COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY

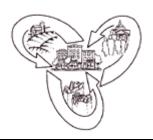# A GUIDE TO CONCEPT, DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

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AND IMPLEMENTATION

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COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY
TABLE OF CONTENTS

PART 1: <u>DEFINING CONCEPTS</u>

1.A: WHAT IS COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY (CFS)?

 * Community food security (CFS) represents an **analytical tool** and a **methodology**, as well as being a **goal** for meeting people's food needs.

 * The **goal** of community food security is to develop communities that are "food secure" (see definition below).

 * As an analytical tool, CFS employs a **systems approach** (see Section 3 on Needs Assessments).

 * Much of what is discussed here is CFS **methodology** - the process for designing and implementing programs and policies.

1.B: THE CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY

Definition: Community food security is an extension of the food security concept. We define it as "all persons in a community having access to culturally acceptable, nutritionally adequate food through local non-emergency sources at all times."

1.C: CHARACTERISTICS OF COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY

<u>Community food security</u>:

 * has as its starting point the food needs of **low-income communities**;

 * addresses a **broad range of problems** affecting the food system, economic opportunity, community development, and the environment, such as the diminishing food safety net; disappearing farmland and inner-city supermarkets; increasing poverty and hunger; failing family farms; rural community disintegration; inadequate green space; and diet-related health problems.

 * **synthesizes many disparate fields**, including community economic development, environmentalism, community gardening, sustainable agriculture, nutrition/public health, and anti-hunger into a whole that is greater than the sum of its parts;

 * is an explicit strategy to **unite** rural and urban areas, producers and consumers;

 * seeks to develop and promote solutions to food system deficiencies that are **integrative and holistic**, and provide **multiple benefits**;

 * employs a **planning process** that incorporates a community-based needs assessment phase, encourages long-range planning/visioning, and seeks to build in community participation.
 * embraces a **systems approach** to help identify underlying socio-economic and political structures that influence the distribution of food and other resources in a community and contribute hunger and poor nutrition, and similarly supports structural changes necessary to solve these problems;

 * emphasizes the need to build and **coordinate** efforts among community institutions to ensure access to an adequate diet for its residents.

1.D: <u>TEN DISTINGUISHING ELEMENTS OF COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY PROJECTS:</u>
Following are key elements of a community food security approach to project development:

1.D.1: <u>MULTI-DISCIPLINARY SYSTEMS APPROACH</u>:

 * **Typical farm/food/anti-hunger project:** Identifies specific problems such as hunger or loss of local farms, and initiates project to produce and/or distribute food to address that need.

 * **Community food security:** Assesses underlying social, economic, environmental, etc. bases of food system problems; addresses these through community-based planning and coalition-building, multi-faceted programs, and policy/advocacy.

1.D.2: <u>COMMUNITY DEFINED AS FOCUS OF ACTION</u>:

 * **Typical project:** Has a specific "site" (i.e.; office, market, garden, farm) but may serve multiple sites over a broad area crossing many communities.

 * **Community food security:** Promotes action based in and covering all members of defined geographic "communities" - e.g.; neighborhoods, towns or cities.

1.D.3: <u>COMMUNITY-BASED PLANNING AND NEEDS ASSESSMENT</u>:

 * **Typical farm/food/anti-hunger project:** Planning usually focuses on shorter-term strategies to fund and administer a specific venture.

 * **Community food security:** Broad community participation is encouraged to help identify local food issues and opportunities, and to plan multi-faceted programmatic responses.

1.D.4: <u>COMMUNITY COLLABORATION/COALITION BUILDING</u>:

 * **Typical farm/food/anti-hunger project:** Sponsor makes ties with other groups - in or outside the community - to participate in a specific organization-directed project.
 * **Community food security:** Community-based network or coalition identifies issues, targets opportunities, and develops strategies for comprehensive programs and policies.

1.D.5: <u>MULTI-SECTOR LINKAGES</u>:

 * **Typical farm/food/anti-hunger project:** Links are made to related food or farm groups and/or service providers for specific role(s) in sponsor's project.

 * **Community food security**: Community and area institutions, non-profits, businesses, and individuals from many sectors work together to plan/implement multiple-component programs.

1.D.6: <u>LOCAL FOOD SYSTEM INTEGRATION</u>:

 * **Typical farm/food/anti-hunger project:** Many projects support their local food system through CSAs, gleaning, farmers' markets, urban gardens/farming, and the like.

 * **Community food security:** Similar focus on local food systems whenever possible. Participation of farm and food sectors in planning and implementing projects is encouraged.

1.D.7: <u>MULTIPLE PROJECT OBJECTIVES</u>:

 * Typical farm/food/anti-hunger project: Project has specific and limited objectives, such as producing and/or distributing food to low-income participants.

 * Community food security: Project has many objectives; e.g., producing / distributing / expanding access to quality food; economic development / skills training / job creation.

1.D.8: <u>ENTREPRENEURSHIP</u>:

 * Typical project: Some marketing of products secondary to main mission or for cost recovery; otherwise, groups generally avoid business ventures.

 * Community food security: Encourages micro-enterprise development, income-generating programs, etc. to provide skills training, employment, community economic development, and for long-term project viability. Private-sector partnerships are encouraged.

1.D.9: <u>POLICY</u>:

 * Typical farm/food/anti-hunger project: Policy usually not a fundamental activity; group may respond to specific action alert as part of a broad network.

 * Community food security: Advocacy is encouraged at all levels - local, state, national. Food policy councils are formed to address local policy issues.

1.D.10: <u>LONG-RANGE INTEGRATIVE STRATEGIES</u>:

 * Typical farm/food/anti-hunger project: Some projects have shorter time horizons due to static design and limited funds and, if not self-supporting, may end.

 * Community food security: Planning addresses long-term program support through entrepreneurship, multi-sector partnerships, and diversified funding base, and by building on initial work to incorporate new objectives.

1.E. THE ANTI-HUNGER MODEL COMPARED TO COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY MODEL: The food security concept **builds on an anti-hunger base**, and many CFS advocates have anti-hunger program experience. Anti-hunger work will always be critical as long as there is poverty and people are hungry, and CFS movement supports programs such as federal food assistance and the emergency food system. While, CFS objectives in part reflect basic principles of anti-hunger work, conceptually, the CFS model has elements distinct from anti-hunger models, and a broader focus:

1.E.1: MODELS: Anti-hunger strategies are akin to a **medical model** that focuses on addressing existing conditions. CFS advocates the equivalent of a **public health approach** which is more **prevention-oriented**.

1.E.2: FOOD SYSTEM: The CFS **"systems analysis"** approach examines food insecurity from grower to consumer; it identifies deficiencies and offers solutions at all levels of the food chain. CFS incorporates in its vision an environmentally sustainable community-based food system grounded in regional agriculture. Anti-hunger models don't generally focus on where or how food is produced.

1.E.3: UNITS OF ANALYSIS: While hunger relief programs often focus on the **individual or** the **household**, CFS has more of a focus on the **community** - the adequacy of food resources, food prices, transportation, incomes, and local agriculture. CFS approaches the problem of food insecurity with an

analysis of the deficiencies of the marketplace - the abandonment of the inner city by the supermarket industry, or the family farm crisis of the 1980s, for example - and encourages change through community-based processes.

1.E.4: TIME FRAMES: Anti-hunger work often has a **short term timetable**, providing emergency relief. CFS concentrates more on the **long term**, emphasizing planning, coordination of resources, training, economic development, and related ongoing efforts.

1.E.5: GOALS: Anti-hunger programs strive to **address immediate food needs** to improve the health and welfare of the individual. CFS focuses on **building community resources**, and on **creating economic opportunities** along with **sustainable food systems** within cities and regions.

1.E.6: CONDUIT: Hunger relief is channeled largely through **emergency food systems** - food banks, pantries, and soup kitchens, and through **federal/state food programs** - food stamps, WIC, and the like. CFS projects focus more on the **marketplace food supply**, i.e., farmers' markets, supermarkets, CSAs, or self-production such as backyard and community gardens.

1.E.7: PARTICIPANTS: The primary actors in hunger relief are **charitable institutions** such as food banks and churches, the USDA with its food assistance programs, and **state and local social services or welfare agencies**, which administer welfare and food assistance programs on a local level. The principal actors in CFS programs should be **community-based organizations and partnerships** between public, private and non-profit sectors, including sectors not typically involved in food policy, such as land use and transportation planners, farmers, grocery store owners, and community and economic development representatives.

1.E.8: AGRICULTURE RELATIONSHIP: CFS promotes **regional agriculture** as a counterpoint to the increasingly global and corporate food system. Local food systems principles include the consumer as a vital part of the equation. CFS supports efforts to link low-income consumers with local farmers, using vehicles such as direct farmer-to-consumer marketing; e.g., farmers' markets and CSAs. Anti-hunger work may focus less on where food comes in deference to making sure that sure that hungry folks get fed. The link to local agriculture is usually made more to access food donations and less to help build local food systems.

1.E.9: POLICY: In large measure, anti-hunger policy focuses on **meeting immediate food-related needs** - food donations, food assistance funds, and similar. CFS policy, while still concerned with food assistance funding, also concentrates on improving local **planning and coordination of food access policies**; for example, encouraging schools to buy from local farmers, incorporating community gardens into a city's Master Plan, and extending a bus route to a nearby supermarket.

COMPARING COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY & ANTI-HUNGER CONCEPTS

	HUNGER	**FOOD SECURITY**
Model	Treatment Social welfare	Prevention Community development
Unit of Analysis	Individual/ household	Community
Time frame	Shorter term	Longer term
Goals	Reduce societal costs Individual health Social Equity	Build community resources "Healthy cities" Individual Empowerment
Conduit System	Emergency Food Federal food programs	Marketplace Self-production Local/regional food
Actors	USDA, HHS Social services agencies Charitable institutions	Community- Organizations Multi-sector partnerships
Agriculture Relationship	Commodities	Support local agriculture
Policy	Sustain food resources	Community planning

1.E.10: ANTI-HUNGER AND CFS APPROACHES IN PRACTICE:

The above comparisions are **conceptual** and rarely reflect the real work of groups in either area. Many anti-hunger groups have long supported policies that address root causes of hunger - poverty, homelessness, lack of health care, and the like. Increasingly, groups such as food banks, shelters, and churches **are** sponsoring food security related programs such as food sector job training, CSAs and community gardens. Reflecting this trend is the sizeable proportion of CFS Coalition membership from such organizations.

1.F: CFS STRATEGIES:

CFS methodology incorporates three basic components:

1) Process/Partnership
2) Projects
3) Policy

1.F.1 COMMUNITY PLANNING AND PARTNERSHIP-BUILDING PROCESS:

  * **Coalition-building is an integral element of CFS**. The development of networks, food policy councils, or coalitions composed of the stakeholders in the food system (and potentially others) represent an important vehicle for transforming policies, catalyzing collaborative action, and educating constituent groups on food security-related issues.

  * **CFS incorporates the "process" of building community participation.** For example, sustained education and outreach is often necessary to involve representatives from varied, non-traditional sectors into programs. Success may reflect the degree to which participants fully understand and "buy into" the concepts and tasks associated with community food security.

1.F.2 PROJECTS:

Projects are at the core of a community food security approach. They are the tangible aspect of CFS that get the work done to meet CFS planning objectives.

  * **Collaborations can be project-based**; i.e., assembling a team of non-profit agencies to implement a specific program.

  * Much of what constitutes **CFS policy and process is grounded in practical project-based knowledge**.

1.F.3 POLICY:

  * Policy advocacy can have a wider impact than a strict project focus.

  * **Policies** at all levels of government **can act as barriers** to food security-related projects, **or** conversely **represent opportunities** for their successful implementation.

  * Some **examples of** food security-related **policy** include water rates for community gardens, zoning regulations for supermarkets, waiver of permit fees for farmers' markets in low income communities, bus routing, institutional procurement of produce directly from local farmers, and the distribution of public funds such as community development block grants (CDBG, CSBG).

  * Policy advocacy is most effectively undertaken through the efforts of a broadly based **coalition or network.**

  * CFS policy advocacy can be taken **at all levels of government**, but most often occurs at the local level (city and county).

  * **Food policy councils/commissions** have been developed in several cities as a catalyst for food policy advocacy. They are typically comprised of stakeholders from a variety of fields, and make recommendations to City Councils or County Commissions on food-related policy.

PART 2: THE COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY PLANNING PROCESS

2.A: WHY DO COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY PLANNING?

Community food security emphasises the planning process as a strategic part of comprehensive approaches to address complex food system issues. The **planning phase** is designed to help sponsors more effectively meet the broader food security needs in the communities that they serve.

CFS planning can:

  * help sponsors **incorporate community food security perspectives into** the conceptual process for developing **projects**; and, broaden the dimensions of projects that are initially designed with limited objectives and targeted beneficiaries.

  * **increase participants' understanding** of community food security problems, needs, opportunities, and potential solutions;

  * **better address CFS goals**, such as supporting local food systems, promoting community development, addressing public health and nutrition, buildong community coalitions, developing public-private partnerships, and incorporating economic opportunity into more traditional food-assistance and food production initiatives.

  * **make better links among activities** such as community gardens, CSAs, SHARE programs, emergency feeding programs, and farmers' markets and the broader food security needs of the community;

  * **improve and broaden the design and delivery of projects** to incorporate multiple objectives that address social, economic, public health, and environmental concerns.

  * **forge stronger linkages among groups and institutions** in many sectors that together can better serve overall food security needs of the community and strengthen program design and implementation;

2.B: COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY PLANNING - TIME AND EFFORT:

Like any project, the planning phase can be both **short-term and long-term**; simple and complex; inexpensive and costly. The extent of the CFS planning process will be affected by the following:

  * **Prior planning efforts:** Community food security **planning does not have to start from scratch**. Sponsors have often carried out some CFS planning components, such as a local hunger study, thus creating a base for going forward.

  * **Capacity and objectives:** Planning takes place within the **context of** organizers' or sponsors' **mission(s), resources, and time-frames** and this can develop in stages that reflect the capacity and direction of the group.

  * **Degree(s) of effort:** CFS planning can begin with **"quick and dirty"** steps that provide some initial perspective and are achievable with limited resources. **Or**, for some period, it can **be the focus** for organizers, involving a needs assessment and coalition-building that takes place before implementing more "hands-on" or project-oriented activities.

2.C: COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY PLANNING COMPONENTS: The Community food security planning process can have several components that are categorized as follows:

1. Defining the community to be served

2. Community-based needs assessment

3. Building community linkages and stakeholders

4. Developing comprehensive, multi-sector project strategies

5. Long-term strategic design

6. Entrepreneurship

2.D: DEFINING COMMUNITY:

The concept of the community should include both geographic and socio-economic considerations - the physical area and the target groups or populations. Factors to consider in this process are:

  * Many local agriculture, anti-hunger and nutrition programs have broadly-defined geographic scopes of service, from a defined neighborhood to a metropolitan area or an entire state. Some focus only on those below the poverty level, others incorporate broader target populations. **CFS promotes a careful delineation of constituencies and service areas.**

  * The CFS **geographic definition of community** incorporates somewhat traditional concepts of a small town or city, or neighbourhoods or districts within larger urban areas wherein social structures function in the manner of an inclusive community.

  * The CFS Coalition's position is that the **geographic target area** of CFS projects should be **clearly identifiable communities** that have **significant** portions of the population in relation to local norms living near or below the **poverty** line.

  * Similarly, to assure food security for all members of a community, **projects may help all community residents**, as when a food market is established, although the main benefits should still accrue mainly to identifiable lower-income people within such areas.

  * Project participants who are not low-income (such as businesses and other **service providers) can also directly benefit** from projects;

  * Because the CFS concept incorporates **local food systems models,** local or regional food linkages are relevant to the planning process, but the target community is still the main focus for planners.

  * Similarly, CFS needs **linkages to** institutions and resources within **broader geographic areas**, be it businesses, farmers, institutions, or others who can serve the local area.

2.E: COMMUNITY-BASED NEEDS ASSESSMENT:

This process to define the community or communities to be served implies that the **community**, and not a specific project, **should be the focus for planning** and program implementation. Ideally, the project should reflect the needs, resources, and opportunities identified by and within the community, rather

than asking the community to accommodate the priorities of the organization. The **community needs assessment** process is designed to facilitate this process. CFS needs assessment will be new to most organizations, but should be an integral element to all projects.

2.F: BUILDING COMMUNITY LINKAGES & STAKEHOLDER COLLABORATION:

2.F.1: COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY PARTICIPANTS: An essential element of CFS-based approaches to dealing with hunger, food insecurity, and food access is **partnership-building within the community**. These partners can include:

 * various non-profit groups (anti-hunger, food system, community development, environmental);

 * public sector (local government);

 * institutions (education, health care);

 * food system operations (producers, processors, distributors).

 * other for-profit entities (businesses);

 * community residents ("the public")

2.F.2: STAGES OF COLLABORATION: CFS accommodates incremental stages of collaboration:

2.F.2.A: Project partnerships among the above-listed sectors is a means of building stronger, more effective programs with a more diverse set of objectives:

 * Non-profit project **sponsors can involve** local government entities, (e.g.; food and agriculture agencies); the food industry (all sectors) and other businesses (e.g.; financial institutions); the media; other non-profits (e.g.; housing and community development; environmental organizations); and institutions (e.g.; colleges, health care providers).

 * Such linkages can attract a broad range of resources that can strengthen the potential for a CFS project to address multiple community needs over time. It **creates a capacity to build on single-purpose programs** (e.g., feeding hungry people) to address other community needs - economic, environment, educational, and so on.

2.F.2.B: Formal partnerships are alliances designed to **focus on more sustained community-wide approaches** to CFS planning and program development. Two examples briefly described below represent the most common types of CFS collaborations:

Community Food Security Coalitions: A CFS coalition brings together a variety of partners to address a broad range of issues and concerns - usually beyond those dealt with by a single organization.

 o Community food security **coalitions** are mechanisms well suited to **do community food planning**, including needs assessments, and to forge the types of linkages that are critical to developing comprehensive, multi-sector projects.

 o An important **objective** in coalition building **is to bring together many diverse interests**, including non-traditional players into the development of Community food security policies and programs.

Food Policy Councils (FPC): As the term implies, a food policy council is **principally a policy advocacy mechanism**, meant to promote the objectives of community food security.

o Usually a FPC advises government bodies **advocating for specific funding, legislation, and/or programs**, and also can serve as a **forum** for public education, for community organizing, and for related purposes.

o Because of this focus, food policy councils **should emerge from prior collaborative** efforts rather than serve as the initial stage of cooperation, so as to provide experience and effectiveness in this capacity.

See **PART 4** for a more detailed discussion on food policy councils.

2.F.3: Getting started: The best time to form collaborations is at the planning stage of any undertaking. Getting expertise is very important where experience in group processes is lacking. These and other aspects of collaboration are more fully dealt with in **PART 4.**

2.G: MULTI-SECTOR/INTER-AGENCY APPROACHES: Developing community food security **projects that incorporate a diverse mix of players, strategies and outcomes** is another important element to developing and sustaining CFS programs. (This assumes that community linkages through partnerships, coalitions or other mechanisms are incorporated into the planning process.)

2.G.1: WHAT IS MULTI-SECTOR PLANNING? Multi-sector approaches represent **strategies** to build programs **that address several CFS-related problems in tandem**. Rather than, say, providing emergency food to meet immediate needs of a constituency, a community food security project seeks to incorporate economic benefits, community development, environmental priorities, and food system elements into a food-related program. Additional outcomes may include food-related enterprise development, providing jobs and skills training, supporting sustainable food production and local food systems, enhancing open space, and so on.

2.H: LONGER-RANGE COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY PLANNING

2.H.1: BENEFITS OF LONG-TERM PLANNING: Achieving food security for all is an ideal, and may seem a distant goal in the context of immediate needs and opportunities to take action. But long range planning and broad community participation is strategically important for the following reasons:

* Vision: Short-term activities sometimes do not provide lasting solutions to the problems they address; often they lack resources and support systems needed to ensure sustainability over time. Longer-term planning helps **to provide a clearer sense of ultimate objectives** as a context for shorter-term activities;

* Input: Provides opportunity for input from community members and professionals with a wide diversity of knowledge, perspectives, and areas of expertise. The long-term planning process can be **an opportunity to solicit input from a broad slice of the community**;

* Creativity: The longer-term planning process should encourage bold ideas and new approaches to chronic food security problems. Strategies that fosters **innovation can produce new types of projects and strategies** that build on experience and the exchange of ideas, and do not merely replicate past approaches;

* Sustainability: Longer-term planning is needed to find resources and support mechanisms that are critical to **program survival after short-term resources run out**;

  * Growth and diversification: Longer-term planning encourages expansion and **change** beyond initial programs, particularly regarding more **structural impediments** to CFS that are not amenable to quick and easy solutions.

2.H.2: KEY ELEMENTS OR STRATEGIES FOR LONG-TERM PLANNING: Developing long-term community food security strategies is a distinct and more involved process than planning short-term projects. Important elements that distinguish this process include:

 * Information: Realistically, long-term planning requires a CFS needs assessment to provide **the background** for solid decision-making. Needs assessment identifies the problems, resources, needs and opportunities **that provide a broader understanding of community food systems**.

 * Collaboration: Long-term planning cannot be done well by a single organization with a limited mission. **Long-term planning requires that structures for collaboration**, such as a community food security coalition, are established and functioning.

 * Time: Long-term planning **requires** a longer period - really **an ongoing process** - to develop an adequate understanding of the needs, the issues, and the effort needed to implement community food security projects in a comprehensive manner.

 * Comprehensiveness: Long-term planning is the process that **addresses the multiple and varied elements** of community food security and implementing these as part of food-related programs.

2.I. ENTREPRENEURSHIP: Entrepreneurship refers to **profit-making activities designed to generate income** for an organization or project, usually in the form of a business enterprise. Micro-enterprise is now emerging as a popular buzzword among food projects, reflecting the growing interest in this approach among non-profits.

2.I.1: ENTREPRENEURSHIP PLANNING: Despite its potential, an enterprise approach may be the **most challenging type of funding strategy** for a non-profit to develop and sustain. Business can be risky, capital intensive, and time consuming undertakings for which non-profits usually have little preparation. The planning phase is a critical time to consider this approach, because projects that seek to incorporate enterprise activity need to address critical issues in advance; among them:

  * Interface with organizational mission and function: Is a business component appropriate for the organization? **How is the activity consistent with current organizational objectives and capacity?** Sponsors should not engage in enterprise activity just because it seems like a way to expand revenues.

  * How the enterprise addresses community food security priorities: A business for the sake of income alone promotes self-sufficiency but is somewhat limited in terms of **fulfilling broader CFS goals**. However, when it provides education skills training for targeted populations; helps revitalize an area of a neighborhood; provides educational opportunities; provides environmental benefits; increases food access in the community; or similar benefits, it contributes to community food security and not just to organizational or project viability.

  * **Organizational capacity/potential to operate a business:** Most **non-profits are not geared to run businesses.** Enterprise development demands skills, capital, space and other resources that are not usually within the scope of the sponsor. Therefore, the business and or product or service should be carefully considered in this respect. A business may be able to expand or diversify to accommodate this undertaking, or may seek partnerships wherein its role is more limited.

  * **Business plan components:** Assessments of personnel, products, clients, funding, operations, marketing strategies, competition, and so on. Entrepreneurship is also addressed in **PART 7.**

2.I.2: BUSINESS PLANS: As in the for-profit sector, the business plan should be a **basic planning tool** to prepare for and to organize any enterprise.

Components of a business plan: It addresses all the fundamental aspects of business development, such as:

  * personnel involved;

  * funding and funding sources, revenue projections;

  * operating costs and projected changes over a specified time period;

  * products, markets and sales strategies;

  * promotional methods, growth opportunities;

  * competition and other constraints.

2.I.3: BENEFITS OF USING A BUSINESS PLAN:

  * It requires the sponsor to **examine every critical aspect** of starting up and running a business.

  * It **identifies gaps** in information needs, and **pinpoints** real and potential **problems** to viability; it also **highlights opportunities** that underpin the rationale for such an undertaking;

  * It **generates documentation** how each important issue is addressed and strategies to deal with them. Such information is required by sponsors, lenders, and others who may back your initiative.

PART 3. COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY NEEDS ASSESSMENT

3.A: BENEFITS OF CFS NEEDS ASSESSMENTS:

 * **Determines food system** and other **deficiencies** that face the community and provides the basic information needed to tailor solutions/programs to address those needs.

 * Provides an **information gathering process** that may be beyond an organization's traditional scope of work.

 * **Identifies** potential partners, community **resources** and opportunities.

 * Be a valuable **tool to gain community participation** in the project as well as ensuring that the project is responsive to community resources and needs.

 * Helps efforts to **articulate a vision** of what needs to get done in the community and how to set priorities to achieve this.

 * Provides information that indicates the breadth of problems, and can be a powerful **tool for educating** and for bringing on board policy makers and other potential allies.

 * **Helps build coalitions** and incorporate partners with other organizations;

 * Makes for **"good press"** - enhances program visibility.

3.B: COMPONENTS OF NEEDS ASSESSMENT: In general, a CFS needs assessment is much broader than a typical hunger study. It should be conceptualized as a **food system study**, examining many different aspects. The components listed below are urban-oriented, and would need to be changed when investigating a rural community or a producer-oriented project.

 o Access to Food

 o Hunger and Nutrition

 o Local Agriculture

 o Community Resources

 o Policy

3.B.1: ACCESS INDICATORS: Access to nutritious and affordable food is an integral component of CFS and therefore a key part of a CFS needs assessment. **Components of access include:**

 o where people get their food and why they shop there.

 o adequacy of supermarkets within walking distance (say, 1/2 mile).

 o barriers to shopping, such as carrying groceries home.

 o modes of transportation used to get their groceries.

o percentage of local residents lacking cars, including special populations, such as homebound seniors, who have particularly low rates of vehicle ownership.

o how well the bus lines serve the food shopping needs of the community. Special shuttles, or para-transit that take transit-dependent people, such as the elderly, shopping.

o selection and price of the food at local supermarkets and other food outlets.

o how well invested the supermarket is into the community (e.g.; employing local residents; unionized stores; pay scales; provision of community services, such as van service; nutrition education; community advisory board, or connections with local community development organizations).

3.B.2: HUNGER AND NUTRITION: Obviously the lack of personal resources to purchase food is one of the greatest causes of food insecurity. **Hunger is hard to measure**; proxies are often used in its stead. Finding longer-term solutions to hunger are more of a CFS focus than is meeting short-term needs, but basic data are important no matter. Similarly, providing nutritious diets is important for all members of a community. **Some data to measure these factors include:**

o Average community income levels and number of persons in poverty.

o Number of persons using emergency food system.

o Number of persons using food stamps, WIC vouchers, and free school meals.

o Average rent as percentage of income.

o Rates of diet-related diseases, such as anemia, hypertension, and heart disease.

3.B.3: LOCAL AGRICULTURE: A sustainable food supply for our communities is needed to assure food security over the long term. CFS advocates support for local/regional food systems as an essential component of a secure food supply. **Some indicators for examining a local food system include:**

o Health and integrity of local agriculture - loss of farmland; farm start-ups; use of sustainable production methods; etc.

o Farmland preservation efforts.

o Availability of locally grown food in local stores.

o Numbers and types of direct marketing outlets for local foods - farmers' markets, CSA's, and so on.

3.B.4: COMMUNITY RESOURCES: A needs assessment should consider not only needs and problems but also community resources and opportunities. This can include persons with skills as well as organizations and institutions:

o Prevalence of community gardens, home gardens, farmers' markets, CSAs, food coops or other alternative food production/distribution arrangements.

o Community organizations and leadership, such as local organizations that help develop or promote these resources;

o Residents' skills, such as recent immigrants with farming backgrounds;

o Open space nearby, such as empty lots and land under power lines that could be tapped for food production.

3.B.5: CFS POLICY: Government policies at all levels affect a community's food security. This assesses ways that the public sector helps or hinders CFS efforts, such as:

o **Availability of** public and private sector **funding** for food security efforts.

o On the municipal level, how land use, transportation, community development, environmental and other **policies act as barriers or present opportunities** to enhance a community's food security;

o Presence of food policies in the city; **evidence of coordination** between agencies on food related issues;

3.C: NEEDS ASSESSMENT METHODS - HOW TO GET INFORMATION:

3.C.1: Some Basic Guidelines for Conducting a Needs Assessment:

* You don't need an expert to do all aspects of a needs assessment, but the more sophisticated data collection methods obviously require expertise. Community **sponsors need to identify what kinds of information they need**, where to get it, and how to assess this information and work it into project planning.

* Community needs **assessments can be done on a scale**, starting from a small neighborhood to a larger city and region-wide project; and from simple inventory to complex data collections. The resources required to do a good needs assessment will vary according to the scope of effort and the information already available.

* Many times **assistance can come from local colleges and universities** - programs such as public health/nutrition, planning, urban studies, geography, sociology, and other similar fields. Both faculty and students may be available to assist through directed research, internships, theses, and class projects.

* Some of your needs assessment can be done through **interviews; focus groups** can also be a useful tool in gathering substantial amounts of information in a relatively short time. Surveys are useful when attempting to get quantitative information, but when done scientifically can be very time consuming and complex to write, compile and analyze. More informal surveys can also be useful and easier to develop.

* **Census data** is a key component of any attempt to understand a community. It is usually accessible through local libraries and especially university libraries. The census can provide you with powerful demographics on such topics as income, vehicle ownership, percentage of income paid on rent, ethnic composition, all the way down to the tract level- usually a few square block area.

* Sponsors may want to **hire community residents to help** with the needs assessment, as well as involve community groups with the design of the assessment. This may increase community buy-in to the project, as well as get a perspective that otherwise might have been lost.

* Sponsors should go into the needs assessment recognizing it as a **learning process**. They may not

have all the right questions at the outset, but will develop them as it goes along.

* The needs assessment process also provides the **opportunity to** focus on other community needs, to **identify community institutions, leaders, and organizational resources** for a coalition or food council; opportunities to develop collaborations with other groups for CFS projects, to educate and incorporate community residents into CFS efforts.

3.C.2: SOME SPECIFIC METHODS: How to collect information is important as the data collected. **Some needs assessment methods include:**

o <u>Government data</u>: Includes census data, health and nutrition information, etc.

o <u>Private sector data</u>: May include information on local resources (eg., services guides); hunger survey data, etc.

o <u>Surveys of individual residents</u>: For example, written surveys distributed through organizations, at meetings, or by mail, or phone surveys that ask residents about issues, problems, or opportunities.

o <u>Interviews</u> with community members, policy makers, service providers, and other community activists. Can be one-on-one or group discussions about issues of interest.

o <u>Focus groups</u>: A formal group interview process to discuss issues and solutions to problems.

o <u>Price surveys</u>: Collecting information about food prices or other items.

o "<u>Windshield surveys</u>" of food resources, such as locations of supermarkets, farmers' markets, and community gardens.

o <u>Computer (or hand) mapping</u>: Pinpointing resources to help visualize data about programs, services, businesses, etc.

3.C.3: APPLYING METHODS: Following are some specific suggestions for collecting information for the five areas listed above:

3.C.3.A: HUNGER: There are multiple resources available for collecting hunger information:

* What is the **income of** the community's **residents**? This information is most easily found through census data. Check both median household income as well as per capita income, in terms of the average for the city or county. Check the percentage of people living below the poverty line considered to be "at-risk" of hunger.

* Another factor that affects food security is the percentage of **income spent on rent**. The Census also has data on percentage of persons spending over 35% of their income on rent, the level considered to be a high rent level.

* **Use of the emergency food system** is a direct indicator of food insecurity. Check with local food pantries and food banks on trends in their food distribution. Also, while not always scientifically consistent, surveys of food pantry and soup kitchen clients are commonly used to gain information on food insecure populations.

* The number of **people on food assistance programs** is another measurement of hunger and food insecurity. School districts make available statistics on number of kids receiving free or reduced school meals. WIC, AFDC, food stamps, and senior meals statistics are all available from local or state offices.

* **Poor nutrition and** high incidence of **diet-related disease** can be aggravated by lack of access to quality food. Local hospitals and public health agencies may have this information.

3.C.3.B: ACCESS:

* **Surveys, focus groups, and** lots of individual **interviews** are key approaches here. Access to community members may also be gained through local churches, schools, and other community organizations.

* A **drive-through overview of the community**, if small enough, is one way to guage access; surveying local residents where they shop and how they get there is another. A more complicated option is to plot supermarket locations on **a map**, and draw concentric circles around them (this can be done quite nicely w/ a computer mapping program).

* **People without cars** are more likely to have the worst food access. The census is the best source for information on vehicle ownership. This information can be determined from talking with shoppers, residents, or mapping out bus lines and seeing where they go. Also, speak with the local transit authority. High rates of shopping cart losses may also be a proxy indicator for poor food access.

* **Price surveys** of a market basket of goods are one way of determining prices relative to other communities. See if "mom and pop" stores have such items as low fat milk, produce, non-canned goods, and other low-fat goods. Also see if neighborhood stores sell culturally appropriate foods.

3.C.3.C: AGRICULTURE:

* Some agriculture information can be found in the latest **census of agriculture** available at many university libraries. It can also be found through local farmland preservation agencies, farm bureaus, county department of agriculture, and cooperative extension agencies. These can be important assets in developing links to local farmers.

* A **survey of grocery stores for locally grown produce** - varieties, prices, volumes - is one indicator of linkages between local producers and marketers.

3.C.3.D: POLICY:

* **Discussions** with advocates, bureaucrats, and business people in a variety of fields can begin to reveal problems and opportunities.

* What **public funding** is available for community food security projects? Discussions with community activists and bureaucrats as well as an analysis of funding streams in a variety of fields such as job training, crime prevention, public health, community development, environmental protection and environmental justice can help reveal potential funding streams for projects.

PART 4: COLLABORATIONS AND COALITIONS

4.A: OBJECTIVES FOR COLLABORATION:

  * **Tackle complex issues:** Addressing the multiple components of food security requires involvement of stakeholders from a wide variety of fields;

  * **Improve coordination of services:** Providing long-term food security requires increased communication and collaboration among many sectors of the food system and other community institutions;

  * **Policy:** From the development of broad coalitions can emerge campaigns to win local policy changes that facilitate food security;

  * **Resources:** Having more players can help to leverage funding and in kind resources for projects;

  * **Spreads the work:** More participation can ease the responsibility for one organization for comprehensive community food security initiatives. Realistically, it takes a village to raise an issue!

  * **Improves project viability:** The more groups committed to the program improves opportunities for long-term sponsorship, by expanding the range and types of funding and other resources needed to sustain programs over time;

  * **Provides perspective**: Diverse representation can provide alternative perspectives that produce more options and innovation in thinking out new program strategies.
  * **Builds multi-sector involvement in community food security:** Encourages participation of entities that are not traditional players in food programs, but can (and should) become invested in the process - such as local governments, community development groups, educational institutions, health care, environment, non-food businesses, and so on.

4.B: TYPES OF COLLABORATIONS FOR NON-PROFITS COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY SPONSORS / WHO GETS INVOLVED: A wide variety of participants and organizational models are used to move toward food security. They include:

4.B.1: <u>Task forces</u> (city, county, state, or region-wide): Members are **usually appointed** by a mayor, governor, or department commissioner, or similar public leader, and are charged to study a problem and recommend solutions. Their findings tend to carry more weight, but such task forces may require a precipitating crisis or act of a governance body in order to form.

4.B.2: <u>Ad hoc committees</u> may exist under the auspices of an elected or appointed official or formal institution. Such committees can be much **easier to form** since they may not require formal action by a governance body, but their recommendations also may not carry as much weight.

4.B.3: <u>Bilateral or multilateral partnerships</u> involve the **coordinated participation** of more than one organization or interest. This is a good way to start projects that couldn't be undertaken alone, and, likewise, expands the sponsor's understanding of the food system. Partnerships like these are also a good way to take advantage of unexpected opportunities. They are a slower way, however, to address

comprehensive food system planning needs and achieve longer term solutions.

4.B.4: Networks and Coalitions: Participants often come from **organizations working on food or agriculture related programs**; for example, farmers/farmers' markets, churches, anti-hunger organizations, community development groups, nutritionists, food bank and food pantry organizers, community gardeners, public health professionals, academics, and city community development departments. Community-initiated coalitions reflect the immediate support of local residents or constituents and, as such, are more empowering, but may not have sufficient clout or resources from government or other major institutions.

4.B.5: Food Policy Council (FPC): A FPC may also draw a wide range of representatives, including persons not normally involved in a food security network. By example, the Los Angeles Food Security and Hunger Partnership - LAFSHP - is the equivalent of a food policy council, and members come from the following fields:

* Community Development * Churches * Anti-Hunger * Nutrition
* Community Gardening * Farmers' Markets * Academia * At-large
* Food Bank * Supermarkets * Labor * Small grocery store
* Clients of emergency food system

The Partnership's public sector representation includes:

* The Mayor's Office * City Environmental Affairs Dept.
* City Planning Dept. * City Community Redevelopment Dept.
* City Department on Aging * City Parks and Recreation Dept.
* City Community Development Dept. * USDA
* LA Unified School District * Community Action Board

4.C: CHARACTERISTICS OF NETWORKS, COALITIONS, AND COUNCILS:

4.C.1: CFS NETWORKS:

  * A food security network typically brings together representatives from a **wide range of food and agriculture-related fields** for information-sharing, policy advocacy, and catalyzing new collaborative projects.

  * **Networks may be loosely organized**, often beginning under the umbrella of an established agency. It typically will have a steering committee, a coordinator, and member organizations. Networks differ from a project-based collaborations in that their scope tends to be much broader, and the people involved often times have not worked together.

4.C.2: CFS COALITIONS:

  * A CFS coalition is a **more formally organized** network. In that respect, it is a defined entity - like an organization, rather than the informal linkages of a network. A CFS coalition may itself become a non-profit entity, if its objective is to become an enduring and independent collaboration. It would, in turn, have an office, staff, and other accoutrements of organizational structure.

  * CFS **coalitions** will **undertake more structured and well-organized activities** than would a network. This can include CFS planning activities, such as needs assessments, as well as CFS projects, fund raising,

policy, and other responsibilities.

  * The advantage of coalition-based activity is that multi-participant initiatives may be **difficult to organize under the aegis of a single sponsor**. It can help circumvent turf battles and conflicts of interest. More importantly, coalitions can sponsor initiatives that are beyond the scope of any participating organization, and build alliances that single organizations cannot.

4.C.3: FOOD POLICY COUNCILS: The **policy component** of community food security **is critical** - for funding and ancillary support services, for legislation, and for visibility and community support for programs. One mechanism to directly involve local government is a Food Policy Council.

  * A **food policy council** (FPC) is generally **composed** of representatives **from a variety of food and agriculture-related fields** in the private and public sectors.

  * An FPC differs from a network or coalition in that it is typically **sanctioned by either city or county government**, and its members may be appointed by officials such as the Mayor or City Council President.

  * FPCs **take a systems approach** - their activities may include reviewing city policy as it relates to food, with a policy advisory capacity; monitoring hunger and food access; catalyzing new projects and collaborations; developing demonstration projects; raising public awareness of food insecurity; advising city agencies on programs and policies; and facilitating food access planning.

  * The **focus of the FPC varies**, depending upon the locale from building local food systems and protecting local agriculture to combating hunger and improving food access in inner cities.

  * **Food policy councils have operated or currently operate in the following cities:** Toronto and Edmonton (Canada), Pittsburgh (PA), Syracuse/Onandoga County (NY), Philadelphia (PA), Hartford (CT), St. Paul (MN), Knoxville (TN), Austin (TX), and Los Angeles (CA). Multiple cities in California as well as other locales are beginning the process of developing FPCs.

4.D: HOW TO GET STARTED:

4.D.1: <u>Networks/Coalitions</u>: Starting a food security network is a much easier task than building the consensus to develop a food policy council. It does not require the buy-in from City Council and the Mayor, nor the attention to public input that municipal legislation typically requires. **Here are a few steps to get started:**

  * **Selecting the participants** in any collaboration with many sectors - public, institutional, business - **needs to be carefully considered**. For a CFS network, coalition or food council, the list of potential participants is similar. However, because the public sector, the food sector, or institutions can be targets for policy changes, their roles as participants need to factor in the need for a free hand for advocacy purposes.

  * **Build a core group** of persons interested in starting such a network/coalition. Ideally this group should contain well-respected and known individuals from diverse fields. They will help to bring in their colleagues.

  * Identify and invite those persons from organizations and agencies that are key to food security in the city or county to a meeting. Keep this list as **diverse and inclusive** as possible, while keeping the meeting size manageable - say, 15-25 persons.

  * **Get buy-in** from the participants. In the meeting, try to be process-oriented while still being task-focused. Give everyone a chance to meet their counterparts. One possible task for the first meeting is to identify the participants' vision for a sustainable food system, and the steps needed to arrive there. Get the participants to agree to continue exploring the avenues for possible collaborations, and to constitute themselves as a group. Find out who should be at the table and invite them.

  * In subsequent meetings, **clarify the mission of the group**, **its structure, its activities and purpose**. Identify a facilitator or group coordinator to carry the ball between meetings. Funding will help to legitimize and "make more real" the group. Consider collaborative action (policy campaigns, educational seminars, multi-faceted projects) that can help provide the group with accomplishments and an identity. This will keep people coming back.

  * **Avoid ineffective collaboration** structures - for example, a cosmetic board constituted in order to attract funding, generate promotion, or to construe legitimacy. Similarly, be aware of process deficiencies; for example, when organizations send "representatives" to meetings who lack the necessary background, authority, or skills to be effective participants, only to be replaced by another nondescript representative at the next meeting. The result is ineffectual collaboration, where the burden of work is done by a few participants. This leads to burnout, turnover, and ultimate disintegration of the group.

  * Because process is so critical in building successful coalitions, **get expertise** where experience in group dynamics is lacking. This may be found through non-profit consulting groups, some of which are set up to address organizational dynamics for non-profits. Alternatively, seek assistance from universities, pro bono management consulting experts, or other sources.

4.E.: FOOD POLICY COUNCILS (FPCs):

4.E.1.: FPC OBJECTIVES:

  * Food policy councils are generally charged with an oversight and catalyst role around food policies and programs. Their activities and objectives vary from place to place depending upon the circumstances and needs of each locale as well as their members' interests and resources.

  * Food policy councils typically serve as advisors to government agencies, as an advocate for specific policies and programs, and as a forum for information exchange and educational resource for the public.

  * In general, food policy councils have been underfunded and understaffed. This has limited their ability to implement programs and have a substantial impact on municipal food security.

4.E.2.: FPC MISSION STATEMENTS: FPC mission statements from various food policy councils include the following goals:

  o guaranteeing every person's right to affordable and nutritious food;

  o exploring the economic potential of the food industry;

  o educating consumers on the nutritional and environmental implications of their food choices;

   o minimizing the negative environmental consequences of agriculture and food production, transportation, and disposal;

   o increasing urban agriculture;

   o reducing the reliance on the emergency food system;

   o strengthening links between urban and rural areas;

   o preserving farmland and promoting sustainable agricultural practices.

4.E.3.: FPC ACTIVITIES: Food policy council activities are broadly construed in a number of different areas. These include:

   o attracting a new supermarket to a low income community (Hartford);

   o gaining new bus routes or revising routes to enable easier access to supermarkets (Austin, Pittsburgh, Knoxville);

   o establishing new community gardens (Austin);

   o facilitating new worker-owned supermarkets (Philly);

   o food system education campaigns (Syracuse);

   o lobbying for nutrition education in the school system (Knoxville);

   o advocating and testifying on federal programs;

   o documenting the level of hunger on an annual basis (Hartford);

   o gaining cable coverage of nutrition education classes (Austin).

4.E.4.: FPC STRUCTURE: Food Policy Councils generally have been formed through city or county resolution and hence are located within the public sector. Variations in structure do exist. Here are some characteristics:

   * Almost all FPCs have a volunteer "board" composed of members of the community, representatives from food-related private, non-profit, and public sector organizations. They tend to be occupationally diverse groups. Typically this board numbers 15-20.

   * Few FPCs have a full time staff person, Toronto being the only exception (and LA soon to be the other). Part time staff is often provided by a supporting organization (like Hartford Food System) or by the Council's home agency.

   * Some FPCs are located within a city department, such as the Dept. of Health, while others are established as an independent commission (Hartford).

   * The LAFSHP (Los Angeles) is a hybrid private-public organization. It was established by an ordinance of City Council, but sets up a non-profit organization which will be able to fundraise outside of the public

sector.

4.E.5.: STARTING FOOD POLICY COUNCILS:

* The process of starting a FPC is usually politically-inspired, and as such varies from place to place. It incorporates many of the aspects normally associated with politics, such as:

o citizens making demands on the government; gaining public input into the process;

o crafting an argument that is tailored to the specific situation of the local community as well as being politically astute;

o gaining the buy-in of council members and other prominent individuals;

o developing a plan responsive to the specifics of municipal structures, resources, and needs, as well as community needs and resources.

* The process described above can be incorporated into a drive to organize public support for an FPC. Many food policy councils have begun as a response to a study that indicates food system deficiencies, such as high levels of hunger or poor access to food.

* A needs assessment that demonstrates problems and resources that can be addressed by a local planning entity such as a FPC can be very helpful in gaining media attention and stating one's case credibly. See the section on needs assessments for more information.

* Building community support and input into the process is very important. Convincing a city agency to sponsor public hearings represents one method of gathering public opinion and buy-in.

* Gaining the support of influential city figures such as council members or the Mayor is essential to making the FPC happen. Identify sympathetic "movers and shakers," in tune with the political process to help craft a proposal and steer it through.

* Cultivate media personnel to get editorials, articles, or op-ed articles in the local paper. These clips can help in marketing one's work to other potential allies as well as legitimize it in the eyes of policy makers and the public.

PART 5. PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION: TURNING CONCEPTS INTO PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

Achieving community food security may always be a work in progress. It may never be fully completed to everyone's satisfaction; however, all participants should be able to recognize when they are going down the right road. Such a recognition is likely to occur when multiple participants are considering the big food system picture together, i.e. collaboratively.

5.A: HOW COLLABORATIONS BEGIN: There are at least three ways that these collaborations begin and long term food system perspective emerges:

 * **One step at a time**, usually on a project-by-project basis. For example, the Community Food Bank of the Capital Area (Washington, DC) links up with Claggett Farm in Maryland to create a community supported agriculture farm that is making organically-grown food available to inner-city residents.

 * **In response to a crisis** or sudden public outcry that "something must be done". For example, the Los Angeles riots led to the comprehensive food system report, "Seeds of Change", which in turn has lead to several food security initiatives.

 * **As a result of a deliberate effort** to address and understand a set of social, economic, or environmental problems. For example, Hartford, Connecticut's 1978 report "Strategies to Reduce the Cost of Food to Hartford Consumers" laid the groundwork for the Hartford Food System and a host of community food projects.

Any number of events can precipitate action. Some of the most common ones are:

 * The release of a study or report that proposes new ideas and strategies;

 * Documentation revealed through a research report that identifies the existence of a serious problem such as hunger (CCHIP studies) or pesticide risk (Alar story);

 * A strong leader who has the power, charisma, or respect to bring different people to the table. Such leaders are most likely to succeed if they are perceived as neutral (i.e. not having turf claims or hidden agendas);

 * An opportunity to do something different (a piece of land becomes available to a food bank for large scale food production);

 * Frustration with the old ways, such as the soup kitchen that feels that its on a treadmill by offering services that aren't making significant changes in the lives of their clients.

5.B: PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS WHEN GETTING STARTED: To move from a concept of community food security to practical application, there are some additional things to keep in mind:

 * **Have a basic understanding** of the local food system - its needs, trends, problems, who is doing what, and what resources exist.

 * **Think about your area's food system in geographically broad terms** - metro, state, regional, national and even global - because actions elsewhere will eventually influence your local food system.   For example, welfare reform will reduce the food buying power of low-income households; the loss of farmland in California or China coupled with the growth in worldwide demand for more food will reduce everyone's food security over time.

  * **Be clear about the group's mission.** Both short term and long term food security efforts should be consistent with that mission. If your organzation lacks a mission statement, develop one, and spend time discussing food security goals and activities. A mission statement can be modified to pursue community food security. Going through this exercise is a good way to build consensus among all members as well as to improve everyone's understanding of community food security.

  * **Know your group's capacities** - technical, staffing, and general resource. Does it have what is necessary to undertake new projects?   Examples: If a food bank wants to grow food on some land that has just been made available, it will need someone who knows something about farming (the more the better), a tractor and other farm equipment, seeds plants, and fertilizer. To undertake a micro-enterprise project that will make value-added food products requires facilities, equipment, safety licensing, business and product development assistance, and financial capital.

PART 6. <u>INTER-AGENCY AND MULTI-SECTOR PROJECTS AND STRATEGIES</u>

6.A: PROJECT-BASED LINKAGES WITH OTHER PARTNERS: In project-based collaborations, groups and individuals with a variety of skills and resources come together to develop a specific food or agriculture-related project. The following types of collaborations can occur:

  o **Public-private:** This mainly involves local agencies, but also legislators and other policy makers;

  o **Business:** Includes not only food industry (all sectors) but also other business (manufacturing, wholesale or retail), service industries (eg.; financial institutions, law firms, insurance companies), and communications/media (e.g.; a TV station that will do feature stories);

  o **Multi-sectoral:** Includes non-profits in many fields with a potential to strengthen projects and policies. May include housing and urban development groups, environmental organizations, health and human services advocates, university-based groups (e.g.; PIRGs);

  o **Religious and charitable:** Includes churches, charities (e.g., Salvation Army) and other groups that often sponsor programs to address hunger and are interested in CFS approaches;

  o **Institutional:** Includes education (schools, colleges) and health care (clinics, hospitals);

6.B: OBJECTIVES FOR MULTI-SECTOR PLANNING: Among the many reasons to do multi-sector planning:

  * No one person or group is likely to have the ability to fully conceptualize their food system and fill in all the blanks. Collaboration provides multiple perspectives and a richer environment from which innovative approaches are more likely to spring. They encourage innovation and creativity to forge better responses to food security problems.

  * To broaden the scope of projects from a narrower organizational focus to the greater food security needs of the community;

  * To produce objectives to generate multiple benefits for components of the food system and for the community;

  * Similarly, a single organization is not likely to have a mission statement so broad or resources so plentiful that they will be able to accomplish all the new and complex tasks often required by food security work. Collaborations provide a wider and deeper inventory of talent, know-how, and connections and involve more stakeholders in the project;

  * To develop more sustainable projects by leveraging resources and broadening commitments from diverse interests within the community;

6.C: PRACTICAL STEPS TO STARTING COLLABORATIONS:

Innovation in the case of community food security should not mean leap leapfrogging ahead of resources or capacities. In that respect, planners should:

  * **Build** on what they are doing currently and what they already know. For instance, if they have been

involved in community gardening, building on those programs may be a logical next step.

  * **Dare** to be dumb. Don't be afraid to ask questions no matter how stupid they may seem. Gleaning information from others who are more knowledgeable is one way to gain insights and avoid re-inventing the wheel.

  * **Control** for the number of variables in a new or expanded project. Take things one step at a time.

Example: If sponsors and their partners have never produced food on a commercial scale, done job training, or engaged in local marketing efforts, it may not be practical to start a farm that is also a job training site for welfare recipients and will sell the produce in city neighborhoods all in the same year. If it is necessary to combine such activities immediately, keep the size and number to a modest level.

  * When proceeding with a multi-partner project it is important to constantly and clearly affirm mutual positions and responsibilities, such as letters of agreement between each set of partners; specifying who is performing specific tasks; and identifying the resources each is committing.

  * Keep the "big picture" - long-term food system planning and design - in mind when doing short term, single-focus projects.

6.D: PUBLIC SECTOR INVOLVEMENT

6.D.1: What is the "Public Sector"? The public sector refers to government agencies and institutions, and to resources and programs provided by public funds. Therefore, this would include a state or local agency (e.g.; agriculture, health board, urban planning); a federally-funded program (e.g.; food stamps, WIC); or a publicly-funded institution such as a school or land-grant university.

6.D.2: Public sector past involvement: The public sector usually doesn't lead, but it can follow and it can occasionally even be innovative. Some of the concrete ways that the public sector has participated in food projects over the years include:

  o development and management of local food policy councils and commissions;

  o funding of numerous food projects through locally controlled Community Development Block Grant funds and other publicly controlled money;

  o transportation planning, including ridership surveys and rerouting public transit to such places as supermarkets;

  o regional and local land use planning;

  o formation of farmers' markets and other direct marketing outlets by state departments of agriculture;

  o land grant universities and their cooperative extension services providing food program development services, food-related research and education, and nutrition programs.

6.D.3: Public sector opportunities: Public sector participation can be through a long-term planning and development process or specific projects.

In general the public sector is good at:

o providing resources -- money, land, trucks, buildings, etc.

o creatively using public funds to leverage private dollars;

o providing data for researching and analyzing a food system;

o undertaking specific research projects;

o working on tangible projects where their role is clearly defined;

o administering a project or concept that has become too big for a private, non-profit;

In general, the public sector is not as good at:

o envisioning new ways of tackling complex problems

o being innovative or entrepreneurial

o being fast and flexible

o understanding what community food security is all about

The public sector can be a vital partner in many community food security efforts. The important thing to know is how and when to use them. As time goes on, community food security is very likely to creep into the lexicon of politicians, planners, and development officials. There is some evidence of this already in some smaller cities. Social service and public health departments are also places where community food security is beginning to gain attention.

PART 7. ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND COMMUNITY ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

A lot of community food security work has distinct economic development overtones.   CFS attempts to address marketplace gaps, such as a lack of supermarkets in inner-city areas, and to make connections with new business development, job training, and community economic revitalization.

7.A: CONCEPTS: As stated earlier, entrepreneurship represents business enterprise or related profit-making activities to generate income for an organization or project. Community economic development represents economic activity that adds a social and/or self-help dimension to traditional development efforts. Food security looks at how everyone's food needs can be equitably met while also responding to the marketplace realities of producing, processing and distributing food profitably.

7.B: EXAMPLES OF CFS ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND COMMUNITY ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: Community economic development and food security efforts can be seen as being on a continuum that begins with a very soft approach to economic development and ends with a traditional for-profit business approach. Following are some examples that might fall along this continuum:

  * A farm is established for therapeutic, educational, or job training purposes, and begins to generate income by selling shares as a community supported agriculture farm;

  * A soup kitchen designs a culinary arts training program for to its clients and sets up the kitchen as an income-generating restaurant open to the general public.

  * A food coalition that works to set up a farmers' market in a low income area to meet farmers' needs for new markets while increasing access for low income families;

  * A coalition acts as a broker between several CSA farms and city groups such as senior centers or block clubs.

  * A non-profit food organization develops a for-profit commercial food producing greenhouse business that provides a year-round source of locally grown food and creates several new jobs. The business makes money that is returned to the non-profit owners and used to develop other food programs.

  * A public school develops food processing business out of a special program for high school kids that emphasizes environmental science, agriculture, and business. The new business produces a salad dressing that generates enough income to create a scholarship fund for low-income student participants to afford college.

  * A traditional anti-hunger advocacy organization that begins to work with various departments of city government and neighborhood CDCs to address siting and financing issues facing supermarket development in low income areas.

  * Through involvement with a CDC, placing community food security needs on their development agenda so that they may address a range of neighborhood food issues including supermarket development, farmers' markets, land for gardens and greenhouses, and value-added micro enterprise food businesses.

7.C: BENEFITS OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP: CFS encourages entrepreneurial activity because it offers opportunities to develop sustainable programs and to address other CFS objectives:

* **Long-term project viability:** With limited funding for projects over time, the goal of creating long-term, self-sustaining projects can be addressed by entrepreneurial strategies.

* **Education and training:** Enterprises can be vehicles to provide business training/education and job skills to low-income participants that can be transferrable to the job market, thereby providing long-term economic benefits.

* **Employment:** Small enterprises can create job opportunities for participants.

* **Linkages:** Projects can develop innovative linkages between the for-profit and non-profit food sectors.

7.D. ENTREPRENEURSHIP CHALLENGES AND RISKS:

* Entrepreneurship as a concept shouldn't be thought of in only for-profit business terms. It can be applied to non-profit and public interest work as it can to private business. To be consistent with CFS, it needs to address objectives listed above, which may make it harder to run an enterprise purely on a profit-making basis.

* A proposed business venture should be consistent with the sponsor's mission. The sponsor needs to have access to the business development, financing, and management skills necessary for the particular venture. This may not be easy for many non-profits.

* Sponsors should be able to prepare a business plan, do financial analysis, and market research. Short and longer term costs and projected revenues should be forecast as part of developing any such venture.

* Where non-profits are not suited to undertake a particular venture, it might be better done by someone else, with the non-profit organization playing a partnership role.

* Non-profit ventures with multiple objectives (such as job training) may not be sustainable in the long term, and will thus require a constant infusion of soft money. If that seems likely, such projects will need to justify this ongoing infusion of resources and prove sufficient social benefit/value to maintain other sources of support.

* Sponsors should build on what they have and what they know. Expansions into new areas should be done cautiously and/or by seeking partners who can complement your organization's skills. This is especially important with costly economic development endeavors.

7.E: SOURCES OF BUSINESS EXPERTISE: How will developers of a business acquire training? What information is needed, and what will it cost? Sources of information for enterprise planning include:

7.E.1: College/university business or management schools or programs:

o can provide faculty willing to lend time;

o find students who can take on this initiative as a class project (e.g.; a case study);

o offer management or enterprise counselling services, often free of charge;

7.E.2: Small Business administration:

o   has Retired Business Executives program that offers free advice;

o   is a potential source of loans for business expansion;

o   can make referrals and linkages to other sources of help

7.E.3:   Existing businesses: (food sector processing/distribution/wholesale/retail, other manufacturing and retail, advertising, law firms:

o   can be represented on your board or planning committees;

o   can provide management expertise

o   can provide partnership opportunities for production, distribution, promotion, etc.

o   can provide limited but essential expertise or assistance;

o   possible source of financing.

7.E.4:   Board members can be excellent linkages to many types of businesses and institutions. A diversified board for many groups includes members with skills needed to start up and run a business.

7.E.5:   Libraries and book stores are easy, inexpensive sources of information on starting and running businesses; developing basic business skills; understanding basic issues about business management, products, financing, etc. There is now a small literature on non-profit business development.

7.E.6:   Consultants/consulting firms can provide assistance in business development. Some have a specialized focus on enterprises for non-profits.

PART 8. <u>FINDING FUNDS FOR COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY</u>

CFS is just emerging as a strategy, but federal passage of Community Food Projects legislation is providing visibility and incentives to other funders to support this type of work. This should not only help to support new or enhanced CFS projects, but also provide sources of matching funds to meet federal grant requirements.

8.A: SOME SOURCES OF FUNDS:

There are numerous places to find money to support CFS work - locally as well as nationally. The amount of funding, its variety, and the competition for funds will of course vary from community to community. But in terms of general sources, here is a list that identifies certain attributes of each source (amounts can vary dramatically and the ranges should only be viewed as a rough average).

8.A.1: <u>LOCAL FOUNDATIONS AND TRUSTS</u>:

  o These are often administered by a bank or law firm;
  o Amounts - 500 to 20,000;
  o Difficulty - easy to moderate;
  o Requirements - basic proposal (3 to 5 pages, financial reports, budgets, background on organization, evidence of non-profit, 501c3 status);
  o Good for start-ups, operating support, and special projects

8.A.2: <u>COMMUNITY FOUNDATIONS</u>: These tend to like special projects and start-ups, including capital grants, and may shy away from operating grants.

  o Amounts - 2,000 to 250,000 (generally 10,000 to 75,000);
  o Difficulty - moderate to hard;
  o Requirements - proposals tend to be longer; letters of inquiry or preliminary meetings may be advisable;

8.A.3: <u>CORPORATIONS AND CORPORATE FOUNDATIONS</u>: (locally or regionally oriented - see below for major national corporate foundations):

  o Amounts - 500 to 50,000 (generally 1,000 to 10,000);
  o Difficulty - easy to moderate;
  o Requirements - basic proposal

8.A.4: <u>CHURCHES - NATIONAL</u>: The major Protestant denominations, including the Presbyterians, United Methodist, and United Church of Christ, have expressed considerable interest of late in funding community food security. They tend to be very sophisticated when it comes to social and economic justice issues, and are looking for ways to develop alternative approaches to traditional emergency feeding programs, many of which are operated by their individual congregations.

  o Amounts - 1,000 to 10,000;
  o Difficulty - easy to hard depending on which denomination and how well you understand the process and their respective judicatories;
  o Requirements - each one may have different application requirements including their own application that you must request;

8.A.5: <u>CHURCHES - LOCAL</u>: Many local churches are beginning to look at community food security as

an alternative to running food pantries, though they are not, generally speaking, as sophisticated as their national offices. Approaches are more informal and require finding out who runs a particular congregation or parish's mission program. They may want to consider direct volunteer involvement in a project as well.

  o Amounts: 100 to 2,000;
  o Difficulty - easy to moderate;
  o Requirements - basic proposal (sometimes a simple 1 to 2 page letter will do) and a personal contact can be helpful.

8.A.6: VOLUNTARY GROUPS: (Lions, Elk, Moose, Rotary, Kiwanis, etc.) These civic and volunteer oriented groups act in a similar fashion to local churches. They like volunteer "hands-on" project, give similar amounts (though occasionally they will give a large, special grant), and personal contacts are important.

8.A.7: NATIONAL FOUNDATIONS: (includes major corporate foundations; eg;, Kraft):

  o Amounts -10,000 to 250,000;
  o Difficulty - hard;
  o Requirements - letters of inquiry, extensive research to identify good prospects, and lengthy applications or proposals may be required.

Some good sources of information for these foundations are:

  o The National Network of Grantmakers - 1996 Directory (call 619-231-1348);
  o The periodical, Chronicle of Philanthropy;
  o Various foundation directories generally available in major libraries.

Note: A foundation showing recent interest in community food security is Food for All, based in Redlands, California.

8.A.8: GOVERNMENT - LOCAL: Sources include the Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) program and special allocations from general funds. CDBG has it own set of guidelines which, among other things, require that beneficiaries be of low to moderate incomes. Local funding often has significant political and/or bureaucratic requirements.

  o Amounts - 5,000 to 200,000 (major CDBG grants and other special local sources can be larger);
  o Difficulty - moderate to hard;
  o Requirements - CDBG applications from city offices, special contacts and requests with individual city departments and agencies.

8.A.9: GOVERNMENT - STATE: State agencies have supported a variety of special anti-hunger projects and economic development projects. Program and funding guidelines will vary tremendously from state to state. It is not impossible to get a special appropriation or bonding authority (capital expenses) from state legislatures.

8.A.10: GOVERNMENT - FEDERAL: Sources include USDA - Community Food Projects; SARE/ACE (both located within the Cooperative Research Education and Extension Service); HHS - Community Food and Nutrition; EPA; HUD; and DOT.   All have grant programs which could fund community food security projects.

    o Amounts - 25,000 to 500,000;
    o Requirements - usually lengthy applications

8.A.11: <u>INDIVIDUALS</u>: This can be the most idiosyncratic of all funding sources. It takes time and good contacts to cultivate individual donors, but it can pay off over time. Developing a list of individuals who may contribute from 5 to 5,000 or even more on an annual basis requires identifying prospects (buying lists from services or getting names from friends, associates, board members, or other organizations), developing a pitch (direct mail, phone, events, cocktail parties, etc.), and donor maintenance (maintain your lists, thank and recognize donors).

8.A.12: <u>INCOME-GENERATING PROJECTS</u>: Entrepreneurial-type activity generally falls outside the normal purview of grant-seeking efforts. Generating your own income from project-related activities relates to information discussed in other sections of this guide.

8.A.13: <u>NON-CASH OR IN KIND RESOURCES</u>: This can incudes everything from land, buildings and major equipment to pencils and paper. It also may include professional or technical services (pro bono legal help, scientific research or investigative services) that would otherwise be expensive to procure. The major requirement is that you not be afraid to ask someone to give you something that might otherwise cost money. Some services may also be available from agencies that exist to provide service such as the Cooperative Extension Service.

8.B: PRACTICAL POINTERS FOR FUNDRAISING: Here are some other points that should be kept in mind when developing your funding base:

* Give yourself ample time to grow. Start small, seek modest funding, prove yourself successful, and seek larger grants for bigger efforts. Your track record and reputation are your most important asset.

* Keep the advantages of community food security in mind when identifying funding prospects and preparing your proposals, i.e. self-help and empowerment attributes, develops more efficient and comprehensive approaches, multiple benefits - helps people, builds communities, improves the environment

* Most applicants will be competing with others for funding. Collaborative approaches can reduce the competition and also improve everyone's prospects of being funded. But you shouldn't simply avoid competition. Many funding sources who will support your project will support other similar projects because of their interests, or you may be uniquely positioned to take advantage of a funding source that someone else could not.

* Develop a diversified funding base. Don't rely forever on one or two sources.

* Do your homework on a source. Know what their funding range is and what their interests are.

* Generally speaking, don't ask for the maximum unless you have reason to believe that you'll get it.

* Be clear about the use of funds; e.g., start-up capital vs. operating funds.

* Present a specific timetable for needing and using the funds as well as a plan for not needing their funds (how you will become self-sustaining or develop new sources of funds)

* Make sure you have a 501(c)(3) designation from the IRS or access to another organization that does and is willing to serve as a conduit for contributions, or determine in advance that such designation is not required by the donor

* Take a proposal writing workshop or read books about it if you haven't written one.

PART 9:   LONG TERM SUPPORT AND VIABILITY OF PROGRAMS

Much of the work of community food security is about using existing resources in a more efficient and equitable way. Theoretically, groups working together toward a common vision will be able to share resources, reduce costs, and achieve economies of scale that they would not otherwise attain. Practically, community food security creates an array of new funding and income generating activities for all participants.

9.A: How do community food projects and initiatives become self-supporting? Here are some ways:

 * **Create goods or services that will find an appropriate market:** For example, start a farmers' market or a new food product for wider distribution. These goods or services could be partially supported by public funds -- indirectly as in the case of a farmers' market whose viability is partially dependent on purchases made with food stamps and Farmers' Market Nutrition Program vouchers; or directly as when a food processing incubator business that offers public and/or private support for business development or job training services.

 * **Support the Process, Not the Project:** The act of coordinating various parts of a community food system shouldn't be expensive, assuming that the coordinating function does not involve project management. It should only require limited staff -- perhaps one full-time professional -- whose costs may be shared among all the members of a local food security coalition or food policy council. Alternatively, that central function could be funded by separate grants from city, county, or private sources.

 * **Focus on No-cost/low cost Activities:** For example, are public transportation funds being used to assist transit-dependent communities meet their food shopping needs? Are existing economic development funds -- both private and public -- being used to develop supermarkets and other responses to food access needs of underserved communities? Projects like these require research, planning, and advocacy. The cost is ultimately borne by the agency responsible for implementing the project.

 * **Develop Projects that have Income Generating Capacity:** For example, a CSA sells shares to higher income families to help subsidize participation of low income families or groups. A food bank operates a culinary training program for welfare recipients in return for job training funds from the public sector. Similarly, a contract is made with a state agency to train new farmers in organic cultivation techniques and direct marketing, and place them on surplus (no-cost) land.

 * **Institutionalize:** Use the entrepreneurial qualities of private non-profit organizations to develop and pilot innovative projects that can be eventually taken over by (spun-off to) government, schools, or large non-profit organizations. Examples include private organizations that have developed local farmers' market nutrition programs as pilots at one or two locations. These pilots became the basis for state government developing a full, state-wide program using state and federal funds. Another example would be a food policy council that is created and funded by local government in response to advocacy and planning work done by private groups.

 * **Build Food Security into the Agenda of Other Organizations:** Examples include a community development corporation that is or could be engaged in commercial development activities that include supermarkets and other food enterprises. The New Communities Development Corporation in Newark, New Jersey is a prime example. Similarly, a neighborhood organization, such as Dudley Street in Boston, Massachusets, may include a community's food needs in its overall planning and organizing work which would lead to space for community gardens, youth farming and marketing programs, farmers' markets, and supermarkets.

 * **Create Projects that are Low Maintenance:** A good example of a low maintenance project is a community garden that enjoys so much community support and participation that it does not require much outside assistance. Similarly, many such community gardens that are managed by a single gardening organization can achieve an economy of scale that keeps down the cost of managing all the gardens.

PART 10. EXAMPLES OF CFS INITIATIVES

10.A: THE HARTFORD FOOD SYSTEM

The Hartford Food System ("HFS") is a private, non-profit organization founded in 1978, thus providing a long-term illustration of how a community food system operates in the real world. With almost 20 years of experience, HFS has developed and operated all types of community food projects, both for-profit and non-profit, and has been engaged in policy work at the local, state, and federal levels of government. Throughout the course of its history it has relied on collaborations with other groups to accomplish short as well as long term tasks including the development of several local, state, and national coalitions.

The history and work of HFS are rendered diagrammatically in the following charts. The organization's mission statement is presented as an illustration of how a food system-focused organization can define its task. The "Criteria for Program Selection" represents guiding principles which should guide any organization that is trying to improve the food security of their community. The list of collaborators is a sample and suggest the diversity of groups with which HFS has worked over the years.

With regard to the diagrams, they are presented as four time periods beginning with the inception of HFS in 1978. Each period is divided into four blocks:

* Current Influences and Problems: These are the immediate factors present within the food system -- national, state, or local -- that are (or were during that time period) influencing what HFS did and how it responded at the time. It is important to note for purposes of understanding community food security work that many of these influences were reports or studies that documented a problem which, in turn, would precipitate a program response. Such documentation is an important part of the needs assessment process and can be an important weapon in the arsenal of community food activists.

* Program Response: This is the action step that HFS took to respond to current conditions (as well as the ongoing influences). They may include short term projects, the creation of longer term and more comprehensive programs, a new policy initiative, or even more process-oriented action such as the formation of a coalition.
* The Collaborators: These are the organizations, businesses, agencies, or interest groups with whom HFS formed a partnership for the purpose of accomplishing a short or long term task, usually related to the program responses identified above. The list is not comprehensive, but again is intended to depict only a representative sample of collaborators.

* Ongoing Influences: These are the long term or semi-permanent conditions which have, to a greater or lesser degree, been a factor since HFS began. They are mostly long term problems which relate to the organization's mission statement and provide an overarching framework for most of HFS' initiatives.

10.B: SAN FRANCISCO LEAGUE OF URBAN GARDENERS (SLUG): ST. MARY'S YOUTH FARM; SAN FRANCISCO, CA.

In what used to be trash filled vacant lot, adjacent to the Alemany Housing Development in a low income part of San Francisco, SLUG has created the St. Mary's Urban Youth Farm. It is located in a community with poor access to fresh affordable produce. This four acre farm site is the nation's first urban youth farm.

SLUG trains and employs youth from the surrounding community in the construction and maintenance of the farm. It currently employs 100 teens from public housing communities every year through the Youth Garden Internship Program. The teens work part time during the school year and full time during the summer at the Farm and other SLUG sites. They receive job training as well as gain experience in urban horticulture. Complementing this training, teens attend classes at

South East Community College, where they take classes in conflict resolution, AIDS and sex education, substance abuse, teen pregnancy, and African American history.

Produce from the farm is distributed in a number of different ways. Part is given away to the surrounding community; part goes home with the workers; and surplus is occasionally donated to local food pantries.

The Farm also has a fruit orchard, ecological restoration program, with native plant and wetlands restoration elements, a mulching and composting facility where SLUG members can drop off lawn waste and pick up compost. Also, adjacent to the Farm is a community garden, with 30 planter boxes, for the Housing Project residents.

Youth, ages 18-25, who have graduated from the Youth Gardening Internships, are employed in the Urban Herbals program. This program produces and markets three flavors of vinegars and three flavors of jam; 25% of the contents of the products come from the Youth Farm, while the remainder is sourced from local farmers. Youth are involved throughout the entire process, from production to business planning. The products are sold in grocery stores in the Bay Area.

The Farm and its various components are funded though numerous city agencies and private foundations, receiving moneys for open space preservation and job training.

10.C: AUSTIN FOOD POLICY COUNCIL; AUSTIN, TEXAS

The Austin Food Policy Council was formed in Spring, 1995 at the behest of the Sustainable Food Center (SFC). The SFC had published earlier that year a report entitled Access Denied, which had identified serious food access problems in the city's Eastside. It was established by resolution of the Austin city council and the Travis County Board of Supervisors.

The Food Policy Council is comprised of representatives from numerous sectors of the food system. It is charged with reviewing city and county food and agriculture-related policies. It has worked in partnership with city agencies and non-profit organizations.

In the past eighteen months, the Council has been quite active. It has:

* Established a new bus route with Capital Metro, referred to as the Grocery Bus, connecting residents of the food access deficient East Side with two supermarkets in outlying areas;

* Advocated for the passage of a city resolution that facilitates water for community gardens, subsidizing fees and streamlining the water procurement process;

* Collaborated with the Sustainable Food Center to build a new community garden on the East Side, serving 40 families;

* Co-sponsored the east side farmers' market and helped establish a new "chefs' market," where restaurant chefs can purchase their food;

* Arranged for the local cable access channel to videotape SFC's cooking/nutrition education class, "La Cocina Alegre" (The Happy Kitchen);

* Arranged for a local supermarket to distribute recipes for seasonal produce.

ADDITIONAL READINGS ON COMMUNITY FOOD SECURITY AND RELATED TOPICS

Copies of the following items are available from the Community food Security Coalition. Where not provided, prices to cover costs will be provided by contacting CFSC / Andy Fisher at 310-822-5410; FAX 310-822-1440.

Ashman, Linda et. al. Seeds of Change: Strategies for Food Security for the Inner City UCLA, 1993.

Gottlieb, Robert; Fisher, Andrew, et al. Homeward Bound: Food-Related Transportation Strategies for Low Income and Transit Dependent Communities University of California Transportation Center, 1996. $10

Fisher, Andrew, Gottlieb, Robert. Community Food Security: Policies for a More Sustainable Food System in the Context of the 1995 Farm Bill. UCLA Lewis Center for Regional Policy Studies, 1995. 60 pp.

Robert Gottlieb, Andrew Fisher. Community Food Security and Environmental Justice: Searching for a Common Discourse. Journal of Agriculture and Human Values, ... Summer, 1996.

Fisher, Andrew. "Hunger and Food Insecurity in Los Angeles: Findings of the Volunteer Advisory Council on Hunger". April 1996. 30 pp.

Growing Together: A step by step guide to starting a community garden. AUstin, TX...SFC, 1996. 35 pp.

....

Organizing a Certified Farmers' Market. Direct marketing program CA Dept of Food and Agriculture, 1992. not available from us

Access Denied. Sustainable Food Center, 1995
Available from SFC price: ??

Cotterrill, Ronald and Franklin, Andrew. The Urban Grocery Store Gap. Food Marketing Policy Center, U Conn April 1995.
Available from UCONN????

Gottlieb, Robert and Fisher, Andrew. "First Feed the Face": Environmental Justice and Community Food Security. Antipode, Vol. 28, no. 2, June 1996.

PUBLIC VOICE

No Place to Shop: The Lack of Supermarkets in Low-Income Neighborhoods analyzes data compiled by the University of Connecticut's Food Marketing Policy Center. The data documents the lack of access to supermarkets in low-income areas nationwide and in 21 metropolitan areas. (1995) $10.00

No Place to Shop: Challenges and Opportunities Facing the Development of Supermarkets in Urban America examines all aspects of supermarket development in inner cities. It makes reccomendations   for increasing inner city supermarket development in five areas, including federal, state and local government actions and industry initiatives. (1996) $20.00

Rural Poverty
  Higher Prices, Fewer Choices: Shopping for Food in Rural America examines the cost of food in rural

America and rural residents' access to supermarkets. (1990) $10.00

Off to a Poor Start: Infant Health in Rural America links infant health and mortality rates in the country's poorest counties to nutritional and health care deficiencies. (1989) $10.00

Serving Up Success: Schools Making Nutrition a Priority features schools and school districts nationwide that have made healthful changes in their meal programs and, in many cases, are meeting federal dietary recommendations while maintaining student participation. (1994) $15.00

Federal Policy at a Crossroads: The Challenge of Sustainable Agriculture A primer on sustainable agriculture, this report looks at factors that have slowed the promotion of alternative farming practices, which could address consumer concerns about food safety and the environment. It argues that the general public must become more involved in agricultural policy. (1992) $10.00

Resources for Consume Action: A Guide to Food and Nutrition Organizations A comprehensive guide that lists both public interest and government organizations active in food safety, nutrition, and food-related health and environmental issues. (1990) $10.00

* This publication is out of print. A reproduced copy is offered at a reduced price. August 1995