

**Towards a “Climate Smart” TASAF:
Scoping Study on Mainstreaming Climate Change into Tanzania Social
Action Fund Productive Safety Net (TASAF III)**

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Executive Summary

This report considers how issues related to climate change can be incorporated into the third phase of the Tanzania Social Action Fund (TASAF III). By linking social protection (SP), climate change adaptation (CCA) and disaster risk reduction (DRR), the report identifies how TASAF can be made ‘climate smart’ by enabling it to better withstand the pressures from a changing climate while at the same time strengthening people’s resilience, and maximising opportunities for climate finance. A roadmap is presented that identifies opportunities to incorporate these findings into TASAF III in a systematic, comprehensive and realistic way.

1. Linking social protection, climate change and disaster risk reduction

Climate change and social protection are closely interconnected in three main ways. Firstly, climate change is recognized to be an increasing source of hazard and vulnerability for populations of both developed and developing countries. Climate related disasters are numerous, dangerous and costly. Social protection plays a critical role in buffering the negative impact caused by climate change. Secondly, climate change negatively affects social protection interventions and programmes, reducing or even cancelling out their positive effects. The third link that brings a longer-term, and more constructive element into this inter-relationship is the *adaptive* social protection dimension. This links social protection to climate change *adaptation* by recognizing that social protection interventions have the capacity not simply to buffer the impacts of climate-related disasters on households, but to be a vehicle of long-term change and development by enhancing the adaptive capacity of households.

Evidence from elsewhere

Although linking climate change to social protection is a new agenda in Tanzania, evidence of the benefits of doing so is available in other countries and regions of the world. In Ethiopia, there is emerging evidence that the Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) helps people to build resilience against shocks, many of which are climate-related. In the face of drought, flood, illness, loss of livestock or loss of crop, analysis shows that in most instances, those households receiving PSNP transfers are able to manage the shocks better than those not receiving the transfer. In Asia, research examining over 124 agricultural programmes that integrate SP, DRR and CCA found that the more programmes are integrated, the more they achieve economic and social development concerns, and the more likely they are to move away from relief orientated interventions towards more emphasis on preventative and transformative measures. Integration, therefore, helps to find longer-term solutions of the impacts for disasters, as well as assisting people prepare for the impacts of climate change.

2. TASAF and climate change: challenges and opportunities

Recurrent floods and droughts are already having considerable impacts on people and communities in Tanzania, and evidence is increasing that longer term climate trends are affecting people’s livelihoods and prompting changes in livelihood strategies. Projections for future climate change suggest increased temperatures throughout the country and significant changes in rainfall patterns, including changes in seasonality.

Projected climatic changes, coupled with other socio-economic and demographic changes, could have significant implications for TASAF III and its beneficiaries. Changes in seasonal climate patterns is likely to increase hunger gaps, and growing pressures on household assets and resources could over time lead to an increased risk of people sliding into poverty, reducing or even reversing gains made to date. In turn, this will increase the need for social protection in Tanzania to buffer against climate shocks and stressors.

Social protection mechanisms are not normally funded from climate change finance, despite often being included as part of adaptation interventions. However, the report suggests that TASAF offers an opportunity for innovation in access to and delivery of climate finance. Tanzania is in a good position to access climate funds through its LDC status. It has benefitted little from climate funds to date, but TASAF III could become an important vehicle for moving this process forward.

The report suggests that in order to move in a “climate smart” direction, TASAF needs closer integration with climate change and DRR communities of practice. This raises a number of technical, institutional and political challenges that need to be overcome to realise these benefits. *Technical challenges* involve understanding (1) how climate change affects social protection programmes and how, therefore, social protection programmes can be designed to become ‘climate proofed’ against the changes and; (2) how social protection can help people build resilience to climate change. For example, what instruments can help achieve this, what level of transfer is needed and to whom should it be provided. *Political challenges* include gaining political will and leadership in making sure that climate change is incorporated into social protection plans and budgets. *Institutional challenges* include the need to bring the three different communities of practice together and overcome any institutional barriers to collaboration that may exist.

Analysis of these three areas in Tanzania identified a number of issues and challenges to be overcome and new opportunities to be exploited. These include:

- The current disconnect between social protection, climate change and DRR, which hampers progress towards integration of climate change concerns into TASAF. The current processes for developing social protection and climate change strategies could be important windows of opportunity for taking advantage of synergies across these areas.
- The need for awareness raising around what social protection is and how it can help build resilience. TASAF III offers an opportunity to build up an evidence base that will be crucial, and which may also be important as an example for other African countries.
- An increasing number of development actors in Tanzania are becoming aware of the importance of addressing climate change in their activities, but the government’s ability to address the range of challenges climate change brings as well as opportunities for funding, is hampered by a lack of a broader engagement with climate change.
- TASAF could help broaden the scope of climate change and development activities in Tanzania, which would help in making TASAF (and Tanzania) more attractive for climate finance. In particular, there are institutional issues that need to be resolved around TASAF’s access to climate funds, notably mechanisms for proposal development and Government endorsement.
- Unlike many other countries, there is no clear climate-related “driver” for integration of social protection, adaptation and DRR in Tanzania. TASAF offers an important opportunity in making clearer linkages between climate change, disaster responses and poverty reduction, the latter being the overriding policy concern in Tanzania.

- Lastly, TASAF's status as an independent government institution has advantages and disadvantages. A challenge for accessing climate finance under the Climate Convention is to ensure that its plans are closely aligned with government development policy and practice, including the emerging government climate change strategy. At the same time, its status can give an important momentum and be an opportunity to build up experience and expertise on how social protection can help strengthen resilience to climate change.

3. Recommendations

The report makes the following key recommendations for TASAF III programming:

1. Targeting should be reconsidered, from the current poverty focus to a broader approach that also considers vulnerability to multiple stressors, including climatic ones. The targeting system will therefore be one that combines district and household level data to inform the change in household vulnerability and capture the impact of both idiosyncratic and covariate shocks. The indicators should be related to various types of shocks and different levels of vulnerability. A broadening of the targeting should be implemented in a phased approach to allow for evidence generation in areas where there is currently a lack of data.
2. Cash transfers and PWPs both have significant potential for contributing to resilience building, but they need to be offered in a way, and at times that helps overcome immediate challenges as well as providing longer term improvements to livelihoods. PWPs should systematically (or as often as possible) be aimed at environmental rehabilitating or natural resource conserving (i.e. Labour intensive PWPs such as reforestation, and soil conservation measures). To achieve sustainable resilience, enabling people to withstand and respond to shocks in the future, cash transfers and PWPs need to be part of a wider package of support that enables people to make the most of the social protection they receive.
3. To access climate finance, TASAF III needs to demonstrate an ability to build resilience and to provide funding in an effective and equitable manner. There may be short term opportunities through bilateral funding, and longer term funding through linkages to REDD+, multilateral climate funds within or outside the Climate Convention, and private sector funding through provision of climate risk services to shield beneficiaries from losses following climate shocks and stressors.
4. The planned M&E system under TASAF III is crucial for building the evidence base of the capacity of the programme for strengthening household resilience to climate change. Climate related risk information at the local level should be included in the M&E system from the outset. This should consist of the inclusion of multi-stressor indicators in the poverty-index at LGA/district level and climate-related shock information at the household level.
5. TASAF III should prioritise institutional relationships across climate change, DRR and social protection, to foster integration across sectors and ensure political buy in. The report finds a convergence of thinking in these three areas, but challenges remain in realising these linkages in practice. One of the critical obstacle for integration remains often the 'sectoralisation' at national level (where DRR and social protection related

issues are treated in two different ministers) while local level decision making processes are often much more trans-sectoral and integrated in nature).

6. Issues of climate change should be integrated gradually into TASAF III to ensure they are incorporated in a systematic, comprehensive and realistic way that takes into consideration capacity constraints of TASAF III at that time. A roadmap is presented that identifies three phases. Phase I (0-3 years) involves moving TASAF in a “climate smart” direction. This will include activities that can start immediately. Phase II (3-5 years) involves improving TASAF III in specific areas on the basis of accumulated evidence that has been generated in the first phase. During this phase, therefore, climate change will only be partly incorporated into TASAF III. Phase III (years 5 onwards) will apply accumulated evidence to all programming. At this stage, therefore climate change is anticipated to be fully integrated into TASAF III.

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Acronyms and abbreviations

ASP	Adaptive Social Protection
CC	Climate Change
CCA	Climate Change Adaptation
CEEST	Centre for Energy, Environment, Science and Technology
DFID	United Kingdom Department for International Development
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
EWS	Early Warning Systems
ICF	International Climate Fund
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
ITCZ	Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone
LCD	Low Carbon Development
LDC	Least Developed Country
LGA	Local Government Authorities
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
NAMA	Nationally Appropriate Mitigation Actions
NAPA	National Adaptation Programme of Action
NSC	National Steering Committee
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Poverty Reduction
ODA	Overseas Development Assistance
PMO	Prime Minister's Office
PPCR	Pilot Programme for Climate Resilience
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PSNP	Productive Safety Net Programme
PWP	Public Work Programme
RCOF	Regional Climate Outlook Forum
REDD	Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation
SP	Social Protection
TASAF	Tanzania Social Action Fund
UNFCCC	United Nation Framework Convention on Climate Change
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VPO	Vice President's Office

1 Introduction

1.1 Aims and objectives

This report considers how climate change can be mainstreamed into programmes managed under the third phase of Tanzania Social Action Fund (TASAF III). The report is based on analysis of existing programme experience and recent thinking and debates on how social protection and climate change interventions can be linked in Tanzania and elsewhere.

The specific objectives of this analysis were to:¹

- Map the implications of climate change for TASAF III
- Assess current linkages between climate change, social protection (TASAF III) and disaster risk reduction
- Recommend how challenges can be overcome and synergies can be strengthened
- Explore how TASAF III can leverage climate funding opportunities

By linking social protection (SP), climate change adaptation (CCA) and disaster risk reduction (DRR), the report identifies how TASAF III can be made ‘climate smart’ by enabling it to better withstand the pressures from a changing climate while at the same time strengthening people’s resilience, and maximising opportunities for climate finance. A roadmap is presented that identifies opportunities to incorporate these findings into TASAF III in a realistic and cost-efficient way.

1.2 Scope of study

The following principles were developed for the study to help set boundaries for the work and explain some of the assumptions made:

- The focus of the analysis is how cash from transfers and assets created from public works can contribute to building household and community’s climate resilience.
- Integrating climate change into TASAF III is a long-term process based on learning by doing.
- The study assumes that TASAF III will be flexible enough to allow both design and operation of its programmes to be improved as new opportunities to integrate disciplines are identified and more evidence emerges.
- Recommendations are sequenced to ensure that they are realistic with respect to the current constraints faced by TASAF III, whilst at the same time identifying what is needed over the longer-term.

1.3 Methodology

The study is based on a review of recent literature as well as discussions and interviews with key stakeholders before, during and after the TASAF III mission in Tanzania in November, 2011. Individuals and institutions consulted are listed in Annex I.

The report is structured as follows: The next section (2) sets out the ASP approach, followed by a to the challenge of climate change in Tanzania and implications for TASAF III (3).

¹ The ToR for the assignment is attached in Annex III

Section 4 discusses key challenges for mainstreaming of climate change within TASAF III, and Section 5 makes recommendations on programme targeting, public works programme, M&E system and climate risk assessment, supporting graduation, leveraging climate financing and strengthening institutional linkages and leadership. Finally, section 6 provides a suggested roadmap for a “climate smart” TASAF III.

2 Linking social protection, climate change adaptation, and disaster risk reduction

2.1 *The Adaptive Social Protection (ASP) approach*

Adaptive Social Protection (ASP) (Davies et al., 2009) builds on the growing recognition that greater integration of social protection, disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation in both policy and practice will be more effective at reducing vulnerability to a variety of shocks and stresses, and that this will lead to poverty reduction at the household level. Box 1 provides definitions of these concepts.

Box 1. Definitions of SP, DRR, CCA and ASP

Social protection: Social protection (SP) involves all initiatives that transfer income or assets to the poor, protect the vulnerable against livelihood risks, and enhance the social status and rights of the marginalised (Devereux and Sabates Wheeler, 2004).

Disaster risk reduction: Reducing disaster risks through systematic efforts to analyse and manage the causal factors of disasters, including through reduced exposure to hazards, lessened vulnerability of people and property, wise management of land and the environment, and improved preparedness for adverse events (UNISDR, 2009).

Climate change adaptation: “Adjustment in natural or human systems in response to actual or expected climatic stimuli or their effects, which moderates harm or exploits beneficial opportunities” (Smit et al., 2001:881).

Adaptive Social Protection: Understanding how social protection can be tailored to become more resilient to risks from disaster hazards and climate change, and how, through its interventions, SP can play a critical role in reducing/buffering the negative impact of climate change and disaster.

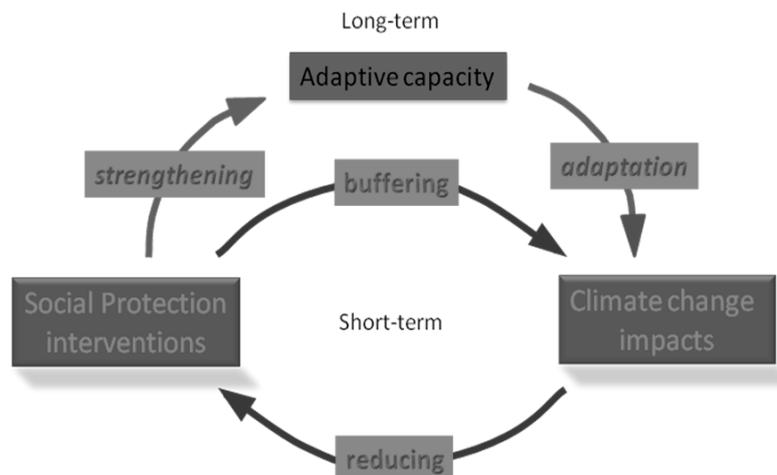
It is now beyond doubt that climate change will increasingly be a cause of hazard and vulnerability for populations of both developed and developing countries (IPCC, 2007; Schlenker and Lobell, 2010). For instance, the Center for Research on the Epidemiology of Disaster (CRED) recorded 385 natural disasters in 2010, 84% of which were related to hydro-meteorological causes (such as drought, flood, storm, extreme temperature, etc.). In 2008, the failure of the small rain season in some part of Ethiopia (combined with the upward trend in food price) affected directly 8.6 million people who become food insecure within weeks.

Tanzania has been severely affected by extreme weather events over recent years, many of which have been associated with the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) climate pattern. Major floods hit the country in 1997/98, causing a number of deaths and major disruptions throughout the country.² The consequences of this flood were particularly bad because they followed a severe drought the year before. Other major droughts took place in 1999/2000, 2005/06 and 2009/10. The 2005/06 drought was particularly severe, with an estimated 3.7

² For an account of how the 1997/98 El Niño event unfolded in Tanzania, see O’Brien et al. (2000)

million people in need of food assistance,³ severe power shortages and considerable economic losses (ECA, 2009; Watkiss et al., 2011). More recently, floods made an estimated 28,000 homeless in Morogoro and Dodoma Regions in December 2009 (IFRCC, 2011), and 700,000 livestock were lost during the 2009/10 droughts in the northern parts of the country.⁴ In 2011, nearly 50 people were reported to have been killed and many thousands made homeless during floods in April and December.⁵

Figure 1. Linking social protection and climate change



Source: Béné (2011)

Climate change and social protection are closely interconnected (Figure 1). Social protection can play a critical role in reducing and buffering the negative impact of climate change (Ellis et al., 2008; Devereux et al., 2010), but climate change can also negatively affect social protection interventions and programmes, reducing or even cancelling out their positive effects. For example, the 2008 drought in Ethiopia is thought to have severely affected households that had gradually built up their assets through the Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) with some of the most severely affected households ‘falling back’ below the 2005 poverty levels where they were before the PSNP had started.

Recognising these linkages, ASP provides a framework for thinking through how social protection interventions not only buffer the impacts of climate-related disasters on households’ livelihood, income, food security and assets over the short-term, but can also, over the long-term, strengthen the adaptive capacity of households, that is, their ability to cope with, adapt to and recover from future changes and shocks. The ASP framework looks at four types of measures (Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler, 2004):

- *Protective* measures, which provide relief from deprivation;
- *Preventive* measures, designed to prevent deprivation;
- *Promotive* measures, aimed at enhancing income and capabilities; and

³ <http://www.wfp.org/news/news-release/tanzania-drought-urgent-food-aid-half-million>

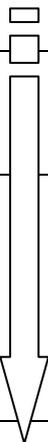
⁴ <http://allafrica.com/stories/201005311054.html>

⁵ See <http://allafrica.com/stories/201104250318.html> and <http://www.trust.org/alertnet/news/drought-stricken-tanzania-reels-under-extreme-rainfall>

- *Transformative* measures, to address the underlying structural causes of poverty and vulnerability (for example, marginalisation and exclusion).

These measures can be achieved through a number of different SP instruments which can have multiple objectives, as illustrated in Table 1. The right hand column of the Table shows the DRR and CCA benefits the different instruments can provide.

Table 1. Promoting climate change adaptation and disaster risk reduction through adaptive social protection.

Time frame	SP category	SP instruments	CCA and DRR benefits
 Short-term	Protective (coping strategies)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Social service protection ▪ Basic social transfers (food/cash) ▪ Pension schemes ▪ Public works programmes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Protection of those most vulnerable to climate risks, with low levels of adaptive capacity
	Preventive (coping strategies)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Social transfers ▪ Livelihood diversification ▪ Weather-indexed crop insurance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Prevents damaging coping strategies as a result of risks to weather-dependent livelihoods
	Promotive (building adaptive capacity)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Social transfers ▪ Access to credit ▪ Asset transfers/protection ▪ Starter packs (drought/flood resistant) ▪ Access to common property resources ▪ Public works programmes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Promotes resilience through livelihood diversification and security to withstand climate related shocks ▪ Promotes opportunities arising from climate change
	Long-term	Transformative (building adaptive capacity)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Promotion of minority rights ▪ Anti-discrimination campaigns ▪ Social funds

Source: Adapted from Davies et al. (2009)

A recent IDS research project examined the effectiveness of programmes that integrate DRR, CCA and SP in over 124 agricultural programmes in 5 countries in Asia (Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Pakistan) (Davies et al., 2010). The research demonstrated that the more programmes integrate SP, DRR and CCA interventions, the more long-term and comprehensive they are, meeting both economic (e.g. income) and social (e.g. being inclusive) concerns. Integration allows programmes to place more emphasis on preventative and transformative measures that both provide longer-term solutions to address the underlying causes of vulnerability and help people prepare for the impacts of climate change.

3. TASAF III and the challenge of climate change in Tanzania

3.1 About TASAF

The Tanzania Social Action Fund (TASAF) is a Government of Tanzania funding facility organisation that provides a mechanism to allow local and village governments to respond to community demands for interventions that contribute to the attainments of specific Millennium Development Goals. In its first two phases, TASAF interventions focused mainly on developing community level assets in the form of medium scale infrastructure projects, for

example community dams. TASAF III signals a change in emphasis through a focus on supporting interventions that enable poor households to increase income and opportunities while improving consumption (URT, 2011b). TASAF III aims to do this through:

1. a national safety net component targeted at the poorest and most vulnerable groups that will provide cash transfers and wages linked to participation in public works;
2. community driven interventions which enhance livelihoods and increase incomes (through community savings and investments);
3. targeted infrastructure development and capacity building.

The first phase of TASAF III is scheduled to run from June 2012 – 2016 and is expected to provide sustained support to about 250,000 households over the first five years of the implementation through a targeted cash transfer program and a labour-intensive public works scheme. This project, supported by World Bank funding equivalent to US\$220 million, DFID support equivalent to approximately US\$18 million, and USAID funding of US\$0.45 million, focuses on the development of a Productive Social Safety Net and its associated systems and capacity.

No reference or programming on climate change was made in TASAF I and TASAF II. The need to mainstream climate change into TASAF III, however, has been clearly acknowledged in planning documents such as the TASAF III draft programme design document (URT, 2011a) and the draft aide memoire for the TASAF mission in November 2011 (URT, 2011b).

3.2 Recent climate trends

The Tanzanian climate is characterised by high natural variability, large variations within the country and strong seasonal patterns. Rainfall is the main factor for livelihoods given the high reliance on rainfed farming. Seasonal rainfall patterns are closely tied to the Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ), which moves from north to south during the year and causes northern and eastern parts of the country to have two rainy seasons - ‘short rains’ in October-December, and ‘long rains’ in March to May. Southern, western and central parts of the country have one long rainy season extending from October to April/May. The ITCZ movements are sensitive to sea surface temperatures in the Indian Ocean, which in turn are affected by the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (McSweeney et al., 2008).

Key climatic trends over the past decades include the following:

- *Rainfall has decreased* over the whole country, with the largest decreases in the southernmost part of the country. There is, however, no statistically significant trend in ‘heavy’ rainfall events.
- *Average annual temperatures have increased* by 1.0 degrees Celsius since 1960. The changes have been most rapid in January and February, and slowest in June-September.
- There has been a *small increase in the frequency of ‘hot’ days* in December-February (2.5 days per month, an 8.2% increase), and a *larger increase of the number of ‘hot’ nights* (50 days per year, a 13.6% increase), most notably in December-February. The average number of ‘cold’ nights has decreased by 34 per year during the same period (McSweeney et al., 2008).

These trends are supported by studies of community-level perceptions of climate change (e.g. Mongi et al., 2010; Naess, 2008) which state that people are observing a warmer and drier climate, changing seasons and less reliable rainfall patterns, and more intense rainfall events.

A field visit in conjunction with this study found similar perceptions among villagers in Kibaha District (See Annex II). In response to these changes, households are changing crop varieties, changing the areas they cultivate in, and resorting to charcoal making and other off-farm activities to supplement incomes.

3.3 Future climate change scenarios

Climate change projections for Tanzania are developed through downscaling global climate models (Global Circulation Models, GCMs).⁶ Such downscaled models have improved significantly over the last 10 years, but there are still large uncertainties around future projections and disagreements between advocates of different models. There is least disagreement on temperature trends, and most uncertainty around rainfall. Despite these uncertainties, however, some key messages about the future climate emerge:

- It is predicted that there will be an increase of 1-3 degrees Celsius in average annual temperatures in Tanzania by the 2050s (McSweeney et al., 2008).
- Most models suggest an increase in annual rainfall across the whole of Tanzania. However, there is considerable uncertainty over the magnitude and direction of rainfall change within the country, depending on the choice of climate model (Watkiss et al., 2011). This is illustrated in Figure 2, showing the range in rainfall projections for the months of March-May by the 2050s.
- Many models suggest that rainfall increases will generally happen during the rainy seasons: rainfall increases in January-February will particularly affect the southern regions, whereas rainfall increases in March-May and September-November will take place mainly in the northern parts of the country (McSweeney et al., 2008).
- Some models show an increase in rainfall (especially in the late part of summer) as well as drier conditions late in the year in southern and central regions (Watkiss et al., 2011).
- It is expected that the share of rain falling in heavy rainfall events will increase, which could increase flood risk (McSweeney et al., 2008; Watkiss et al., 2011).⁷

3.4 Tanzanian responses to climate change

Climate change raises a number of challenges for Tanzania. Tanzania is a signatory to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). It is part of the non-Annex I group of countries that have no emission reduction obligations under the Convention. Key government policy documents on climate change include the National Communication (URT, 2003) and the National Adaptation Programme of Action (NAPA) (URT, 2007). The NAPA sets out the key short-term government priority areas on adaptation and remains the key government policy document on adaptation. A National Climate Change Strategy has been drafted and is under consultation. The development of the national strategy document is being led by the Division of Environment in the Vice President's Office, the designated focal point for climate change in Tanzania. On the mitigation side, Tanzania has developed a draft national strategy for Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation

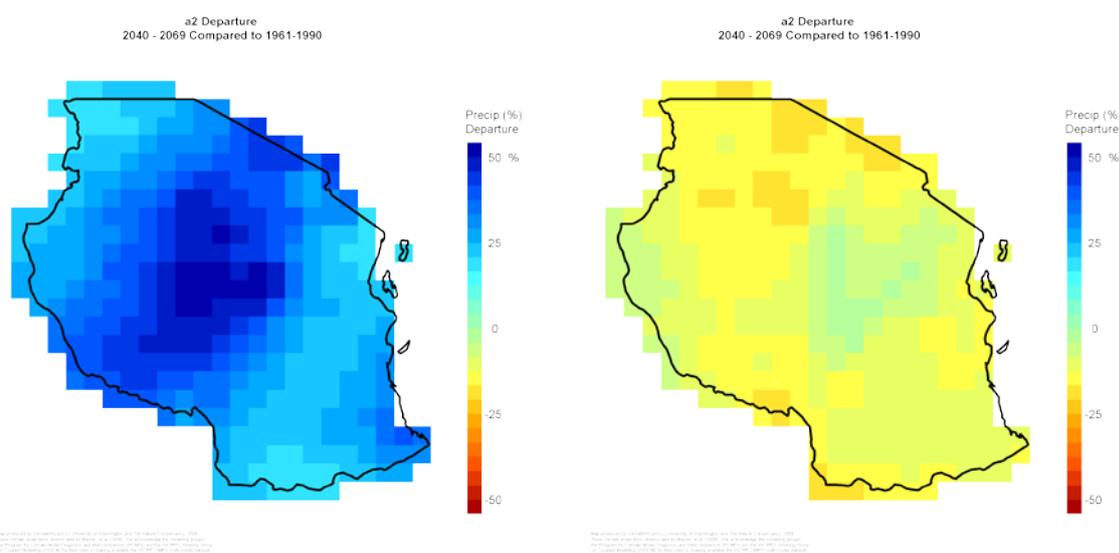
⁶ Downscaling means translating climate models from a global to regional and local scales (Hewitson and Crane, 1996). There are two main types of techniques for downscaling: *dynamical* (based on global climate models) or *empirical* (based on statistical analysis of climate data).

⁷ McSweeney et al. (2008:2) defines a 'heavy' event as "a daily rainfall total which exceeds the threshold that is exceeded on 5% of rainy days in current the climate of that region and season."

(REDD), including the role of conservation, sustainable management of forests and enhancement of forest carbon stocks (REDD+) (URT, 2010).

Funding is vital in enabling the government to respond to climate change challenges. Norrington-Davies and Thornton (2011) documented the potential climate funding streams available to Tanzania. Bilateral and multilateral donors have committed just over US\$100 million for programme addressing climate change for the years 2009-2011. The largest current share of the mitigation funding is for REDD+ pilot activities. Only one of the proposed NAPA projects has been funded, but there is considerable expectation of increased funding streams from international bilateral and multilateral climate funds.

Figure 2. Range in rainfall projections for the period March-May across Tanzania by the 2050s under IPCCs SRES A2 emission scenario



Notes: Left = model with highest rainfall, Right = model with lowest rainfall.

Source: Climate Wizard (www.climatewizard.org)

A number of factors determine households' ability to tackle current and future climate shocks and stressors, notably access to natural resources and financial capital. A challenge for adaptation is the increasing pressures on land, water and forest resources in Tanzania. Whereas Tanzania, in comparison with some other African countries, has an abundance of land resources, access to fertile land is an increasing concern in many areas. Another key challenge is access to credit for farming and small businesses. While a number of small-scale formal and informal savings and credit schemes exist (such as *vicobas*), the poorest and most vulnerable are typically excluded from these as they do not have the necessary collateral or social capital required to join the schemes.

3.5 Implications for TASAF III

There are three key linkages between climate change and TASAF III:

First, climate change will directly affect TASAF III investments and activities and could undermine current and future TASAF programme goals. TASAF III, therefore, needs to be 'climate-proofed' which involves (a) building in increased flexibility to modify the

programme as it being implemented, as changes occur and new evidence emerges affecting, for example targeting, delivery, and M&E; (b) making sure investments (such as public works) and the level of income transferred consider possible changes and greater uncertainty in rainfall and temperature.

Secondly, climate change will affect TASAF III beneficiaries through increasing pressure on household assets and resources. Any change in the frequency of floods and droughts, for instance, could erode assets or lead to outbreaks of crop pests or livestock diseases, placing more people at risk of sliding into chronic poverty or being put at increasing risk during particular times of the year (transient poverty). Other important factors, such as high prices for food and fuel, and poor health, will make this situation worse. The implications for TASAF III are twofold: this could increase the need for more support to existing TASAF III beneficiaries to make up for losses they suffer, and it could lead to more households becoming eligible for support).

Thirdly, while an important goal for TASAF III is to reduce beneficiaries' vulnerability to shock and stressors, its primary goal will remain poverty reduction. It is important therefore that efforts to reduce poverty also help reduce vulnerability to climate change. This presents both a challenge and an opportunity to TASAF III, as a key concern from a climate funding perspective is establishing mechanisms for effective and equitable climate finance delivery that will build adaptive capacities to future events and reduce the need for disaster responses.

4. Situation analysis: TASAF III, climate change and DRR in Tanzania

The previous sections of this report have shown the potential benefits of an ASP approach and the relevance of climate change to TASAF III. Realising the benefits of an integrated approach in Tanzania, however, requires a clear *technical* understanding as well as strong *institutional* linkages and *political* commitment.

Technical challenges involve understanding more thoroughly how climate change affects social protection programmes and how, therefore, TASAF III can be 'climate-proofed'. This includes understanding how social protection programmes can strengthen people's resilience to climate change; what instruments can help achieve this; what level of transfers is needed; and to whom should they be provided. *Political challenges* include gaining political will and leadership to make sure that climate change is incorporated into social protection plans and budgets. The *institutional challenge* is to bring the three different communities of practice together and overcome any institutional barriers to collaboration that may exist (World Bank, 2011).

4.1 Understanding the climate risks to TASAF III and how it can help build resilience

Issues considered here include, first, the risks that climate change places on both TASAF III activities and beneficiaries, and second, the potential for TASAF III to help reduce vulnerability and build resilience to future climate change.

4.1.1 Understanding the climate risks to TASAF III interventions and beneficiaries

Assessing climate-related hazards

Mapping climate related hazards and stressors is key to assessing how TASAF investments and beneficiaries will be affected by changing climate patterns. Hazards and stressors can be mapped by drawing on three main sources: historical climate records, short-term or seasonal climate forecasts, and decadal-scale climate change scenarios. As suggested above, *historical climate records* show an overall trend of a drier and warmer climate over Tanzania, and there are also suggestions of other possible trends such as increased wind speed in coastal areas and increased risk of prolonged dry spells during the rainy season.

Seasonal climate forecasts have been developed through Regional Climate Outlook Fora (RCOFs) and distributed by Tanzania Meteorological Agency (TMA) since before the 1997/98 El Niño event. A number of studies have been carried out on the usefulness of seasonal climate forecasts, including in Tanzania (O'Brien and Vogel, 2003; Kihupi et al., 2003). Such studies give important insights into the intra-annual constraints farmers are facing, and the importance of rainfall information. Studies show that, to be useful for farmers, forecast information needs to be provided at the right time, in the right format, and in many cases needs to be complemented by other types of support, such as access to fertilisers, seeds or credit. Studies in Tanzania and elsewhere have shown that information has frequently been given too late in the planting season, communicated in a way that most farmers could not make sense of, and that, ultimately, information about rainfall was less of a limiting factor than access to seeds, fertilisers or credit (e.g. Patt and Gwata, 2002). Recent action research projects have focused on how science-based seasonal climate information can be integrated with indigenous knowledge and brought into planning processes at the District Level (Mahoo, 2011).

The availability of *climate change scenarios* at regional and national scales have improved considerably over recent years. As shown above, scenarios from the last IPCC report (IPCC, 2007) are available through websites and knowledge platforms such as ClimateWizard (see **Figure 2**) and The World Bank's Climate Change Knowledge Portal⁸. Improved scenarios are being developed for the next IPCC report, to be completed by 2013/14. In Tanzania, CEEST (Centre for Energy, Environment, Science and Technology) is leading efforts to provide further scenario projections in the country. Thus, scenarios, although associated with considerable uncertainties, provide useful indications of potential longer-term directions in rainfall, temperature, windspeed and other climate factors.

Assessing the potential impacts of climate change on TASAF III activities and beneficiaries

Ultimately, the impacts of climate shocks and stressors will depend not only on the physical risks, but also on people's ability to tackle them. This ability is in turn determined by factors such as access to resources and support structures. In general, better-off households with savings or assets will be better-off than those without; and those who can draw on social networks, credit structures or government support will be in a better position to rebuild their assets after droughts or floods. Thus, the information above on climate hazards and stressors needs to be seen in the context of the ability of TASAF III beneficiaries to tackle shocks and stressors and 'bounce back' after disasters. To inform this, TASAF III can draw on lessons from vulnerability and impacts studies, as well as lessons from historical adaptation.

The first climate change-specific impact assessments for Tanzania were conducted by CEEST (Luhanga et al., 1997; Mwandosya et al., 1998), and a number of assessment studies

⁸climateknowledgeportal.worldbank.org/

have been carried out since then (e.g. Agrawala et al., 2003; Eriksen et al., 2008; URT, 2007; Erhart and Twena, 2006; Pemconsult 2009). Watkiss et al. (2011) provide a recent assessment of current and future challenges in Tanzania in tackling the risks and impacts of climate change, with a focus on economic aspects.

In addition to these assessments, a number of case studies have been carried out in communities across Tanzania to understand how households and communities have responded to recent droughts and floods as well as slower, longer-term trends in rainfall, temperature and other changes (Paavola, 2008; 2010; Naess, 2008). These are not necessarily 'climate change' studies per se, but focus on trends in climate factors, notably drought and rainfall variability. These studies demonstrate, albeit often anecdotally, that climate change impacts are already observed at a community level, and that people and households are making a number of changes to their livelihood strategies to cope with and adapt to the changes. Importantly, the impacts depend on other indirect factors and changes taking place such as access to markets, forest areas, road infrastructure, and population changes. The studies suggest that not all are losing; some are able to take advantage of the changes, for example those who can buy grain or livestock at low prices from farmers needing cash to feed themselves early in the season, to sell these at higher prices later in the season when scarcity increases.

Another important source of information is past and present monitoring of vulnerability to poverty and food insecurity. For example, the Government of Tanzania's Poverty and Human Development Report (URT, 2005) provide important information about basic needs indicators. The UN World Food Programme carries out regular vulnerability assessments at regional levels, which include elements of climate risk assessments (WFP, 2010). These provide a rich source of data for regional comparisons, they need to be complemented by more localised studies, and include indicators that bring out the role of climate change more explicitly over time.

As shown above, there is increasing data and information to inform how TASAF III might be affected by climate change. At the same time, there are challenges that remain in the availability of information as well as how it can be used to improve TASAF III programming. Some of these challenges include limited data availability to increase the accuracy of forecasts and projections, and limited capacity and resources to disseminate existing information across the country and translate it into formats that would be more useful to users. Research has for the most part been carried out on protection of assets and livelihood diversification (protection and prevention) and less on promotion and transformation. This observation is true also for the draft TASAF III programme document, which when mentioning climate change also puts emphasis on protective and preventive aspects such as climate risk assessment and review of available climate scenarios. However, there are promotive elements in the document, reflected for example under component 2 on livelihoods in the Operational Manual (URT, 2012):

Enhancement of livelihoods and increasing incomes aims to enable TASAF III beneficiaries to save money to invest in livelihood enhancing activities, by supporting these investments with business development skills and technical training, and by providing households committed to improving their lives the opportunity to apply for additional financing to support livelihood building activities.

4.1.2 Understanding the role of TASAF III in building resilience

Another important technical challenge is to improve the understanding of what social protection is and what it can do in the context of climate change and disaster risk reduction. The concept of social protection is still new in Tanzania and not widely agreed upon outside the groups of social protection actors. There is therefore a lack of awareness and agreements around the ways social protection can and should address poverty and vulnerability in Tanzania. TASAF III provides an opportunity to raise this awareness by generating evidence on how social protection can help increase livelihood resilience to shocks without creating or increasing dependency.⁹

In examining how TASAF III can increase livelihood resilience, it is useful to consider three elements: (1) How TASAF III can integrate Disaster Risk Reduction objectives; (2) How TASAF III can support graduation¹⁰; and (3) How TASAF can provide public works that strengthen community resilience.

Disaster Risk Reduction

DRR covers a range of mechanisms to prevent and mitigate risk of disaster (ex-ante strategy, preparedness) and cope with its impacts after it has occurred (ex-post coping strategies, rehabilitation). Integrating DRR into TASAF III will promote:

- (i) a longer-term approach to natural and climate-related disasters that has a recognition of hazards as central to the development process and part of broader efforts to reduce vulnerability and alleviate poverty;
- (ii) a shift toward preparedness (ex-ante interventions) that includes preparation measures to prevent climate-related damage and losses such as early warning systems and weather-based index insurances;
- (iii) a focus on rebuilding interventions beyond the immediate relief phase, that is, post-event strategies to help households and communities recover with minimal social and economic disruptions by improving the resilience of households through activities such as livelihood rehabilitation programmes.

By integrating DRR, TASAF III could act as both an ex-ante protective mechanism that improves households' resilience to shocks by protecting livelihoods through better planning and preparedness¹¹, and as an ex-post promotive mechanism that supports households in building and/or rebuilding their assets and livelihoods to recover their productive capacity.

Graduation

Different 'theories of change' as to how social protection can be designed to support graduation are proposed in the literature (Sabates-Wheeler 2011) and, increasingly, in social protection programmes in practice. One theory is that people need a certain level of assets to move themselves above a hypothetical asset line or 'threshold'. If they are able to get above this line, their livelihoods become more sustainable. If they cannot make it above this line they are said to be in a 'poverty trap'. The implications are, therefore, that if people are to graduate out of poverty, they need to receive quite large transfers. If only a small amount of funding is provided, they are unlikely to escape poverty.

⁹ In this context livelihood resilience can be understood as the ability of household and community to resist, adapt or transform following the impact of climate-related changes.

¹⁰ *Sustainable* graduation is considered here as enabling people to move out of vulnerability and extreme poverty into more productive and resilient livelihoods

¹¹ For instance in Bangladesh, preventive mechanisms to protect cattle from the floods, saved on the cost of recovery efforts by a factor of 17 (DFID, 2004)

Box 2. Strengthening resilience – evidence from Ethiopia

In Ethiopia, analysis of the Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) household level datasets from 2006 and 2008 shows how negatively households can be affected by shocks (Béné et al., 2011). The analysis, however, also shows how PSNP helps people build resilience against these shocks: when the climate, economic or idiosyncratic shocks that are affecting households the most are analysed (drought, flood, illness, loss of livestock or loss of crop), data shows that households receiving PSNP transfers usually display higher food security and wellbeing index values than non-beneficiaries. This suggests that PSNP contributes to building households' resilience by *significantly reducing* the impact of specific shocks on food security and wellbeing.

If we are to help build resilience to climate through TASAF III, therefore, it is important to consider the level of the transfer. The amounts estimated to be transferred in TASAF III are low. The benefit levels for the cash transfer are currently set at a maximum of US\$10 per household per month. In terms of the seasonal public works, the proposed wage rate stands at US\$1.35 per day for a maximum of 60 days per household per year.

TASAF III states that graduation will occur by linking social protection to other interventions, “enabling the beneficiaries of the transfers to participate in other initiatives that promote sustainable livelihoods” (URT, 2011b). This implies a second ‘theory of graduation’ that suggests graduation requires an integrated and comprehensive approach to social protection. Single instruments are not enough; in fact social protection instruments and objectives are more effective in building resilience when they are combined and complement each other. By combining instruments and interventions in this way immediate needs can be addressed whilst at the same time, livelihoods can be promoted, and risk of falling back into poverty can be avoided or reduced. A well documented example of the benefits that such a comprehensive approach can bring, is found in the BRAC’s ‘Challenging the Frontiers of Poverty Reduction: Targeting the Ultra Poor’ (CFPR/TUP) programme. The programme combines ‘livelihoods protection’ (consumption support, savings services) with ‘livelihood promotion’ (skills training, asset transfer, access to credit) (Figure 3).

Figure 3. The BRAC Graduation Model



Source: Hashemi et al. (2011:3)

In the TASAF III context, although the draft aide memoire document states that graduation will be supported through a comprehensive approach to social protection, it is not clear yet what these complimentary interventions are and how they intend to be coordinated. It is also likely that, in line with evidence from Bangladesh, other interventions, in addition to those currently mentioned in TASAF III, will need to be considered.

When considering the potential for TASAF III to build resilience, therefore, references to graduation in the aide memoire are encouraging but further analysis, interventions (as seen in the BRAC model above) and details on institutional arrangements and coordination are required.

Finally, in addition to considering the benefits of social protection in promoting sustainable livelihoods, it is also important to consider that graduation goals may be threatened and not achieved if they do not adequately consider issues of climate. Viewing graduation in the context of climate change can provide us with a more robust idea of what is required to help people graduate.

The potential of public works programmes for building resilience

The proposed public works programme in TASAF III will spend significantly more on labour (75%) as opposed to the infrastructure that results (25%). This is a significant change from previous public works schemes under TASAF II where the majority of the cost was spent on the infrastructure. Proposed activities under these Labour Intensive Public Works include, *inter alia*, activities to strengthen soil and water management such as ridging, irrigation, mulching to increase soil organic matters, as well as tree planting that aims to help improve farm-level productivity by building up livelihood assets. These activities may be linked to measures to increase resilience to climate risks and stressors in a number of ways, namely to:

- Reduce exposure to drought stress by improving soil water retention capacities in water stress prone areas

- Reduce exposure to heavy rains by reducing soil erosion and surface water runoff
- Improve soil nutrient levels, thereby increasing household incomes and in turn capacity to tackle seasonal shocks and stressors

Note however, that while the potential for PWP to contribute to reducing disaster risks, improving resilience and accessing mitigation funds seems clear, several conditions must also be met for them fulfil this potential. Labour intensive PWP are a new initiative under TASAF III that require different skills and specialist knowledge which requires significant levels of new training and capacity building to ensure they are implemented correctly and successfully.

4.2 Mapping the potential and challenges for TASAF III -relevant climate finance

Social protection programmes are not normally funded by climate finance, but social protection tools and mechanisms often form part of adaptation interventions. Indeed, TASAF III shares many goals with the Tanzanian NAPA (URT, 2007) in terms of building the ability of people and communities to tackle current and future climate stressors such as changes in rainfall amounts, timing of rainy seasons or increase in heavy rainfall events. TASAF III could provide an opportunity to access international adaptation funding in new and innovative ways, as will be further discussed in the following.

What funding is available, and from where?

A number of funding mechanisms for mitigation and adaptation exist in developing countries, with funding provided from public as well as private sources.¹² Under the Copenhagen Accords (COP 15), Annex I countries have pledged so-called “Fast Start” finance of US\$30 billion over three years (2011-13), which is meant to be new and additional funding on top of regular ODA funding to developing countries. Public sources of funding include multilateral funds under the Climate Convention and the Kyoto Protocol (for adaptation, these are the Least Developed Countries Fund, Special Climate Change Fund, and the Adaptation Fund), multilateral sources such as the Pilot Programme for Climate Resilience (PPCR) as well as domestic funds in some developing countries (such as the Bangladesh Climate Change Trust Fund) (Klein, 2011; Hedger, 2011). To date, the largest share of funding has been channelled to mitigation, but the intention under the major future source of climate funding, the Green Climate Fund, is that there should be a balance between mitigation and adaptation. Some donors are becoming sensitive to the current bias: data suggests that the amount of funds approved for adaptation doubled between 2010 and 2011 to US\$957 million, some 21% of climate finance expenditure.¹³

The private sector has so far played a relatively minor role in climate change funding, in Tanzania as elsewhere. Persson et al. (2009) identify three main roles for the private sector in adaptation activities: (1) providing risk management mechanisms (such as weather and crop insurance), (2) providing goods and services which can help people and communities adapt to climate risks, and (3) providing services to help climate-proof major new public and private investments, such as roads and buildings. In terms of funding to TASAF III, the first point is the most interesting, and there are already micro-insurance projects for smallholder farmers providing insurance against crop failure. Similar schemes have been running for several years on livestock (Kenya) and smallholder cropping (Malawi). The market in Tanzania is so far

¹² www.climatefundsupdate.org

¹³ www.climatefundsupdate.org

limited, but appears to be growing, supported e.g. by funds such as the Africa Enterprise Challenge Fund's REACT programme¹⁴.

Estimates show that as much as US\$1 billion may be needed in Tanzania to tackle climate change (Norrington-Davies and Thornton, 2011). As a Least Developed Country (LDC), Tanzania is among the priority countries for climate finance, and has a significant potential for attracting climate funding if and when the Green Climate Fund is established. Tanzania has so far accessed mainly bilateral funding on REDD+ and various adaptation projects. There is already considerable donor interest and commitment to funding of efforts for adaptation and resilience building as well as mitigation. While it does not matter in operational terms whether a programme such as TASAF III is for climate adaptation or development, monitoring requirements will differ with different sources

UK International Climate Fund (ICF)

The ICF was set up by the UK government to tackle climate change and reduce poverty. It is part of the UK's pledge for Fast Start finance, with an allocated £2.9 billion of UK ODA funding over four years (April 2011- March 2015). The fund has three thematic foci, namely adaptation, low-carbon development, and forestry. The adaptation dimension has several strong linkages to TASAF III goals and principles: First, it focuses on helping the poor adapt to climate change, as well as protecting the poor from extreme weather events such as droughts and floods (DECC, 2011; DFID/DECC/DEFRA, 2011). Further, social protection is one of eight themes under adaptation, along with sectoral themes such as agriculture and water, and disaster preparedness. The ICF also puts emphasis on wanting to build evidence on what works, sharing knowledge, and achieving 'climate smart' development. The ICF has three priorities, namely low-carbon climate resilient growth, supporting international climate negotiations, and recognising the new opportunities offered by climate change for partnerships with the private sector, as well as innovation and sustainable development.

Climate finance and REDD+

REDD (Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation) is a mechanism for creating a financial value to carbon stored in forests in order to reduce greenhouse gas emissions from deforestation and forest degradation. REDD+ also includes conservation, sustainable forest management and increases in forest carbon stocks.¹⁵ REDD+ has the potential to create revenues for forest conservation at national, district and village levels. One estimate shows that if all deforestation and forest degradation were stopped completely in Tanzania, it could amount to US\$650 million a year. This is however an extreme (and unrealistic) example, and there are many unresolved issues around funding amounts, distribution of benefits and resource control (TFWG, 2010).

Agriculture is the main driver for deforestation and forest degradation at a global scale, and is thus closely linked to REDD+. The role of TASAF III could in principle be to design public works programmes that provide alternative incomes and in turn help reduce pressures on natural forests. Relevant options include activities to increase agricultural productivity and incomes, and hence – if combined with other measures – reducing pressures on forests, and providing alternative income sources to charcoal burning. While REDD+ has a number of relevant linkages to TASAF III worth exploring, making these connections in practice would require also addressing the number of technical, institutional and economical challenges

¹⁴ www.aecfafrica.org/react/

¹⁵ <http://www.un-redd.org/AboutREDD/tabid/582/Default.aspx>

facing REDD+ in Tanzania (TWFG, 2010). For example, it remains to be seen whether PWP can contribute to REDD+ goals in a situation with very high opportunity costs of forests for charcoal production for the domestic market.

4.3 Political and institutional opportunities and challenges

In order for the technical conditions to be realised, there is a need for political will and leadership, and for an institutional framework that is ‘fit for purpose’ and fully supports integration of climate change into TASAF programmes and practice. Key institutional and political challenges and opportunities to link TASAF III to climate change and DRR in Tanzania are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2. Key institutional challenges and opportunities for linking TASAF III to climate change and DRR in Tanzania

Challenges	Enabling factors / opportunities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> TASAF III is a project, and not a full government institution, making it harder to ensure plans are integrated and aligned to government development policy and practice. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The independence of TASAF III may enable it to respond more quickly than government in making links between climate change and social protection through the provision of specialist expertise.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Responses to climate change in Tanzania have been characterised as fragmented and donor-driven with poor integration across economic sectors. There has been little expansion of the government’s climate change work beyond the Vice President’s Office.¹⁶ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Integrating climate change in TASAF III programming provides a clear opportunity to widen the scope of climate change work in Tanzania and to broaden the climate change constituency.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There are no strong institutional links between social protection, climate change and DRR and linking these areas is a new policy domain. The National Social Protection Framework in Tanzania¹⁷ (URT, 2008) has no direct provisions for climate change. Similarly, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Developing the National Social Protection and Climate Change Strategies are important opportunities for identifying overlaps and areas of mutual gain. The draft CC strategy identifies Early Warning Systems and DRR as cross cutting issues for the strategy.

¹⁶ Although the development of the NAPA (URT 2007) involved cross-sectoral representation and a significant level of activity has been observed, there are few linkages to line ministries or to the more general development agenda in Tanzania. Unlike its predecessor, the Second National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP, also called *Mkukuta*) includes several references to climate change, which is promising for future integration of climate change in poverty reduction policies and programmes. The NSGRP is Tanzania’s equivalent to the PRSPs. However, climate change has so far not received any significant attention in the new agricultural development strategy ‘Kilimo Kwanza’ (‘Agriculture First’) which is promoted by President Kikwete.

¹⁷ The strategy has been tabled for the Cabinet but is still in process. The responsibility for the strategy lies with the Poverty Reduction unit in the Ministry of Finance. Officials confirm that climate change per se has not been a major element in the strategy, while there are provisions for considering disaster risk as part of the strategy. Meetings have been held with the climate change unit in the Vice President’s Office, but there are no clear mandates and no systematic strategy for inclusion of climate change considerations in the social protection strategy.

<p>there is no direct mention of social protection in the NAPA or other government documents on climate change¹⁸. Nor are there any strong institutional links between social protection and climate change. DRR and climate change are separate policy areas in Tanzania, and there is so far little evidence of integration between these two policy areas¹⁹.</p>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is not immediately clear what the driver for climate change and hazards integration is in the Tanzanian context as there is no dominant disaster narrative in Tanzania²⁰. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • TASAF III has an opportunity to ensure that linkages between climate change, disasters and social protection are clearly articulated around poverty reduction.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Climate change, disaster risk reduction and social protection are recent policy areas in Tanzania. Responsibilities lie within relatively small government units, with capacity constraints²¹ to carrying out their mandated tasks which also limits their capacity to coordinate with other government departments. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commitments to link CC and SP have been made in the TASAF III aide memoire.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is limited understanding of areas of work across social protection, climate change and DRR 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • TASAF III provides the opportunity for strengthening the evidence base for contributions of social protection to building resilience while supporting growth.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is interest and commitment to climate change agenda from donors (Pemco, 2009) and a growing interested NGO community including organisations such as CARE (e.g. Ehrhart and Twena, 2006).

¹⁸ Most interviewees in the climate change area had heard about TASAF, but have limited familiarity with the details of its goals and its potential linkages to climate change.

¹⁹ The national disaster policies are set out in the Disaster Policy (2004) and operational guidelines (2003), as well as in a recent report to the Hyogo Framework for Action (2010). The institutional responsibility rests with the Disaster Response Unit in the Prime Minister's Office (PMO). The unit coordinates all government disaster responses, but only has a technical staff number of about 10 to cover coordination of disaster responses for the whole of Tanzania. Key concerns are flooding, civil unrest and food distribution. Officials suggest a change towards more proactive DRR responses in the country, focusing also on irrigation and resilience building

²⁰ In many other African countries, disasters, food insecurity and climate extremes such as droughts and floods provide clear drivers for change in social protection policies.

²¹ The PMO Disaster Response Unit for example, is small (10 technical staff), and has so far lacked the external support and momentum from donors that climate change and (increasingly) social protection has

- To access climate funds, TASAF III needs to be aligned to a national framework on climate change

5. Recommendations for climate change mainstreaming

This section of the report makes a number of recommendations to mainstream climate change into TASAF III to address the challenges and opportunities discussed in previous sections. Mainstreaming climate change involves considering how TASAF III can be made ‘climate smart’ by enabling it to better withstand the pressures from a changing climate, whilst at the same time strengthening people’s resilience and maximising opportunities for climate finance. In practice, this means reaching the right people, using the right type of instruments and in the right combination, relating these instruments to other policy areas, building an evidence base for learning, accessing new opportunities for funding, and ensuring flexibility in design and operation. Finally – but crucially – success will rely on political leadership and institutional fit across the three areas.

Following this section, a roadmap for a ‘climate smart’ TASAF III is presented that identifies opportunities to incorporate these findings into TASAF III in a systematic, comprehensive and realistic way.

5.1 Programme targeting

TASAF III’s proposed targeting procedure currently relies on poverty-indices. Climate change is very likely to push new households or groups into poverty, and could put existing or future TASAF III beneficiaries at risk of falling back into destitution (the reverse of graduation). At the same time, it will be important for TASAF III to include indices that reflect vulnerability to climate change amidst vulnerability to other stressors.

Paying more attention to vulnerability to climate-induced shocks would mean, therefore,

- (i) making use of downscaled climate scenarios or climate change indicators at regional or preferably district level (when and where available), and
- (ii) building up an evidence base of whether targeting is ‘adaptive’ (i.e. is responsive to the change in vulnerability level induced by climate-related events) through the M&E system.

The first part of this process (downscaling climate scenarios at Local Government Authority (LGA) level) is to include vulnerability indicator(s) in the poverty-index at LGA/district level in order to capture and reflect the spatial and temporal exposure of households to climate change-related shocks and to build this exposure into the index that will be used to select areas of intervention (regions, LGAs and villages). There are two key points to be noted:

- (a) The District level appears as an appropriate level at which this climate-related vulnerability element could be introduced, as it provides a reasonable convergence of a level where some climate data (meteorological records as well as climate scenarios, cf. above) are available and at the same time as being the key local government level in Tanzania. The resulting targeting system should be one that combines geographic (district) and household level data to describe the change in household vulnerability and

to capture the impact of both idiosyncratic and covariate shocks. It is also important that the indicators are related to various types of shocks and different levels of vulnerability²².

- (b) The identification of this climate element should be done by the competent authority at the district/LGA level. The inclusion of local climate experts into the design and implementation of the targeting process would not only ensure the inclusion of climate-related information into the targeting process (*sine quo non* condition to ensure the mainstreaming of climate change in TASAF), it could also foster collaboration between various sectoral ministries at a decentralized level, which would strengthen the ‘institutional flexibility’ of the programme and increase the chance of success. Finally, this climate index could be part of the information included in the climate risk assessment document expected to be incorporated in the local planning process. The targeting should be completed on an annual basis to capture and reflect the continuous variation in household vulnerability.

The second part of this process - building up an evidence base of the adaptability of the targeting process through the M&E system - is outlined below.

5.2 M&E system to build evidence and improve TASAF III programming

The reasons underpinning the need to establish an efficient M&E system for TASAF III have been made clear in other programme documents. Here, we detail how this M&E system should be designed to ensure that TASAF III is successful at strengthening household resilience to climate and other types of shocks.

Critical to this process will be the inclusion *from the outset* of a climate risk assessment, i.e. climate-related local information in the M&E system. This should consist of both (i) the incorporation of multi-stressor indicator(s) in the poverty-index at LGA/district level with the objective to capture and reflect the spatial and temporal exposure of households to climate but also economic covariate shocks (see Section 5.1 above), and also (ii) the incorporation of climate-related shock information at the household level. This second set of information can be generated through specific modules incorporated in the TASAF III baseline survey, similar to those developed and field tested for instance in Ethiopia as part of the ‘Trends in Transfers surveys’ (Devereux et al., 2008; Béné et al., 2012). The idea is to incorporate questions aimed at evaluating (a) the various types of shocks (covariate, idiosyncratic, climate-related, economic, etc.) experienced by households (ideally the frequency and intensity of these shocks should be recorded), and (b) the types and levels of resilience strategies adopted by these households, along with the usual demographic and socio-economic information (income/expenditure, assets, livelihood strategies) included in conventional baseline surveys. The resilience strategies should include coping and assets disposal strategies, but also asset building strategies (Béné et al., 2012).

These various indicators/variables would then be re-evaluated after 36 months as part of the normal Impact Evaluation, generating critical feedback information concerning the extent to which TASAF III contributed (or not) to strengthening household resilience. In particular, the information would help identify which types of climate shocks (drought, flood, others) and

²² For instance, Malawi’s Vulnerability Assessment uses a wide set of economic, agricultural and weather-related indicators to measure food needs.

non-climate shocks (economic, idiosyncratic – e.g. illness, death) have more impact on households –or conversely the shocks that TASAF III is more effective at buffering the impact of.

5.3 Supporting graduation

A comprehensive approach to social protection, as seen in graduation programmes that combine interventions, provides the potential for TASAF III to build resilience against climate change. A comprehensive approach should be supported, therefore, and TASAF III should, over time, look to incorporate and link to a broader range of social protection activities. Further analysis and details on the institutional arrangements for this are required.

The implementation of TASAF III provides an opportunity to measure how it is or isn't supporting graduation. Consistent with the overall results framework, therefore, some indicators of progress towards graduation should be included, for example:

- Increased incomes
- Increased overall welfare levels of beneficiaries and non-beneficiary households living in PWP communities at work completion
- Proportion of targeted households with stable or increased asset level
- Average amount of savings per year per household

5.4 Utilising climate financing

To be able to capitalise on funding opportunities, an important first step is to demonstrate to its beneficiaries TASAF III's ability to build resilience to climate change (as discussed in section 4 above). Firstly, this has implications for monitoring and evaluation. TASAF III's Aide Memoire sets out the need for a climate risk assessment as part of its baseline, and the need for an M&E system as a vehicle for building evidence for how TASAF III can help build resilience. Secondly, TASAF III needs to be aligned to a national framework that shows how climate change is embedded in development planning (cf. Hedger, 2011). Other issues which need to be resolved concern how the funds get to TASAF III: how will the proposal be generated, how does it fit with Government plans, and how will monitoring take place? Any funding proposal (from TASAF III or elsewhere) will have to be endorsed by the Tanzanian Government.

The first step would be to explore opportunities for bilateral climate finance (e.g. related to PWPs) to help build evidence on how social protection can help achieve climate adaptation (and mitigation) goals. An interesting options appears to be the UK ICF, which is part of UK's 'Fast-Start' funding, and has a social protection theme under the adaptation focus area. Its goals and topic areas therefore seem well suited for TASAF III. REDD+ finance is interesting, but with challenges appears as a more mid- to long term goal as a number of issues need to be resolved, as mentioned above. From an initial scoping, lessons could be drawn and used to develop proposals for bi- and multilateral finance in line with government climate change strategy.

In parallel, TASAF III could contribute to fostering linkages between the national climate change strategy and social development goals, increasing Tanzania's opportunities for attracting future funding. While seeking Fast-Start funding, links could be built to strategies across government sectors, with a view to accessing multilateral climate finance mechanisms at a later stage. The current Government efforts to develop a national climate change strategy are key to support improved access to climate change funds by Tanzania. It is also a potential

window of opportunity for understanding how TASAF III might contribute to improving adaptation in Tanzania.

Thus, major challenges for TASAF III are not only to demonstrate that its activities can provide benefits to strengthening climate resilience and reducing carbon emissions in addition to other social and environmental benefits; they are also to create connections with the Tanzanian Government's national development plans, poverty reduction strategies, and climate change strategy.

5.5 Strengthening institutional linkages and leadership

As highlighted above, there are a number of institutional challenges for mainstreaming climate change in TASAF III, yet a significant potential for synergies exists through the improvement of institutional linkages. The following recommendations focus on processes for advocacy and institutionalisation of climate change.

Building a common platform for action: A large number of reports have been carried out recently in Tanzania on actors and their areas of work in relation to climate change (Pemco 2009; Watkiss et al., 2011). Similar mappings are so far lacking on SP and DRR, which can be partly explained with the fact that key actors in these areas are fewer and mandates are clearer. There appear to be immediate gains to be made by bringing key actors together and building a common platform of concepts, topics and themes. Importantly, this could help to delineate mandates and complementarities in approaches, to utilise synergies in a way that keeps TASAF III's focus on its programme objectives and does not stretch it beyond its capacities. Such a common platform for TASAF III would also help demonstrate its potential contributions to the wider climate change agenda in Tanzania, and identifies opportunities for funding.

Advocacy: TASAF III is already making significant efforts to strengthen resilience to climate change, which should be built on and expanded build on existing initiatives and expand them. This could be done by factoring in advocacy into the sequencing, for example through learning events, as part of making the case and winning 'hearts and minds' on climate change issues. An important consideration here would be to think about key drivers for policy makers on this agenda, which could include the fact that although there has been steady growth in Tanzania, there has not been significant reduction in poverty levels.

Institutionalisation and leadership: The institutionalisation of comprehensive social protection could happen through the emerging social protection policy, which has the potential to incorporate SP into wider development planning, including climate change and disaster response. There are plans in TASAF III to include the government climate change focal point (the Department of Environment in the Vice President's Office) as well as the Disaster Response Unit in the Prime Minister's Office in the National Steering Committee (NSC). While the Department of Environment has been part of the Sector Expert Team already, inclusion in the NSC could greatly facilitate better linkages across social protection, climate change and disaster risks. However, as noted earlier, institutional integration is necessary but not sufficient. Ultimately, the level of integration will depend on the ability of different actors to work together to foster synergies and overcome barriers to improved preparedness for climate finance and delivery.

6. A roadmap for a “climate smart” TASAF III.

Mainstreaming is about identifying technical options and policy spaces, overcoming barriers, and building a constituency for change (cf. our ‘theory of change’, Section 4). A roadmap is presented in the following that identifies opportunities to include findings made in the report into TASAF III in three phases, to ensure that findings are incorporated in a systematic, comprehensive and realistic way.

Phase I (0-3 years) involves moving TASAF III in a “climate smart” direction. This will include activities that can start immediately. *Phase II* (3-5 years) involves improving TASAF III in specific areas on the basis of accumulated evidence that has been generated in the first phase. During this phase, therefore, climate change will only be partly incorporated into TASAF III. *Phase III* (year 5 onwards) will apply accumulated evidence to all programming. At this stage, climate change is anticipated to be fully integrated into TASAF III. Further details on the phases and associated activities are provided in Table 3.

The three phases ensure that TASAF III is implemented and meets its primary objectives, but also that climate change concerns and opportunities are gradually integrated over time as opportunities arise and as evidence emerges on both the impact of climate risks and of the response through social protection. This sequencing assumes that TASAF III will have flexibility in its design and operation to incorporate climate considerations and improvement based on evidence as it emerges. More measures will therefore be introduced over time. The three phases for integrating climate change in TASAF III are aligned with the roll-out plan as set out in TASAF III programme documents.

Table 3. TASAF III Climate Smart Roadmap

Topic	Activity	Timeline
Phase I: moving TASAF in a “climate smart” direction		
Monitoring and Evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> inclusion of climate-related local information in the M&E system incorporation of climate indicator(s) in the poverty-index at LGA/district level incorporation of climate-related shock information at the household level incorporation of specific modules into the TASAF III baseline survey incorporation of indicators of graduation in relation to building resilience 	From the outset
Overall	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> qualitative/quantitative and process evaluation to influence improvement and adjustments as well as to inform DFID-funded trailing during year 2 discussion of longer-term issues such as adjustments in targeting and building evidence, experience from elsewhere and filling knowledge gaps Strengthening institutional linkages and leadership 	End of Year 1 assessment

Financing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • explore and access Fast Start funding and other bi- and multilateral sources • building links across government sectors could be envisaged (a) through the process of developing a national climate change strategy, with a view to accessing multilateral climate finance mechanisms, and (b) through the emerging social protection framework, aiming to embed social protection in wider development processes as well as climate change and disaster responses 	<p>Year 1 and 2</p> <p>Year 3 onwards</p>
Phase II: improving TASAF III on the basis of accumulated evidence		
Monitoring and Evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • re-evaluation of various indicators and variables as part of the normal Impact Evaluation • generating critical feedback information concerning the extent to which TASAF III contributes (or not) to strengthening household resilience 	Year 3 onwards
Targeting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • making use of downscaled climate scenarios or climate change indicators at regional or preferably district level (when and where available) • building up an evidence base through the M&E system concerning whether targeting is adequate 	First review at 2.5-3 years
Overall	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • strengthening institutional linkages and leadership 	
Phase III: climate change is fully integrated into TASAF III programming		
Programming	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • incorporation of a wider range of social protection instruments and activities 	Year 5 onwards

7. Conclusions

This report has explored how climate change considerations can be mainstreamed into the third phase of the TASAF III, moving towards a “climate smart” TASAF III. Projected climate changes, coupled with other socio-economic and demographic changes, could have significant implications for TASAF III and its beneficiaries. Changes in seasonal climate patterns could increase hunger gaps, and increased pressures on household assets and resources could over time lead to an increased risk of people sliding into poverty, reducing or even reversing gains made to date. In turn, this would increase the need for social protection in Tanzania to buffer against climate shocks and stressors.

At the same time, TASAF III could play an important role in helping to deliver climate finance and assistance. As an LDC, Tanzania is a priority country for climate finance through funding mechanisms under the Climate Convention as well as bilateral funds, yet it has

benefitted little from climate funds to date. The report suggests that TASAF III could be an important vehicle for helping to improve funding access.

The report suggests that in order to move in a “climate smart” direction, TASAF III needs closer integration with climate change and DRR communities of practice. This raises technical, institutional and political challenges. The following areas were identified as important to address:

- The current disconnect between social protection, climate change and DRR, which hampers progress towards integration of climate change concerns into TASAF III. The current processes for developing social protection and climate change strategies could be important windows of opportunity to improve the level of integration between these two communities of practice.
- The need for awareness-raising around what social protection is and how it can help build resilience. TASAF III has an opportunity to build up an evidence base that will be crucial, and which will be important also beyond Tanzania.
- An increasing number of development actors in Tanzania are becoming aware of the importance of addressing climate change in their activities, but the government’s ability to address the range of challenges climate change brings, as well as opportunities for funding, is hampered by a lack of a broader government engagement with climate change. TASAF III could help broaden the scope of climate change and development activities in Tanzania, which would help in making TASAF III (and Tanzania) more attractive for climate finance.
- Unlike many other countries, there is a perception in Tanzania that climate-related issues has so far not been a major driver for the integration of social protection, adaptation and DRR in Tanzania. This is in spite of Tanzania being exposed to frequent climate-related disasters. TASAF III provides an important opportunity to make clearer linkages between climate change, disasters and poverty reduction, the latter being the overriding policy concern in Tanzania.
- Lastly, TASAF III’s status as an independent government institution has advantages and disadvantages. A challenge for accessing climate finance under the Climate Convention is to ensure that its plans are closely aligned with government development policy and practice. At the same time, its status can give an important momentum and be an opportunity to build up experience and expertise on how social protection can help strengthen resilience to climate change.

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9. Annexes

Annex I: Meetings during visit to Tanzania, 10-18 November 2011

Date	Time and activity
Thu 10 Nov	Arrival Magdalena Banasiak and Antonite Chisala, DFID Rasmus Heltberg (World Bank), Cecilia Costello (World Bank) and Gertrude Kihunrwa (DFID)
Fri 11 Nov	Mr Henry Mgingi, CDTF (facilitator for field trip) Introduction to the scoping study, TASAF meeting, Paradise Express Hotel REDD consultancy debriefing, DFID Inger Naess, Embassy of Norway
Sat 12 Nov	Field trip, Mpiji village, Kibaha About 150 participants, 5 group discussions and plenaries Mr Godson Harry (Village Fund Coordinator) and Mr Costa Kauki (CCT focal person), Kibaha District
Sun 13 Nov	
Mon 14 Nov	Stephanie Lang DPG Environment Secretariat Juvenal Kisanga (WFP), Vera Mayer (WFP) Mr M. Kajimbwa (SNV)
Tue 15 Nov	Nyancheghe A.K. Nauai (PMO/Disaster Response Unit) Harrison Chinyuka (PMO/Disaster Response Unit), Naiason Mdeo (PMO/Disaster Response Unit) James Davey, Concern World Wide Amani Ngusaru, UNDP Ralf Ernst, UNDP/UN-REDD Ryan Lynch (Microensure)
Wed 16 Nov	Anna Mwashu, Ministry of Finance Anne Scott- USAID
Thu 17 Nov	Mr Muyungi, VPO Dr Tiliya, TMA Latif Amars - Tanzania Civil Society Forum on Climate Change (ForumCC) Adolfo Mascarenhas, UDSM
Fri 18 Nov	9-12 Consultation meeting TASAF Departure

Annex II: Report from field visit, Mpiji Village, Kibaha District, 12 November 2011.

Prepared by TASAF Management Unit, President's Office, Malindi/Old Kilwa Road, P. O. Box 9381, Dar es Salaam.

Acronyms

CB-CCT	-	Community Based Conditional Cash Transfer
TMU	-	TASAF Management Unit
LGA	-	Local Government Authority
WB	-	World Bank
COMSIP	-	Community serving and investment Promotion
CAMFED	-	Campaign for Female Education
PSSN	-	Productive Social Safety Net
CDTF	-	Community Development Trust Fund
PWP	-	Public Works Program

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The field visit was conducted as part of the Appraisal Mission of TASAF III Productive Social Safety Net, jointly conducted by the Government of Tanzania and Development Partners. The Appraisal Mission team was looking at mainstreaming of climate change in TASAF-III PSSN. DFID and World Bank consultants and staff working on Climate Change met and consulted various parties in the country, including a visit to Mpiji village in Kibaha District Council which implemented TASAF-funded infrastructure sub project as well as CB CCT treatment village.

Mpiji village is among four villages in Bokomnemela ward, in Kibaha District Council. The village is 15 kilometers from Kibaha District council head quarters. The village was established by one railway technician employee known as Mr. Zumba in 1922. In 1974, Mpiji was registered as a village. According to the 2002 National population census, Mpiji has a total population of 1070 people, whereas 474 are men and 476 are women.

1.2 Composition of the team

The mission team was composed by an IDS climate change consultant, World Bank staff and consultant, TMU staff, Kibaha LGA staff and an independent facilitator from CDTF in collaboration with Mpiji Village community

2.0 OBJECTIVES

The aim of the field visit was to meet Mpiji Village Community members, and hold discussions on issues of climate change and natural hazards, and the way they affect their lives, as well as identify possible adaptation measures.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

In the participatory assessment on climate change in Mpiji Village, different tools were employed to gather information from the community members. The Focus group discussion

was applied whereby the community members were asked to volunteer to join different groups and were given tasks. The groups, consisting of 8-10 people, were assigned to undertake the following:

- (1) Mapping- Village Map
- (2) Venn diagram- Institutions within the village and relations
- (3) Seasonal Calendar
- (4) Main events relating to climate changes and natural hazards that had occurred in the village, including climate trends.

4.0 FINDINGS/OBSERVATION

4.1 The Village Mapping Group:

The group managed to draw a village map whereby they identified village borders, areas where villagers live, areas where they cultivate food crops, location of various institutions like School, Community centre, Railway infrastructure crossing the village, main roads passing through the village, village Government office, local market and shop centres. The map was presented at the plenary and agreed by all participants.

4.2 Venn diagram- Institutions within the village (Institutional analysis):

There was a discussion on the institutions working in and outside of the village. The Venn diagram tool used to identify the institutions within and around the village and their relation to the development activities of the village. Institutions were ranked according to their responsibilities on social protection which in turn were used, indirectly, as a means for adaptation to climate change. This is because those households receiving benefits from those organizations are better off and hence less likely to need to cut trees for their economic use.

The group expressed that TASAF supported the community to build the dam (Lambo) which reduced the problem of scarcity of water. Mpiji is one of the CB-CCT treatment villages, which has helped the villages to reduce the risk of clearing forest areas as a means of solving their economic and social problems.

However the villagers have introduced COMSIP groups where they can get access to loan for investment. This has helped reduce poverty among villagers. Instead of depending on making charcoal and selling firewood to increase the income of the family and meet social services, they now have a means of getting money.

The assessment found that the villagers also have a campaign for planting trees and conservation of forest (misitu yetu) as well as the protection of the environment. Other institutions involved in social protection at Mpiji village are CAMFED and FARAJA which also help in supporting poor families.

The villagers also discussed the main reasons for bad relationships between some institutions and villagers, including issues of trust, reliability and accountability.

4.3 Seasonal Calendar group:

This Calendar of the village helped to indicate different events and seasons of the year in respective village.

Event	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June	July	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec
Cultivation												
Short rains												
Dry season												
Water born diseases												
Harvesting												
Children diseases												
Cold season												
Heavy rains												
festivals												

Climate change effects:

- Shortage of rains resulted in drought
- Heavy winds caused by cutting of trees
- Shortage of food due to poor rains

4.4 Climate trends and problem assessment group:

The following findings were observed by the group which discussed on strategic plan where key problems were listed and trends identified.

Problem	50 yrs back	At present	10 yrs to come (future)	Measures
Water scarcity	- Sufficient water was available and found nearby the village	- There is shortage of water, and can be found very far from the village due to shortage of rains - High cost per bucket	More scarcity is expected and to be not affordable	Rain water harvest Planting of trees to mitigate drought Borehole drilling by the government to serve the majority who cannot afford private water sources Conserved and protected environment
Poor Health	- Very few illnesses and chronic diseases - Readily available nutritious local food due to availability of timely and sufficient rains - Very limited imported food such as cooking oil - Free and good	- Many chronic diseases due to scarce nutritious food as a result of drought - Many uncontrolled food importation which are not nutritious - Expensive and poor health services in the village - Reduced production	More cost sharing is expected More chronic diseases are expected Intake of less nutritious food is expected	The government to control importation of non nutritious food Encourage intake of the local food Improved and affordable services in the health centers Reduced/ controlled diseases outbreak

Problem	50 yrs back	At present	10 yrs to come (future)	Measures
	health services were available	and intake of local food due to drought		
Poor performance of students in education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Few schools - Few people access education - Good performance of the students due to intake of nutritious local food as was readily available as a result of sufficient rain 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - More children access education although the quality is inadequate - Lack of school feeding program - Poor hygiene and sanitation in schools 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To avoid reforestation and encourage tree planting - To promote feeding program in schools Improved school hygiene and sanitation - Emphasize environmental conservation in schools
Food scarcity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The food was plenty due to enough rainfalls - There were no dangerous animals who destroy crops - Few crop diseases and pest outbreaks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shortage of food has been experienced and sometimes famine due to unpredictable rains as a result of climate change - More destructive animals because of lack of food as a result of drought - Crop diseases outbreak and pests 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - More shortage and famine are foreseen - More destruction of crops is foreseen 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Avoid cutting of trees without planting of trees - Avoid bush fire - Protecting farms from wild animals in collaboration with wild life department - People to be encouraged to join savings schemes being a source of capital to generate income - Adopt drought resistance crops
Floods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Few occasions of floods due to well established natural forestry 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - High frequency of floods which resulted in the destruction of the central railway which was among the sources of employment to many youths who are now instead engaged in charcoal making and selling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - More floods are possible - High deforestation due to charcoal making business 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Promote alternative sources of energy saving stoves - Emphasis on tree planting (afforestation) - Youths to be encouraged to join savings schemes being a source of capital to generate income - Encourage / promote off farm income generating activities
Rain scarcity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Timely and sufficient rains - Story telling by elders on forest conservation to young people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Unpredictable and short rains - Inadequate awareness to the youth on environmental /forest protection. - Indigenous knowledge sharing on environmental 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - More rain scarcity is foreseen due to destruction of the forest and other environment degradation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Conservation of the forest - More awareness creation on environmental and forest conservation to youth and entire communities.

Problem	50 yrs back	At present	10 yrs to come (future)	Measures
		conservation from adult to young is not taken seriously.		

5.0 CHALLENGES

- Inadequate awareness on environmental protection and conservation.
- Difficulties in accessing loans from financial institutions to enable to engage in other non forests business.
- Community dependency on fire wood and charcoal as only affordable means of energy and source of income
- Shortage of water especially dry season, whereby the community members are forced to buy a bucket of 20 litres for 500 TZS, while they can't afford.
- During dry season, the community members are forced to sell their assets e.g. bicycles, mobile phones, piece of land to earn some cash to meet their daily meals.

6.0 CONCLUSION

Generally, it emerged through the discussion that many of the problems in Mpiji village are related to climate change. Climate change is seen to be caused by environmental destruction, as well as inadequate awareness and knowledge of community on environmental conservation. Poor enforcement of environmental policies by different stakeholders has contributed to environmental degradation. The discussions also suggest that the CB-CCT beneficiary households are better off compared to non beneficiaries.

7.0 RECOMMENDATIONS

- Emphasis on environmental protection and conservation to be taken seriously by communities and all stakeholders.
- Promotion of alternative source of energy to the community to be done so as to reduce the use of firewood and charcoal.
- Community capacity building on formation of microfinance groups (COMSIP) that will enable them to save and borrow some capital for income generating activities.
- Initiate public works (PWP) that will boost community income for meeting their livelihood and invest in COMSIP groups.
- Encourage good agriculture practices (e.g. conservation agriculture) to the community to increase productivity.
- Collaborate with wildlife department in wild animal management and protection
- Continuous awareness creation and education on effect of destructed environment to the villagers
- Encourage community to engage on off farm business so as to earn some income for livelihood and at the same time to protect environment.
- Enforcement of the existing by laws which are related to environmental and forest protection by respectively leaders/local authority.

Annex III: Terms of Reference for the study

1. Background

What is TASAF and its objectives

The objective of the **Tanzania Third Social Action Fund Productive Safety Net (TASAF III PSSN)** programme financed by development partners will be to increase income and consumption of poor households while enhancing and protecting the human capital of their children. The programme will achieve the goals by assisting government to (i) smooth consumption of poor and vulnerable households during lean seasons by providing a source of income through labour intensive public works, while creating community assets, (ii) increase consumption of the same group of households and invest in the education, health and nutrition of their children and pregnant women to reduce vulnerability and poverty in the mid- and long-term, and (iii) enhance government capacity to build the institutional and implementation blocks for a permanent and effective social safety net.

The objective of the first phase of support (2012 – 2016) will be the transformation of a traditional social fund intervention towards a comprehensive, predictable and productive safety net program (PSNP) to support the poorest and most vulnerable section of the Tanzanian population.

This project, supported by a World Bank operation equivalent to US\$220 million and a DFID support equivalent to approximately US\$90 million, is expected to provide sustained support to about 200,000 poor households through combining the implementation of a targeted cash transfer program and an intensive labor public works scheme.

Social Protection Policy Dialogue

The World Bank study on poverty, growth and safety nets suggests two key components of a social protection system that would need to be developed over time: (i) national safety net program(s) (of which TASAF III is a significant part); and (ii) institutional framework for the safety net system. With regards to the institutional framework the study suggest finding an appropriate scheme for program implementation that would be anchored in the current government structure and moving toward harmonization of the current implementation modalities (e.g. harmonization of the different community targeting schemes).

Drawing from the Government Position, Development Partners see TASAF III as an important operational vehicle for trying out implementation modalities for social protection and helping to establish appropriate delivery systems. It is recognized that these decisions on national strategy and program choices will take time to refine, and therefore the TASAF III operation is suggested to be in a multi-year and two-phase operation to allow enough time for both policy and social debate within the country, and for testing of modalities and re-direction of existing programs, while at the same time maintaining momentum of the movement towards development of a comprehensive national social safety net system.

Social Protection and Climate Change

The impact of climate change in Tanzania is likely to be spread across the country, with some geographic areas being harder hit than others. This will be overlaid on to existing vulnerabilities of both rural and urban poor and excluded, such as vulnerability to seasonality, poor health, market fluctuations (food prices and fuel). The poor and vulnerable will be hardest hit by climate change and there will be differentiated social impacts based on gender, age, disability, geographic location and livelihood.

Subsistence farmers, who would not look to the State for income support, may increasingly find they are unable to provide for themselves. This is likely to be highly seasonal. Well-designed cash transfer programmes, which include support to working aged poor people, are an important part of a comprehensive climate change adaptation approach. Ensuring that working aged poor people have access to income support during lean times reduces the risk that they become trapped in poverty (through selling assets, ceasing agricultural production etc). A climate change lens applied to cash transfers also plays a potentially important part in development of a comprehensive vision for social protection. In particular, climate-proofing is introducing innovation in insuring products available to poor people. This moves the social protection discussion forward by valuing and bringing harmony into the debate on social assistance “versus” social insurance (social welfare ministries “versus” labour ministries)

The programme document for The TASAF 3 proposes a combination of public works and cash transfers to the poorest and most vulnerable groups in labour-poor households follows in part the model started by the Productive Safety Net Programme in Ethiopia. The provision of cash transfers to very poor households which are not labour-constrained (and may indeed include people who work) is important for climate change adaptation. Social assistance available to working-aged people is important to support households recovering from climate-related shocks and in linking climate change interventions with livelihoods and growth strategies.

In summary, the potential benefits of cash transfers for adaptation and disaster risk reduction are that they target most vulnerable to climate shocks, smooth consumption allowing adaptive risk-taking and investment and flexibility enhanced to cope with climate shocks. (IDS, 2009)

As well as the opportunity to build resilience to address climate change as part of cash transfers, one of the main components currently being looked into as part of TASAF 3 is the inclusion of climate change adaptation and mitigation (incl. REDD) as part of public works programme i.e. green public works. The potential benefits of this approach is that it would address vulnerability in terms of seasonality by providing guaranteed income to combat seasonal variation, off farm employment in rural areas and provide a physical response for building resilience against CC impacts.

Other complementary livelihood enhancing initiatives i.e. access to credit and savings promotion, social/weather based insurance, livelihoods diversification and asset transfers, may also be looked at as part of the programme and will have an impact on building household resilience to climate shocks.

The table below illustrates how climate change adaptation and disaster risk reduction can be promoted through social protection

SP category	SP instruments	Adaptation and DRR benefits
<i>Protective</i> (coping strategies)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - social service provision - social transfers (food/cash), including safety nets - social pension schemes - public works programmes 	- protection of those most vulnerable to climate risks, with low levels of adaptive capacity
<i>Preventive</i> (coping strategies)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - social transfers - livelihood diversification - weather-indexed crop insurance - social insurance 	- prevents damaging coping strategies as a result of risks to weather-dependent livelihoods
<i>Promotive</i> (building adaptive capacity)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - social transfers - access to credit - asset transfers or protection - starter packs (drought/flood-resistant) - access to common property resources - public works programmes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - promotes resilience through livelihood diversification and security to withstand climate related shocks - promotes opportunities arising from climate change
<i>Transformative</i> (building adaptive capacity)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - promotion of minority rights - anti-discrimination campaigns - social funds -proactively challenging discriminatory behaviour 	- transforms social relations to combat discrimination underlying social and political vulnerability

Source: IDS, 2009

The other aspect that has not been addressed above is mitigation (i.e. emissions reductions), this is particularly relevant in the Tanzanian context where despite the overall low emissions of green house gases there are high rates of deforestation and “land use change and forestry (LUCF)” is a significant sector for emissions. Tanzania has been and is an active member in developing Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and forest Degradation (REDD)) and the role of conservation, sustainable management of forests and enhancement of forest carbon stocks. The implementation of REDD policy will include community based forest management, developing payment for environmental service schemes and changes in agricultural and energy policy and practice. REDD is linked to significant climate finance and carbon financing. There is a opportunity under TASAF 3 to explore the linkages with the promotion of green PWP and build on the existing participatory forest management structures and emerging REDD schemes in Tanzania.

In conclusion, climate change is a cross cutting issue that is both an opportunity and threat/risk for social protection programme such as TASAF 3.

National Policy on Climate Change

The cornerstone of the Government of Tanzania’s (GoT) response to climate change is the National Action Platform for Adaptation (NAPA). The NAPA identifies the some of

the challenges and priority actions needed to respond to climate change in Tanzania. While notionally focused on adapting to the impacts of climate change, Tanzania's NAPA also includes several commitments for reducing carbon emissions. The NAPA has had limited support, only one of the priority areas has been funded. The Government is planning to address these shortcomings and build on the NAPA by developing a national climate change strategy.

Climate change has implications for a range of government ministries. In Tanzania, there are a number of key organisations. The Division for Environment (DoE) within the Vice President's Office (VPO) co-ordinates action on the environment and has a Climate Change Team, which has led preparation of the NAPA. While DoE is responsible for policy formulation on environmental issues, policy implementation sits with the National Environmental Management Council (NEMC). However as highlighted in the economics of climate change study²³, climate change is also an economic issue and potential large levels of climate finance necessitate the involvement of Ministry of Finance, Planning Commission, key sector ministries and local government authorities to ensure effective delivery. The engagement of these institutions will be critical for successful management of climate finance and effective delivery on climate change.

Food security and DRR and DRM

Climate change is directly relevant for all food security programmes in Tanzania. The changing rainfall patterns present a huge threat to the most vulnerable as they directly depend on rainfall for their food production. While climate change presents a threat to food security, the new markets in carbon financing and flows of adaptation finance could benefit food security programmes and in particular the safety net programme since it aims at smoothening food consumption and enabling movement out of poverty. Therefore in addressing the implications of climate change for food security in Tanzania, we believe that it is important to consider both adaptation and climate resilience.

Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) is the broad development and application of policies, strategies, and practices to minimize vulnerabilities throughout communities via prevention, mitigation, and preparedness. The conceptual framework of elements considered with the possibilities to minimize vulnerabilities and disaster risks throughout a society, to avoid (prevention) or to limit (mitigation and preparedness) the adverse impacts of hazards, within the broad context of sustainable development.

Disaster Management (DM) is the organisation and management of resources and responsibilities for the normal endeavours of government, voluntary and private agencies to respond to the whole spectrum of emergency needs including preparedness, response and rehabilitation. This is also known as emergency management.

Disaster Risk Management (DRM) is the combination of DRR + DM. It is the collective actions and efforts of concerned institutions, policies, programs, and other measures designed to prevent, mitigate, prepare for, and respond to a disaster and to provide recovery and rehabilitation support.

²³ Tanzania Economics of Climate Change Study, SEI/GCCAP funded by DFID, 2011

The Hyogo Framework for Action is a comprehensive, action-oriented response to international concern about the growing impacts of disasters which was adopted by 168 Governments at the World Conference on DRR in Hyogo, Japan in January 2005. Tanzania is a signatory to the agreement and endorsed the African Union Regional Disaster Reduction Strategy, which clearly commit countries to addressing disaster risks in a proactive and participatory way. To-date two national progress reports on HFA have been prepared. The first progress report covered a period of 2007-2009, while the second interim report is for 2009-2011.

HFA has three strategic goals and identifies five key priority actions to address disaster risk reduction needs. These 5 priority areas are:

1. Making DRR a priority at all levels (governance)
2. Improving risk information and EW system
3. Building a culture of safety and resilience and knowledge management
4. Reducing underlying risk factors or vulnerabilities
5. Strengthening preparedness for effective response

Tanzania has the National Disaster Management Policy (2004) and the National Operational Guidelines for Disaster Management (2003), that set the policy framework, which aims to develop adequate capacity for coordination and cooperation for comprehensive disaster management among key players at all levels. Mainstreaming disaster management activities as an integral part of development programmes in all sectors is the goal.

Initial thoughts on how TASAF can be used into a DRM instrument that prevents, mitigates, prepares for and responds to climate related risks and facilitates recovery and rehabilitation should be potentially considered particularly leveraging huge capacity built at the community level.

2. Objectives

These terms of reference are to support a scoping study to strengthen the Tanzania safety net programme TASAF to think through how this existing programme and the new programme (3) under design can integrate and take on board and manage the risks associated with climate change. Making a safety net climate smart aims to systematically integrate the implications of climate change into TASAF 3 design now and determine how “safety nets” would enable the Tanzanian Government to manage risks related to climate change.

The **aim** of this support is to scope out **how climate change can be mainstreamed into TASAF managed programmes and develop a roadmap for how TASAF can be transformed in to an instrument that adapts to and manages climate risks**, based on existing programme experience and new.

The **specific objectives** will include:

- a) **Strengthening the contribution to climate resilience and understanding how climate risks can be managed in TASAF 3 and beyond.**

TASAF can contribute to building climate resilience in its own right. However by reviewing and refining the social protection instruments incl. environmental management aspects of PWP, vulnerability targeting and asset building activities of the programme, this contribution could be strengthened. The climate smart TASAF will look at ways of strengthening the climate contribution of the programme whilst also overlaying the challenges of adaptation and mitigation. The climate smart initiative i.e. one in which CC is mainstreamed must therefore clearly demonstrate results in i) building resilience to climatic shocks and ii) reducing the need and ii) cost of disaster and emergency response (?). The study will also map out how TASAF 3 can be transformed into an instrument that tackle climate risks and enable livelihood adaptation of communities and individuals, largely focusing on implementation level.

b) Identifying and leveraging climate funding opportunities

TASAF could potentially benefit from climate finance. Firstly, public finance to help developing countries adapt and REDD finance for mitigation that could usefully be channelled through TASAF. Secondly carbon finance from the private sector could also be used to fund programme activities which both reduce carbon emissions e.g. REDD and address poverty. A climate smart TASAF will identify and leverage possible funding opportunities.

c) Identify the potential areas for support by DFID under the International Climate Fund and develop a concept note

Linking to the objective above develop a concept note for submission to the International Climate Fund, focusing on supporting a climate smart TASAF 3 programme.

3. Recipient

The TASAF programme partners (Tanzania (URT) Government, World Bank, WFP, UNICEF and DFID) are the primary recipients of this work. However it is expected that the outputs of this work will be useful to a broader range of climate change stakeholders, not least the Tanzanian citizens who directly benefit from TASAF activities.

4. Methodology

The consultants will work alongside and support TASAF programme team in taking forward this study and in developing an action plan. A range of methodologies will be used including (but limited to these) a literature review, stakeholder meetings, beneficiary interviews as part of the development of the scoping study.

The climate mainstreaming initiative will need to be fully integrated into the organisational and decision-making structure for TASAF programme. This will ensure that the outputs of the consultancy are both relevant and practical.

The study will need to make the links between the government's NAPA and proposed National Climate Change strategy, other policies on social protection, food security and DRM and TASAF programme.

At all times, when identifying methods and interventions, the study/action plan will consider existing systems and processes where available. For example, activities to introduce adaptation standards for road construction should be done through existing technical and environmental safeguard systems.

5. Outputs

The consultancy will produce a number of outputs:

- i) Develop a scoping study showing how climate risks, risk management and climate resilience can be mainstreamed in TASAF 3 and develop an action plan to deliver a “climate smart” TASAF programme.
- ii) Based on this study and action plan make concrete recommendations on the design of the TASAF 3 programme to feed into the appraisal mission for the Productive Social Safety Net Programme in October 2011.
- iii) Present the findings to PPT²⁴, TASAF, DFID, WFP, UNICEF, World Bank and other interested stakeholders and participate and provide inputs to the TASAF 3 mission in October 2011,(?)
- iv) Draft ICF concept note for funding a “ climate smart” TASAF 3 programme agreed with TASAF team

6. Management

The consultant team will report to the Government Preparation Team for TASAF 3 which is comprised of representatives from different government ministries.

Day to day management of the consultants will be by the Government Project preparation Team Secretariat and DFID will manage the output on draft concept note for submission to the ICF.

7. Timing

The consultancy is expected to commence in August 2011 and the outputs (i and ii) will be delivered in end Sept/early October to ensure they are incorporated into the October mission for TASAF 3 programme. Output iv) the concept note will be developed and discussed/agreed as part of the October 2011 mission and finalised in early November.

8. Skills Required

Bidders should provide a proposal explaining how they would approach the work outlined in ToRs. They should also provide CVs

The team will be made up of one/two individuals, who should have the following skills and knowledge:

- Expertise in climate change resilience/adaptation/mitigation – framed in the context of food security, poverty reduction and social protection in the context of low income countries;
- Excellent written skills including an ability to draft technical documents in plain English
- Familiarity with social safety net/social protection programmes, preferably in Tanzania/East Africa. Good working relationships with Tanzanian government are essential, including knowledge local government operations
- Familiarity with the disaster risk reduction/management and food security challenges in Tanzania
- Familiarity with both the broader social protection and climate change agendas in Tanzania including the current social protection dialogue and current initiatives to co-ordinate Tanzania’s response to climate change.

²⁴ Government TASAF-III Project Preparation Team

9. Key Documents

TASAF documents

- Aide Memoire TASAF III Identification, Preparation and Pre Appraisal Missions (dates?)
- TASAF Environmental Appraisal
- PWP proposals for greening PWP in TASAF

Climate Change

- NAPA
- Draft National REDD strategy
- National Communication Reports
- Climate Change Impact Assessment Report-Tanzania
- Economics of Climate Change Study, 2011
- OECD Climate Finance study, 2011

Food security and DRR/DRM

- National Disaster Management Policy (2004)
- National Operational Guidelines for Disaster Management (2003)
- National Progress Reports on HFA
- Agricultural Sector Development Strategy
- Agricultural Sector Support Development Program
- Tanzania Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Analysis

Other documents

- National Social Protection Framework
- National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty in Tanzania