alternatives to the three stone fire and can be sold to generate income.

These three pillars also address the need for Disaster Risk Management by ensuring the sustainability of the natural resource base. Forests can be used as shelterbelts and windbreaks, and also play an important role in protecting against landslides, floods, and avalanches. Trees stabilize riverbanks and mitigate soil erosion, while woodlots provide fuel wood, timber, and fodder. Ensuring that appropriate energy sources and technologies are promoted for uptake by crisis-affected populations can play a significant role in managing the environment in support of risk reduction, such as in the productive use of land (like liquid fertilizer from biogas) and less deforestation from improved or non woodfuel-based cook stoves (FAO 2013).

The following are some country examples of FAO's work on energy in emergencies. Most of this work is carried out in Sub-Saharan Africa, where large numbers of people are facing multiple and interlinked stresses and shocks including drought, conflict, and forced displacement.

Sudan

Rural livelihoods of the majority of the population in Sudan's Greater Darfur area remain at risk as a result of the on-going multifaceted crisis. Coping strategies, particularly in and around IDP camps, have included activities that rely on scarce or unsustainable resources such as charcoal production and firewood and grass collection, further exacerbating the deterioration of the natural resource base. IDPs are forced to find fuelwood in areas surrounding camps due to the fact that humanitarian organizations

are not providing a consistent and reliable supply of fuel. Furthermore, fuelwood is used to fire bricks in inefficient open brick clamps. Brick production is a livelihood activity in both IDP and host communities in Darfur (ProAct 2012), and the production of bricks may use as much as 200 trees per day in some IDP camps (Van Dorp 2010).

In response, FAO has been working with UNEP in the Greater Darfur Region to help IDPs and conflict-affected communities obtain and use fuel wood in a sustainable and resource-efficient manner. They have distributed several hundred thousand tree seedlings to over 150,000 households and set up many community forests/woodlots. FAO has also trained hundreds of extension agents, community forest committee members, and local leaders on seedling production, nursery management, and seed broadcasting. And it has supported the production and distribution of 72,900 mud fuel-efficient stoves. Challenges encountered during implementation of these activities, included seasonal factors (such as a shortage of rainfall and prolonged dry spell that affected the establishment of newly-planted seedlings), and insecurity (which led to limited access to the vulnerable populations).

South Sudan

In Yei County in 2014, not long after South Sudan descended into civil war, the influx of returnees and refugees from the DRC, plus the town's expansion to the rural areas, disrupted the usual pattern of wood fuel collection from nearby woodlands and limited access to biomass energy. It was soon acknowledged that without addressing access to a secure and efficient source of energy for cooking, it would become riskier for women to seek fuel sources and harm the environment.

In response, FAO introduced fuel-efficient mud stoves to reduce the immediate need for firewood and charcoal, while decreasing the pace of deforestation and desertification processes. Furthermore, FAO and its partners trained women on how to produce the stoves using locally available materials and how to set up tree nurseries and woodlots for multipurpose tree species (which are useful for wood fuel, shade, fodder, windbreaks, and soil fertility).

Kenya

Conflict over natural resources in the Arid and Semi-Arid Lands (ASALs) in Kenya is exacerbated by the demand for woodfuel and the increasing reliance on traditional charcoal production as an income-generating activity, exposing women who collect fuelwood to a number of risks. FAO carried out a study in 2015 on the fuel and energy-related challenges faced by women in the ASALs—with the focus on refugee and host population contexts in Kakuma, Turkana County, as well as rural and urban settings in Samburu, Kitui, Meru, and Marsabit Counties. The study showed that there are significant links between forest degradation and the need for cooking fuel in ASAL counties of Kenya and highlighted the many risks and challenges faced by people in these areas, particularly women who are exposed to the risk of assault and rape when they collect fuelwood. The find-

ings of the study are now being fed into an FAO SAFE strategy for the ASALs.

Another FAO project in Kakuma links refugees with host communities to promote the sustainable production of charcoal using improved kilns that use small branches and invasive species as a feedstock, resulting in a reduced impact on the environment since traditional charcoal making requires the felling of large, indigenous Acacia trees. The sustainably produced charcoal will be sold to camp refugees through a voucher scheme supported by Mastercard. Furthermore, both refugees and host populations will benefit from locally produced fuel-efficient stoves. The project is designed to improve incomes of Turkana residents, reduce social tensions between those residents and the refugees, and relieve pressure on the environment.

Somalia

In Somalia, FAO conducted a similar assessment on fuel needs, cooking technologies, and related challenges in two districts (Hargheisa and Doolow). Focus group discussions, Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) sessions, and a comprehensive questionnaire survey were conducted in IDP camps, host communities, and rural villages. The key findings and analysis are being fed into a country strategy to be endorsed by relevant stakeholders. This strategy will be multidisciplinary and articulated around a number of interventions to address the cross-sectoral nature of the issue—drawing upon the programmatic and technical expertise of FAO, in close partnership with other relevant actors and stakeholders.

Ethiopia

The strongest El Niño weather episode in recent decades has caused repeated crop failure, decimated livestock herds, and driven some 10.2 million people across Ethiopia into food insecurity. Humanitarian needs have tripled since early 2015 as the drought has led to successive crop failures and widespread livestock. In 2014, FAO and UNHCR collaborated on an assessment of woodfuel demand and supply in and around two refugee camps in Ethiopia, which included the following components:

- A fuel demand assessment focusing on the fuel types, cooking technologies, energy needs, and challenges inside the camps.
- A woodfuel supply assessment, using both onsite surveys and satellite imagery analysis of the distribution of woodfuel resources, estimations of stocks, and stock changes.
- Integration of the supply and demand to identify deficits and appropriate interventions to address fuel supply and demand management.

The results of the assessment highlighted the need for FAO to develop global products on SAFE. Currently, FAO is finalizing a manual for assessing woodfuel demand and supply in displacement contexts and an excel-based tool for planning supply and demand interventions in and around camps.

FUTURE PROSPECTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

FAO and its partners will continue to scale up and pursue efforts related to providing sustainable and renewable energy for conflict-affected households in a holistic way. With the recognition that access, production, and use of energy poses an increasing number of challenges and risks for crisis-affected households, especially women, FAO is ensuring that energy access dimensions are more systematically mainstreamed in its resilience work.

The following are some broad areas of engagement that FAO will pursue in continuation of its work on energy in emergencies:

Engaging in strategic partnerships and coordination. It will be increasingly important to foster effective and meaningful partnerships and modes of collaboration to ensure coordinated and timely response and avoid duplication of efforts. Therefore, FAO will continue to work with its traditional partners such as UNHCR and WFP, nongovernmental organizations, and local governments to harmonize approaches and ensure synergies. Efforts will also be made to explore the scope for partnership with the private sector and academia.

The SAFE Humanitarian Working Group provides an ideal forum for enhanced coordination, good practice exchange, and joint advocacy for doing a better job of including energy access in emergency planning.

Toward innovation. FAO and other key actors will need to keep abreast of the latest developments in new technologies and approaches in the energy and related sectors, while pursuing innovative partnerships. UNHCR and the IKEA Foundation are partnering to provide energy (in addition to shelter, care, and education) to refugee and host communities—and since 2010, the IKEA Foundation has committed more than \$166 million in both cash and in-kind donations to UNHCR's programs. The partnership shows how global companies can provide solutions that really work, helping the UN respond to emergencies, identify and scale new ideas, and create more opportunities for refugees to lead dignified lives.

In terms of innovative approaches and technologies, FAO is seeking to broaden its focus from energy for cooking to energy for productive activities. This may include the promotion of new energy efficient technologies for post-harvest processing and storage (such as solar dryers and better fish smoking technologies).

Research for catalyzing action. To better understand the cross-cutting nature of energy in acute emergencies and protracted crises (and to tailor interventions accordingly), more money needs to be invested in research. A top priority is the nexus between energy, conflict, and food security, with a specific focus on peace building and human security. The collection, production, and use of traditional biomass as a fuel for cooking and heating is associated with a myriad of risks and challenges—including conflict and tension between different social groups. Displacement camps are frequently established in fragile, sparsely forested ecosystems in which both host and displaced populations

depend on the scarce natural resources found in areas surrounding the camps. The influx of displaced populations and their fuel needs are thus often a source of tension and conflict that increases the risk of women being harassed, assaulted, and raped while searching for fuelwood.

FAO views energy access as instrumental for contributing to peace-building efforts, because it can lower the risk of potential conflict between communities (for example, IDPs/refugees and host communities or pastoralists and farmers) who compete for scarce natural resources (like woodfuel).

Guidance. To ensure technical standards are met and consistency, it is important to develop guidance material particularly for field-based actors. Through the global Food Security Cluster, FAO and WFP have developed material on the key minimum steps, responsible entities, and further tools and resources for integrating energy in preparedness, needs assessments, strategic planning, response implementation, resource mobilization, monitoring and evaluation, and inter-cluster coordination.

Given the cross-cutting nature of energy, future guidance material needs to be embedded in key frameworks and initiatives. Recently, the Committee on World Food Security endorsed a Framework for Action for Food Security and Nutrition in Protracted Crises (FFA). This global policy framework speaks to the promotion of coherent and well-coordinated humanitarian and development programming. Its goal is to address immediate needs and build resilient communities, while adapting to specific challenges and contributing to resolving underlying causes of food insecurity and malnutrition. Energy is a key component of this work, which has prompted FAO to develop FFA guidance material specifically on energy.

Ensuring accountability. Accountability to Affected Populations (AAP), a people-centered approach, puts the dignity of all human beings affected by disaster and conflict at the forefront and is at the core of FAO's humanitarian and development interventions. In the design and implementation of FAO's SAFE activities, attention will continue to focus on the varying needs of different groups in a community, including the most vulnerable. Furthermore, the importance of participation and equal access to assistance by women, men, girls, and boys is a crucial aspect of FAO's AAP approach.

In embedding good accountability principles in its SAFE activities, FAO seeks to achieve greater transparency, two-way communication, and better information provision for affected communities. This will involve setting up mechanisms that promote and facilitate responses and feedback from affected populations.

CONCLUSION

In sum, the importance of providing fuel and appropriate cooking technologies in emergency settings is too often overlooked or inadequately prioritized by humanitarian and emergency response actors—meaning that the international community needs to get more involved. FAO together with its partners has embarked on SAFE work

that revolves around reducing risks and vulnerability at the household and community levels by improving access to sustainable energy. This work supports resilience building by helping to diversify income and energy sources, reduce environmental impacts, and improve food security and nutrition.

The good news is that FAO's work on energy in emergencies at the field level—mainly in Sub-Saharan Africa, where large numbers of people are facing multiple and interlinked stresses and shocks (including drought, conflict, and forced displacement)—is showing promising results. A multidisciplinary approach is being applied, articulated around ensuring a sustainable supply of energy, address-

ing energy demand, promoting sustainable livelihoods, and diversifying livelihood activities.

In terms of next steps, FAO and its partners will focus on scaling up efforts to both provide sustainable and renewable energy for conflict-affected households in a holistic way and ensure that energy access dimensions are more systematically mainstreamed in resilience work. It will also continue to engage in strategic partnerships (both traditional and non-traditional) and keep abreast of the latest developments in new technologies and approaches in the energy and related sectors—the goal being to ensure maximum effectiveness and impact for the affected communities.

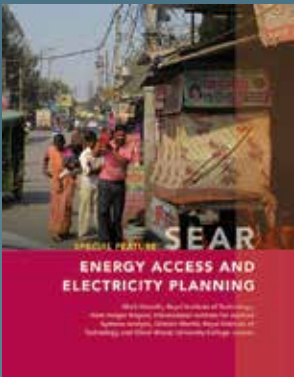
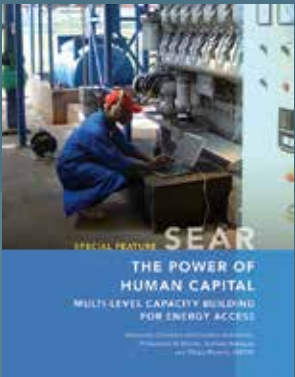
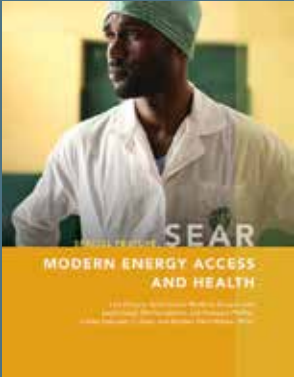
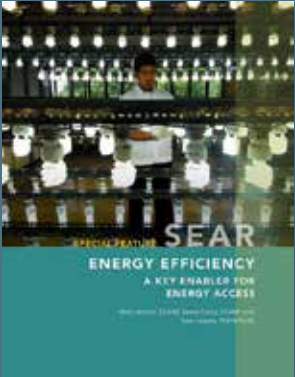
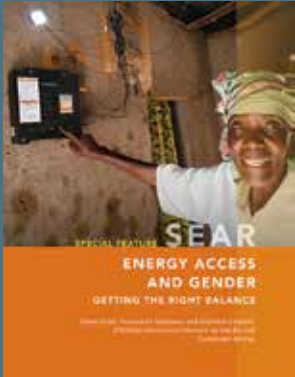
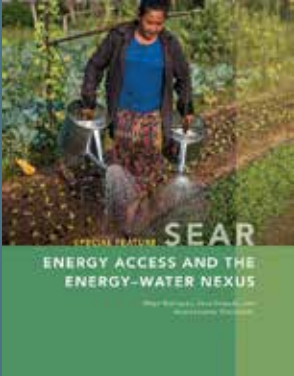
NOTES

1. The Global Bioenergy Partnership defines modern energy services as the “availability for the end user of: electricity for lighting, communication, health care, education and other uses; modern fuels or technologies for cooking, heating and cooling; mechanical power for productive use (e.g. irrigation, agricultural processing), provided through electricity or modern fuels, or directly through renewable sources such as hydropower; and transport, provided through electricity or modern fuels” (Global Bioenergy Partnership 2011).
2. The SAFE Humanitarian Working group (<http://www.safefuelandenergy.org/about/steering-committee.cfm>) has evolved from the Safe Access to Firewood and alternative Energy Task Force under the Inter-Agency Standing Committee, which was in existence from 2007–2009. The SAFE Humanitarian Working Group is currently seeking formalization as a Reference Group under the IASC. It includes FAO, WFP, UNHCR, Women's Refugee Commission (WRC), and the Global Alliance for Clean Cookstoves as key members, among others.
3. UNHCR (2007) defines an acute emergency as “any situation in which the life or well-being of refugees and people of concern to UNHCR, will be threatened unless immediate and appropriate action is taken, and which demands an extraordinary response and exceptional measures.”
4. The Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) defines a Level 3 Emergency as a major sudden-onset humanitarian crisis triggered by natural disasters or conflict that requires systemwide mobilization.
5. https://energypedia.info/wiki/Improved_Cookstoves_%E2%80%93_What_is_it_all_about%3F
6. <http://www.unhcr.org/pages/52a5c44f6.html>

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