

ST. CLOUD STATE UNIVERSITY

Community Food Security Proposal

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Preface

During the fall of 2007, students from a Global Politics of Food Course at St. Cloud State University endeavored to understand whether a Community Food Assessment would benefit the residents of St. Cloud. This proposal to community stakeholders indicates the necessity for such an assessment and illustrates why a food security charter would ensure the adequacy, stability, and accessibility of healthy, culturally-familiar food.

Introduction

In 1996, 186 countries participated in a World Food Summit, at which each adopted the “Rome Declaration” which affirmed that hunger would be reduced by one-half of its 1995 level by 2015. The United States partook of this avowal, setting an even more ambitious agenda of reducing hunger by the same proportion five years earlier, by 2010. The Healthy People 2010 Initiative, to be managed by the Department of Health and Human Services, provides a mandate for every community to assess local food security.

A Community Food Assessment (CFA) will identify specific conditions for the City of Saint Cloud that warrant further study, including challenges to food availability and access, as well as resources for addressing and building local food security. This proposal will be organized into the following sections; definitions, demographics, food sources, and food agencies/stake holders. Each section will also offer recommendations for further study based on the information gathered.

The definitions section will help the reader conceptualize important terms found in a CFA. Understanding hunger, food security, food insecurity, household food security and community food security will create a context and point of understanding of the data gathered.

Demographics will not only present overall population information for St. Cloud but also include racial and ethnic information. This will provide a snapshot of the entire community so that we can then go on to consider how food resources are distributed among its members.

The food sources section details the character and distribution of businesses and organizations from which people purchase and/or receive food. A map highlighting the location of stores, farmers markets, soup kitchens, etc, is available for reference. Further research could analyze rates of use of each means of food procurement as well as the contingencies one must satisfy to utilize such means (e.g. whether and how much one must pay, whether one must provide identification, whether one must belong to a church or confess a religious belief, etc.).

Finally, a section regarding food agencies and stakeholders is presented to identify the public and private institutions that are invested in some manner in the food security of the St. Cloud community. This proposal briefly assesses the programs and services provided by the stakeholders and the requirements that consumers of those services must satisfy.

The CFA proposal summarizes the obstacles and limitations that inhibit food security. The data specify that many residents are impacted by issues of food insecurity and assert a ‘call to action’ for the community of St. Cloud to address the urgency of access to adequate and healthy food for all of St. Cloud’s residents.

Hunger, Food Security, Food Insecurity, Household Food Security, and Community Food Security

1.1 What is Hunger?

Hunger is defined as a compelling need or desire for food. To avoid confusion, food insecurity is when people are undernourished as a result of the physical unavailability of food, their lack of social or economic access to adequate food, and/or inadequate food utilization. (Food Insecurity and Vulnerability Information and Mapping Systems, 2007)

In the final quarter of the 20th century, humanity was winning the war on its oldest enemy: hunger. From 1970-1997, the number of hungry people dropped from 959 million to 791 million -- mainly the result of dramatic progress in reducing the number of undernourished in China and India. (WFP, 2007)

In the second half of the 1990s, however, the number of chronically hungry in developing countries started to increase at a rate of almost four million per year. (WFP, 2007) By 2001-2003, the total number of undernourished people worldwide had risen to 854 million: 820 million in developing countries, 25 million in countries in transition and nine million in industrialized countries. (WFP, 2007)

Today, one in nearly seven people do not get enough food to be healthy and lead an active life, making hunger and malnutrition the number one risk to health worldwide -- greater than AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis combined. (WFP, 2007)

1.2 Humanity's Oldest Enemy

Acute hunger or starvation are often highlighted on TV screens: hungry mothers too weak to breastfeed their children in drought-hit Ethiopia, refugees in war-torn Darfur queuing for food rations, helicopters airlifting high energy biscuits to earthquake victims trapped in Pakistan or Indonesia. (WFP, 2007)

Such dramatic images are the result of high profile crises like war or natural disasters, which starve a population of food. But emergencies account for less than eight percent of hunger's victims. (WFP, 2007)

Daily undernourishment is a less visible form of hunger -- but it affects many more people, from the shanty towns of Jakarta in Indonesia and the Cambodian capital Phnom Penh to the mountain villages of Bolivia and Nepal. In these places, hunger is much more than an empty stomach. (WFP, 2007)

For weeks, even months, its victims must live on significantly less than the recommended 2,100 calories that the average person needs to lead a healthy life. (WFP, 2007)

The body compensates for the lack of energy by slowing down its physical and mental activities. A hungry mind cannot concentrate, a hungry body does not take initiative, a hungry child loses all desire to play and study. (WFP, 2007)

Hunger: how much food for a healthy life?

The total amount of energy and protein needed by different individuals varies greatly according to age, sex, body size, the amount of physical activity and, to some extent, climate

Extra energy is needed during pregnancy and lactation

On average, the body needs more than 2,100 kilocalories per day per person to allow a normal, healthy life

Hunger also weakens the immune system. Deprived of the right nutrition, hungry children are especially vulnerable and become too weak to fight off disease and may die from common infections like measles and diarrhea. Each year, almost 11 million children die before reaching the age of five; malnutrition is associated with 53 percent of these deaths (source: Caulfield et al., *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 2004 July), claiming one child's life every five seconds.

1.3 Quality Not Just Quantity

Labeled as the largest single contributor to disease by the UN's standing committee on nutrition, malnutrition is the result of inadequate dietary intake, infection, or both. It is more about quality than quantity of food. Even if people get enough to eat, they will become malnourished if the food does not provide the proper amounts of micronutrients - vitamins and minerals - to meet daily nutritional requirements. (WFP, 2007)

Each form of malnutrition depends on what nutrients are missing in the diet, for how long and at what age. The most basic kind is called protein energy malnutrition. It results from a diet lacking in energy and protein because of a deficit in all major macronutrients, such as carbohydrates, fats and proteins. Other forms of malnutrition are less visible - but no less deadly. They are usually the result of vitamin and mineral deficiencies (micronutrients), which can lead to anemia, scurvy, pellagra, beriberi and xerophthalmia and, ultimately, death. (WFP, 2007)

Deficiencies of iron, vitamin A and zinc are ranked among the World Health Organization's (WHO) top 10 leading causes of death through disease in developing countries:

- Iron deficiency is the most prevalent form of malnutrition worldwide, affecting billions of people.

Iron forms the molecules that carry oxygen in the blood, so symptoms of a deficiency include tiredness and lethargy. Lack of iron in large segments of the population severely damages a country's productivity. Iron deficiency also impedes cognitive development, affecting 40-60 percent of children aged 6-24 months in developing countries (Vitamin & Mineral Deficiency, a global damage assessment report, UNICEF).

- Vitamin A deficiency weakens the immune systems of a large proportion of under-fives in poor countries, increasing their vulnerability to disease. A deficiency in vitamin A, for example, increases the risk of dying from diarrhea, measles and malaria by 20-24 percent.

Affecting 140 million preschool children in 118 countries and more than seven million pregnant women, it is also a leading cause of child blindness across developing countries (UN Standing Committee on Nutrition's 5th Report on the World Nutrition Situation, 2005)

- Iodine deficiency affects 780 million people worldwide. The clearest symptom is a swelling of the thyroid gland called a goiter. But the most serious impact is on the brain, which cannot develop properly without iodine.

According to UN research, some 20 million children (Vitamin & Mineral Deficiency, a global damage assessment report, UNICEF) are born mentally impaired because their mothers did not consume enough iodine. The worst-hit suffer cretinism, associated with severe mental retardation and physical stunting.

- Zinc deficiency contributes to growth failure and weakened immunity in young children. It is linked to a higher risk of diarrhea and pneumonia, resulting in nearly 800,000 deaths per year.

1.4 Global Cost of Hunger

Hunger not only weighs heavily on the individual. It imposes a crushing economic burden on the developing world. Economists estimate that every child whose physical and mental development is stunted by hunger and malnutrition stands to lose five to 10 percent in lifetime earnings. Disability-adjusted years (DALYs) measure the number of years lost as a result both of premature death and of disabilities, adjusted for severity.

According to the 2004 FAO Food Insecurity Report, childhood and maternal under-nutrition cost an estimated 220 million DALYs in developing countries. When other nutrition-related risk factors are taken into account, the toll rises to 340 million DALYs -- equivalent to having a disaster kill or disable the entire population of a country larger than the United States. (WFP, 2007)

1.5 What is Food security?

Food security is a situation in which people do not live in hunger or fear of starvation. World-wide around 852 million men, women and children are chronically hungry due to extreme poverty; while up to 2 billion people lack food security intermittently due to varying degrees of poverty. (FAO, 2003)

A direct relationship exists between food consumption levels and poverty. Families with the financial resources to escape extreme poverty rarely suffer from chronic hunger; while poor families not only suffer the most from chronic hunger, but are also the segment of the population most at risk during food shortages and famines.

Two commonly used definitions of food security come from the UN's Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA):

- Food security exists when all people, at all times, have access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. (FAO, 2003)
- Food security for a household means access by all members at all times to enough food for an active, healthy life. Food security includes at a minimum (1) the ready availability of nutritionally adequate and safe foods, and (2) an assured ability to acquire acceptable foods in socially acceptable ways (that is, without resorting to emergency food supplies, scavenging, stealing, or other coping strategies)

The stages of food insecurity range from food secure situations to full-scale famine. "Famine and hunger are both rooted in food insecurity. Food insecurity can be categorized as either chronic or transitory. Chronic food insecurity translates into a high degree of vulnerability to famine and hunger; ensuring food security presupposes elimination of that vulnerability. [Chronic] hunger is not famine. It is similar to undernourishment and is related to poverty. [It exists] mainly in poor countries." Melaku Ayalew (<http://www.bradford.ac.uk/research/ijas/ijasno2/ayalew.html>, 1988)

1.6 What is food insecurity?

Food insecurity exists when people are undernourished as a result of the physical unavailability of food, their lack of social or economic access to adequate food, and/or inadequate food utilization. Food-insecure people are those individuals whose food intake falls below their minimum calorie (energy) requirements, as well as those who exhibit physical symptoms caused by energy and nutrient deficiencies resulting from an inadequate or unbalanced diet or from the body's inability to use food effectively because of infection or disease. An alternative view would define the concept of food insecurity as referring only to the consequence of inadequate consumption of nutritious food, considering the physiological utilization of food by the body as being within the domain of nutrition and health. (Food Insecurity and Vulnerability Information and Mapping Systems, 2007)

1.7 Dimensions of Food Security

Food insecurity is a complex phenomenon, attributable to a range of factors that vary in importance across regions, countries and social groups, as well as over time (see Figure). These factors can be grouped in four clusters representing the following four areas of potential vulnerability:

- The socio-economic and political environment;
- The performance of the food economy;
- Care practices;
- Health and sanitation.

(Food Insecurity and Vulnerability Information and Mapping Systems, 2007)

1.8 What is Household Food Security?

What is Household Food Security?

Food insecurity continues to threaten large proportions of households in low income countries. It is common among the absolute poor in middle income countries, and even in some rich countries. The problem is widespread, and is not confined to any one sector or group of nations. Even when hunger is avoided, families suffer from its threat. The entire society benefits when people feel their access to food is secure. (UNSO, 2007)

An operational definition of household food security is proposed as follows:-

A household is food secure when it has access to the food needed for a healthy life for all its members (adequate in terms of quality, quantity, safety and culturally acceptable), and when it is not at undue risk of losing such access.

Food insecurity, as a household-level issue, can be addressed by a wide range of alternative policies and combinations of policies and programs. Policies for food security should

aim at attaining required food consumption levels and reducing the risk of the poor losing access to food. Access to food and purchasing power are central, and both transitory (e.g. seasonal) and chronic food insecurity problems are of concern. (UNSO, 2007)

Adequate global and national level food supplies remain necessary but insufficient conditions for household food security. High levels of food self sufficiency in low income countries have no necessary relationship to their households' food security, which has to be addressed by specific policies. Households should be viewed in the context of their community, and not in isolation. Many of the problems considered below have an important community and local government dimension and cannot be addressed by the central government alone. (UNSO, 2007)

The nature and scale of the food security problem differs a great deal among and within countries, and also between urban and rural areas. Wise policy needs to take account of this, and therefore has to be country- and region-specific and problem-oriented. Food security cannot be achieved free of charge in terms of fiscal resources. Public capabilities for problem identification and policy design and implementation are required to help to find ways to eliminate the unacceptable human misery caused by food insecurity, or by extreme efforts that households may take to avert it. In addition to humanitarian considerations, food secure households are a precondition for a modernizing and healthy society whose members concern themselves with investment in a productive future (e.g. education) rather than scrambling for adequate food today. Governments have an obligation to enable families and communities to achieve long-term food security and to provide a safety net to prevent destitution. (UNSO, 2007)

Food is such a high priority for poor households that many may be tenuously "secure", but at great sacrifice - for example spending almost all their money or time on securing food. Thus not only must current food security itself be tackled, but also both the vulnerability and the disadvantages from enforced concentration on acquiring food, to the detriment of other needs like education or housing. Moreover increases in income even among the lowest income groups do not necessarily go entirely to increasing food energy intakes, but also towards better quality in terms of a more palatable and diversified diet. This represents an important aspiration not captured by dietary energy intakes alone, and is another objective of improved food security. (UNSO, 2007)

1.9 Setting for Action

A first step for improved food security that applies universally is to develop government and district-level capacity to assess, analyze, act, and evaluate actions relating to malnutrition in general and food security in particular. Community participation in this process is essential to successful capacity building at all levels, just as community mobilization must be a key feature of implementation. The ability to implement policies and monitor their effect is at least as important as the ability to design policies. Integrating all these activities into a continuous

process will help to ensure that initial mistakes in policy conception are corrected, and that adjustments are made as circumstances change. (UNSO, 2007)

The general development strategy of a country greatly influences the food security of its households. A development strategy supportive of sustainable agriculture and rapid growth in labor-intensive output will enhance food security. So too will a macro-economic strategy that builds upon stability to encourage growth. This type of management reduces economic insecurity caused by sudden large devaluations, drastic budget cuts, sharp curtailment of credit, and shortages of goods. These fluctuations hurt food security in the short- and long-run. (UNSO, 2007)

Household food security is substantially influenced by macro-economic adjustment policies. The situation typically preceding adjustment includes such factors as overvalued currency, price policies negatively affecting agriculture, inefficient market interventions and government expenditures; these tend to depress production and incomes (particularly rural), and reduce the access to food of the poor. However, adjustment programs, although necessary, usually lead to at least short-run insecurity especially among the urban poor and net consumers (wage-earners, landless) in rural areas. Reasons include increasing food prices, rising unemployment, and reduced budget allocations to social sectors. These should be cushioned by compensatory measures. Adjustment programs are aimed in the long-run to lead to sustainable development, which will benefit nutrition, and considerations discussed later for development strategies are relevant. (UNSO, 2007)

Support for sustainable agriculture implies fair prices for farm output and inputs, and concern with resource mining, and spill-over and dynamic biological effects of agricultural inputs. (More plainly, problems such as erosion, groundwater depletion, pollution from fertilizers and pesticides, and problems of pest resurgences are addressed.) Labor-intensive growth implies avoiding subsidies to capital via overvalued exchange rates, cheap credit, tax holidays, and low tariffs on capital goods; and also avoiding artificially high wages. Improvements in marketing, distribution, and agro-industries, as well as promoting the contribution of the private sector in job creation, all have important roles. Food safety and food quality must be assured by appropriate legislation, consumer protection and information. (UNSO, 2007)

Appropriate macro-economic management must recognize the lessons of the 1980s: growth and equity will be faster and smoother in a stable macro-economic environment. Avoiding large fiscal and current account deficits, high levels of inflation, rapid credit growth, or unchecked public enterprise losses will allow higher levels of productive investment, fewer recessions, and less unemployment. Arriving at a favorable macro-economic situation can be painful, but must be managed so as to allow food security for all families. (UNSO, 2007)

1.10 Measurement of Household Food Security

While the basic concept of household food security is clear, and an ideal measure of it is easy to describe, it is surprisingly difficult to gauge it in practice. This difficulty does not mean waiting for years of academic research. It does suggest that operational research and evaluation should be built into food security activities, so that confidence in the precision of actions will grow as the decade progresses. (UNSO, 2007)

An ideal measure of household food security includes the measurement of household food availability and average household food consumption levels over a period of time, in relation to need. For various reasons, this is all but impossible to achieve at a reasonable cost in a reasonable time period: there are problems with measuring both availability and consumption, and need itself. It is sufficiently difficult that it is best regarded as an ideal rather than practical measure. The proportion of available resources required for achieving food security may also be assessed; for example, households with adequate food security but spending almost all their income on food should clearly be distinguished from those only needing to spend a moderate proportion on food. This proportion is indicative of the stress on households' well-being, and reflects on their capacity to cope and indeed survive. (UNSO, 2007)

There are a number of other variables that might help to indicate trends, or serve as proxies for, food security. The best general indicator is probably real income, although still hard to assess; more fundamental measures, such as landlessness, should be included. Research is needed to see which groups of indirect indicators are best used under which conditions. In general, more weight has to be placed on indirect indicators where local government is weak and participation in the policy process is low; and also where investigative journalism is suppressed. Examples of potential indicators are changes in food production by region, changes in price ratios (e.g. crop/livestock or crop/wage price ratios), migration, assets; priority data from household surveys conducted for this specific purpose include; food consumption, the perceived risk of food insecurity, use of famine foods, and anthropometric measurements. (UNSO, 2007)

In relation to causality, none of these indicators are reliable on their own. All should be used in conjunction with other information. Emphasis should be on changes from normal levels, as many indicators will change for reasons unrelated to food security. For example, migration may rise in response to urban job opportunities, and weight-for-length indices may drop due to a rise in infectious disease. In general, careful analysis is needed before inferring changes in food security. However, there is often adequate data available or easily gathered to allow judgments about food security - lack of precise data is no excuse for inaction. (UNSO, 2007)

1.11 Scope of Options

The purpose of the policies discussed below is to improve household food security. This is done, in part, by having a social safety net. A government has an obligation to ensure food access for all, extending especially to women and children. But true security comes from raising

the level of production and earned income and improving asset ownership. If food prices are stabilized, and food availability assured, this will help families realize an acceptable minimum livelihood, food security, and adequate energy intakes. (UNSO, 2007)

As stressed above, appropriate policies can only be identified in a specific country context. The listing of major policy options for food security can therefore only be indicative of a government's choices. Conclusions regarding their impact and cost-effectiveness must remain at a very general level. A large body of research and experience exists for each policy and use of this will help guide decisions in specific contexts. Not every policy will fit every country, but most policies - if well applied - have the potential to improve food security in many countries. (UNSO, 2007)

A brief list follows. (UNSO, 2007)

i) Promotion of small-scale agricultural production remains central to food security in most poor countries, to provide food and income for those at risk. Agricultural growth for employment expansion and food supply is important because many of the food insecure live in rural areas and are directly or indirectly linked to agriculture. Sustainable technology improvements in agriculture can increase the productivity of labor without diminishing employment. There are potential gains in food, cash crops, and in livestock. Traditional food crops and collected foods must be given systematic attention. Central elements of this policy include research and extension linkages, drawing upon indigenous knowledge, and improved input supply.

ii) Income generating projects including livestock and non-farm activities will allow rural families to use time previously spent on low productivity work to switch to jobs with higher returns. Non-farm work generates incomes not closely connected to farm income, thus helping to stabilize household incomes. Income generation is equally or more important in urban areas, although often the investments may differ from those in rural areas - urban families are usually more reliant on purchased foods.

iii) The initiation of credit programs is one way to allow the rural poor access to loans, both for consumption and especially for production. Loans can make it possible for the poor to acquire assets, which both increase their income-earning capacity and provide buffers against disaster. Women should have equal legal and effective access to credit (see section D), as its availability allows higher incomes to be earned, and improves the resilience and flexibility of the household's income base. Lending to micro-enterprises using non-traditional and unregulated intermediaries has proved effective in reaching the poor; such schemes could now be expanded. (The success of credit programs for the poor does not in general hinge on an interest rate subsidy, so decisions on subsidy to credit can be made depending on local conditions.)

iv) Public investment in infrastructure will have a number of benefits. Labor intensive construction creates jobs. Better roads lower marketing costs, thereby allowing *both* better prices to farmers *and* lower consumer prices in cities. Roads also improve the flow of information and reduce the power of local monopolies. They allow the easier movement of labor out of low wage or drought-struck areas, and cheaper movement of

food into them. If irrigation and re-greening are investments, continued gains in employment and incomes can be enjoyed.

v) *Public stockpiling of food* has sometimes efficiently improved food security by assuring physical supplies and stabilizing prices. In general, however, if transport costs are low, stockpiling will not be the best way to ensure access to food. Use of futures markets and international trade would provide a cheaper alternative. If transport costs are high, national, regional, or even community stockpiling in excess of normal commercial stocks may be needed. If a nation's demand can raise the price of its imports, stockpiling may be needed, even with low transport costs.

vi) *Food price stabilization* can benefit farmers by allowing more confident investment in inputs, and consumers by reducing extreme fluctuations in real wages. This policy may sometimes involve driving a wedge between local and world prices, but these should not deviate too far from average world prices for too long.

vii) *Food price subsidy and rationing policies* are widely used. An important distinction is between *targeted subsidies* which are aimed mainly at households facing food insecurity and *general subsidies* aimed at most or all households. Targeting can be done by means-tested food stamps, ration books or coupons, by type of staple (e.g. cassava rather than rice), by geographic location of shops, or by restriction of the subsidy to certain groups, such as pregnant and lactating women and young children. Targeted subsidies face lower food costs, somewhat higher administrative costs, and, sometimes, a lack of widespread political support. General subsidies are very costly, popular, and hard to stop.

viii) *Public works for food security (including food-for-work)* continue to play an important role in Asia. Their potential in Africa appears to be increasing as there is rising population concentration, resource conservation opportunities, and infrastructure needs. If wages are set somewhat below normal levels, this intervention has the highly desirable feature of being self-targeting for the poor. Women are often attracted to these public works, although questions of child care, preferably near the place of work, should be addressed. The dual effects of short-term employment and long-term asset creation are described under infrastructure.

ix) *Free distribution of food to selected groups* is useful in emergency situations, such as famines or floods; and in chronic situations where poor pregnant and lactating mothers or underweight young children are at risk. *Supplementary feeding programs* are common in this category. These may be aimed at households, such as food-for-work (section viii above), or individuals such as school-children, preschoolers or mothers. They can be successful where the service infrastructure and budgetary resources are adequate for sustained application. The benefits go beyond correcting growth failure to include child health and development (e.g. immunity and activity, school feeding for educational performance), and they should be considered and assessed in these terms. This type of distribution should be limited to those who will clearly benefit from the food; food distribution to the *general* population is seldom a cost effective way to intervene to improve household food security.

x) *Food quality and safety control* are important to reduce food contamination from chemicals (e.g. pesticide residues), mycotoxins (e.g. aflatoxin) and bacteria, both during

storage and preparation (e.g. "street foods"). Attention to storage is important not only to prevent post-harvest losses but for reasons of palatability and acceptability. Certain foods need specific processing to be safe and acceptable (e.g. cassava, soya) and investments in this area can contribute to a safe and inexpensive food supply.

xi) Timely warning and intervention systems integrate local levels of data gathering, analysis and response. In some situations, this can prevent serious food security problems from developing, by increasing the availability of public works or subsidized food before real deprivation sets in. These systems require a fairly sophisticated local government which is not always available, but can be built up over time.

xii) Specific micronutrient programs should be considered among the options for improving household food security.

1.12 What is Community Food Security?

Community food security is a condition in which all community residents obtain a safe, culturally acceptable, nutritionally adequate diet through a sustainable food system that maximizes community self-reliance and social justice (Mike Hamm, Anne Bellows).

Community food security represents a comprehensive strategy to address many of the ills affecting our society and environment due to an unsustainable and unjust food system.

Following are six basic principles of community food security: (Community Food Security Coalition, 2007)

1. Low Income Food Needs Like the anti-hunger movement, CFS is focused on meeting the food needs of low income communities, reducing hunger and improving individual health.
2. Broad Goals CFS addresses a broad range of problems affecting the food system, community development, and the environment such as increasing poverty and hunger, disappearing farmland and family farms, inner city supermarket redlining, rural community disintegration, rampant suburban sprawl, and air and water pollution from unsustainable food production and distribution patterns.
3. Community focus A CFS approach seeks to build up a community's food resources to meet its own needs. These resources may include supermarkets, farmers' markets, gardens, transportation, community-based food processing ventures, and urban farms to name a few.
4. Self-reliance/empowerment Community food security projects emphasize the need to build individuals' abilities to provide for their food needs. Community food security seeks to build upon community and individual assets, rather than focus on their deficiencies. CFS projects seek to engage community residents in all phases of project planning, implementation, and evaluation.
5. Local agriculture. A stable local agricultural base is key to a community responsive food system. Farmers need increased access to markets that pay them a decent wage for

their labor, and farmland needs planning protection from suburban development. By building stronger ties between farmers and consumers, consumers gain a greater knowledge and appreciation for their food source.

6. Systems-oriented CFS projects typically are "inter-disciplinary," crossing many boundaries and incorporating collaborations with multiple agencies.

Demographic Information of Saint Cloud

2.1 Geographic Boundaries of Saint Cloud

Saint Cloud, Minnesota consists of three separate counties: Stearns County, Benton County, and Sherburne County. Saint Cloud is located just 60 miles northwest of the Twin Cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul. As the center of Minnesota's fastest growing metropolitan area, St. Cloud serves as a commercial hub for over 250,000 (2006 data) people.

2.2 Ethnic/Racial Diversity of the Saint Cloud Population

According to the National Census data of 2000, the Saint Cloud population equates to 167,392. The population percentages of ethnic/biracial groups are not representative of Saint Cloud. 95.3% of the Saint Cloud population consists of Non-Hispanic/White individuals. While 1.3% composes Hispanic, 1.1% Non-Hispanic/Black, and 1.8% Asian/Pacific Islander. According to these drastic percentages, the majority of Saint Cloud is composed of Non-Hispanic/White individuals. Over the past two decades, the population diversity has increased at a significant rate. In 1980-1990, the Hispanic population tripled by the year 2000. In 1980-1990 the percentage increased 38.8%, and by 1990-2000, it rose to 227.8%. In a similar context, the Asian/Pacific Islander population has also tripled in numbers over the past two decades (See Appendix B), while the Non-Hispanic/Black population has doubled (See Appendix B).

2.3 Socioeconomic Status of the Saint Cloud Population

According to the National Census data of 2000 (in 2006 inflation-adjusted dollars), the median household earned \$38,351.00. While the mean household income equated to \$51,024.00. Over 8,000 individuals are below the poverty line (below \$24,999.00). After evaluating the data, we are unable to adequately define a supporting income. The data was collected and calculated as a household income without specific definition of household composition. Another issue that was problematic in the data involved the income levels and their calculations. The data did not specify what income level was considered adequate and who it sustained. As a whole we are unable to determine the adequacy of these income levels due to these inconsistencies.

Food Sources of Saint Cloud

3.1 Available Resources of Community Food Sources

We have surveyed the grocery stores, community gardens, farmer's markets, food shelves, soup kitchens and food delivery services in Saint Cloud and found that they are not well

dispersed throughout the community. Saint Cloud's food sources seem to be concentrated in the southwest portion of the city. In fact, the only grocery stores in downtown Saint Cloud are Mediterranean Restaurant & Grocery and Mn Hala Meat & Grocery, two ethnic food stores that do not offer an extensive variety of foods to choose from.

3.2 Evaluation of Community Resources

Upon surveying Saint Cloud's food shelves/soup kitchens, we found that there are minimal resources available for a city of Saint Cloud's large size. The food shelves/soup kitchens available to Saint Cloud residents include Salvation Army Food Shelf/Soup Kitchen, Caritas Family Services, Catholic Charities, The Dream Center, Place of Hope and Good News Food Shelf. All of these except for Good News Food Shelf are located on the northeast side of town. The Good News Food Shelf is instead located inside the Good News Assembly of God church on the south end. However, there are many more places of business that will open up their doors and offer food relief to the community during the Thanksgiving and Christmas holidays.

Food Agencies/Stakeholders of Saint Cloud

4.1 Available Resources of Community Agencies

Throughout the city of Saint Cloud, community partners and non-profit organizations provide subsistence support for the community. Organizations, such as the United Way, has provided a directory for individuals seeking need. As a whole, the directory provides agencies, contact information, intake procedures, and eligibility status of local organizations that provide assistance. The organizations vary according to their procedures, qualifications, and cost.

4.2 County Assistance and Food Aid

Saint Cloud consists of three separate counties: Stearns County, Benton County, and Sherburne County. Each county provides similar services, but they also utilize different qualification levels and intake procedures. The county services offered include, General assistance, which entails food and shelter assistance, Women, Infants, and Children (WIC), and Emergency AID. As a whole, each county requires specific background information, such as three forms of I.D. (Social Security Card, State I.D. Card, and Birth Certificate), income levels, and work status/history. In order for an individual to seek aid, they are required to provide this information and fill out the necessary paperwork that accommodates the specific program they are applying to. One issue that may hinder individuals from seeking county assistance is their strict eligibility specifications. If an individual is unable to provide all three forms of identification, they will not be allowed to apply or seek aid from the county. This may be a problem for any individual who may not be able to access such documents or who has not attained a social security card or state identification card.

4.3 Non-profit Assistance and Food Aid

The majority of agencies that are providing food or general assistance to individuals seeking aid are non-profit, non-governmental organizations. Churches, Community partners, such as Dream Center, Salvation Army, United Way, and Whitney Community Center, and locally funded organizations provide a variety of services for individuals in the community. Each organization has their specific intake process, eligibility, and costs (incurred for seeking individuals). Many of the agencies/programs are funded through grants, donations (private donors), or other supporting non-profit foundations. Some community services require fees, such as Metro Bus and Whitney Community Center. Although these non-profit organizations are more accommodating than the community services, they also require specific qualifications and limited assistance. Agencies such as the Salvation Army food shelf requires individuals to provide identification along with an income level in order to receive goods from their food shelf. In addition, families are only allowed to seek service within a limited time frame of thirty days. Agencies have developed a system to determine an adequate food supply for each person seeking food assistance. Therefore, individuals are unable to attest this system because of the pigeonhole calculations.

4.4 Evaluation of Community Agencies/Stakeholders

The issues surrounding the process qualifications, funding, and disbursement of agencies should be of concern to current and future policy makers/breakers of Saint Cloud. As central figures, they should hold a sincere interest in the welfare of the community. In order to hold this sincerity, policy-makers should involve themselves in the advancement of community projects that attempt to improve the quality of life for all individuals. The current system has policies in place that restrict the ability/mobility of individuals to seek the necessary aid for a better quality of life.

Appendix A: Operational Definitions

Websites:

<http://www.wfp.org>

<http://www.foodsecurity.org>

<http://www.fivims.net/static>

<http://www.unsystem.org>

Source: UN World Food Program, 2007

World Food Program. What is Hunger? <http://www.wfp.org/aboutwfp/introduction/hunger> November, 2007.

Source: Community Food Security Coalition

Community Food Security Coalition. What is Community Food Security?

http://www.foodsecurity.org/views_cfs_faq.html November, 2007.

Food Insecurity and Vulnerability Information and Mapping Systems. What is Food Insecurity?

<http://www.fivims.net/static.jsp?lang=en&page=overview> November, 2007

United Nations System of Organizations. Household Food Security.

<http://www.unsystem.org/scn/archives/scnnews07supplement/ch2.htm> November, 2007.

Appendix B: Demographic Information

Websites:

<http://diversitydata.sph.harvard.edu/>

<http://factfinder.census.gov/servlet/>

POPULATION DEMOGRAPHICS AND DIVERSITY: Total Population

	1980	1990	2000
Metro Area	133,348	148,976	167,392

Definition: The total population of the metro area.

Source: "Racial and Ethnic Residential Segregation in the United States: 1980-2000," U.S. Census Bureau, Series CENSR-3.

POPULATION DEMOGRAPHICS AND DIVERSITY: Total Population by Race/Ethnicity

	1980	1990	2000
Non-Hispanic White	131,668	146,455	159,532
Hispanic	469	651	2,134
Non-Hispanic Black	187	469	1,775
Asian/Pacific Islander	515	967	3,012

Definition: The total population of the metro area.

Notes: Non-Hispanic black and Asian/Pacific Islander groups include people who identified themselves as those races "alone" or those races "in combination with other races."

Source: "Racial and Ethnic Residential Segregation in the United States: 1980-

2000," U.S. Census Bureau, Series CENSR-3, and 2000 Census, Summary File

POPULATION DEMOGRAPHICS AND DIVERSITY: Percent Change in Population by Race/Ethnicity

	1980-1990	1990-2000
Non-Hispanic White	11.2%	8.9%
Hispanic	38.8%	227.8%
Non-Hispanic Black	150.8%	278.5%
Asian/Pacific Islander	87.8%	211.5%

Definition: The percent change in the population.

Notes: In 2000, non-Hispanic black and Asian/Pacific Islander groups include people who identified themselves as those races "alone" or those races "in combination with other races."

Source: "Racial and Ethnic Residential Segregation in the United States: 1980-2000," U.S. Census Bureau, Series CENSR-3.

POPULATION DEMOGRAPHICS AND DIVERSITY: Population Composition by Race/Ethnicity

	1980	1990	2000
Non-Hispanic White	98.8%	98.3%	95.3%
Hispanic	0.4%	0.4%	1.3%
Non-Hispanic Black	0.1%	0.3%	1.1%
Asian/Pacific Islander	0.4%	0.6%	1.8%

Definition: Each racial/ethnic group's share of the total U.S. population.

Notes: In 2000, non-Hispanic black and Asian/Pacific Islander groups include people who

identified themselves as those races "alone" or those races "in combination with other races."

Source: "Racial and Ethnic Residential Segregation in the United States: 1980-2000," U.S. Census Bureau, Series CENSR-3, and 2000 Census, Summary File 1.

POPULATION DEMOGRAPHICS AND DIVERSITY: Share of Population Under 18 by Race/Ethnicity, 2000

	Metro Area
Hispanic	35.0%
Non-Hispanic White	27.0%
Non-Hispanic Black	36.6%
Non-Hispanic Asian	24.4%

Definition: The Share of the Population that is Under Age 18

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2000 Census, Summary File 2.

POPULATION DEMOGRAPHICS AND DIVERSITY: Share of Population Age 65 or Older by Race/Ethnicity, 2000

	Metro Area
Hispanic	2.6%
Non-Hispanic White	10.9%
Non-Hispanic Black	1.6%
Non-Hispanic Asian	2.5%

Definition: The Share of the Population that is Age 65 or Older

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2000 Census, Summary File 2.

POPULATION DEMOGRAPHICS AND DIVERSITY: Household Composition by Race/Ethnicity and Family Type, 2000

	One person household	Married couple with own children	Married couple with no own children	Single parent with own children
Hispanic	16.7%	31.8%	11.4%	17.6%
Non-Hispanic Asian	24.9%	21.0%	14.4%	10.5%
Non-Hispanic Black	32.9%	15.0%	6.7%	24.9%
Non-Hispanic White	24.1%	27.9%	28.3%	7.0%

Definition: The share of households with household head of the specified race that are made up of households with the specified composition.

Notes: "Children" defined as those under age 18.

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2000 Census, Summary File 2.

POPULATION DEMOGRAPHICS AND DIVERSITY: Proportion of the population that is foreign born: 2000 by Race/Ethnicity, 2000

	Metro Area
Asian	81.9%
Black	17.8%
Hispanic	39.6%
Non-Hispanic White	0.5%

Definition: Proportion of the population that is foreign born

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2000 Census, Summary File 3.

**POPULATION DEMOGRAPHICS AND DIVERSITY: Non-English
Language Spoken at Home by Race/Ethnicity, 2000**

	Metro Area
Hispanic	64.6%
Non-Hispanic White	4.1%
Non-Hispanic Black	19.0%
Non-Hispanic Asian	81.6%

Definition: The share of the population age 5+ that speaks a language other than English at home.

Appendix C: Organizations/Agencies

Websites:

City of Saint Cloud

<http://www.ci.stcloud.mn.us/> [City Council Members, Maps, and Agencies]

Metro Bus Services

<http://www.stcloudmtc.com/>

Catholic Charities

Services for the Aging, and Meals on Wheels

www.ccstcloud.org

Dream Center of Saint Cloud

www.dreamcenterstcloudmn.org

Kimball Food Shelf

<http://www.stearnselectric.org/NewsReleases/roundupapril.htm>

Place of Hope Ministries

www.placeofhopeministries.org

Saint Cloud Good News Assembly of God

<http://www.goodnewsaofg.org>

Home Delivered Meals

<http://www.centracare.com>

Saint Cloud Meals-Whitney Senior Center

<http://ci.stcloud.mn.us/CommSvcs/Whitney/Default.aspx>

Salvation Army

www.thesalarmy.com

[Emergency Assistance, Emergency Shelter, Food Shelf and Community Lunch Program, Holiday and Seasonal Programs, and WIC(supplemental nutrition program for women, and children)]

Stearns County Human Services

www.co.stearns.mn.us [Food Support Program, and FSET]

Benton County Human Services

www.co.benton.mn.us

Sherburne County Human Services

www.co.sherburne.mn.us

United Way of Caring Rivers

www.unitedwayhelps.org [United Way 2-1-1]

Appendix D: Food Sources

Community Gardens

Augusta Creek Orchard

St. Cloud, MN
320-252-4315

Saint Cloud State Community Garden

Fifth Avenue S.
Saint Cloud, MN 56301

Quarry Creel Nursery

St. Cloud, MN
320-229-2155

Farmers Markets

Local Harvest St. Cloud Area Farmers Market

May-October (Saturdays 8am-Noon)
Bremer Bank Parking Lot
12th and Division, St. Cloud

Food delivery services

Home Delivered Meals

St. Cloud Hospital
1406 6th Ave N., St. Cloud, MN 56303

Senior Dining/Meals on Wheels

157 Roosevelt Rd., St. Cloud, MN 56301

Short Stop Custom Catering

3701 3rd St N
Saint Cloud, MN 56303

Grocery stores

Apperts Foodservice

900 Highway 10 S
Saint Cloud, MN 56304

Byerlys

2510 W Division St
Saint Cloud, MN 56301

Byerlys

2550 W Division St
Saint Cloud, MN 56301

Coborns

900 Cooper Ave S
Saint Cloud, MN 56301

Coborns

2118 Veterans Dr
Saint Cloud, MN 56303

Coborns

2118 8th St N
Saint Cloud, MN 56303

Cub Foods

250 33rd Ave S
Saint Cloud, MN 56301

Cub Foods

1001 4th St Se
Saint Cloud, MN 56304

Emily Super Market

Saint Cloud, MN 56301

Erkens Water

Saint Cloud, MN 56303

Finkens Water Centers

Saint Cloud, MN 56301

Good Earth Food Co-op

2010 8th St. N
St. Cloud, MN. 56301
320-253-9290

Las Monarcas Market

27 Claroma St
Saint Cloud, MN 56301

Mediterranean Restaurant & Grocery

815 W Saint Germain St
Saint Cloud, MN 56301

Mn Hala Meat & Grocery

205 E Saint Germain St
Saint Cloud, MN 56304

Oriental Foods

2106 8th St N
Saint Cloud, MN 56303

St Cloud Meat & Grocery Store

1503 1st St S
Saint Cloud, MN 56301

Target

125 Lincoln Ave Se
Saint Cloud, MN 56304

4201 W Division St
Saint Cloud, MN 56301

Thirtythird Meat & Grocery

710 33rd Ave N
Saint Cloud, MN 56303

Viet Tien Market

3409 3rd St N
Saint Cloud, MN 56303

Wal-Mart

380 33rd Ave S
Saint Cloud, MN 56301

Soup Kitchens/Food ShelvesSalvation Army Food Shelf/Soup Kitchen

223 E. St. Germain, St. Cloud, MN 56304

Caritas Family Services

Emergency Services: Food
157 Roosevelt Road, Suite 100
St. Cloud, MN 56301

Salvation Army Emergency Shelter

619 E. St. Germain, St. Cloud, MN 56304

