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The emergence of the social-ecological restoration concept

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Author contributions

JFM conceived and designed the study; AGB contributed the study case with Amazonian
Ecuador communities; JFM, AGB, SR wrote and edited manuscript.

18

19 **Abstract**

20 Many ecosystems in the world are the result of a close interaction between local people and their
21 environment, which are currently recognized as social-ecological systems (**SoES**). Natural
22 catastrophes or longstanding social and political turmoil can degrade these **SoES** to a point where
23 human societies are no longer autonomous and their supporting ecosystems are highly degraded.
24 Here we focus on the special case of the restoration of **SoES** that we call social-ecological
25 restoration (**SoER**), which is characterized as a restoration process that cannot avoid
26 simultaneously dealing with ecological and social issues. In practice, **SoER** is analogous in many
27 ways to the general principles of ecological restoration, but it differs in three key aspects: 1) the
28 first actions may be initially intended for human groups that need to recover minimum living
29 standards; 2) the **SoER** process would often be part of a healing process for local people; and 3)
30 there is a strong dependency on external economic inputs, as the people belonging to the **SoES**
31 may be incapable of reorganizing themselves on their own and supporting ecosystems can no
32 longer self-recover. Although it might not be desirable or necessary to call all restoration projects
33 with a social component a **SoER**, the use of this concept may help in defining early restoration
34 targets that may prevent conflicts among users in the long term. From the perspective of other
35 disciplines and humanitarian institutions, **SoER** would be more appropriately perceived as
36 programs of ‘social-ecological recovery’ or ‘social-ecological development’.

37

38 **Key words:** ecosystem restoration, humanitarian crisis, natural catastrophes

39

40

41 **Implications for Practice**

42 • Social-ecological restoration (**SoER**) cycles may involve several very difficult decisions
43 between human well-being and ecosystem recovery for which many managers may feel
44 overwhelmed. Hence, managers should reach for extended collaboration beyond their usual
45 disciplines and institutions.

46 • Natural catastrophes may set ecosystems in trajectories for which people dependent on
47 them may not be able to cope with. Open minds and a dynamic view of ecosystems are
48 therefore needed for a successful **SoER**

49 • Resources need to be wisely allocated in **SoER** as social dynamics can be very fast while
50 ecosystem dynamics may be beyond human generation times

51

52

53

54 **Introduction**

55 Reconciling ecological restoration goals with human well-being objectives is a restoration
56 approach that needs no further presentation in the ecological sciences. The link between the two
57 has been actively tackled through the ecosystem services concept, with various review articles
58 suggesting the links between restored diversity and ecosystem function on the one hand, and the
59 availability of ecosystem services on the other (Benayas et al. 2009; Alexander et al. 2016). The
60 underlying hypothesis is that if restoration re-enables ecosystems services while maintaining and
61 promoting biodiversity, human needs are met in a “win–win” scenario and may even help to
62 alleviate poverty (Cao et al. 2009; Aronson et al. 2010 and references therein; Cao 2011; Yin &
63 Zhao 2012). A related approach used to address the relation between ecological and social issues
64 in restoration has been to include traditional knowledge in restoration programs (e.g., Uprety et al.
65 2012). However, an ecosystem service-centered approach to restoration and conservation goals
66 has been also criticized on the grounds that it can lead to a loss of biodiversity and ecosystem
67 functions in the long term without really solving the social issues they were supposed to (Blignaut
68 & Aronson 2008; Vira & Adams 2009; Schroter et al. 2014; Batavia and Nelson 2017). Hence,
69 there is a need to maintain a diversity of views regarding the relation between people and
70 ecosystems when social and economic concerns are pressing.

71 Here we argue that under certain circumstances, a common goal of social and ecological
72 reparative measures can be explicitly named ‘social-ecological restoration’ provided that the goal
73 is to restore a ‘social-ecological system’. By social-ecological system, we understand a complex
74 system that has emerged through a series of people’s close interactions with their supporting
75 ecosystems and species, creating structures and processes that would otherwise not exist. Only
76 until recently has the scientific literature begun to explicitly address the concept of social-

77 ecological restoration as both a practice and a conceptual field in itself. To the best of our
78 knowledge, the term was coined recently by Takeuchi and collaborators in an article addressing
79 the need for a comprehensive approach to reconstruct the areas devastated by the 2011 earthquake,
80 ensuing tsunami, and radioactive pollution in northeastern Japan (Takeuchi et al. 2014).

81 In contrast to the ecological sciences, the social sciences and organizations that deal with
82 humanitarian crises do not use the word restoration. Instead, the term ‘recovery’ is more commonly
83 used, but mostly as part of a ‘recovery plan’ for countries torn down by war or natural catastrophes
84 (UNDG 2007). The expression ‘social restoration’ is not used in the social sciences, because it
85 would be a controversial concept for obvious reasons, including undesirable political
86 interpretations. Societies and cultures are not restored as no one would intend to return exactly to
87 past cultural values or practices. It is well accepted that cultures change and that each epoch has
88 its own set of shared values that will evolve over time. Nevertheless, the expression ‘social
89 restoration’ has been used sporadically by urban planners in the context of how ecological
90 restoration should be socially acceptable and not lead to conflicts with users (Eden & Tunstall
91 2006; Nagendra & Ostrom 2014). Thus, it would appear that Takeuchi and colleagues’ use of
92 social-ecological restoration is the first attempt to clearly interlink social and ecological goals in
93 the reconstruction of societies and their supporting ecosystems.

94 Here we propose that social-ecological restoration (**SoER**) is a problem-solving approach
95 in which the main goal is to *jointly* restore the interdependent social and ecological processes in a
96 social-ecological system (**SoES**). We believe that this concept and practice are probably more
97 adapted to areas in which the historically strong presence of humans has shaped the terrestrial
98 landscapes, wetlands, and coastal areas and in which present-day human populations struggle to
99 have a sustainable society. We discuss throughout the text how this approach differs from

100 ecosystem-service centered restoration and present some practical issues related to the emergence
101 of the **SoER** concept by presenting a parallel with humanitarian crises and a case study from the
102 Shuar communities in Ecuador.

103

104 **Do we need a new concept?**

105 The short answer, in our opinion, is yes. Many readers will argue that they have already been
106 working in social-ecological restoration and that the lack of a term has not prevented them from
107 using both ecological and social approaches to deal with specific restoration cases, which we agree
108 with. Yet the need to use a specific term, as with Takeuchi and collaborators, stems from at least
109 three key points: 1) it permits an up-front dismantling of any animosity or ambiguity in a
110 restoration program by setting clear goals from the onset that are well accepted by a majority of
111 people; 2) it helps to identify quickly objects and processes that link the natural system and human
112 societies at the proper geographical and temporal scales; and, most importantly, 3) it is a concept
113 appropriate for societies that have suffered from natural disasters or long-term armed conflicts in
114 which people have lost everything and supporting ecosystems are presently fragile.

115 Conflicts and animosity against restoration programs is not new, and it is one of the most
116 recurrent issues (Geist & Galatowitsch 1999; Buckley & Crone 2008; Palamar 2010; Halme et
117 al. 2013; Winkel 2014; Druschke & Hychka 2015; Fox et al. 2016; Alves-Pinto et al. 2017). As
118 stated previously by Geist and Galatowitsch (1999), there is a need to show and implement
119 reciprocity in restoration programs so that people's contributions to the restoration of ecosystems
120 are inversely compensated by the contributions of ecological restoration to people, which proves
121 extremely challenging. In areas where there are close links between human societies and plant or
122 animal populations, which represent the main resources of livelihood, programs framed as **SoER**

123 may be better accepted by stakeholders. Humanitarian, post-conflict or post-catastrophe
124 management agencies and organizations will be obliged to look into ecosystem recovery,
125 something that is frequently overlooked because of the dimensions of the crisis (Abrahams 2014).
126 Evidently, the open use of the social-ecological restoration concept does not prevent all conflicts,
127 as unforeseen tensions may emerge at any time.

128 The **SoER** approach helps to identify early keystone objects and processes that would
129 otherwise be pondered differently or in later steps if only ecological or social analysis were
130 conducted. After a crisis, chances are that the affected society will very quickly point out what
131 essential components of the ecosystem are lacking and what processes have been disrupted that
132 they deem necessary to return back to their normal lives. In the case of the post-tsunami actions in
133 Japan, coastal forests (object 1) were identified as natural way to stabilize dunes (process 1) in
134 stark opposition to concrete barriers which would destroy the landscape. Likewise, inner riparian
135 broadleaf forests (object 2) were identified as a means to maintain good-quality water (process 2)
136 for oyster culture in the sea, which is an essential part of the human activities in the area (Takeuchi
137 et al. 2014), and so forth. This object-process based approach will also help to identify the
138 disciplines and expertise required to tackle problems at the social-ecological level in an
139 interdisciplinary way as this cannot be anticipated in advance. Whether forestry, aquaculture,
140 agronomical and even mining expertise is needed during the implementation of a humanitarian
141 program depends much of how people see themselves after crises (see next).

142 In our view, the use of **SoER** as a driving concept can prove particularly useful after natural
143 or human-induced disasters, because almost all natural and social processes and structures have
144 been disrupted. Moreover, as shown by Takeuchi and collaborators (2014) and in the example of
145 the recovery after Hurricane Katrina in the southeastern United States (for a review see Day et al.

146 2007), reconstructing the links between people and natural processes can help in the healing
147 processes for the human populations. For instance, reconstructing the natural structure of the
148 Mississippi Delta will require new paradigms of development if the same catastrophes are to be
149 avoided in the future, and if a human environment that is culturally identified with living within
150 the wetlands is to be maintained. However, the **SoER** concept may be useful not only for regions
151 affected by large natural catastrophes, but also in places where longstanding conflicts and social
152 turmoil have erased people's capacity to manage and conserve their ecosystems (see example with
153 Amazonian communities in the last section). For example, international organizations have been
154 increasingly working with the restoration of degraded ecosystems due to overpopulation, poverty,
155 and war (see [http://www.unep.org/disastersandconflicts/what-we-do/recovery/environmental-](http://www.unep.org/disastersandconflicts/what-we-do/recovery/environmental-cooperation-peacebuilding)
156 [cooperation-peacebuilding](http://www.unep.org/disastersandconflicts/what-we-do/recovery/environmental-cooperation-peacebuilding) and UNEP 2016). While the expression of **SoER** has not been used in
157 these programs, the arguments are similar to what we propose here. In fact, the subjacent idea that
158 the good governance of resources is an essential way to prevent conflicts strengthens the concept
159 of **SoER**.

160

161 **What is the scale of social-ecological restoration?**

162 If the research or restoration object of **SoER** is the social-ecological system, then its spatial and
163 temporal scale corresponds to the **SoES**. As seen above, the general definition of **SoES** is open to
164 discussion regarding the relevant spatial scale, because it is difficult to trace limits in a globalized
165 economy. One response from institutional economics can help us to limit the scope of **SoER**. In
166 particular, the works of Elinor Ostrom and colleagues define the scale (or **SoES** itself) as the scale
167 at which people self-organize to use a given resource (Ostrom 2009). In the context of Ostrom's
168 works, 'resource' refers to provisioning ecosystem services such as irrigation water, timber,

169 fisheries, and so on. This approach baffles the majority of ecologists who, for obvious reasons,
170 would argue that the spatial scale of the supporting ecosystem as the scale to consider. Hence,
171 **SoER** would need explicitly a step of negotiation between ecologists and social workers and
172 between the ecologists and funding agencies for the need to include a larger geographical area for
173 the implementation of restorative ecosystem measures. Again, this was clearly shown by Takeuchi
174 and collaborators when they addressed the need to work together on the mountain-plane interface
175 (*satoyama*) and on the shore-sea interface (*satoumi*) as integrated units that represent essential
176 components of their cultural heritage.

177

178 **People recovery, reference systems, and external inputs**

179 Solving humanitarian crises (EuropeAid 2004) and ecological restoration (McDonald et al. 2016)
180 share management principles of cycles of diagnostics, implementation and evaluation (Fig. 1,
181 Supporting Information Appendix S1). Restoration cycles, either ecological or humanitarian, are
182 necessarily sequential, incremental and each step has a duration that cannot be predicted.
183 Humanitarian aid is highly coded by international institutions and are defined at the scale of a
184 country even if the actions are local. Nevertheless, despite overall similarities between restoration
185 cycles and humanitarian aid cycles, key differences exist between ecological restoration and **SoER**
186 (Table S1). The first main difference is that in **SoER** the majority of resources would be used in
187 the initial stages of the restoration process to recover the minimum living standards for the people
188 concerned. This can be viewed as a social bias in the restoration process, but aside from the
189 humanitarian reasons, it actually may be a useful thing to relieve the pressures placed on the
190 supporting ecosystems before a complete **SoER** plan is being designed.

191 Although the cultural values of ecosystems is of primary importance because **SoER** is
192 frequently part of a healing process, it is difficult to anticipate how much of the previous ecosystem
193 will be desired by the people. The second and perhaps greatest challenge in **SoER**, at least from
194 the perspective of the ecological sciences, is agreeing on the reference system to be used for
195 restoration. In countries in the recent aftermath of civil wars or natural catastrophes, people who
196 may have lost everything may simply ask for ways to escape the traps of poverty and violence.
197 Whatever comes first with the promise of a better future will quickly be accepted by people, even
198 if it entails new ways of interacting with the natural systems. At this point, conservative views of
199 what restoration is will collide with what people are demanding. For instance, illicit grow of coca
200 (*Erythroxylon coca*) in South America for the last 40 years has caused degradation of many areas
201 of tropical rain forest in Bolivia, Peru and Colombia, creating social conflicts and violence among
202 peasants that have reduced their quality of life. Because of the difficult climatic conditions and
203 low fertility of tropical forests, agroforestry propositions to replace illegal coca monoculture
204 plantations with a handful of useful native plants are often proposed as an alternative (Corradi et
205 al. 2013). However, local tree diversity can easily exceed 100 tree species per hectare in the
206 western Amazon (Ter Steege et al. 2003), a species richness that will never be attained with
207 agroforestry programs. According to SER standards, this type of restoration would be considered
208 closer to rehabilitation than to ecological restoration (McDonald et al. 2016). Still, using a handful
209 of legal tree crop species may be better than a single, highly polluting crop as coca plants. If the
210 idea of **SoER** helps local people and external organizations to co-construct a viable future in a
211 respectful manner for both people and natural systems, it may be worthwhile using the concept
212 early in the recovery programs as better biodiversity and social objectives may be attained in the
213 long term.

214 The third and probably most striking difference with more ecologically centered restoration
215 programs is the level of external inputs, especially economic inputs (Table S1). Current approaches
216 in ecological restoration seek to assist the recovery process of the relevant ecosystem by allowing
217 for the internal reorganization and adjustments of the system (McDonald et al. 2016). By contrast,
218 highly degraded ecosystems and societies that are a consequence of long-term conflicts or natural
219 catastrophes require immense amounts of external economic input, sometimes for decades. In this
220 regard, the budget allocated to most restoration programs is insignificant compared to the resources
221 committed for recreating stable and self-sustainable human populations. Hence, joining
222 inextricably both social and ecological restoration process, albeit more difficult and costly, may
223 help in the achievement of long-term goals, and hopefully in many cases to ensure sooner the
224 sustainability of human groups in a respectful manner with their environments.

225 A second external input that may be needed disproportionately in **SoER** is expertise to
226 recover the traditional ecological knowledge [that is knowledge people have of their environment]
227 that may be endangered or even lost. Community leaders or vulnerable population categories may
228 have fled, lost their leadership or died in areas where social turmoil has been chronic. In this regard,
229 universities, museums and scholars may go along with local communities and participate in **SoER**
230 programs for recovering disappearing local knowledge.

231 **SoER** restoration efforts do not need to start from scratch but can learn from experiences
232 developed and accumulated in programs of community restoration and conservation development.
233 For instance, if the key biodiversity object for restoration identified in the first steps of the **SoER**
234 cycle is a ‘commons’ (i.e., resources accessible to everyone and clearly affected by the subtractions
235 of units like trees in a forest or fishes in waterbodies), there is a clear need to acknowledge the
236 complexity associated with governing the commons and avoid top-down out of the box solutions

237 (Frey & Berkes 2014; Ostrom 2009). As with community-based conservation principles (Berkes
238 2004), **SoER** would benefit of building the capacity to deal with multiple objectives and use of
239 deliberative processes (concertation) to allow for a multilayered governance for the various
240 institutions that would get involved in humanitarian crisis and ecosystem restoration (Berkes 2007;
241 Frey and Berkes 2014). This means that contrary to the impression that Figure 1 may give about
242 discrete steps of concertation **SoER**, deliberation processes to account for the multiple layers of
243 governance and actors will probably be almost permanent.

244

245 **Social-ecological restoration after long term ecological and social degradation**

246 As stated earlier, not all **SoER** programs would be intended for the aftermath of disasters. Until
247 recently, the hunter and horticulturist Shuar people from southern Amazonian Ecuador and
248 northern Peru were a semi-nomadic population. Since the late nineteenth century, Christianization
249 led them to become sedentary, drastically changing their social and political organization as well
250 as their economic life. At present, a large part of their traditional territory is cleared of the original
251 highland Amazonian forest vegetation because of cattle breeding or timber trade, which they
252 adopted to secure titles to their ancestral land to comply with government requirements in the
253 1960's.

254 Some Shuar communities have initiated family-level restoration programs based on their
255 traditional agroforestry system, the *aja* (Fig. 2) with a focus on native trees as key stone restoration
256 species (sensu Garibaldi & Turner 2004). The goal of the *aja* is to reproduce the high biodiversity
257 of the forest, viewed as the domesticated garden of the master spirit *Nunkui* were women have the
258 leading role (Descola 1994). Present-day *ajas* are less diverse than their traditional counterparts
259 and increasingly include *Theobroma* spp. and *Herrania* spp. (domesticated and wild cocoa)

260 because of pressures by exporters looking for rare organic cacao beans that they buy at very low
261 price. This fragile context makes it very easy for some communities to allow mining into their
262 lands or tree felling to make charcoal, as the cash flow is greater and steadier than the difficult
263 market of organic produce for international markets for which they are not prepared. Sadly, the
264 Shuar ignore that cacao trees were certainly domesticated there 5500 years BP (Valdez et al. 2013)
265 and have no means to increase their produce value despite of its importance.

266 Even a superficial needs and assessment analysis (first step of the **SoER** cycle in Fig. 1)
267 would promptly identify that their rich ecosystem has been degraded to a point where natural
268 regeneration will hardly bring back the biological diversity associated with extirpated late
269 successional trees without external intervention. It is also obvious, that living standards are low
270 and that local knowledge is disappearing fast. People live precariously without running water or
271 sewage and have no one trained at the university level in agronomy or marketing to deal with
272 external markets that appear as the only source of income. Our hypothesis is that engaging the
273 Shuar in a **SoER** restoration cycle would increase ecosystem health and the Shuar's well-being.
274 For instance, a careful zoning to intermix organic cacao plantations, regeneration plots for late
275 successional tree species and enriched *aja* gardens for their medicinal and food needs could be a
276 viable option to discuss with them. Such actions would require leadership and local community
277 commitment that is currently wanting, making the dependence on external aid unavoidable.
278 Unfortunately, examples like the Shuar abound worldwide in developing countries and it is
279 difficult to imagine a successful ecological restoration without restoring the links between people
280 and their surrounding nature, even if they include new ways of human-nature interactions.

281

282 **Conclusions**

283 In sum, we define the emergent concept of Social-Ecological restoration *as cycles of reparative*
284 *processes in which restoring ecosystem function is inextricably linked to repairing basic needs of*
285 *human populations that depend on a local ecosystem.* In general, **SoER** would be placed in a
286 gradient where humanitarian crises are strong, the dependence on key processes or species within
287 an ecosystem is essential for the local communities, and flexibility regarding the reference
288 ecosystem systems is possible but not mandatory (Fig. 3). In fact, one clear difference between
289 ecosystem service-centered restoration and **SoER** is that the latter is envisioned as part of a healing
290 process for local populations. In this sense, cultural values associated with ecosystems and the
291 biodiversity contained in them can be as important, or more, than simple recovering plant and
292 animal populations to be exploited by a community in need of income. In fact, communities after
293 a crisis might be living from external input for many years or decades, so that the ecosystem of
294 concern might not be usable for long time. Hence, it is the cultural value and identity they provide
295 that will help people to get afloat again.

296 We do not argue here in this short essay that all restoration ecology projects should be
297 envisioned as a social-ecological restoration process. In fact, speaking of **SoER** might even be
298 counter-productive in cases where the links between human welfare and biodiversity are not
299 straight forward. Ecologists and wildlife managers may be frustrated because their roles – and
300 budgets – in **SoER** may be quite small compared to what is invested in people’s recovery, but
301 more ambitious goals may be reached in the long term. The **SoER** concept can constitute an
302 alternative path in the debate that traditionally opposes the development of human populations and
303 ecological conservation, especially in developing countries where substandard conditions of life
304 are the norm.

305 As explained earlier, it will be very unlikely that the term ‘restoration’ would be used
306 outside of fields related to the ecological sciences because it is awkward when applied to social
307 issues. More general terms, including short and long term reparative actions for both social and
308 ecological components, could be ‘social-ecological recovery’ and ‘social-ecological
309 development’, respectively. It is impossible to anticipate which expression will generalize, but any
310 of them could help raising awareness within the humanitarian aid community for calling early the
311 expertise of ecologists and ecosystem managers when handling humanitarian crises.

312

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411 **Supporting Information**

412 The following information may be found in the online version of this article:

413 **Appendix S1.** Additional details on the humanitarian cycle programs and ecological restoration
414 standards.

415 **Table S1.** Synopsis of humanitarian cycle programs and their similarities with restoration ecology
416 programs.

417 **Table 1.** Main differences between ecological restoration and social-ecological restoration based
 418 on six principles of ecological restoration (McDonald et al., 2016).
 419

| <i>Key concept</i> | <i>Ecological restoration</i> | <i>Social-ecological restoration (SoER)</i> |
|--------------------|---|---|
| 1 | Practice is based on an appropriate local native reference ecosystem, taking environmental change into account. | The target system can be a highly reinterpreted reference system; the new system typically builds resilience to floods, fires, etc. and could be seen as rehabilitation or even as ecological engineering. External market opportunities may cause local people to switch to new ways of interacting with their ecosystems and the species that they collect or gather. |
| 2 | Identifying the target ecosystem’s key attributes (threats, physical conditions, species composition, structural diversity, and ecosystem functions and flows with other ecosystems) is required prior to developing longer-term goals and shorter-term objectives. | In addition to identifying the ecosystem’s attributes, SoER programs may need to address the level of people’s vulnerability and their access to food, shelter, and basic goods, as well as security, political participation, and the end of violence, among others. |
| 3 | The most reliable way to achieve recovery is to assist natural recovery processes, while supplementing them to the extent that natural recovery potential is impaired. | In contrast to letting the system self-organize, massive external economic inputs may influence the trajectory of the system in very short periods of time, which is common in humanitarian crises. |

| | | |
|---|---|--|
| 4 | Restoration seeks the “highest and best effort” towards full recovery; the recovery can be quantified for each of the key attributes (see principle 2). | Full recovery is rarely known for SoER in countries with civil wars, as they may be recurrent crisis because of poverty and violence traps. |
| 5 | Successful restoration draws on all relevant knowledge. | Relevant knowledge may have been lost if key actors have died or fled from the target regions. |
| 6 | The early, genuine, and active engagement with all stakeholders underpins long-term restoration success. | Long periods of time may be needed until all actors are actively engaged, thus making the SoER process probably longer than equivalent ecological restoration programs. |

420

421 **Table S1.** Synopsis of humanitarian cycle programs and their similarities with restoration
 422 ecology programs as currently conceptualized by leading institutions in the area. Humanitarian
 423 aid is highly coded regarding steps and mandatory documents to comply with international
 424 funding agencies and governments. Synthesis steps from both fields are outlined as a set of
 425 simple questions in the Social-Ecological restoration cycle proposed in **Figure 1** in the main text.
 426

| Stage | Humanitarian program cycle ¹ | Standard practices for planning and implementing ecological restoration projects ² |
|-------|--|--|
| 1 | <p>Needs, assessment & analysis</p> <p>In humanitarian contexts, two main assessments are produced, a Humanitarian Needs Overview (HNO) to gather the necessary evidence, and a severity ranking of the different threats that are summarized in a Humanitarian Dashboard, which is a simple to</p> | <p>1.1 Stakeholder engagement</p> <p>1.2 External context assessment</p> <p>1.3 Ecosystem baseline inventory</p> <p>1.4 Reference ecosystem identification</p> |

understand document that can be shared with all levels of authorities

| | | |
|---|--|--|
| 2 | Strategic response planning | 1.5 Targets, goals and objectives |
| | Humanitarian response plans (HRPs) are required for any humanitarian crisis requiring the support of more than one agency, and are prepared by country level teams based on the humanitarian needs overview (HNO) from the previous step. | 1.6 Restoration treatment prescription |
| | The HRPs consist of: 1. a country strategy consisting of a narrative, strategic objectives and indicators, and, 2. cluster plans consisting of objectives, activities and accompanying projects, which detail implementation and costing of the strategy. | 1.7 Assessing security of site tenure and of post treatment maintenance scheduling |
| 3 | Resource mobilization | 1.8 Analyzing logistics |
| | It is recommended that humanitarian aid implement a Financial Tracking Service (FTS) to provide data aggregation and curation service for funding and a unique, open data platform for visibility and transparency. It is a special branch of the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Human Affairs (OCHA). Funds are pooled at the global or at the country level | 1.9 Review process scheduling |

| | | |
|---|--|--|
| 4 | Implementation, monitoring | 2.1-2.6 Implementation |
| | <p>Response monitoring is a continuous process that tracks the humanitarian assistance delivered to affected populations compared to targets set out in the humanitarian response plan (HRP). Response monitoring seeks to achieve two main goals: a) to identify shortcomings in the delivery of humanitarian aid as planned in the HRP, and b) to improve accountability to affected populations and other stakeholders. It does not redefine goals. Monitoring plans and codify these in a humanitarian response monitoring framework document. In turn, the monitoring data is made publicly available for use in public reports and forms the basis of the periodic monitoring report (PMR). The PMR is complementary to the Humanitarian Dashboard.</p> | <p>3.1 Monitoring</p> <p>3.2 Adequate records of treatments are maintained</p> |
| 5 | Operation peer review & evaluation | 3.3 Evaluation |
| | <p>Operational Peer Reviews (OPRs) are an internal, inter-agency management tool, which serve as a course corrector and to identify areas for immediate corrective action. They are designed to help coordinators and country teams determine whether adjustments or improvements are necessary, focusing on: a) leadership arrangements; b) implementation of the other phases of the Humanitarian Program Cycle; c) coordination, and mechanisms for accountability to affected people.</p> | <p>3.4 Reporting</p> <p>4. Post-implementation maintenance</p> |

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428 ¹ Text adapted from <https://www.humanitarianresponse.info/en/programme-cycle/space>

429 ² Text adapted from SER standards 2016

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