Mapping SUN Movement Networks in 17 fragile and conflict-affected states: A snapshot of developments and progress

This report was funded by UK aid from the UK Government. The ideas, opinions and comments herein are entirely the responsibility of its author(s) and do not necessarily represent or reflect UK Government policy.
Background

Founded in 2011, the Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) Movement is a unique movement focused on strengthening political commitments to nutrition and improving accountability for those commitments. The Movement is made up of voluntary membership of SUN countries, Networks and supporters. The Movement has a global Secretariat hosted by the United Nations Office for Project Services, which describes itself as belonging to “all those who support [the Movement]”.

The SUN Networks are a unique element of the Movement’s approach. They are part of both the global and country-level architecture of SUN and are described in the strategic document *The SUN Road Map 2016-2020* as “a collection of national movements led by governments committed to scaling up nutrition impact and results, along with partners aligned to support their goals” (2016).

In every country that voluntarily signs up to join the SUN Movement, a government-appointed SUN Focal Point (FP) is assigned responsibility for leading the Movement in the country. SUN FPs are the lynchpins in the SUN architecture, responsible for linking their country to the broader global Movement. In addition, they are responsible for bringing together both different sectors within government to ensure that nutrition is on the agenda of all relevant ministries, and different types of stakeholders. There are four key stakeholder groups which are encouraged to align behind the SUN agenda at country level and support the SUN FP: civil society, UN, donors and the private sector. These groups represent the four formal SUN Networks. In the SUN approach, each Network is established and appoints a convener who brings together stakeholders interested in nutrition within their own group, as well as bringing the voice of the group to multi-stakeholder platforms involving all other Networks under the leadership of the SUN FP. In addition to this country-level SUN Network architecture, each of the four formal SUN Networks has a global convener or secretariat, mirroring the global presence of the SUN Movement Secretariat. In addition to four formal Networks, informal SUN Networks have arisen in several SUN countries, including academic, media and parliamentarian networks. Where these exist they are often linked to or supported by formal Networks.

While this is the ideal model of the SUN country Network architecture, in practice the SUN Movement has taken root in diverse contexts and institutional arrangements, so it can look very different in any given country.

The presence and activity of SUN Networks is seen as an important measure of establishing an enabling environment for nutrition at country level. The importance of the SUN Networks was reflected in the 2015 Independent Comprehensive Evaluation (ICE) report, which noted that, while tangible results are not always immediately apparent, the Networks have been instrumental in revitalising many debates critical to scaling

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**Figure 1: Model of the SUN Movement at country level and support role of the Networks**

- **Civil Society Network (CSN)**
- **SUN Donor Network (SDN)**
- **SUN Business Network (SBN)**
- **United Nations Network (UNN)**

SUN Movement Coordinator, Lead Group and Executive Committee and Multi-stakeholder Working Groups (MWG) facilitated by the SUN Movement Secretariat
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up nutrition, and that respondents who identified themselves as being regularly involved with country Networks “saw them as useful for information sharing, increasing or sustaining momentum behind SUN processes in country, and convening like-minded stakeholders.”

The status of Networks is measured on an ongoing basis through the SUN monitoring, evaluation accountability and learning (MEAL) system, and used as a proxy indicator for the institutional embedding of nutrition in a country. Countries with less established or less active Networks are rated lower for their enabling environment through this MEAL framework. It is important to note that the source of information on Network status in the MEAL is the self-reporting by SUN Networks in the annual Joint Assessment (JA) exercise.

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<tr>
<th>Network</th>
<th>Global host institution</th>
<th>Network aims</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUN Business Network (SBN)</td>
<td>GAIN &amp; WFP</td>
<td>The SBN focuses on mobilising business to invest and innovate to support nutrition aims. It provides a neutral platform to develop and strengthen partnerships and collaboration between business and all actors working towards nutrition improvement and to support SUN country plans.</td>
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<tr>
<td>SUN Civil Society Network (CSN)</td>
<td>Save the Children International</td>
<td>The SUN CSN aims to support the formation and operation of a strong and influential civil society. It is made up of national and international organisations working in various fields, including women’s empowerment, humanitarian aid, trade unions and many others.</td>
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<tr>
<td>SUN Donor Network (SDN)</td>
<td>Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) and Department for International Development (DFID)</td>
<td>The SDN aims to ensure political commitment for nutrition advocacy for country access to more and better financing for nutrition, at all levels. The SDN is also committed to tracking donor spending on nutrition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUN UN Network (UNN)</td>
<td>UN Reach</td>
<td>The UN Network brings together all United Nations agencies working in nutrition to support SUN countries. It aims to elevate nutrition dialogue and leverage the collective strengths of the UN agencies in order to enhance innovations, find efficiencies and support complementarity across agencies and with government and SUN Networks.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Displaced children and family members in Rakhine, Myanmar
The UN Network in DRC was initially set up in 2012 and brought together eight UN agencies (FAO, WHO, WFP, UNFPA, UNICEF, UNOPS, UNDP and UNHCR) who were working on nutrition at the time. It initially aimed to develop a joint multi-sector strategy on nutrition in the most vulnerable regions of the country. In 2013, when DRC joined the SUN Movement, the UN Network was formalised, consisting of five UN agencies (FAO, WHO, WFP, UNFPA, and UNICEF). ToR for the Network were developed which outlined coordination on two levels: a technical level between nutrition staff at the various agencies and at a higher level, between head of agencies through regular meetings focusing on decision-making. At the time, funding was also received to conduct joint programming between three UN agencies in South Kivu on nutrition, a project that remains in place to this day.

A second phase of the Network began in 2016, when a strategic retreat was held with support from the REACH Secretariat/UN Network. During the retreat, participants discussed the role of the UN agencies in relation to nutrition and, in particular, their added value as individual agencies as well as a Network. During the retreat the UN Secretariat gave examples of what had worked in other countries, and activities conducted in Mozambique and Bangladesh were contextualised for the DRC context. The retreat also enabled the finalisation of a Road Map which was aligned to the UN Network for SUN Strategy and a revised ToR for more dynamic functioning of the UN Network. The Road Map aimed at increasing the coherence of actions and supporting joint planning around nutrition.

A Nutrition Inventory exercise was conducted which mapped out UN nutrition interventions in the country. In places where more than one agency was present, the UN Network group examined complementarity, gaps, opportunities for improved collaboration and optimisation of delivery mechanisms, and explored alignment in relation to advocacy and communications. This invigorated the heads of agencies as it enabled strategic planning and was seen as a useful tool by the government as it provided visibility on nutrition programming beyond the work of the Cluster in the country.

Another activity conducted by the Network was the development of a common narrative for nutrition. While this took time, the result of having one voice, one message and one vision for the country was very powerful. The common narrative was endorsed by the UN agencies, donors, the Ministry of Health and NGOs working within the Nutrition Cluster. Having a common narrative further enabled joint proposals between the UN agencies to be developed. Other activities conducted by the UN Network included conducting a policy review, conducting a nutrition stakeholder and action-mapping exercise, and supporting provincial nutrition committees and the development of three provincial nutrition plans. Furthermore, as noted previously, work on joint programming continued, involving the nutrition, health, agriculture and WASH sectors, and was scaled up.

Many factors have facilitated the success of the UN Network in the DRC. These include: ensuring that all actors understand the need for nutrition to have a multi-sector focus, having a good facilitation process and strong technical people at all levels, and giving consideration to funding to avoid nutrition actors needing to compete with one another, rather than work together.
Network Mapping Methodology

This paper summarises findings from work carried out by ENN in 2018 to document the presence, make-up and activities of SUN country Networks in 17 SUN countries categorised as fragile and conflict-affected states (FCAS). ENN supports these countries through its Department for International Development (DFID)-funded Technical Assistance for Nutrition (TAN) work. Part of the support that DFID provides to the SUN Movement, the TAN programme facilitates and funds demand-driven Knowledge Management (KM) and Technical Assistance (TA) services to SUN countries. Under this programme ENN supports learning and knowledge-sharing, broadly defined as KM. These SUN countries face unique challenges to institutionalising and scaling up nutrition. ENN prioritised these 17 countries to provide close support and track progress and achievements in the current strategic period. ENN works through a team of three embedded regional KM specialists (RKMS), who are based in regional hubs in West Africa, East Africa and South Asia, who work closely with key informants in their respective focus countries. 

ENN developed a framework with key themes and questions (see Annex 1) as a guide to mapping and documenting SUN Network presence and activity in each of the 17 countries. The RKMS then documented what they already knew about the Networks, based on their ongoing contact with Network informants in their focus countries and from reports of previous visits to them. Following this, drafts of the status of Networks were sent to country contacts to check, add missing information and update details where necessary. Contacts were either interviewed in person or responded by email. In total, 59 contacts were interviewed face-to-face and 30 contacts were contacted through email.

In most countries, where Networks were well established, the Network convenor was able to share information on the status of the country Networks with the RKMS team directly; information on 26 Networks was obtained in this manner. However, in many cases, the people with the most up-to-date information were former convenors, members of a Network, or simply a stakeholder in country who was well informed and able to provide the most up-to-date information. In total, the RKMS spoke to 89 people across the 17 countries. ENN used a snowballing technique to identify additional relevant key informants as it proceeded. It was difficult to get information about Networks that were not currently active, or who were in a transition period without a convenor. In these cases, the team made several follow-up attempts and attempted to triangulate information received from other sources. In Indonesia, for example, evidence on the SBN was gathered from the WFP Nutrition Specialist who supported the SBN. In Pakistan information on the SDN was collated by information from other stakeholders, and in Yemen WFP contacts provided details on the progress of the UN Network. In total, information on 10 Networks was not provided by those within the Network directly. Furthermore, it was concluded that in six cases where no information could be obtained, these Networks were not in operation.

During interviews, informants were also asked for broader reflections on Network successes and challenges, which were documented and captured within the discussion and findings section. In addition to producing information on the functionality of the Networks in 17 SUN countries, this exercise allowed ENN to identify ‘good practice’ examples of specific Networks that have made significant achievements to date. Six Networks in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Kenya, Pakistan, Senegal and Myanmar were identified and the convenors were asked to conduct a phone interview to obtain more in-depth information on their achievements. These were written up as longer case examples and are included in this paper.

It is important to note that this paper gives a partial view of Network activity and progress, as it looks at a unique subset of SUN FCAS countries. Furthermore, the findings summarise the status of the Networks at one particular point in time. Many Networks seem to experience flux with changes in momentum and activity levels, depending on what is happening in the country, the stage of government policy and planning cycle, and other factors; therefore this summary provides an important ‘snapshot’ of the Networks in FCAS, rather than capturing the full history of the Networks. Despite these limitations, rich insights have been gained which can offer supplementary information to the SUN MEAL system on Network progress and actions.

1 West Africa: DRC, Senegal, Niger, Nigeria, Chad, Mali; East Africa: Somalia, Sudan, South Sudan, Kenya, Ethiopia, Yemen; Asia: Nepal, Myanmar, Pakistan, Indonesia, Bangladesh, India.
2 India was not included in this work as it does not have formal SUN Networks. The country is not a SUN signatory, but three individual Indian states are members of SUN.
Network-Mapping findings

The information collected by the team was tabulated and analysed, allowing the team to identify patterns and trends across Networks in the 17 countries. Based on this analysis, three key criteria emerged to help categorise the Networks in each country:

1. Was there a Network convenor currently in place?
2. Was there a membership base of different organisations in the Network?
3. Is the Network currently active? (i.e. informants said recent or recurrent meetings or engagements had taken place, work was taking place against a shared workplan, a current budget was in place to cover meetings and/or activities.)

The third criterion was the hardest to apply. Networks were currently considered “active” if informants said that recent or recurrent meetings or engagements had taken place and that the Network currently had members. The only exception to this – where a Network was tagged as “active” despite not having any members – was where the Network was new and meetings and activities were taking place to establish the Network but members had yet to formally join.

Other criteria considered in the analysis were whether a Network:
- a. Was working based on a shared workplan,
- b. Had a budget in place to cover meetings or activities,
- c. A Terms of Reference (ToR) was in place, and
- d. Had a formal election process for the leadership of the Network.

These criteria relate to how well established the Networks are and how evolved their systems are; however, this information was not always available or was sometimes historic (i.e. a ToR or budget was available but it covered a previous period of time), so these criteria were not used to classify Networks. Some informants shared work plans, ToRs or minutes from meetings, which the team used to triangulate the information shared during conversations and understand the Network activities at a more granular level.

Thirteen of the Networks that have been mapped as ‘SUN Networks’ predated the SUN Movement and, while these interact with the formal SUN Movement, they often have agendas beyond the scope of the SUN Movement. In Chad, for example, the SBN was set up within the Chamber of Commerce prior to the SUN Movement and placed far more emphasis on agricultural business. Some of these pre-SUN Networks have adopted the SUN agenda in their strategic objectives, while others consider themselves separate from the Movement but participate in some SUN or multi-stakeholder activities. In some cases, the Nutrition Cluster or other humanitarian coordination bodies have been facilitating coordination between stakeholders, so ‘SUN Networks’ are in effect an extension of what the Networks were already doing. An example of this can be seen in South Sudan, where the Civil Society Alliance (CSA) emerged from the work of the Nutrition Cluster.

As shown in Table 1, ‘Country breakdown of each SUN Network’, which maps the Networks by the three criteria defined above, few Networks met all three criteria at the time of the mapping. Out of 68 potential SUN Networks in the 17 countries (four Networks in each), 26 met all three criteria, but in no country did all four Networks meet all three of these criteria.

The most widely present Network was the Civil Society Network, with a majority of countries having a CSA Network (16/17). Among these, almost all had a convenor in place (15/16). It is more difficult to quantify the UNN and SDN categories as there are several combined UNN/Donor Networks (four) in this sample of 17 countries. FCAS countries may be more likely to have combined donor and UN Networks due to existing coordination structures that have formed as a result of humanitarian programming. These findings would need to be compared to Network patterns in non-FCAS countries to determine whether this is the case.

Twelve out of 16 of the CSA Networks met all three criteria at the time of this mapping, compared to five out of nine SBNs, ten out of 12 UNNs, and four out of seven SDNs (the only SDNs that met these criteria were joint SDN/UNNs). This suggests that standalone SDN Networks are not yet well established in these countries. As shown in Table 1, there are also 11 Networks that have a convenor in place but no ‘network’ to speak of or membership. In these cases, informants said that the convenor participated in multi-stakeholder platforms or processes in country, either as an individual or representing their agency.

These findings also mirror some of those recorded in the ICE report, for example:
- "A lot of work has been done to establish the CSN as a broad and functioning Network. While the achievements of CSNs vary from country to country, a few are already having a significant influence on national policies and plans.”
- "Many countries have chosen to adopt (or continue with) arrangements that blur the boundaries between Networks (most commonly in terms of a combined UN/donor network group)."
- "There are few substantive SUN business Networks in operation at national level so far, although the idea is under discussion – with varying levels of conviction – in many member countries.”
# Table 1: Country Breakdown of each SUN Network

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<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>CSA</th>
<th>SBN</th>
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<tr>
<td>East Africa</td>
<td>South Sudan</td>
<td>Convenor ✓</td>
<td>Members ✓</td>
<td>Active? Yes - concrete signs of progress and/or formal and functional structures</td>
<td>No network</td>
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<tr>
<td>East Africa</td>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>Convenor ✓</td>
<td>Members X</td>
<td>Active? Yes - some activity/starting up, no sign of significant activity/progress</td>
<td>Convenor ✓</td>
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<td>East Africa</td>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>Convenor ✓</td>
<td>Members ✓</td>
<td>Active? Yes - some activity/starting up, no sign of significant activity/progress</td>
<td>No network</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>Convenor ✓</td>
<td>Members ✓</td>
<td>Active? Yes - concrete signs of progress and/or formal and functional structures</td>
<td>Convenor X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Convenor ✓</td>
<td>Members ✓</td>
<td>Active? Yes - strategy development exercise being conducted at time of mapping</td>
<td>Convenor ✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>Convenor ✓</td>
<td>Members ✓</td>
<td>Active? Renewed activity recently</td>
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<td>Asia</td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
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<td>Members ✓</td>
<td>Active? Yes - concrete signs of progress and/or formal and functional structures</td>
<td>No network</td>
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<td>Asia</td>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Convenor ✓</td>
<td>Members ✓</td>
<td>Active? Yes - concrete signs of progress and/or formal and functional structures</td>
<td>No network</td>
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Kenya joined the SUN Movement in 2012. Three years later, the CSA Network was operationalised through funding provided by UNICEF. The CSA quickly identified its first focus activity around media engagement. It was noted that previous droughts and famines in the country were misreported and inaccuracies highlighted that journalists did not understand basic nutrition terms and approaches. A training was therefore organised in Nairobi to sensitise journalists on key nutrition concepts. As the CSA had also established chapters in other counties, this training was also rolled out in these counties. At the time of the Nairobi training, Kilifi county did not have a CSA chapter but was identified as one of the counties that had great potential because the media there was already engaging with the health sector and had an established association. Following the national workshop, a two-day workshop was held in Kilifi with support from UNICEF, World Vision International and Self Help Africa. The workshop covered topics such as definitions of nutrition concepts (including wasting, stunting, etc.), why nutrition is important, the meanings of terms such as famine, and the media’s role in nutrition-related interventions. In total, around 30 journalists from radio, television and print media outlets attended the training. This built on previous advocacy work on supporting health programmes in the county, but also provided a unique opportunity to bring together government health staff and journalists so that they could establish strong working relationships with one another. The CSA quickly realised that this should not be a one-off training but that continual engagement was needed. The already established Science Journalists Association in Kilifi was instrumental in ensuring continued engagement and invited government health actors to their regular meetings. The county health officers continue to this day to engage regularly with this forum, giving them information on any changes to nutrition and health statuses or interventions in the county.

In 2016/2017, when the threat of drought rose again in Kilifi and assessments suggested an impending nutritional crisis, it was the journalists working on the ground who rang the alarm bell and, using the knowledge that they had acquired on nutrition, pushed the government to declare the situation an emergency. They played a key role in holding the government accountable and, as a result of ensuring early warnings were sounded, Kilifi was the first county in the country to get emergency funding from ECHO to respond to the nutritional crisis, even before other affected areas like Wajir, Turkana and Marsabit. Having an understanding of malnutrition, the journalists were able to provide richer and more technically sound reporting on the situation.

As a result of these successes, the SUN CSA has become a major driver of operationalising the desire to work with media on nutrition by the government and partners. As Janet Ntwiga, SUN officer put it, “The SUN Network adds the fuel to make things possible.” Advocacy and sensitisation of journalists has been rolled out in most counties now, even in places were SUN chapters do not yet exist. The SUN CSA has learnt many lessons through this work, including: the importance of having advocacy training for nutrition staff to enable them to talk more informatively about nutrition to complement the media-sensitisation training; ensuring that key decision-makers in the media sphere attend the training, rather than sending very junior staff with limited influencing power; ensuring that the timing of trainings enable key decision-makers to attend; developing mechanisms for accountability on inaccurate reporting; and utilising different training mechanisms for sensitisation at a national and sub-national level (a key observation in Kenya was that there were very different dynamics at national level compared to the local level, where journalists were ‘closer to the action’ and already well aware of the issues facing affected communities).
Broader findings, discussion and recommendations

This section combines the broader reflections that were shared by the Network informants and takes account of the Network-mapping findings to summarise the overall findings and make recommendations for strengthening the Networks in FCAS.

Finding 1: Importance of government in enabling and including networks

When governments played an active role in supporting Networks, there were more visible signs of Network success and engagement. This reflects the ICE report, which noted that “Country-level ownership and leadership are the single most important determinants of success.” However, seven Network informants said that the level of effort of their Network has not been matched by a corresponding level of effort by SUN government counterparts, and that this had limited or slowed down overall SUN progress in the country. This resulted in a loss of momentum for Networks, including those that had been active in previous years but whose level of effort has diminished. Several informants said Networks were not always given a seat at the table in important national discussions or consulted during planning and decision-making, and that the SUN FP lacked accountability to the Networks. Participants noted that the SUN FP can, at times, impact negatively on the potential success of Networks. In particular, informants from Civil Society Networks felt that they could be easily marginalised by government and their ability to wield influence depended on the willingness of the government to engage with them.

Recommendation: There must be a mechanism for Focal Point accountability to the Networks

Country-level ownership and buy-in are essential for success of the Networks. The ability of Networks to have an impact and to be included in important activities and decisions is dependent on the willingness of governments to collaborate and show goodwill and openness towards the Networks.

Currently, the structure of the SUN Movement makes the SUN FPs ‘gatekeepers’ of SUN, and they are able to exclude or include Networks in key activities and meetings. The position was set up in such a way that engagement with other stakeholders was encouraged but not required. The findings of the mapping exercise reflected the findings of ICE, which noted that there were some concerns about the over-reliance on a SUN FP, as well as the positioning of FPs within the ministries of health, when they should have a broader mandate.

A more radical proposal might be a process whereby Network stakeholders or a multi-stakeholder platform plays a role in agreeing the position of the SUN FP, potentially electing an individual to take on this role. Another potential adaptation is to have separate ‘technical’ and ‘political’ FPs with different responsibilities. This was tried in the DRC, with informants there regarding this as a good adaptation of the model.
Finding 2: Networks add value when bringing stakeholders together for the first time or effectively build on existing structures

Among the 68 Networks looked at in this exercise, an important distinction is between those that are bringing stakeholders together for the first time under the auspices of the SUN Movement and those that are building on existing coordination structures and nutrition architecture.

In countries where stakeholders had been brought together into Networks for the first time (four in total), there was an appetite for increased coordination. An example of this is in Chad, where the full complement of SUN Networks (as well as parliamentarian, academic and journalist networks) were established soon after the country joined the Movement. Another example is Sudan, where the government embraced the opportunity to work better with different stakeholders with the enthusiasm and support of an active UN Network. In other countries, the value has been increased coordination within a group of stakeholders in nutrition. In Myanmar, for example, the CSA convenors used this new opportunity of a CSA platform to improve alignment and coordination among civil society organisations (CSOs), as well as bring a collective CSO perspective to conversations with other stakeholders.

By contrast, in 13 of the countries profiled, there was an existing architecture for nutrition networks and coordination. Informants in networks such as these were less likely to see SUN Networks as adding value to coordination mechanisms. In five countries in this sample, the UN agencies felt that an additional UN Network was not needed where a UN or cross-agency UN coordination platform already existed. This was the case in Kenya, where the UN stakeholder felt it already had a platform for coordination in nutrition and did not need an additional SUN UN Network.

As the countries considered in this mapping are FCAS, we observed that 14 countries had a well established coordination architecture focused on humanitarian response, creating challenges for more ‘development-oriented’ Networks and coordination mechanisms. Establishing new, separate coordination mechanisms for ‘development’-focused work rather than building on existing coordination platforms was seen by many as a missed opportunity for the SUN Movement, especially in contexts of chronic emergency (for example; in numerous Sahelian SUN countries). Many of these humanitarian coordination structures are focusing on how to transition from recurrent humanitarian-focused programming and the need for longer-term approaches. SUN could have an enormous impact in such contexts. There were, indeed, a few examples where the SUN Movement has been aligned with the existing Networks and humanitarian architecture; for example the CSA in South Sudan, which has been built from the Nutrition Cluster. In Somalia a SUN agenda has been sustained through the work of both the SUN FP and the Nutrition Cluster, the latter being the main platform for coordination of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and UN agencies.

Recommendation: Map pre-existing Network and coordination structures and, wherever possible, build on this existing architecture, particularly in FCAS

Many FCAS have existing platforms aimed at bringing multiple stakeholders together and are convened around emergency responses. These could represent a missed opportunity for SUN to build on existing structures in FCAS. Multi-stakeholder nutrition platforms in FCAS that work on emergencies are often convened by high levels of government, sometimes within the President’s or the Prime Minister’s office. It will be important for the SUN movement in FCAS to leverage existing multi-stakeholder platforms that have been built around emergency responses, rather than reinventing the wheel through the SUN Networks, which risks not only duplication but not getting the right people involved. Mapping out any existing coordination architecture in the country is a critical first step in establishing Networks; not only in relation to emergency coordination mechanisms but also more broadly to ensure that the set-up and work of the SUN Network in each country is relevant and not duplicative. Building on existing platforms will also enable experienced people to lead coordination efforts, bringing all relevant actors, including the government, together to meet shared goals. Simply establishing new multi-sector platforms will result in poorly functioning Networks, as members will unlikely perceive a need for meetings and meeting expenses will not being covered.
Finding 3: The challenge of stop-start progress and Network continuity

Continuity was cited as a challenge by a majority of Network informants in this work. The lack of continuity was said to have prevented Networks from becoming established players within the national nutrition architecture and from being able to deliver on ambitions and plans. The progress of 16 Networks can be summarised as being ‘stop-start’, with fluctuating momentum, and going back to a ‘launch’ phase multiple times over the course of several years.

Fourteen informants described their Networks as struggling to progress past an ‘implementation phase’ where they can focus on building activities, but are instead getting bogged down in agreeing ToRs, agreeing leadership and convening roles and responsibilities, and bringing members together for ‘launch’ meetings.

One factor cited for the lack of continuity is that convenors are lost when a person or agency moves on. Turnover seems to be high for donor, UN agencies and CSOs. Ten Networks also had an active phase which tailed off and the Network then had to rebuild from scratch, or has remained dormant. One example is the Kenya SDN, which lost momentum when the former active convenor stepped down. Meetings and joint activities stopped when this energetic individual moved to a new post. This suggests that the current model of SUN Networks relies too greatly on capable or committed leaders and ‘heavy lifting’ by agencies committed to keeping things moving.

Recommendation: Funding available to country Networks and investment in set-up phase

Successful Networks that have experienced continuity and have become well established have often had a period of investment in their set-up before being launched. In Pakistan, the CSA had a dedicated, skilled consultant and seconded staff from relevant agencies assigned to work on setting up a Network over a period of many months. As part of this work, this full-time consultant conducted stakeholder consultations, drafted ToRs and designed structures/mechanisms for the new Network, before supporting a formal Network launch. This was done in close consultation with the other SUN informants, including the government.

To avoid the churn effect and the scenario of Networks struggling to get off the ground over a long period of time, Networks must have time and resources invested at the beginning, which will enable the Networks to be established properly. Experience has shown that they cannot be expected to simply flourish ‘organically’.

Finding 4: Relevance of SUN Networks in highly fragile contexts

Some Network informants said there may be limited relevance for development-oriented SUN Networks in highly fragile or war-torn contexts (such as Somalia and Yemen, for example). The efforts made by stakeholders in these countries to engage with the SUN Movement appears to be made more as a way of remaining connected to this important initiative than to implement any new architecture or initiatives. In these contexts, it is often the activities of the longer-established Nutrition Cluster and inter-cluster coordination that tend to help define the priorities for nutrition coordination and alignment.

12
Recommendation: A SUN model for FCAS working through existing humanitarian architecture

A different way of working may be more appropriate for Networks in FCAS countries where there is a well established Cluster mechanism in place. There is an unprecedented opportunity for the SUN Movement and the Global Nutrition Cluster to formalise their relationship, both at a global level and in countries where there are recurrent and protracted crises. The Nutrition Cluster mechanism can be instrumental in establishing a distinct workplan and strategy for separate Networks geared towards longer-term programming. This will enable connection between humanitarian and development actors, financing and collective targets. The fact that the Nutrition Cluster has itself embraced a ‘multi-sector’ approach as part of its strategy has helped the cluster support what is becoming a vibrant CSA, aligned to SUN Movement multi-sector objectives. For example, in a number of FCAS countries, including Sudan, Yemen and Somalia, following the Rome Declaration made in 2017, inter-cluster multi-sector programming has emerged primarily as a way to prevent malnutrition rather than focus simply on treatment.

In SUN FCAS it makes sense that consultation with the Cluster takes place in the early stages of establishing SUN and in an ongoing way to ensure a shared vision around resilience-building and collective outcomes. Guidance on how to approach establishing SUN architecture and linkages with humanitarian actors and structures should be tailored for FCAS.

Furthermore, more appropriate metrics and monitoring systems could be developed to reflect what SUN progress looks like in these contexts. Countries like Yemen and Somalia are committed to SUN, but the Movement needs to be complementary to the existing emergency response-focused structures and financing modalities. The resilience agenda in many FCAS and in contexts of chronic emergencies offers a bridge between humanitarian and development structures and coordination, and for the SUN Movement to embed itself more firmly in these unique settings. A way forward is greater alignment between the Cluster system and the SUN Movement at both global and country levels. There is a lack of clarity at the global level as to how to achieve this and to provide direction or guidance for the country level. One could envisage Cluster coordinators being assigned a formal role within SUN at the country level or tasked with being part of the transition from Cluster to sectors. This relationship represents an untapped source of expertise, funding and on-the-ground support for the SUN agenda in FCAS.

Finding 5: There is a great degree of variety within Networks across countries

There is enormous variation between the Networks across the 17 FCAS countries in this mapping exercise. While at the global level a ‘blueprint’ guide exists for what Networks should look like and how they should work to support governments, it is probably more appropriate for countries to base Network set-up and implementation on a mapping of existing mechanisms in country and a contextual analysis. During the 2015 ICE study, a greater level of diversity was called for, with the report noting that “there is an unnecessarily restrictive assumption that country-level Network structures should replicate the global structure.” It appears that many countries have taken this recommendation to heart and have implemented Networks in a contextually appropriate manner. An example of this, already highlighted, is the fact that the UN and Donor Networks have been combined in some countries.

Recommendation: Global actors need to support countries to ensure the Movement is contextually appropriate

It seems axiomatic that taking a more flexible approach will be useful in ensuring that Networks are meeting needs at a country level and filling gaps, rather than risking duplicating existing structures. The needs of FCAS countries require a more tailored approach. The MEAL system could usefully accommodate differing structures and reflect this in the way that nutrition progress is measured in a given country. For example, Ethiopia is listed as making only ‘poor progress’ according to the MEAL framework, because of the rigid indicators which examine progress according to setting up Networks in the traditional sense. Ethiopia has not yet set up traditional Networks, but instead has built on existing coordination mechanisms and is making tremendous strides towards institutionalising a multi-sector approach to nutrition and in effecting reductions in stunting. The MEAL system needs to track country progress based on rates of reduction for the main undernutrition indicators, as well as the broader country-level systems.

When FCAS countries become members of the Movement they may require dedicated support from global-level actors to set up or augment existing Networks. Global Network convenors are in a position to review these different country experiences and to draw out learning so that the experiences can be used to strengthen Network set-up and functioning in FCAS.
The Academia and Research Network Pakistan: Harmonising and galvanising nutrition research

The Academia and Research Network was formed in May 2016 with the aim of supporting and harmonising research on nutrition and bridging the gap between academia, researchers, policy-formulators and practitioners. Initially, organisations were reluctant to engage with the platform as their role was not clear. However, this concern was reduced through face-to-face meetings with the SUN Academic Network coordinator, who detailed how the platform would connect research and academic bodies nationally and at a global level. From this, 40 academic institutions and research organisations signed up to the Network and an operational plan was developed. A national research prioritisation exercise was carried out in which 32 research topics were shortlisted for priority and shared with donors, UN bodies and international universities in order to obtain resources to conduct research on these national research priorities. The Network also succeeded in obtaining funding for five research grants and an exchange with Australian universities was set up to allow for cross-country learning. The High Education Commission in Pakistan also provided funding for 104 different research studies. Further work has centred on conducting trainings on real-time monitoring for nutrition data and training young researchers on research methodologies and scientific writing. Furthermore, the establishment of a knowledge management centre is planned, where all studies and relevant documents will be archived and accessible through a web portal. A centre of excellence on human nutrition will also be set up shortly. Connections between the Academic Network and the SUN Business Network have been made. One example of this is in Peshawar, where a fortified noodles programme, led by a university, has been linked to one of Pakistan’s largest food manufactures, Knorr. This complementarity with other Networks is a useful example of SUN creating linkages for a truly coordinated approach to nutrition. It also highlights the range of creative and innovative activities that can be conducted within a Network.
Network-specific findings

Strong presence of the CSN
It is clear from this mapping exercise that the CSN is most established in the 17 countries of focus. It is often impressive in size and range of membership, with robust processes for governance. CSNs have made the most progress in developing a true ‘Network’, comprising member organisations which endure, even where there is leadership churn or changes in funding. As noted in the findings section, 16/17 countries had a CSN and 15/16 currently had a convenor in place – far higher than for any other of the Networks.

Informants reported that the main activities of CSNs at country level include capacity-building of member organisations, advocacy on nutrition, and budget and commitment-tracking (which is intended to hold government and others to account for what they have claimed they will do). CSN members have also been engaged in the development of national plans and policies in some countries. In some countries there is a healthy tension between government and the CSA, with the government being put under pressure by the CSA through its advocacy work or engagement with the media and through scrutiny of government budgets for nutrition, but with the government seeing the benefits of the additional energy and resource that the CSA brings to support its plans and ambitions. This is the case in Kenya and in Pakistan, where the CSA and government work well together through the SUN structures.

While ENN was able to establish key facts about the CSA Networks in terms of structures, processes and activities, what is not always clear is the attributable impact of CSA activity. In some cases, it is difficult to distinguish between the impact of the Network and the impact of several influential lead agencies. In Myanmar, for example, the well-funded CSA is chaired by Save the Children, which has achieved a great deal in a relatively short time (see case study below). However, the extent to which the achievements are due to the collective Network or to Save the Children is unclear. Reliance on this strong lead also raises questions about continuity of the Network long term.

New energy of UN Networks in Phase II
Several new UN Networks have been established in the second phase of SUN, mostly in West Africa, with informants in these countries saying they had received significant support and encouragement from the global-level Network and UN REACH, which has played an important role in establishing UN Networks. Six UN Networks mapped in this study had been set up in the last two years, all within Phase II of the SUN Movement.

In some countries where it is active, the UNN plays an important role ‘behind the scenes’ at country level, influencing government, funding, coordination and activities, and establishing an enabling environment for other SUN structures to emerge. The role of the UNN behind the scenes is important in FCAS, where the funding and technical support of the UNN is often needed to support governments. In Sudan, each UN agency involved in the UNN is supporting one of the other SUN Networks to get off the ground through financial, technical and coordination support. The UN agencies in Sudan have even formalised their role of supporting the SUN Networks by having this activity included in individual ToRs for UN staff. The WHO is supporting the CSN to become established and apply for MPTF funding, WFP is supporting the set-up of an SBN, and UNICEF (UNN
convener) is providing significant support to the government to establish the Movement at country level. The UNN has also heavily supported and encouraged donors to form a Network.

One challenge is for countries that have had a REACH presence to embed the processes and allow the UN to continue to work together through a UNN. In some cases, UN Networks have not been able to continue once UN REACH was no longer present. There are several examples of this happening in Asia, including Nepal and Bangladesh.

**Academic networks have emerged globally**

The most visible non-formal SUN network to have emerged in the countries looked at in this work is the SUN Academic Network. The mapping exercise revealed that nine of the 17 countries either had or were in the process of establishing an academic network. Several individual country chapters have been funded through other networks; i.e. UNN/REACH or CSN, recognising the importance of research, knowledge-sharing and research-informed practice and policy-making. There is no global-level convenor for this network. There are examples of activities like national research fora being organised through SUN academic networks (see Pakistan case study).

**Limited progress for SDN**

Among the four standalone networks found in the 17 countries, only one SDN (Bangladesh) met all three criteria described in the findings section above. This was a pre-existing donor forum transitioning to become a formal donor platform for SUN. Nigeria, Senegal, Indonesia and DRC all had a combined donor and UN network, all of which met the three criteria. This suggests that the combined model is a promising approach for getting donors involved in the SUN Networks.

The SDN is not included in the MEAL functionality index like the other Networks: the UNN, SBN and CSA are scored in each country, whereas the SDN is only included in the MEAL under the indicator that gives a score on whether or not all four networks are established at country level (in other words, a yes or no score on the SDN). This lacks nuance and does not reflect the actual establishment (or lack) of SDNs.

**Private-sector engagement in FCAS**

Only three SBNs are established and active among the 17 countries considered in this work. Many of these, according to convenors met in country, have been in the “starting-up phase” for several years. The two most vibrant SBNs are in Nigeria and Indonesia. Both are dominated by one or two large organisations and thus do not represent a broad range of voices and views. Perhaps one of the biggest differences between SBNs in stable countries compared to FCAS is the make-up and dynamics of the private-sector members. In FCAS, the private sector may face enormous operating challenges, with limited foreign investment. In the Sahel, the SBN has appointed a regional coordinator who supports SBN work in francophone countries in the region. However, many of the companies who have become involved in this region are manufacturers of RUTF or implement food fortification, and therefore already work closely with the nutrition sector. The pool of companies involved in SBNs in more stable contexts tend to be from a range of industries, including media and large food manufacturers.

**Conclusions**

Perhaps unsurprisingly, the SUN Movement architecture in FCAS has evolved unevenly, with some Networks having taken root and contributed to the nutrition agenda of the country in a meaningful and ongoing way and others struggling to become established or enjoying only a short-term presence. What is clear from this Network-mapping exercise is that there is incomplete coverage of active and established Networks in SUN FCAS. The reasons for this include the level of government commitment to the Networks, perceived relevance amongst key actors, human and financial resources, and the role of strong individuals. It is unclear how this pattern compares with functional Network presence in other, more stable SUN contexts, or whether the unevenness relates more to the challenges of these contexts. In 13 of the 17 countries mapped, active humanitarian-response structures, plans and financing are in place for protecting nutritional status and, while some have effectively transitioned to sectoral governance, others remain in humanitarian-response mode. There is an enormous opportunity in these countries for SUN and the humanitarian architecture to more deliberately and purposively link their efforts, coordination, advocacy and financing efforts to create a more nutrition-resilient environment and enable the countries to make more progress towards achieving the main global nutrition-related targets. This is happening in some countries, as described in this paper, but getting there also needs more concerted global Network support, as well as guidance from global structures concerned with the SUN Movement and the humanitarian system.

While the overall picture of SUN Networks in the 17 FCAS countries considered in this paper shows variable progress, there are standout examples of country SUN Networks that have become well established and are having a significant impact on the nutrition agenda in their countries. These examples offer valuable lessons on how Networks can catalyse action on nutrition for SUN FCAS contexts. Six such examples of Network are highlighted in this paper.
Network success – Case study

Donor Network Senegal: Aligning donors in nutrition

The donor Network in Senegal is a vibrant network that brings together all main bilateral nutrition donors in the country and connects donors to key partners, including the government, UN agencies, the World Bank and NGOs. The Network lead is currently the Canadian Cooperation, which is appointed to the General Assembly. This body has meetings three times per year and additional meetings as needed.

Donor Network meetings are a platform for discussion and exchange and give individual agencies the chance to provide updates and present their work and plans to others. Many donors have used the Network as a sounding board to discuss implementation and share challenges and progress with others.

The donor Network has had a tangible impact on nutrition in Senegal through improved alignment and harmonisation of donor activities in the country. There are many examples of alignment being achieved through the donor Network. Nutrition International was able to avoid duplication of effort on a capacity-strengthening exercise through information-sharing via the donor Network and discovering that the World Bank (WB) was close to completing a similar piece of work. Another example is UNICEF and UN REACH both planning to complete and fund a detailed country-mapping of nutrition activities in the country; they were able to share costs and work together on this by identifying the potential duplication through the donor Network platform. There are many other examples of how the donor platform has been used to avoid duplication, rationalise the use of resources and identify opportunities for donors and partners to work together. Where there is overlap or potential duplication between donor activities, the donor Network has also been used as a platform for negotiation and arbitration.

The donor Network has also enabled collective participation in the recent process of developing a national nutrition plan in Senegal. Donors have played an active role in strategic discussions on the development of the plan and have contributed to the background work in a coordinated way, supporting background studies and other work behind the development of the plan.

Now that the plan has been agreed, with significant buy-in from donors and other stakeholders, individual donors will be able to align their own plans and priorities with this overarching, multi-sector strategy. Government key documents are critical for alignment between donors and the government and facilitating donor alignment, as parties are able to agree who will fund and support different elements of the plan.

Finally, the Network itself does not have funding for Network activities, as it does not implement independent activities, focusing instead on aligning the various donor’s work. The only costs are meetings, which are rotated among different members. In effect, the work coming out of the Network is joint advocacy and lobbying through having one aligned voice on nutrition.

Building resilience by providing food assistance for community farming groups during the lean season in Senegal
Myanmar joined SUN in 2013. In 2014-15 the CSA was formalised with support from Save the Children. Several lead agencies were involved in the set-up of the Network, including international non-governmental organisations (INGOs) and local NGOs. The Network was set up with a Steering Committee of 10 members; seven are INGOs and three are local NGOs. The local NGO members are based in the capital and not able to fund hosting the Network, so their involvement is often facilitated and funded by the other members. The Steering Committee meets quarterly, whereas the whole Network meets once a year. There are around 70 member organisations in total, but many smaller organisations and those working in remote areas are hard to keep track of, hence some are only operational when there is funding available. The CSA is therefore currently looking for a mechanism to require annual membership renewal to keep the membership current.

The SUN CSA is run with three dedicated staff based in Save the Children. They do some other work for Save the Children, but their main focus is the CSA. The steering group relies on voluntary participation.

The CSA has worked effectively with government, despite some frustrations. Recently the government involved the CSA in a number of key activities, such as the development of the Multi-sectoral National Plan of Action on Nutrition (MS NPAN). This gave the CSA an important opportunity to be involved in the steering of the nutrition agenda and to contribute to key processes. CSA members were invited to be technical facilitators to help different ministries develop their nutrition indicators and work plans.

However, there have been challenges in working with the government. The CSA has been very active in promoting the International Code of Marketing of Breast-milk Substitutes (adopted by the country in 2014) and the Myanmar Order of Formulated Foods for Infant and Young Child. The CSA has been proactive in tracking violations of the code through its extensive membership Network and through trainings for CSA members to educate them on the code and how to report violations. The CSA convenors collated code violations and shared these with the government and UN agencies. However, the CSA reports that the lack of action on code violations or evidence of any consequences for perpetrators has demotivated members and there is no longer the same interest in doing this work.

In addition, the CSA invested in designing public education tools to improve public education on the breast-milk substitute law in Myanmar and was ready to roll these out. However, the government did not allow the initiative to proceed, claiming it had planned to do this itself. Three years on, there is no evidence of any government progress on this and the government has declined to share any drafts with the CSA or use the tools the CSA had developed.

Funding is a major preoccupation for the CSA. So far, most of the funding has come from or through the host agency, Save the Children. The CSA Myanmar steering group is currently debating whether to introduce a member-based funding model to ensure sustainability, as well as continuing to try to find ways to get additional funds for the Network. So far, additional external funding through the MPTF and the current Pool Fund, invaluable to facilitating the activities of the Network, has been channelled through Save the Children Myanmar. The CSA said the other networks, including the government, UN and donors, were very supportive of the CSA funding requests and supported their applications to get these external grants.

One of the challenges associated with this funding model is the potential dominance of the lead agency. This is acknowledged by the convenor, who said the Network has been active in ensuring that the members take ownership of the Network and that the leadership is shared among a range of agencies through the steering group. The convenor acknowledges that Save the Children, the host and funding organisation, shaped priorities of the Network, particularly in the early stages. This meant that the Network was quite focused on infant and young child feeding, breastfeeding activities and advocacy. However, as the Network has evolved, the agenda has expanded to be more inclusive of a diverse array of agencies working on a range of nutrition issues, including nutrition-sensitive focused areas. The broadened agenda better includes member organisations whose work focuses on livestock, fisheries and agriculture relating to nutrition.

An important recent development of the CSA is the establishment of the first sub-national chapter in the Ayeyarwady (delta) region. World Vision (WV), a CSA member at the national level, reached out for support from the National CSA to initiate this sub-national chapter in order to improve coordination among the different NGOs working in the region, where WV has many programmes. This sub-national CSA platform has brought together not only the different nutrition-implementing NGOs in the district, but also the regional government, parliamentarians and other high-level officers working in nutrition. A successful roundtable meeting was held in September 2018 initiating this platform. WV has budgeted funds to continue to facilitate this CSA chapter and support sub-national coordination and will be co-chairing this chapter with GIZ.

According to the CSA convenor, a key learning from their experience at both national and sub-national level is the power of speaking with one voice as a stakeholder group which gets listened to and taken seriously in a way that an individual agency would not. This has been a great incentive for many of the CSAs to continue to be involved. In addition, the convenor sees the success of this thriving Network as a result of the shared vision and mission, which is owned by the members. The Network has brought this group of stakeholders together for the first time in this way.

Funding for the Network is also extremely helpful in the beginning, including the institutional and financial support it provided, but it is acknowledged that, for the Network to be sustainable, this is not a viable long-term arrangement. There is recognition of the need to diversify the leadership and develop a sustainable funding model.
The Pakistan government joined the SUN Movement in 2013 and tasked Save the Children with setting up the CSA in the country. From the onset, a highly consultative process was adopted. For example, in June 2014, a two-day national meeting was held, with over 120 national and district actors in attendance. The first day focused on capacity-building and sensitisation around nutrition. The second day highlighted the role of CSAs in addressing nutritional challenges in the country. ToR for the Network were written and circulated at the meeting and through local and national newspapers in order to identify potential Network members. There was a huge amount of interest in the Network and in total 76 organisations were approved to join the CSA. In December the same year, a national conference addressing malnutrition was held in which a CSA executive council was elected, consisting of 11 members. Two government ministries – the Ministry of Planning, Development & Reform and the Ministry of Food Security – were involved and the meeting culminated in a Civil Society Declaration being made on ending all forms of malnutrition, which was signed by all CSOs in attendance. Work then moved to focusing on developing a strategic plan through a consultative process. Five key work streams were identified: budget tracking and advocacy; bipartisan political support for nutrition; collaboration on nutrition with existing platforms and partnerships; equitable representation from all regions and sectors in the country; and capacity-building.

Membership of the Network has grown to almost 160 organisations, with 15 members on the executive council. A number of achievements have been reported, including:

- Training civil society members on nutrition-advocacy skills, influencing budget cycles and assessing budget allocation.
- Conducting a budget analysis to track spending on nutrition and developing policy briefs.
- Developing an ‘Invest in Nutrition’ social media campaign and using voice and text messages to influence key decision-makers.
- Analysing political manifestos in relation to their commitment to nutrition and developing subsequent briefs.
- Meeting with the Prime Minister of Pakistan to make the economic case for nutrition interventions, which resulted in a 7 billion rupee allocation by the Prime Minister for nutrition.
- Supporting the National Assembly to draft a comprehensive plan on meeting Sustainable Development Goal 2 (SDG2) and creating national dialogue on activities towards SDG2.
- Developing documentation for CSOs on how to influence political leaders; how to identify potential parliamentarians to sensitise and mobilise; and how to identify political champions.
- As a result of political engagement, the CSA helped ensure that domestic resources were mobilised in Sindh, Balochistan and Punjab provinces.
- Developing a ‘Young Nutritionists Club’ to promote nutrition education, engaging with interns from different universities on a video competition on the impact of child malnutrition.
- Collaborating with the Child Rights Movement, the World Anemia Alliance, the Safe Food Initiative and the Pakistan Nutrition Dietetics Society around nutrition work in Pakistan.

Activities are funded through a process in which the general counsel meets annually to plan key activities for the year. International organisations and large national organisations were subsequently requested to commit resources to activities. When certain activities were not funded, funding proposals for activities to international donors and UN bodies were written. Thus, the majority of funding came from the CSA members themselves. This model has helped to ensure the sustainability of the CSA in Pakistan. Two full-time staff based in the Nutrition International Office in Islamabad have been instrumental in achieving much of these successes.

The government has been supportive of the CSA and has included CSA activity in its current five-year plan, taking on board recommendations the CSA made in relation to nutrition work.

Key learnings from setting up the CSA in Pakistan include: taking time to build the Network and ensuring a collaborative approach; obtaining funding for full-time staff to support the early set up of the Network; ensuring that members benefit from being part of the CSA (for example, through highlighting individual member’s work); utilising a self-funding model to ensure sustainability; and utilising Global Network Support during initial Network set-up.
## Annex 1: Framework for Questioning

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focus country/region</td>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Year joined Movement</td>
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<tr>
<td>Focal Point</td>
<td>Position of Focal Point - location of FP in government</td>
<td>What staff does FP have for the jobs - who funds them? How long has FP been in the job/how many FPs have been in place to date?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Multi-stakeholder/multi-sector platform (MSP)</td>
<td>Does the country have a formal MSP?</td>
<td>Who convenes the MSP? Does the MSP have a TOR? How often has the MSP been meeting (in reality)? AND how often is it supposed to meet?</td>
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<tr>
<td>SUN Networks</td>
<td>SUN networks - that are currently active/formed</td>
<td>For each Network that exists: (1) who convenes it (describe)? and/or who has convened it in the past? (2) how often has it been meeting? (PLUS how often it is supposed to meet?) If meetings are not happening, why not? (3) who are members of the Network? Are there any big players who are not involved? (4) what links are there between the Networks in the country? Do they communicate with each other? (5) what links are there between the country Network and the global/regional level SUN Networks? (6) who funds the Network’s work? (7) since the Network started, what are the key achievements/highlights? What have been the major challenges/constraints? (8) does the Network have a formal ToR or strategy? Is this an isolated strategy or linked to strategy of government/others? (9) what, if any, Networks are there at the sub-national level? how are these configured? (10) have the Networks had any engagement in TA; i.e. in consultations? (11) Were the Networks already formed/partially formed before SUN, or are they entirely new? If there were Networks before, do they continue to exist in parallel?</td>
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<td>Humanitarian/emergency situation (if relevant)</td>
<td>Status and role of cluster</td>
<td>Major factors underlying fragility/conflict</td>
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<td>Other key background information</td>
<td>Major donors and INGOs</td>
<td>Role and relationship of UN REACH</td>
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<td>Private sector status/involvedness in nutrition</td>
<td>Stage of nutrition policy/planning cycle - headline nutrition targets if known</td>
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<td>Other key global Nutrition/related initiatives</td>
<td>This means is it signed up to any other initiatives or programmes, such as the 'Zero Hunger Challenge', etc.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
This report was compiled by Ambarka Youssoufane, Dr. Charulatha Banerjee, Lillian Karanja-Odhiambo, Tui Swinnen, Natalie Sessions, Jeremy Shoham and Carmel Dolan. This work was carried out as part of ENNs work under the Technical Assistance for Nutrition (TAN) programme for the Scaling Up Nutrition Movement.