Integrated Food Security Phase Classification

User Guide
Version 1.0

The Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC) Global Partners
Prepared by the IPC in the Central and Eastern Africa Region Project

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Updates to this user guide are available at: www.ipcinfo.org

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FORWARD

This User Guide is intended to provide step-by-step guidance on how to use the IPC tool in a typical country environment. While it can be used as a stand-alone document, it is best used as a practical complement to the IPC Technical Guide.

The IPC is a relatively new tool and its application is not set in stone. Because of its use outside of the unique context of Somalia and the involvement of more partners, the tool is being developed and refined further in many areas. This has naturally inspired many interesting and constructive debates on different aspects of the IPC. This version of the Guide points out the areas that are currently being debated – mostly as footnotes –, and will be updated on an 'as need basis' to reflect changes as they occur. It should therefore be considered a living document rather than a static reference. While changes are both inevitable and positive, the guide was received very well during initial testing at workshops and trainings. Including feedback from these events and from other partners, this first version is regarded as a useful contribution for practical application of the IPC.

The Guide is an output of FAO's Regional IPC Project (OSRO/RAF/709/CAN, OSRO/RAF/711/UK and OSRO/RAF/712/EC), that targeted five countries in the East and Central Africa region during 2007/8 – Kenya, Burundi, Uganda, Tanzania and the Democratic Republic of Congo – with the aim of introducing the tool and learning from the experience.

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The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. Rome. June 2009

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND GLOSSARY

AFLC	Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis (IPC Phase 3)
ALRMP	Arid Lands Resource Management Project (Kenya)
ASAL	Arid and Semi-Arid Lands
CAP	Consolidated Appeals Process
CARE	International NGO and Global IPC Partner
CFSAM	Crop and Food Supply Assessment Mission (FAO/WFP)
CFSVA	Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Assessment (WFP)
CMR	Crude Mortality Rate
COF	Climate Outlook Forum (convened by ICPAC)
CSI	Coping Strategies Index
Deyr	Somali term for the October to December rainy season
DDI	Dietary Diversity Index
DFID	UK Department for International Development
DHS	Demographic and Health Surveys
EC	European Commission
FANTA	USAID Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations and Global IPC Partner
FEWS NET	Famine Early Warning Systems Network and Global IPC Partner
FHC	Famine/Humanitarian Catastrophe (IPC Phase 5)
FSAU	Food Security Analysis Unit – Somalia
GAM	Global Acute Malnutrition
GFS	Generally Food Secure (IPC Phase 1)
GIEWS	Global Information Early Warning System
GIS	Geographic Information Systems
Gu	Somali term for the March to July rainy season
h/a	Height for Age (anthropometric measure of stunting)
HE	Humanitarian Emergency (IPC Phase 4)
HEA	Household Economy Approach
HFIAS	Household Food Insecurity Access Scale
HDDS	Household Dietary Diversity Score
HNTS	Health and Nutrition Tracking Service
HPG	Humanitarian Policy Group
IASC	UN Inter-agency Standing Committee
ICPAC	IGAD Climate Prediction and Application Centre
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
IDPs	Internally Displaced Persons
IPC	Integrated Food Security and Phase Classification
Kcal	Kilo calories
LEWS	Livestock Early Warning System (managed by Texas A&M)
LTM	Long Term Mean
LRRD	Linking Relief, Recovery and Development
LZ	Livelihood Zone
M/BFI	Moderate/Borderline Food Insecure (IPC Phase 2)
MoA	Ministry of Agriculture
MoH	Ministry of Health
MT	Metric Tonne
MUAC	Mid-Upper Arm Circumference
NAF	Needs Analysis Framework
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OP	Office of the President
OPM	Office of the Prime Minister
OXFAM (GB)	International NGO and Global IPC Partner

PWA	Post War Average (used in Somalia as recent long-term average for crops production …etc)
SAM	Severe Acute Malnutrition
SCUK	Save the Children – United Kingdom, and Global IPC Partner
SCN - UN	Standing Committee on Nutrition
SENAC	Strengthening Emergency Needs Assessment Capacity
Shoats	Abbreviation for 'sheep and goats'
SLA	Sustainable Livelihoods Approach
SMART	Standardized Monitoring and Assessment of Relief and Transitions
U5MR	Under-5 Mortality Rate
UN	United Nations
UN-OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
UNAIDS	The Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VAM	The Vulnerability Analysis Mapping office of WFP
w/h	Weight for Height (anthropometric measure of acute malnutrition)
WHO	World Health Organisation of the United Nations
WFP	United Nations World Food Programme and Global IPC Partner

INTRODUCTION

Getting Started:
Purpose of the Guide and Relation to the Technical Manual

Welcome to the Users Guide for the Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC). The purpose of this guide is to provide you with a practical step-by-step explanation of how to actually implement the IPC, a process and set of tools to guide and communicate food security situation analysis. The guide is designed for food security practitioners that are using the IPC in conducting food security assessments and analysis, and can be used either as preparatory reading in headquarters or as a reference guide in the field.

This Users Guide is one of several products that have been developed to support the use of the IPC, the latest versions of which can be found at the IPC website: www.ipcinfo.org. Two other main products include:

- ***The Integrated Food Security Phase Classification Technical Manual***, which provides detailed technical guidance on the use of the IPC for food security analysis. This manual discusses the rationale for developing the IPC, the analytical logic of the IPC, and the details of the various indicators and tools that form the basis of the IPC analysis. The Technical Manual should be considered the primary source of information about the IPC, and will be referenced many times in this User Guide.
- ***IPC training courses and presentations***, including distance-learning modules and courses to be delivered in-person by a trainer. These courses not only present the rationale for developing the IPC, its analytical logic, and the details of its various indicators and tools, but also include exercises and questions for the users, as they are designed to educate practitioners about the IPC. These courses serve as preparatory training before practitioners begin to use the IPC.

The IPC User Guide complements these other products, walking you through the step-by-step 'how to' of implementing the IPC in the field. Ideally, users will have already completed an IPC training course, and will have the IPC Technical Manual on hand for reference while using this guide. However, even on its own this IPC Users Guide will be a valuable tool for food security practitioners to simplify the process of conducting an IPC analysis.

The guide is divided into one **introductory section** that includes the Getting Started and Overview of the IPC subsections, and **eight modules** that go through the step-by-step process of how to do an IPC analysis. The introductory overview of the IPC includes subsections on 'Why the IPC?', 'What It Is and Added Value'; 'What It Isn't'; and a basic description of the four main components of the IPC (the Reference Table, Evidence Templates, Cartographic Protocols, and Population Tables). Following the brief overview the modules on how to do an IPC analysis are introduced: *Module 1: building your evidence; Module 2: doing the phase classification; Module 3: risk analysis; Module 4: the number game: estimating populations in each phase; Module 5: impact analysis and what to do about it; Module 6: developing your map- information that you need to give to you GIS technician; Module 7: how do you know you got it right? the peer review process; and Module 8: how to establish an IPC in your country.*

Please note that the fundamental purpose of this guide is to make the use of IPC easier for food security practitioners like you. As such, this guide will be regularly updated based on user feedback. Please feel free to send any comments or suggestions on how the guide could be improved to: **contact@ipcinfo.org.**

A. Why the IPC?

In the food security community, there has been a lack of clarity and common definitions for classifying various food security situations in terms of varying severity and implications for action. This lack of clarity is problematic for several reasons:

- The way a situation is classified determines not only the type of response, but also the source of funding, scale, planning timeframe, and organizational roles of different stakeholders.
- Without commonly accepted standards for classifying the nature and severity of food security situations, the design and targeting of interventions can be open to personal, government, agency, and donor biases.

These problems can lead to imprecise or gross misallocations of scarce resources, and in the worst-case scenario, even loss of lives.
As a result, there have been increasingly strong calls for improved analysis within the cross-cutting field of food security, including:

- greater comparability of results from one place to another
- increased rigour
- greater transparency of evidence to support findings
- increased relevance to strategic decision making
- stronger linkages between information and action

Improving analysis along these lines would enable food security interventions to be more needs-based, strategic, and timely, and there is an urgent practical and operational need for a food security classification system that is broadly accepted by the wide range of stakeholders. Put simply: "*We, the food security community, need a common currency (language and analytical procedures) for describing the nature and severity of food security situations.*"

B. What It Is and Added Value

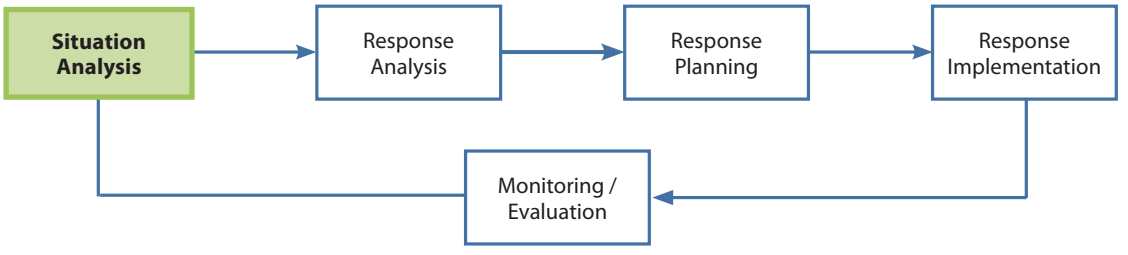
The IPC is designed to fill this critical gap in food security analysis. It provides a common classification system (a 'common currency') that draws from the strengths of existing classification systems and integrates them with supporting tools for analysis and communication.

Specifically, the IPC is a means to classify varying phases of current food security situations based on outcomes on human lives and livelihoods. The IPC includes five levels of food security (called 'phases'): *Generally Food Secure, Moderately/Borderline Food Insecure, Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis, Humanitarian Emergency,* and *Famine/Humanitarian Catastrophe.* Additionally, the IPC considers the risk that conditions will deteriorate (called the 'Risk of Worsening Phase'), including three levels: *Watch, Moderate Risk,* and *High Risk.*

The approach of the IPC is to draw together all available food security information (or 'evidence'), ranging from production figures to livestock prices to civil insecurity to malnutrition rates, to make a Phase Classification and/or Risk of Worsening Phase statement. The IPC relies on, and indeed encourages, multiple data sources and methods. The IPC then provides a 'convergence of evidence' approach and a set of tools to arrive at a 'big picture' analysis, or meta-analysis, of the overall food security situation. The outcomes of the process are several communication tools – specifically a map and population tables – that convey the key messages about the severity and magnitude of food insecurity.

The IPC focuses on **situation analysis** in its analysis and communication. Situation analysis is a distinct yet often overlooked or assumed stage in the analysis, planning, and response process, demonstrated here with the 'Analysis-Response Continuum' (Figure B.1):

Figure B.1: The 'Analysis-Response Continuum'



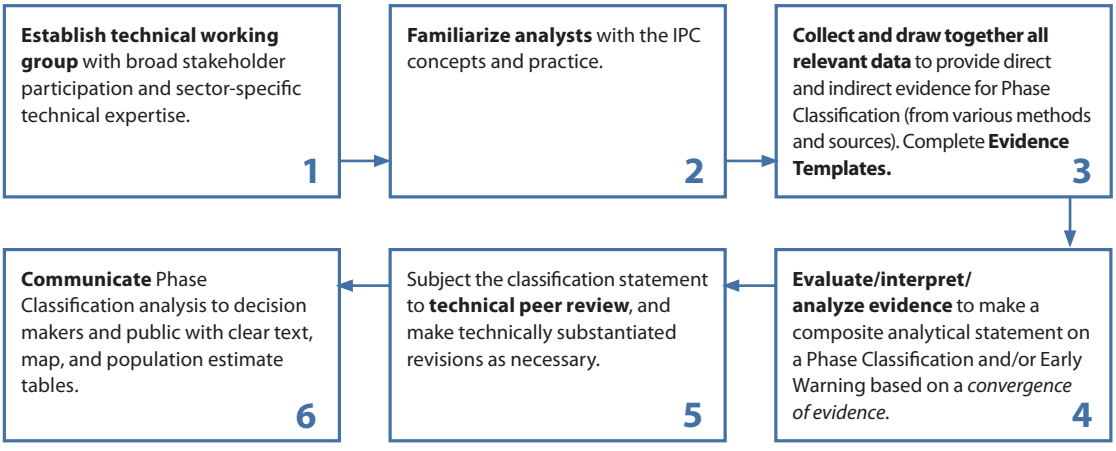
Through its focus on situation analysis, key aspects of the IPC analytical process include:

- ***Severity of the situation:*** How severe is the situation with regards to impacts on human lives and livelihoods?
- ***Geographic extent***: What is the approximate geographic area in crisis? This can include livelihood zones, administrative boundaries, agro-ecological zones, etc.
- ***Magnitude:*** What is the estimated number of people experiencing various severity levels of food insecurity?
- ***Immediate causes:*** What are the direct causes of the crisis?
- ***Underlying causes:*** What are the underlying or structural causes of the crisis?
- ***Identification of general needs:*** What basic human needs and aspects of livelihood systems require support?
- ***Distinction of transitory or chronic situations:*** Is the underlying nature of an acute crisis generally food secure or chronically food insecure?
- ***Criteria for social targeting:*** What are the key criteria for targeting interventions?
- ***Projected trend:*** Are conditions in the area expected to improve, to worsen, or stay the same for the foreseeable future?
- ***Confidence level of analysis:*** How confident are the analysts in the outcome of their analysis, based on the estimated reliability of the available evidence?

The IPC does provide strong linkages to response analysis. However, response analysis is kept as a separate analytical stage to ensure greater technical neutrality of the analysis. Discussions about response options can be biased by the agendas of different organizations and groups, and the IPC insulates the situation analysis from such biases to keep it as technically neutral as possible.

In addition to the maps and population tables that are produced to communicate the outcomes of the food security analysis, the actual process of conducting IPC analysis is equally important to applying the technical tools correctly. Figure B.2 illustrates the general process including the six main steps of using the IPC.

Figure B.2: The main steps in IPC analysis



The modules that follow in this Users Guide cover these steps, but are presented in a different order based on the expected needs of most users. *Module 1* which covers Step #3 is likely the starting point for most users of this guide. *Modules 2 - 6* cover the various dimensions of Step #4, and *Module 7* corresponds to Step #5. For countries where the IPC is just beginning, *Module 8* goes through the process of establishing a technical working group and familiarizing analysis with IPC concepts and practice (Step #1 and Step #2).

Steps 6– communicating the outputs to the decision makers and the public – follows the completion of the IPC analytical process, and is not covered by this guide.

These steps are the core of the IPC process. By following them, users are able to benefit from **the added value of the IPC,** which includes:

- ***Comparability over space:*** The IPC uses commonly adopted criteria, which enables comparison of the severity of situations from one place to another. Decision makers can then direct resources to the people most in need.
- ***Comparability over time:*** The common IPC criteria also enable comparison over time in terms of how a situation is worsening or improving. Decision makers can then increase, decrease, or change the strategic focus of the response as well as identify exit criteria.
- ***Transparency and accountability:*** Analysts should be fully transparent in how conclusions are made, and decision makers should demand evidence to support findings. The IPC process takes an evidence-based approach that links specific reference criteria to the phase classification. This provides a transparent justification for the analytical conclusions, and also enforces accountability from the people responsible for the analysis.
- ***Clear early warning:*** Decision makers need to know the future potential severity, likelihood, and timing of a pending crisis. By providing a common understanding for describing crises, the IPC enables early warning messages to be clear, comparable, and actionable.
- ***More strategic response:*** Depending on the specific severity level of a given food security or humanitarian situation, there is a need for fundamentally different emphases in strategic response. The specificity, clarity, and comparability provided by the IPC enable decision makers to be strategic in their response to food insecurity.

C. What It Isn't

In addition to explaining what the IPC is, it is also important to highlight what it is not. First and foremost, the IPC is not a panacea for all the existing challenges in food security analysis. There remain numerous challenges, including with data collection, livelihoods analysis, and interpreting early warning signals, among others. The IPC facilitates and supports one aspect of food security analysis – situation analysis – although that aspect is an overarching one. Indeed, in many ways the IPC can serve as a 'window' into addressing the numerous other challenges associated with food security, and will hopefully draw attention to those and lead to more commitment to developing viable solutions.

More specifically, **the IPC is not**:

- ***A methodology.*** The IPC draws from numerous methods and data sources to analyze the situation. Methods and data can be quantitative or qualitative, and can come from field assessments, satellite imagery, or other secondary data. Indeed, the IPC encourages multiple methods of gathering and examining information; the more methods and data sources, the greater the ability for triangulation and likelihood of getting the analysis right.
- ***An information system.*** The IPC is designed to be adaptable to a wide variety of information systems and analytical approaches. In most countries that experience chronic food insecurity or recurrent humanitarian crises, an information system of some type typically exists. The IPC is designed to build from existing information systems in any given country and help make the most rigorous, consistent, and meaningful use of that data and analysis. As such, the IPC can be equally applicable in 'data rich' and 'data poor' settings.
- ***Response analysis.*** The IPC focuses on situation analysis. It also provides linkages to response analysis, but does not conduct this stage per se. By limiting itself to situation analysis, the IPC can remain technically neutral and avoid biases based on specific government/agency/ donor interests in one particular response or another.

The IPC is also not considered a final product. As it has been developed and implemented in new countries, various improvements and clarifications have been made. While the IPC is already useful in its present form, it is expected that further refinements will be made as the IPC is rolled out in new food security and livelihood contexts. Rather than waiting for the perfect tool to improve our analysis, the IPC roll-out approach is to 'learn-by-doing'. As such, as with this Users Guide, any input and feedback from users are welcome.

D. IPC Components

The sections above provided you with an overview of the general purpose, focus, and added value of the IPC. There are also four specific main 'components' of the IPC – the Reference Table, Evidence Templates, Cartographic Protocols, and Population Table. These serve as a suite of tools that are integrated together in the IPC process to enable the analysis and communicate the results. These main components will be referred to numerous times throughout the modules in the rest of this guide, and this section provides an initial overview of the components and how they relate to the overall IPC process.

The **Reference Table** presents the overarching framework for the IPC analysis. As its name suggests, it is purely for reference: it provides users with a quick but complete picture of the different phases of food insecurity and how they relate to the main indicators and strategic response options. Users do not have to fill out the table at all, but it will serve as a key resource throughout the whole IPC process. The Reference Table is first mentioned in this Users Guide at the very beginning of *Module 1: Building your Evidence.*

Specifically, the Reference Table defines the five phases of food security classification (from Generally Food Secure to Famine/Humanitarian Catastrophe) by the thresholds or characteristics of the main indicators (called 'Key Reference Outcomes'[1], as they generally focus on actual outcomes of conditions on lives and livelihoods, such as acute malnutrition or mortality.

Some indicators are more process oriented, and indirectly relate to an eventual outcome, such as coping strategies or water availability and access. This enables analysts to consider how different pieces of evidence relate to each other and to a particular phase classification for a given geographic area. The different phases are also linked to the Strategic Response Framework. The Reference Table provides a similar definition for the different levels of Risk of Worsening Phase, including the different probabilities of the different levels of risk and the indicators that analysts should look for.

The **Evidence Template** is the tool that you will use to actually record your data in a manner that helps with the phase classification. The template is a blank table that includes space for users to write in the evidence/data and then the main outcomes of the analysis. One template will be filled in with data for each geographic area being considered in the analysis.

The templates are divided into three main parts. Part 1 (*explained in Modules 1, 2, and 3*) is the template in which you record your evidence (current and early warning) that enables you to do the actual classification. Parts 2 and 3 help you analyse the impacts of immediate hazards and underlying causes on livelihoods and consider potential strategic response options (*explained in Module 5*).

The next two components of the IPC are communication tools that you can use once the analysis is complete to share the results with others.

[1] N.B.: The IPC's use of 'outcome' indicators allows standardization and the ability compare food security conditions over time and space. However, process indicators are frequently used to support more direct outcome evidence, and when measures of outcome indicators are not available.

Once the Evidence Templates have been filled out and the analysis of different phase classifications has been completed, the key information is presented to a GIS expert. He or she then inputs the information into geographic information software and produces the IPC map, which is a primary way to communicate the IPC analysis. The **Cartographic Protocols** are basically an explanation of the 'official way' to make an IPC map. They explain issues such as what types of information should be included in the map and how to distinguish between different phases and risk levels. *Module 6* provides an overview of the Cartographic Protocols, although additional support may be needed for the more technical GIS issues (the basics of using a particular GIS computer software package, different ways of storing geographic IPC data, etc).

The second communication tool and fourth main component of the IPC is the **Population Table.** The basic purpose of this table is to simply communicate the number of people who fall into each phase classification. This can be done either at the local level (i.e. how many people are Generally Food Secure, Moderately/Borderline Food Insecure, etc in a particular region of the country) or at the national level (by adding up the number of people in the five phases in each local geographic area of the country). *Module 4* presents different ways of gathering and calculating this type of population data and explains how to communicate the information through a standardized table and in the IPC map.

Ready to start…

You now have a full understanding of the basic purpose, focus, and components of the IPC, and are ready to start an actual IPC analysis. If there is already a technical food security working group in place in your country utilizing the IPC and you are ready to start compiling evidence, you should begin with *Module 1*: Building your Evidence. If you are just starting the IPC in your country, *Module 8* will give you an overview of process and institutional considerations to take into account when first rolling out the IPC.

MODULE 1

BUILDING YOUR EVIDENCE

1.1 Objective of the Module and What You Will Be Able to Do When You Have Completed It

- **Objective**: to guide you in filling out the evidence template part 1, column one
- **You will be able to**:
  - Decide the best geographic unit to base your analysis depending upon the kind of hazard and the way your data is aggregated
  - Present your evidence on the template in a clear and effective way
  - Distinguish between direct and indirect evidence
  - Enter and interpret your data with regard to the reference outcomes used by the IPC

1.2 What You Need

- ✓ Your data
- ✓ The reference table, with a focus on the phases and reference outcome indicators (see page 4 of the Technical Manual)

Figure 1.1: An extract of the reference table

1	**Generally Food Secure**	***Crude Mortality Rate***	< 0.5 / 10,000 / day
		Acute Malnutrition	<3 % (w/h <-2 z-scores)
		Stunting	<20% (h/age <-2 z-scores)
		Food Access/ Availability	usually adequate (> 2,100 kcal ppp day), stable
		Dietary Diversity	consistent quality and quantity of diversity
		Water Access/Avail.	usually adequate (> 15 litres ppp day), stable
		Hazards	moderate to low probability and vulnerability
		Civil Security	prevailing and structural peace
		Livelihood Assets	generally sustainable utilization (of 6 capitals)
2	**Moderately/ Borderline Food Insecure**	***Crude Mortality Rate***	<0.5/10,000/day; U5MR<1/10,000/day
		Acute Malnutrition	>3% but <10 % (w/h <-2 z-score), usual range, stable
		Stunting	>20% (h/age <-2 z-scores)
		Food Access/ Availability	borderline adequate (2,100 kcal ppp day); unstable
		Dietary Diversity	chronic dietary diversity deficit
		Water Access/Avail.	borderline adequate (15 litres ppp day); unstable
		Hazards	recurrent, with high livelihood vulnerability
		Civil Security	Unstable; disruptive tension
		Coping	'insurance strategies'
		Livelihood Assets	stressed and unsustainable utilization (of 6 capitals)
		Structural	Pronounced underlying hindrances to food security

- ✓ A blank evidence template Part 1, with a focus on columns 1 and 2

Figure 1.2: Columns 1 and 2 of a blank evidence template (Part 1)

Area of Analysis (Region, District, or Livelihood Zone)**:**	
Reference Outcomes (As defined by IPC Reference Table)	**Direct and Indirect Evidence For Phase in Given Time Period** • List direct and indirect (e.g., process or proxy indicators) evidence of outcomes (note direct evidence in **bold**) • Note source of evidence • Note evidence Reliability Score (1=very reliable, 2=somewhat reliable 3=unconfirmed) • Identify indicative Phase for each piece of evidence • Note 'Not Applicable' or 'Not Available' if necessary
Crude mortality rate	•
Acute malnutrition	•
Disease	•
Food Access/Availability	•
Dietary diversity	•
Water access/availability	•
Destitution/Displacement	•
Civil Security	•
Coping	•
Structural Issues	•
Hazards	•
Livelihood Assets (5 capitals)	•

1.3 Before You...

The evidence templates are simply a tool for enabling you to record your data in a manner that helps with the phase classification. The templates also make it easy for others to see your evidence and thereby why you decided on a particular phase classification. In this way, the templates both serve you as the analyst to store and show your data, and provide the basis for the IPC's transparency and accountability with the wider food security and humanitarian community.

The templates are divided into three main parts. Part 1 *(dealt with in this module and in modules 2 and 3)* is the template in which you record your evidence (current and early warning) which enables you to do the classification. Part 2 helps you analyse the impact of immediate hazards on livelihoods and leads to developing immediate response options. Part 3 is similar, but focuses on underlying causes, their effects on livelihoods and longer term response opportunities.

1.4 Step 1: Things to Think About Before Entering Your Data

1.4.1 Review your data and hazards, and decide how the analysis should be done

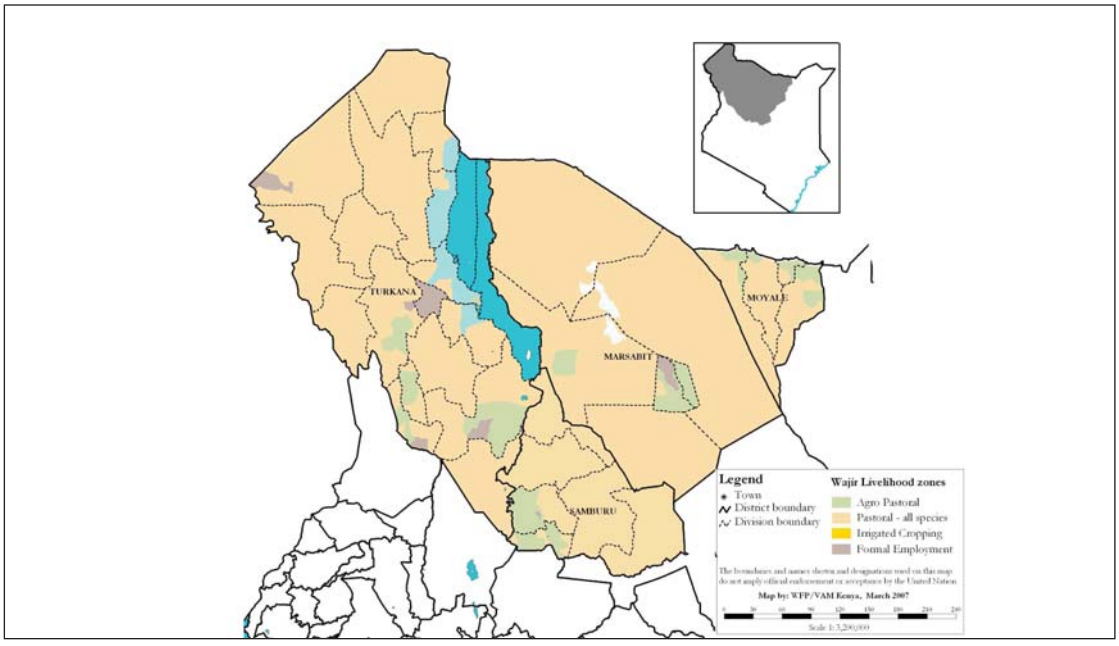
The first step in filling out Part 1 of the template is to decide the area to be analysed and classified (row 1). Generally speaking, it is best to select areas on the basis of livelihood zones because populations tend to be relatively homogeneous and affected in similar ways to a hazard or shock. For example, pastoralists may be affected by a drought in ways that are quite different to sedentary crop agriculturalists: their livelihood base is different (livestock rather than crops) and they are likely to adjust livelihood strategies in different ways (pastoralists are likely to move with their livestock to available pasture; agriculturalists may seek casual labour for example).

Having said this, administrative areas are frequently used as a unit of analysis, usually because data tends to be aggregated by these administrative units by government line ministries (and others) and may not be available for livelihood zones. Some countries have not developed spatial definitions of livelihood zones. In many cases, a mixture of administrative and livelihood zones are used: for example in Kenya several districts are clustered together and then the analysis is done by LZ within each cluster; a similar approach is followed in Southern Sudan with the State, or clusters of 2-3 states being the primary analysis unit and then LZ are analysed within the cluster. When thinking about using LZs or another unit, it is important to consider whether vulnerability varies more ***within*** the population of a given LZ or more ***between*** LZs, relative to the hazard that they are exposed to. For example, very poor people may be at equal risk across LZs rather than different wealth categories within a particular LZ – in this case poor people would be a better unit of analysis rather than LZs.

In some cases, the way that the hazard or shock is known to have affected a population will determine the way the analysis is conducted and the number of templates filled out. For example, in the 2008 post-election violence in Kenya, there were two distinctly different populations that were affected in different ways: the Internally Displaced People (IDPs) and the non-displaced farmers who were still on their land, but affected in different ways. In this case, two templates would be filled out. Another example may be the impact of flooding on different groups depending upon their proximity to the flooded areas. Again in this case two templates are likely to be appropriate: one for those directly affected by the flooding and one for those indirectly affected.

However your country decides to operate or is able to disaggregate the data and analysis, a separate template will be filled out for each area accordingly (administrative, livelihood zone or other unit). So for example, in north west Kenya pastoral cluster (Turkana, Marsabit, Moyale and Samburu Districts) the pastoral and agro-pastoral LZs would be analysed by two separate templates, with formal employment being left out completely (see Figure 1.3).

Figure 1.3: Livelihood Zones of Kenya's Northern Pastoral Cluster



1.4.2 General guidelines

Column two of the template is the main area in which you can record your data for further analysis. The easiest way to fill in this part of the template is to go down the list from indicator to indicator and add all the available data you have under each. It is important that you include *all* the data you have in as much detail as possible.

Summary statements on data that is analysed elsewhere, (such as in a report), is not usually considered to be sufficient evidence for making a classification or for accountability purposes. For example, a statement like "maize harvests were below normal" does not tell us very much; but a table showing actual production in an area with a long term average and actual/ percentage differences gives an accurate picture of one aspect of food availability, such as found in the below example from Kenya in Figure 1.4.

Figure 1.4: Use Tables to Present Data in Easily Understood Ways

Food Access/ Availability

- ***Food Access:***
  - ***Food sources***:
    Own Production: District wide production almost met MoA targets for the year for maize and beans. Post election losses from the violence totalled 24% of the maize crop and 9% of the bean crop:

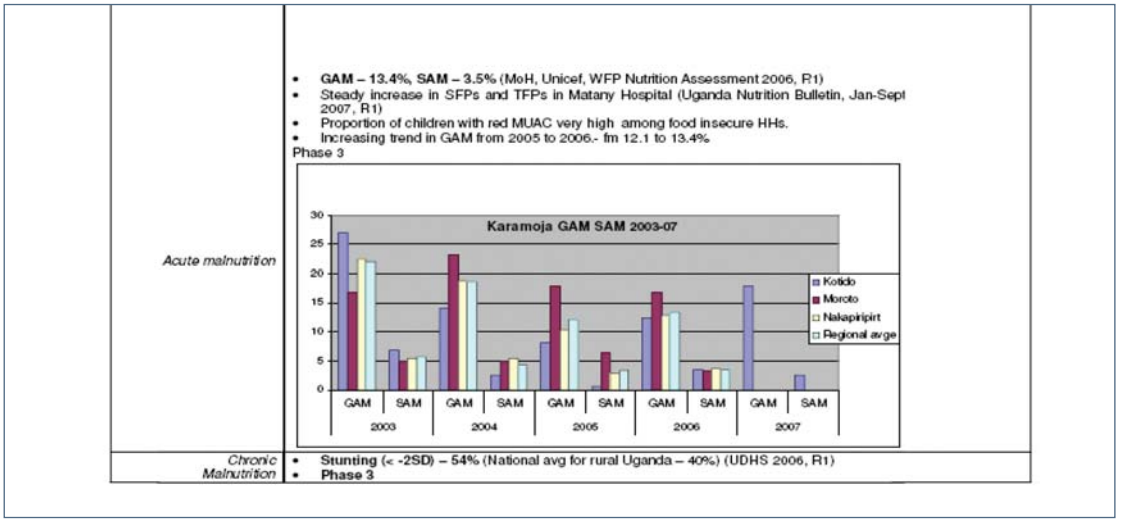
Larger Nakuru district	Maize (bags)	Beans (bags)	Potatoes (tonnes)
Expected output 2007	1,886,307	441,556	108,650
Post election losses	450,000	40,000	15,500
% losses	24	9	14

Non-displaced farmers report good harvests and no exceptional post harvest losses. Stores typically contain three times consumption requirements for the year (30 bags maize; 1.4 bags requirement/ person/year = 9.8 bags per household per year). In addition, some non-displaced farmers may have access to unharvested crops from displaced farmers, boosting potential food stores. Milk sources remain stable as a source of consumption.
Source: MoA and farmer interviews during SRA 08. Reliability = 1.

- ***Income sources***:
  Incomes mainly sales of surplus produce. Constraints to market access make sales difficult. Farm gate prices between 16% (maize) and 38% (beans) below wholesale prices.

Where possible and appropriate, add charts to summarise comparisons or timelines to show trends in data such as in this example from Karamoja in Uganda illustrated in figure 1.5.

Figure 1.5: Use Charts to Get Across Important Comparisons or Timelines



Timelines are particularly important when season variations are part of the normal behaviour of an indicator, such as the price of staple food commodities which tend to reduce after a harvest and increase as the season progresses. An indicator that is behaving abnormally for the time of year may give cause for concern.

Direct and Indirect Evidence

To help with the analysis and classification process, it is useful to distinguish between direct and indirect evidence. *Direct evidence* is data that directly measures the outcome reference indicator, and can therefore be compared to a given threshold. *Indirect evidence* on the other hand, is evidence that does not directly measure the reference outcome, and cannot be compared to a threshold. For example, a properly conducted weight for height survey would provide *direct* evidence of the reference outcome indicator of acute malnutrition, and can be measured against the threshold for a particular phase.

Taking the example from Karamoja above, a GAM rate of 13.4% would indicate a phase of Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis (10-15%) in Kotido for this indicator, especially as it has increased from 2005 and 2006 (though the evidence provided does not give the month of these surveys and any possible seasonal variation) and is above the regional average. *Indirect* evidence for the same indicator could be data from **health centres** or **supplementary feeding centres** indicating an increase or decrease in observed acute malnutrition or enrolment rates in the centre. Note that even when these sources come with anthropometric data, the evidence is still not direct since it is unlikely to represent the population as a whole (as a properly conducted survey would) and cannot be measured against a threshold.

To distinguish between direct and indirect evidence, it is helpful to **bold** or colour the font of direct evidence.

BOX 1

All evidence is important and should be entered in the Evidence Template. Direct evidence is often not available or is of low reliability. Indirect evidence is important in its own right, and not just to support or triangulate direct evidence. Phases can still be assigned in the absence of direct evidence, and on the sole basis of indirect evidence (see Module 2 on doing the phase classification).

Source of Information

For the sake of transparency and also as an indication of reliability, it is important to state the source of the data presented in the evidence templates. The date of the information is also important, especially for some indicators that have a short 'shelf life'.

Reliability

This is currently a rather subjective score from 1 = very reliable; 2 = somewhat reliable; to 3 = unconfirmed. The *two* main things to keep in mind are: a) the quality of the data in terms of source; method of collection; whether it is supported by other data or contradicted by it; and b) the validity of the data especially in terms of how old it is. The latter will depend upon the nature of the indicator. There is as yet no fixed guidance on the temporal validity of any of the indicators. However, it should be obvious that a nutrition survey measuring acute malnutrition (to continue with the previous example) even when properly conducted, is not going to be very useful if it has been done more than 6 months previously, apart from for comparative analysis with updated data. Indeed, in areas where nutritional status changes significantly between seasons even in 'normal' years, the shelf life of the data may be considerably shorter. At the end of the day, it is up to the analysts doing the classification to make a judgement on the reliability of the data.

Availability/Non-Availability of Data

If data is not available for an indicator (either direct or indirect) it is good practice to state that there is 'no available data' rather than just leaving the space blank and therefore ambiguous to others.

Counter Evidence

Where some evidence contradicts other evidence, it is useful to highlight this together with relative reliability. Sometimes counter evidence refers to specific pockets of food insecurity within wider area or livelihood zone in better conditions otherwise (See Figure 1.6).

Figure 1.6: Example of Counter Evidence from FSAU (Somalia)

Food Access/ Availability	**FOOD SOURCES** **Own Cereal Production – Agro-pastoral** ◊ Deyr'06/7crop production is good (with the exception of parts of Hudur & Tieglow districts) and production estimated to 398% of Deyr PWA and >2000% of Gu'06 production - harvesting is to start Late Jan. to early Feb.'07: Source: FSAU Post-Deyr'06/7 Crop Production Survey/Data; R=1 ◊ Agro-pastoralist have had access to early Green Maize/Cowpea; Source: FSAU Post-Deyr'06/7 crop assessment and observation; R=1 ◊ Although there is milk from medium to high kidding of goats/sheep in Deyr '06 (Nov.-Dec.) but no milk from cattle. Some cattle calving is expected in Feb-March '06 while medium to high kidding in May-June '06; (Source: FSAU Post-Deyr '06 Pastoral Assessment R=1) ***Counter-Evidence*** ◊ Poor crop expectations (for Agro-pastoralists) in pockets of Tieglow and Hudur due to failed and poor (RATOON) crops, severely affected by rains and diseases; FSAU Post-Deyr'06/7 crop assessment and observation; R=1 ◊ Lack of carry-over cereal stocks (poor and middle agro-pastoralists) due to several drought seasons (Poor cereal crop production in Bakool: Gu'05 36%, Deyr'05/6 13% and Gu'06 58% of PWA); Source: FSAU reports of Post-Gu'05, Post-Deyr'05/6 & Post-Gu'06 technical reports; R=1

Summary Statements

In some cases, you will have accumulated a lot of evidence for a particular indicator, and some of which may be contradictory. A common example is under food access and availability: by the time a reader has gone through all the sections under this indicator (food sources, expenditure, incomes etc) it might not be immediately clear what the evidence is saying. It is the job of the analyst to provide easily understood

statements that accurately synthesise the evidence, while leaving the evidence for others to look at in detail. **One way of doing this is to add a simple statement before the evidence for the indicator is presented** as shown in the example below from Somalia (Figure 1.7).

Figure 1.7: The Use of an Overall Statement for Complex Multivariate Indicators

Food Access/Availability	• **Food Access:** **Food sources:** **Overall Statement:** Crop production in this Deyr is 33% of last Deyr 06/07 and 36% of PWA and 34% compared to five years average. Food security situation is deteriorating due to poor seasonal performance, which led to low production from livestock and crop, lack of cereal stock availability, poor income opportunity and steadily increased prices in staple and non-staple food commodities. In addition, there is resource based conflicts and economic burden from the IDPs influx on host families. Although there is slightly increase in livestock price, which may mitigate the deterioration of the food security, it is only benefit for the better off wealth groups. o **Own Cereal Production:** Deyr 07/08 crop production is extremely below normal. The total cereal production of Hiran region is 2,390MT, which is 33% compared to last Deyr 06/07and 36% compared to PWA 34 % compared to five year average. o **Own Cash Crop Production:** almost all agro-pastoral households planted different types of cereals, but the expected production is extremely low to none due to poor rainfall and diseases, 50-70% of LTM). Almost all agro-pastoral eco-zones failed except small area of Jalalaqsi district, which contributes few. Source: FSAU and Partner post Deyr assessment, R=1 o **Own Milk Production:** milk production from all livestock species is overall below normal due to mainly poor pasture resulted by the poor seasonal performance in the region. Source: FSAU and Partner post Deyr 07/08 assessment, R=1 o **Market Purchase (Staple food: cereals):** the prices of cereals increased. The prices of sorghum and maize increased by 22% and 24%, 13% and 12%, 35% and 105% in Dec.07 compared to July Gu 07, Dec.06 and five years average respectively. Source: FSAU market update, Dec.07, R=1 o **Cereal Market Availability:** availability of cereals (sorghum and maize) in the main markets is well below normal, which led to significant price increase, due to crop failure in this Deyr'07/08 and previous successive poor crop production. However, there is red sorghum distribution in Hiran region by CARE, which decreased prices of sorghum in Nov. and Dec.07. Source: FSAU and Partner post Deyr 07/08 crop survey, R=1 o **Sugar Prices:** the price of sugar has slightly increased. In Dec.07, prices increased by 10%, 22%46% compared to July *Gu* 07, same month of last year and five years average

Sources and types of Data

Any food security analysis tool is reliant upon data that is appropriate of sufficient quantity, is up to date within reason and of acceptable quality. There are no hard rules about quality and quantity of data; however, it is clear that the better the data you have the more confident you will be about your food security analysis and ultimately your phase classification using the IPC. As the IPC, like all other similar tools, is highly dependant upon good data, an example of the kinds of data you would optimally need and possible sources have been included in Annex 1 of this Guide. This is really for reference, and you should not get too hung up on this at this stage.... but it is good to have a look at before you get down to filling in your templates with your own data. While Annex 1 provides some guidance on the optimal level of data, it is important that you understand that no country is going to have all the data available at a given time, and that it is not necessary to have all the data available to do a classification (see also *Module 2* on confidence, Step 1, Part 3). Given data is so important to the analysis, it is also a good idea to do a data mapping exercise to identify the sources and availability of data in your country. This is described in *Module 8*, Step 2, Part b, and again Annex 1 may help you with this process.

1.5 Step 2: Filling out the First Column of Evidence Template 1: An Indicator by Indicator Guide

A. Mortality Rates

Direct Evidence: **Crude Mortality Rate** (CMR, sometimes referred to as Crude Death Rate, CDR) is simply the number of people in the total population who die over a specified period of time and is usually expressed as **deaths/10,000/day**. The CMR can also be expressed using other units such as deaths/1,000/month, in which case the time interval is expressed in months and 1,000 is substituted for 10,000 in the formula. For use in the IPC, *all* death rates should be expressed as deaths/10,000/day to avoid confusing non-expert readers who become used to working with one set of units.

BOX 2

The conversion factor is 30.4/10 = 3.04 (there are an average of 30.4 days in one month). To convert a result expressed as deaths/10,000/day to deaths/1,000/month, multiply by 3.04. Similarly, to express the result as deaths/1,000/year, the time interval is expressed in years. The conversion factor is 365/10 = 36.5; to convert deaths/10,000/day to deaths/1,000/year, multiply by 36.5. The different ways of expressing the CMR are exactly equivalent: one can be readily converted to another.

Figure 1.8: IPC Reference Outcomes—Crude Mortality Rate

Reference Outcome	PHASE	Generally Food Secure	Generally Food Insecure	Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis	Humanitarian Emergency	Famine/ Humanitarian Catastrophe
		1 A and 1B	2	3	4	5
Crude Mortality Rate # deaths per 10,000 people per day		CMR <0.5 U5MR<=1	CMR < 0.5 U5MR<=1	CMR 0.5 - 1 increasing U5MR 1-2	CMR 1-2, increasing, or >2x reference rate U5MR >4	CMR > 2 (example: 6000 deaths/ 1,000,000 people/30 days)

Under-5 Mortality Rate (U5MR) is more confusing since it can refer to two distinct indicators that measure slightly different things. The IPC manual uses the indicator that is commonly used in emergency situations, which is more sensitive to short-term changes and is similar to CMR. This is the number of children between the ages 0-5 who die over a specified period of time, and again is expressed in **deaths/10,000/day**. This indicator is sometimes called the "0-5 year death rate", or "age-specific death rate for children 0-5".

Don't confuse this with the indicator that calculates the probability that a child born in a particular year dies before the age of 5 and is normally expressed deaths per 1,000 live births. This indicator is more often used in longer-term development contexts, and is more often included in Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) than the first indicator. Under-5 MR is measured using both indicators, but the concepts; calculations and numerical results are quite different.

For the IPC, we generally use the first method as it is more useful when looking at changes that are occurring relatively quickly. This indicator also has internationally recognised thresholds, which is useful for the phase classification. However, *all* evidence is useful, and Under-5 MR using the 'deaths/1,000 live births' is still

useful indirect information. As rule of thumb, the latter measure is approximately five times higher than the equivalent using the deaths/10,000/day measure, though *you cannot calculate one from the other.*

Indirect evidence: information on both CMR and Under 5 MR may come from sources that are not representative of the population as a whole, and cannot therefore be included as direct evidence. Examples would include health information systems with data from health facilities; supplementary or therapeutic feeding centres; or even more anecdotal information coming from key informants. All of these data are useful, but may have different levels of *reliability.*

B. Acute Malnutrition

When people become malnourished over the short term, this is referred to as acute malnutrition, and is characterised by 'thinness' or wasting (i.e. people lose weight but do not change other measurements such as height which has more to do with chronic malnutrition – see stunting below).

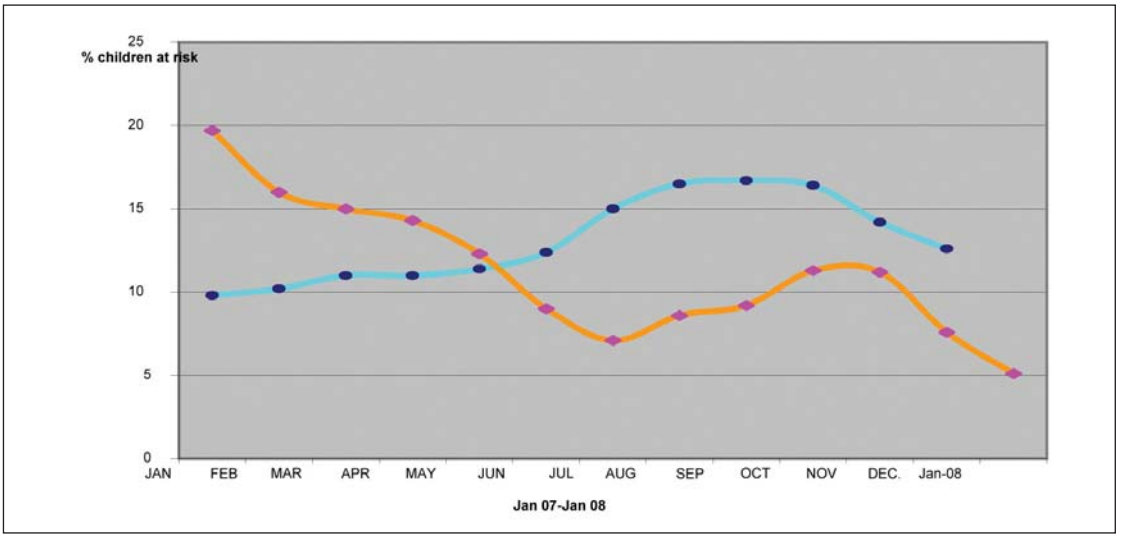
Figure 1.9: IPC Reference Outcomes—Acute Malnutrition

Reference Outcome	PHASE	Generally Food Secure	Generally Food Insecure	Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis	Humanitarian Emergency	Famine/ Humanitarian Catastrophe
		1A and 1B	2	3	4	5
Acute Malnutrition (w/h < -2 z –scores)		<3%	>3% but < 10%, usual range, stable	10-15%, > usual, increasing	>15%, > usual, increasing	>30%

Direct evidence: The standard measurement for acute malnutrition is weight for height (w/h), and is expressed as Z-scores, which are standard deviations from the median. Older methods use % of children falling under 80% of median w/h: this is acceptable as an approximation, but generally IPC practitioners are encouraged to use z-scores to promote comparability (note that you can convert to z-scores if you have the raw datasets for the survey). To be used as direct evidence, data must be representative of the population being considered in the sample frame, which normally means that data will be coming from properly conducted nutrition surveys using a standardised methodology. Note that w/h surveys capture the nutritional status of children 6 to 59 months old as they are more sensitive to wasting. The findings are used as a proxy for the rest of the population.

Indirect evidence: A good measure of wasting is Mid-Upper Arm Circumference (MUAC). But it cannot be directly compared to w/h. MUAC is commonly used for screening and sentinel site monitoring. In some cases, MUAC data is available for large areas of a country on a regular basis (as it is much cheaper to do than w/h surveys) and can be a very useful indicator of acute malnutrition with the added value of being able to analyse trends over time. An example of this comes from Kenya, where MUAC is measured from sentinel sites on a monthly basis in all the ASAL districts, which means that changes over time can be monitored and compared with long-term seasonal averages, as is shown in Figure 1.10.

Figure 1.10: Trends in Acute Malnutrition (MUAC) in Garissa: 2007 compared to long term average (2001- 2006)



Other indirect evidence may come from facility-based sources, such as hospitals, health posts, supplementary or therapeutic feeding centres etc. These are useful data to help build up a picture of what is happening regarding acute malnutrition, trends, and the possible causes.

C. Stunting

Long-term chronic malnutrition results in stunting whereby individuals experience retarded growth compared to a reference population resulting from inadequate nutrition and/or repeated infections such as diarrhoea.

Figure 1.11: IPC Reference Outcomes—Stunting

Reference Outcome	PHASE	Generally Food Secure	Generally Food Insecure	Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis	Humanitarian Emergency	Famine/ Humanitarian Catastrophe
		1A and 1B	2	3	4	5
Stunting (h/age <-2z scores)		<20%	20-40%	NDC*	NDC	NDC

NDC – Not a Defining Characteristic

* *Note that although Stunting is not a defining characteristic for crisis phases (3, 4 and 5) – i.e. it does not help you to classify these phases-, evidence of stunting may be an important piece of information in the crisis phases, since it indicates an underlying level of chronic food insecurity which would need to be addressed appropriately.*

Direct evidence: The standard measurement for stunting is height for age (h/a), and like w/h is expressed in z-scores. This reference indicator is only relevant for the first two phases in the IPC which relate more to long-term malnutrition, being in the non-crisis stage: stunting is not included in the reference outcomes for phases 3-5. Like acute malnutrition, to be used as direct evidence, data must be representative of the population being considered in the sample frame, which normally means that data will be coming from properly conducted nutrition surveys using a standardised methodology.

Indirect evidence: h/a data is commonly collected as part of growth monitoring systems run by health facilities in rural and urban centres, and as such is relatively available through health information systems in many countries. Being facility-based however, means that it is generally not representative of the population as a whole, and should therefore be considered as useful indirect evidence. Time series analysis could be a useful exercise with this kind of data, rather using it for point-in-time purposes.

D. Disease

Firstly, you will notice that there is no recognised threshold for this reference outcome, as prevalence will depend upon the type of disease. For our purposes, the differentiation between *endemic*, *epidemic* and *pandemic* gives us some guidance, and our knowledge of the impact of various diseases will help to develop the overall picture.

It is important to consider disease implications together with other indicators, especially food access and availability and water access and availability. Disease may be the singular most important reason for high malnutrition rates, which may in turn be caused by poor water quality or poor child care practices (such as in parts of southern Sudan) rather than a factor of poor food access or availability.

Figure 1.12: IPC Reference Outcomes—Disease

Reference Outcome	PHASE	Generally Food Secure	Generally Food Insecure	Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis	Humanitarian Emergency	Famine/ Humanitarian Catastrophe
		1A and 1B	2	3	4	5
Disease		NDC	NDC	Epidemic outbreak; increasing	Pandemic outbreak	Pandemic outbreak

NDC – Not a Defining Characteristic

Direct evidence of disease status will most likely be a part of a properly conducted survey, such as a nutrition survey where disease enquiries are included. This data is likely to be reasonably representative of the population as a whole. Indirect evidence could be sourced at health facilities, or more anecdotal reports.

E. Food Access and Availability

This is an obviously key indicator for food security analysis and phase classification. The standard *direct evidence* for food access is the amount of food consumed by an individual per day, measured in kilocalories (Kcal), with the emergency threshold set at a minimum consumption of 2,100 Kcal per day.

BOX 3

Daily food consumption at or above 2,100 Kcal per person is considered to be Generally Food Secure or Moderately/Borderline Food Insecure, while consumption below 2,100 Kcal per person per day indicates Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis or worse, depending on the Kcal shortfall.

Figure 1.13: IPC Reference Outcomes—Food Access / Availability

Reference Outcome	PHASE	Generally Food Secure	Generally Food Insecure	Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis	Humanitarian Emergency	Famine/ Humanitarian Catastrophe
		1A and 1B	2	3	4	5
Food Access/Availability		Usually adequate, stable (2,100 kcal per person per day)	Borderline adequate, unstable (2,100 kcal pppd)	Lack of entitlement (2,100 kcal pppd); meeting minimum needs through asset stripping	Severe entitlement gap, Unable to meet minimum needs	Extreme entitlement gap; much below 2100 kcal pppd

However, in practice it is very rare to have sufficient direct evidence to analyze food access based on Kcal consumed per person. Additionally, some analysts suggest that the specific reference threshold of 2,100 Kcal can be misleading, and should not be generalized across population groups, age, gender, and situations. You should consider the Kcal thresholds in the Reference Table as guidance, and be sure to include *other* supporting evidence in your analysis of food access and availability.

Fortunately, there is usually good *indirect evidence* available that you can use with high confidence to make your analysis. The section for food access/availability in the Evidence Template has in fact been set up to reflect it (Figure 1.14).

The different types of indicators under *food access/availability* reflect the various types of indirect evidence that can be used in the analysis: retail sales volumes in local markets, market prices of staple commodities, local or national crop production levels, current income levels for different livelihoods, domestic imports, or many other such factors that can affect purchasing power, the supply of staple foods, and/or social access.

Figure 1.14: Food Access / Availability Section in Evidence Template

Area of Analysis (Region, District, or Livelihood Zone):	
Reference Outcomes	**Direct and Indirect Evidence For Phase in Given Time Period**
Food Access/Availability	• **Food Access:** o Food sources: o Income sources: o Expenditures: o Purchasing power: o Social Access: • **Food Availability** o Production: o Supply lines: o Cereal balance sheets: • **Other direct or indirect measures:**

The key in using such information is to consider what the implications are in terms of actual food consumption **compared to normal** for the particular time of year, and **whether the evidence available indicates abnormal stress**.

For example, market price data in the particular area being analyzed may indicate that the prices of staple cereals are rising. This does not necessarily indicate that food access is poor. It needs further clarification pertaining to:

- How cereal prices normally behave at that particular time of year;
- Whether they usually increase seasonally at that particular time (before a harvest, for example), and if so, whether the current price rises are above or below normal;
- Since prices are not the only factor influencing food access; what the current levels of household income are compared to normal;
- Whether livestock prices are increasing or decreasing for pastoralists, and how those price changes relate to the rise in cereal prices in terms of purchasing power;
- Whether the previous harvest was good enough for agricultural households to make them benefit from increasing prices by selling their stocks.

You will notice that the analysis will tend to focus on a population group, which may include wealth groups, social groups, or livelihood groups, instead of focusing on an individual. This is important given the complex interaction of the multiple variables related to food access and availability.

It is best to consider how the sources of food, sources of income, expenditure patterns, and coping strategies all merge together to affect *food access*, and this often easiest by looking at a particular livelihood system. By taking all of the indirect evidence that is available and asking what it likely implies in terms of food consumption relative to normal conditions for a particular livelihood group, you will be able to make a confident analysis of food access/availability.

You will recall that the IPC is not a methodology for food security analysis, and it in fact welcomes and encourages multiple ways of gathering and examining data. There may be a particular method already in use in your country for monitoring food access and availability that uses the indirect evidence that is available. If so, you should certainly take advantage of that method and incorporate it into the IPC analysis. One such method is the Household Economy Approach (HEA). HEA has worked well to analyze food access and availability in numerous locations (including Somalia where the IPC was initially developed), and is in many ways an ideal way to complete the food access/availability section of the Evidence Template. However, other methodologies can also be used with confidence, and you should consider what approach makes the most sense for your country.

Most livelihoods-based analysis methods (E.g. Household Economy, Household Basket approaches …etc) are founded on the idea that a household's risk of becoming food insecure is based on two things: the occurrence of some event or shock (such as a drought, a conflict or a sudden rise in fuel prices), and the household's vulnerability to such a shock (which is based on its particular livelihood strategies, such as its sources of income and food and coping strategies, and on its assets). Ideally, an analysis starts with significant baseline data about the livelihood assets and strategies in a particular livelihood zone. The potential impact of a particular shock and its severity on the livelihood of households in the zone can then be analysed, and usually includes an elasticity function to incorporate how they are likely to cope in terms of changing consumption or expenditure patterns. Where good data and baselines exist, an estimated deficit can then be calculated in relation to the households' normal consumption, either in terms of food (Kcal) or another unit such as cash, which is the exact piece of indirect evidence that enables the phase classification in the IPC analysis.
For example, a 20 percent increase in cereal prices might cause a poor pastoralist household to sell an extra animal to increase its income (thereby reducing its assets), decrease its consumption of cereals relative to normal, and increase the collection of firewood for sale (moving household members away from livestock and the main source of milk). HEA would estimate the specific decrease in food access that would result, which would then enable a phase classification based on food access/availability for that livelihood group. An example of how HEA can be used to complete this section of the Evidence Template from Somalia follows (Figure 1.15).

Figure 1.15: Example of HEA Used to Complete Food Access / Availability Section in Evidence Template for Riverine Livelihood Zone, Somalia

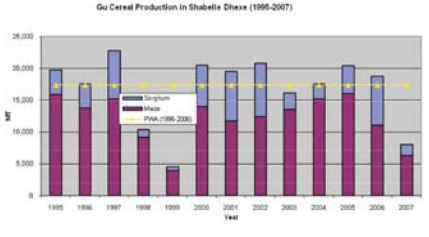
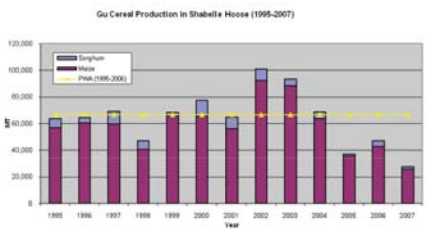
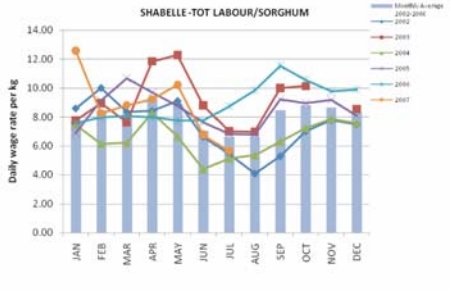
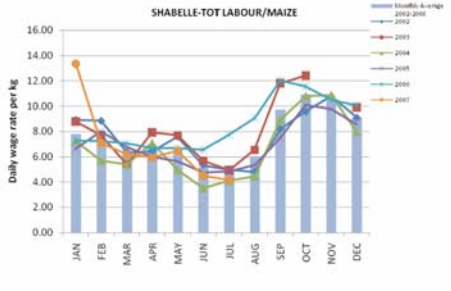
Part 1: Area Affected, Phase Classification, and Evidence in Support of Phase Classification and Early Warning Levels				
Affected Area, & Projected Time Period Affected Area: Region, District, and/or Livelihood Zone	**Key Reference Outcomes**	**Applicable IPC Key Reference Outcome Phase Statement** • Identify the Phase Classification for each key reference outcome as indicated by evidence , i.e. GFS, CFI, AFLC, HE, F/HC) • Relevant IPC reference outcome statement as indicated by evidence	**Direct & Indirect Evidence** • Indirect Evidence in support of IPC Phase Classification • Source of Evidence • Evidence Reliability Score (1=very reliable, 2=somewhat reliable 3=unconfirmed)	**Overall IPC Phase Classification & Early Warning Level** Tick Appropriate Box
Affected Region: **Shabelle Valley Regions:** Jowhar,Marka Balad,Qoriole,Afgoye,K/warey and Sablaale **Livelihood Zone:** **Riverine** **Projected Time Period:** **July-Dec.2007** **Previous Period IPC Phase:** **Jan.-June 2007** **CFI**	***Food Access***	**IPC Phase: HE & AFLC** • **Food Access:** Severe entitlement gap; unable to meet 2100kcal/ppp/day.  	**Food Sources** ***Own Production*** ***Overall Statement:*** *Maize production (main stable food of riverine) in this Gu 07 is significantly below normal and no cereal stock for poor wealth groups due to less land cultivated and the limited income of agriculture labor from the poor seasonal performance and high influx of IDP,s, therefore, poor wealth group are unable to meet minimum food required over coming six months (July-December '07).* **Own production: Gu '07 total cereal production** for the Shabelle Riverine is estimated at 35,270Mt of which 27,295Mt is from Lower Shabelle (41% of Gu PWA, 58%Gu06) and 7,975Mt from M/Shabelle (43% of PWA 1995-2006, 46 Gu06). This production is the lowest for the period 1995-2006). (Source: FSAU post-Gu'07 Crop Assessment and FSAU crop data; R=1). • **Prospects for the Deyr '07/08 crop production** is also uncertain, given the deteriorating irrigation infrastructure, open river embankments and the high cost of farm inputs. • **Cereal stocks:** While overall production is less than normal the total tonnage from the Gu season in the Lower Shabelle Riverine is equivalent to 6 months of cereal per person for that population mainly wealthier groups (middle and better off). (Source: Gu Season Crop Survey, July/August 2007, R=1). ***Market Purchase - Staple:*** ***Overall Statement: Cereal prices have been increasing since January following usual trend and 9% above the 5 year average for July. Prices however are projected to increase further as the current GU'07 production is low. Therefore, the cereal access through purchase will be difficult as the cereal price is anticipated to increase.*** • **Cereal prices:** While maize prices have increased over the last 6 months they are only 9% higher than July 5 year average. However, there is anticipation of upward trend for the coming 6 months (July – December 2007). • **Cereal Market Availability:** Cereal availability in the market is low due to the poor production of the current Gu '07 and limited supply from sorghum belt. Moreover, poor riverine do not have cereal stock at all and available cereal are not easily accessible due to sharp increase of cereal price. (Source: FSAU post-Gu '07 Assessment; R=2)	**IPC Phase Classification:** Generally Food Secure Chronically Food Insecure ✓ Acute Food & Livelihood Crisis ✓ Humanitarian Emergency Famine **Early Warning Level:** No Early Warning Alert Moderate Risk ✓ High Risk o ACFL o HE (X) o Famine/HC

Figure 1.15 (continued)

Food Access







- Purchasing Power (Terms of Trade): Terms of trade for cereal (maize) to labor wages is 23% lower than the 5 year average in July 07 was 4.14 Kg compared to 7.73 in July 06. This can be attributed to the poor crop performances and reduced need for labor as well as the increased supply of labor as a result of the IDP influx. (Source: FSAU Market Data Update July 2007; R=1).

Market Purchases (Non-Staple Food)

Overall Statement: *Significant stressed market access of non-staple food items, due to hyper-inflation in short period of time of key imported non-staple food items as result of devaluation of Somali Shilling and reduced volume of commercial imports.*

- **Commercially imported food prices** are increasing. Sugar and cooking oil prices gone up by 16% and 44% respectively from January07-June07 and are 32% and 58% higher than the 5 year average. Fuel prices also reached its highest level, 13% higher than the previous peak in June '04. The main reason for this is due to supply shortages, depreciation of the SoSh, high taxation and insecurity in Bakaara market. (Source: Market Data Update, July '07).

Other Food Sources (wild food & gifts)

Overall Statement: W*ild food availability and social support have declined, due to overall stress across all livelihood groups following hyper-inflation, lack of economic labor activities, and poor crop production.*

- **Wild food consumption**: pockets of Poor Riverine have access to wild foods (water lily, wild vegetables and fishes) in previous flooded areas. However, consumption of mango fruits has prevailed throughout the riverine areas. (Source: FSAU Post Gu 2007 Assessment, July/August 2007).
- **Social support/gifts of food**: social support from crop zaka decreased, due to poor Gu07 production. Similarly, the neighboring agro-pastoral livelihood has experienced crop failure. (Source: FSAU Post Gu '07 Assessment, R=1).

Income Sources:

Own Production Sales

Overall Statement: *Overall income from crop sales has declined, because of the poor Gu07 production. In addition Hagai sesame which is the main cash crop failed.*

- **Cereal crop sales** are lower due to cereal production 50% of Gu PWA in Shabelle Valley. There are however variations between the districts of the region.
- **Cash income from Hagai sesame** is almost nil due to the failure of Hagai showers and the poor irrigation infrastructure (silting of canals and open breakages etc).
- There is *limited access to income from fodder sales* (grass, crop stalks etc), due to increased demand for livestock feed. (Source: FSAU post-Gu '07 Assessment; R=1)

F. Dietary Diversity

Different methods of collection and analysis are currently being used, and none have been sufficiently tested for standardisation. For example, WFP use a 12 food group method, with a 7 day recall period, and include a food consumption score as part of the analysis. FAO on the other hand have adopted the FANTA method which has 16 food groups collected on the basis of a 24 hour recall, which are then collapsed into 12 food groups for calculating a Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS). Internationally recognised thresholds for either (or other) methods are yet to be agreed.

In the IPC spirit of inclusivity, the analysis can be done using either (or other) methods: given time and testing it may be possible in the future to suggest one standard. Interpretation of dietary diversity methods has also yet to be standardised. In addition to point-in-time data, Dietary Diversity Indexes (DDI) can usefully be used to monitor trends in diversity, which is especially useful to understand seasonal norms and anomalies for different livelihood groups. Detailed analysis of food groups can also be instrumental in locating specific areas of dietary deficiency, such as vitamin A rich foods, and thereby identifying potential entry points for interventions. This would be appropriate where dietary diversity is very low and has a major impact on overall food security and/or nutritional status. Figure 1.17 shows an example of evidence for the Dietary Diversity reference outcome.

Figure 1.16: IPC Reference Outcomes—Dietary Diversity

Reference Outcome	PHASE	Generally Food Secure	Generally Food Insecure	Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis	Humanitarian Emergency	Famine/ Humanitarian Catastrophe
		1A and 1B	2	3	4	5
Dietary Diversity		Consistent quality and quantity of diversity	Chronic deficit in dietary diversity	Acute dietary deficit	Regularly 3 or fewer main food groups consumed	NDC

NDC – Not a Defining Characteristic

Figure 1.17: Example of Dietary Diversity, Somalia

Dietary Diversity	***Overall Statement:*** *Dietary diversity is acceptable (significant source constitutes food aid) but problem with child feeding frequency and care practices.* • **Nutrition Assessment:** Oct-Nov 2007 reports 96.1% of assessed households to be consuming >3 food groups, source of food mainly cereal, and pulse, from food aid and increased fruits and vegetables and milk. (Source: FSAU Nutrition Assessment, Oct-Nov 2007, R=1).
Chronic dietary diversity deficit.	**Child feeding practices:** area of concern with 98.8% introduced to complimentary food before the recommended age of 6months (Source: FSAU/Partner Nutrition A *Dietary diversity is acceptable (though the source constitutes food aid) but problem with child feeding frequency and care practices.* • Nutrition Assessment Oct-Nov 2007 reports 96.1% of assessed households to be consuming >3 food groups, source of food mainly cereal, and pulse, from food aid and increased fruits and vegetables and milk. (Source: FSAU Nutrition Assessment, Oct-Nov 2007, R=1). • Child feeding practices are of concern with 98.8% were introduced to complimentary food before the recommended age of 6months (Source: FSAU/Partner Nutrition Assessment, Oct-Nov 2007, R=1).

G. Water Access and Availability

This is another indicator whose reference outcome (quantity of water consumed) is difficult to come by in most countries, with the possible exception of specific populations living in camps (IDPs or refugees). A number of indirect methods have evolved including distance (or time) that households have to travel to the nearest water point for domestic use; and the distance between pasture and water especially in pastoral and agro-pastoral areas, all of which are valid.

BOX 4

Water Access and Availability vs. Quality

A common mistake in filling out the templates is to include water quality in this section. While this is an important factor, it is more closely related as a process indicator to health outcomes, and should be included as indirect evidence under the disease section.

Figure 1.18: IPC Reference Outcomes—Water Access / Availability

Reference Outcome	PHASE	Generally Food Secure	Moderate/ Borderline Food Insecure	Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis	Humanitarian Emergency	Famine/ Humanitarian Catastrophe
		1A and 1B	2	3	4	5
Water Access/ Availability		Usually adequate, Stable (>15 litres per person per day)	Borderline adequate, unstable (>15 litres pppd)	7.5 – 15 litres pppd; meeting minimum needs through asset stripping	<7.5 litres pppd (human usage only)	< 4 litres pppd

H. Destitution/Displacement

Destitution is considered to be a state of extreme poverty, where an individual, household or group of people have exhausted their livelihood assets and have become dependant upon others to meet their basic needs. Needless to say, destitution is directly or indirectly associated with severe food insecurity (both cause and effect), with a lack of access or availability to food causing the household to sell their assets; and/or separation from assets causing food insecurity. *Displacement* is when individuals or groups are forced or obliged to move away from their habitual residence, usually as a result of some kind of shock such as conflict, flooding, drought etc. If they have to move without their assets and are separated from their normal livelihoods, they are particularly vulnerable and can be classed along with destitute people. It is important to distinguish displacement from normal or even abnormal migration, which is either done with assets (such as migrating pastoralists with their livestock) or as part of normal coping strategies which may take place on a regular seasonal basis, such as seeking paid labour.

It is also important to understand whether people are really destitute: for example a group of women and children may appear 'destitute' but in reality are separated from male family members who may be working, or herding animals elsewhere and sending remittances as a completely normal way of living. While these two aspects are put together in the IPC, it should be obvious that they can be considered separately or together depending on the circumstances: so a displaced person may or not be destitute, and similarly a destitute person may or not be displaced[2].

[2] There is some debate as to whether destitution and displacement should be put together as one indicator in the IPC or if they should be separated and be considered as two. This is one of the issues that may be refined in future versions of the IPC, but for now should be considered as one indicator.

In terms of the templates, it is rather difficult to quantify destitution or displacement, since there are many factors and degrees associated with both conditions. Direct evidence would generally be valid where specific groups of people have been included in some kind of assessment, and where the extent of the displacement/ destitution is known (e.g. good estimates of the number of affected people), the cause of the displacement or destitution and how bad it is (depth). Indirect evidence would be more anecdotal in nature.

For classification, this IPC reference outcome is only considered in the crisis phases (3-5) for obvious reasons, and distinguishes between the extent of the problem (emerging/diffuse – phase 3; concentrated/ increasing – phase 4; and large scale concentrated – phase 5 (Figure 1.19). Also, see P. 28 of the technical manual). This differentiation also infers the chronology of the problem, with emerging/diffuse being at the start of a situation which may get worse.

Figure 1.19: IPC Reference Outcomes—Destitution / Displacement

Reference Outcome	PHASE	Generally Food Secure	Moderate/ Borderline Food Insecure	Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis	Humanitarian Emergency	Famine/ Humanitarian Catastrophe
		1A and 1B	2	3	4	5
Destitution / Displacement		NDC	NDC	Emerging/ diffuse	Concentrated/ increasing	Large scale, concentrated

NDC – Not a Defining Characteristic

The guidelines in the technical manual have to be combined with local knowledge of the livelihoods and behaviours of the people concerned. It is also useful to include some information on the depth of the destitution/ displacement (how bad is it at the household or individual level) and identifying immediate and underlying causes is always important.

I. Civil Security

Like destitution/displacement, civil insecurity is strongly associated with food insecurity, and can be both a cause and an effect of it. It is tempting to focus on visible conflict when considering this reference outcome, but it is equally important to include less obvious non-violent conflict that may be excluding some people from key livelihood activities or assets. Like the previous indicator, civil insecurity is not easy to quantify, and may be highly context-specific on its impact on food and livelihood security. The IPC phases distinguish on the basis of severity or intensity of conflict (violent or non-violent) – see figure 1.20 below and P.28 of the technical manual. For an example, see Figure 1.21.

BOX 5

High tension between conflicting groups may disrupt market function or access
[for example, this was common after the violence in Kenya following the contested presidential elections in 2007/8 – see figure 1.20 below]
or prevent a pastoralist group to cross or access remote rangelands.

Figure 1.20: IPC Reference Outcomes—Civil Security

Reference Outcome	PHASE	Generally Food Secure	Moderate/ Borderline Food Insecure	Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis	Humanitarian Emergency	Famine/ Humanitarian Catastrophe
		1A and 1B	2	3	4	5
Civil Security		Prevailing and structural peace	Unstable, disruptive tension	Limited spread, low intensity conflict	Widespread, high intensity conflict	Widespread, high intensity conflict

Figure 1.21: Example of Civil Insecurity in Northern Bahr el Ghazal, Southern Sudan

Civil Security	• The situation extremely tense in the northern part of NBeG. • Incidences of cattle rustling between Tonj East and Rumbek North causing insecurity [R=2] • The regular trade route Meram - Aweil town not accessible due to insecurity, currently traders use Abyei – Gok - Machar route.

Direct evidence would normally be considered observed insecurity with confirmed quantitative data such as fatalities and/or wounded. At less extreme stages, observed behaviours such as excluding one group from normal livelihood activities would be relevant. Indirect evidence would be more anecdotal in nature, with unconfirmed quantitative data.

J. Coping

Coping strategies are important behaviours that enable people to absorb the impact of a shock to a greater or lesser extent, depending on how resilient the livelihood or individual/ household is. Actual coping strategies vary from place to place and livelihood to livelihood, but they can generally be categorised into a) insurance strategies; b) crisis strategies and c) distress strategies *(see P.29 of the technical manual for more detail).* These have to be predefined in a particular country or area, preferably by livelihood zone.

Direct evidence will normally be available from an assessment, survey or surveillance system where specific questions are asked and related to the three degrees of coping (above). In the best cases, the country concerned will have developed a coping strategies index (CSI), which allows the indicator to be expressed numerically.

Indirect evidence will be less rigorous and probably more anecdotal ('people are skipping meals' etc) without reference to the degrees of coping or the longer term impact of such behaviours. It is never-the-less important information to be included in the templates.

In term of the classification, coping and CSIs are context specific and it is difficult to establish thresholds even locally. The distinguishing features of *insurance*, *crisis* and *distress* coping strategies provide the basis for phase classification (see Figure 1.22 below). For an example, see Figure 1.23.

BOX 6

The coping indicator is not relevant for phase 1, where coping is not required or for phase 5 where coping strategies have by definition collapsed

Figure 1.22: IPC Reference Outcomes—Coping Strategies

Reference Outcome	PHASE	Generally Food Secure	Moderate/ Borderline Food Insecure	Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis	Humanitarian Emergency	Famine/ Humanitarian Catastrophe
		1A and 1B	2	3	4	5
Coping Strategies		NDC	Insurance strategies	Crisis Strategies; CSI > reference increasing	Distress strategies; CSI significantly > reference	NDC

NDC – Not a Defining Characteristic

Figure 1.23: Example of Coping Strategies in Northern Bahr el Ghazal, Southern Sudan

Coping	No distress coping mechanism observed; coping mechanisms are standard • Planting of tobacco as cash crop has increased. • Wild food collection is widespread as well as firewood collection and charcoal burning. • Collection of thatching grass for sale by women • Sale of small livestock and/or barter of livestock against grains [FARM Africa observation, Jan – March, 08 - R=1] NBEG • Petty trade main source of income. • Selling of thatching grass and poles. • Tobacco growing and its sales. • Wild fruit gathering Lakes • Fishing • Tobacco growing and its sales. • Wild fruit gathering [lulu, pump nuts] • Fire wood and thatching grass sells. • Petty trade

K. Hazards

A hazard is a threatening event which has to be considered alongside vulnerability in order to understand the potential impact or risk of food insecurity resulting. For example, poor rainfall would have a high risk of resulting in food insecurity for a poor (vulnerable) rain-fed farmer, but little risk for an irrigation farmer. It is therefore important to look at the *hazard* itself, and the *probability* of it actually happening, together with the *vulnerability* of the people to that specific hazard in order to understand the potential impact on food and livelihood security (*this is also dealt with under the next column of the template that covers risk analysis*). The other issue with hazards are the frequency that they occur, with greater risk being associated with hazards that are recurrent.

Figure 1.24: IPC Reference Outcomes—Hazards

Reference Characteristic/ Outcome	PHASE	Generally Food Secure	Moderate/ Borderline Food Insecure	Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis	Humanitarian Emergency	Famine/ Humanitarian Catastrophe
		1A and 1B	2	3	4	5
Hazards		Moderate to low probability of, and/ or vulnerability	Recurrent , with high vulnerability	NDC	NDC	NDC

NDC – Not a Defining Characteristic

L. Structural

In terms of the IPC, we are interested here in issues that affect food security that require long-term strategies in things like governance structures, infrastructure, trade policies and environmental degradation, as well as more social issues like inequality. These issues are often overlooked when dealing with more humanitarian areas of food insecurity, as they fall squarely into the domain of long-term development policies and structures. However, it is important to take structural issues into account in the IPC in order to develop a comprehensive analysis, and identify underlying as well as immediate causes. Structural conditions are only considered to be a key reference characteristic to distinguish between phase 1 and 2, although they will frequently be present as underlying causes in more serious phases. As such, it is important to include structural issues in part 3 of the template which deals with underlying issues and potential responses. Structural issues are difficult to 'measure' and will vary from place to place: it is not a very objective indicator as such, and care needs to be taken on its importance when doing the phase classification.

Table 1.25: IPC Reference Outcomes—Structural

Reference Outcome	PHASE	Generally Food Secure	Moderate/ Borderline Food Insecure	Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis	Humanitarian Emergency	Famine/ Humanitarian Catastrophe
		1A and 1B	2	3	4	5
Structural		NDC	Pronounced underlying hindrances	NDC	NDC	NDC

NDC – Not a Defining Characteristic

M. Livelihood Assets (5 capitals)

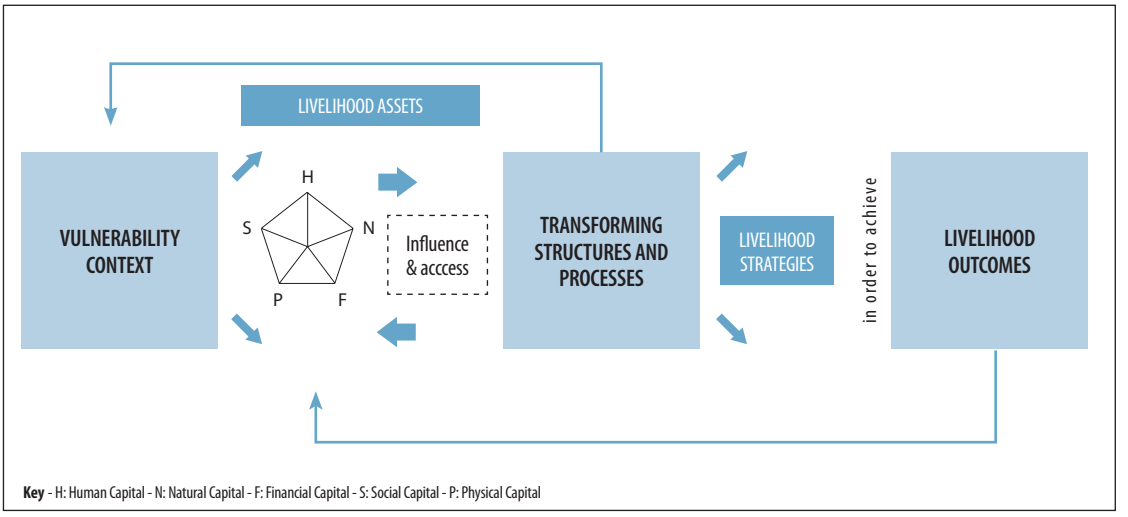
Livelihoods is an implicit concept within the IPC framework: the phase classification is based upon a livelihoods approach (e.g. Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis) and the overall emphasis is placed on saving livelihoods as well as lives: *'…it is widely accepted that saving lives is an important but limited strategic objective for food security and humanitarian interventions. It's also simultaneously important to support livelihoods so as to increase resilience and improve the overall wellbeing of populations thus addressing food security in a holistic, sustainable manner and reducing the probability of aid dependency. Hence, saving livelihoods is a strategic objective unto itself.'* (IPC Technical Manual Version 1.1, P. 31).

According to the Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA):

*'A livelihood comprises the **capabilities**, **assets** (including both material and social resources) and **activities** required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base.'*

To help envisage what this means, and to illustrate the various components of this concept, a livelihoods framework has been developed below (Figure 1.26).

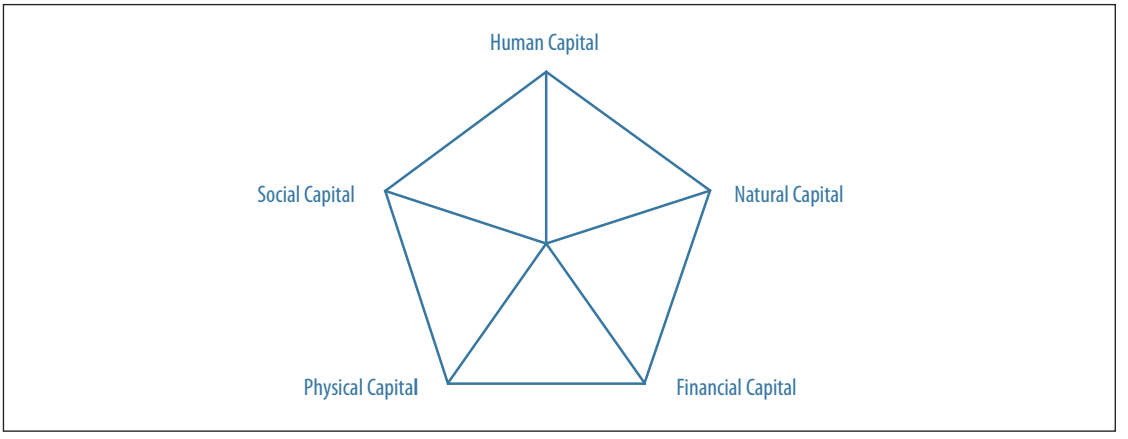
Figure 1.26: Sustainable Livelihoods Framework



*Source: DFID, Sustainable Livelihoods Guidance Sheet 1, 1999 **(www.livelihoods.org)***

To be able to support livelihoods, it follows that we need to develop a good understanding of the livelihoods we deal with. Within the IPC framework, the livelihoods component focuses on livelihood assets, or five interrelated capitals as shown in Figure 1.27.

Figure 1.27: An Illustration of the Five Interrelated Capital



Human Capital represents the skills, knowledge (including education), ability to labour and good health that together enable people to pursue different livelihood strategies and achieve their livelihood objectives.

Social Capital is the social resources upon which people draw in pursuit of their livelihood objectives. In general terms these are developed through networks and connectedness, membership of more formalised groups, and relationships of trust, reciprocity and exchanges (informal safety nets). This capital also includes political inclusion and voice.

Natural Capital represents the natural resource stocks from which people derive their livelihood resources. Examples include rangelands, soil fertility, trees, fishing grounds etc.

Physical Capital comprises the basic infrastructure and producer goods needed to support livelihoods, such as bridges, roads, markets and telecommunications.

Financial Capital denotes the financial resources that people use to achieve their livelihood objectives. This can include flows as well as stocks and can contribute to both consumption and production. Commonly, this would comprise earned income, remittances and gifts, savings and access to credit.

It should be obvious that the five capitals are to some extent interchangeable: for example financial capital can be converted into human capital through paying school fees. In SLA analysis, consideration is given to the interaction between the five capitals, and through institutions to result in overall livelihood outcomes.

This is an important distinction because analysts using the IPC for the first time often fill this part of the template with a SLA-type analysis, rather than focusing on the impact of the hazard or shock on livelihoods, and consequent depletion of assets. For example, in an SLA analysis we would be interested in livestock holdings of pastoralists as a key livelihood asset (physical capital) and the interrelation of this asset with the other capitals. However in the IPC, we would be more interested in how this asset has been affected by a particular shock such as a drought or disease (Figure 1.28). So in the templates, we would expect to see any evidence of livelihood asset depletion, such as '40% cattle losses as a result of rinderpest outbreak'. An example from Somalia is shown in Figure 1.29.

BOX 7

In the IPC, the five capitals are used in a more simplistic manner that emphasises actual *access, rate of depletion,* their *risk of complete collapse* and their consequent sustainability. Account is also taken of the relative importance of that asset for the overall livelihood of a population group. This can be a narrative statement with the references to the evidence mentioned.

Figure 1.28: IPC Reference Outcomes—Livelihood Assets

Reference Outcome	PHASE	Generally Food Secure	Moderate/ Borderline Food Insecure	Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis	Humanitarian Emergency	Famine/ Humanitarian Catastrophe
		1A and 1B	2	3	4	5
Livelihood Assets (5 capitals: human, social, financial, natural, physical)		Generally sustained utilization	Stressed unsustainable utilization	Accelerated and critical depletion or loss of access	Near complete and irreversible depletion or loss of access	Effectively complete loss; collapse

Figure 1.29: An Example of Livelihood Analysis for Hiran, Somalia

Livelihood Assets (5 capitals)	• **Natural capital:** Deyr rainfall started on early in Hiran region. The rainfall amounts received is extremely below normal, 50 – 70% of the LTM confirmed by ground truth. Due to this, pasture and browsing is in poor condition with less production from livestock. Source: (FSAU/Partner assessment and FEWS NET satellite imagery, Dec.07), R=1. • **Physical Capital:** Roads and infrastructure networks are in poor condition with numerous spot holes and deteriorating trend year after year due to lack of maintenance and rehabilitation for more than a decade. This poor public infrastructure is further adding more to transportation costs. Many primary canals remained silted. Culverts, bridges and fragile river embankments are also in worst condition in most parts of the region due to damage from previous successive floods in near river areas. Source: FSAU/partner post Deyr'07/08 assessment, R = 1) • **Social Capital:** social support among the agro-pastoral community is substantially weakened in this season due to poor seasonal performance, which led to limited gifts and Zakat payments. Source: (FSAU/partner post Deyr'07/08 assessment, R = 1) • **Human Capital:** Limited or no access to formal education (schools), but Quranic schools is available in most areas. However, school attendance and educational level in certain districts including *Beletweyn* and *Buloburte* has improved. Most parents are unskilled and they strongly depend on agricultural employments and other self employments including collection and sale of Bush products. Limited or no health facilities in most rural areas, with the exception of main villages and urban areas. (FSAU/partner post Deyr 07/08 Assessment, R=1) • **Financial Capital:** according to FSAU and partner post Deyr 07/08 Survey in Hiran region, there is slight growth for all livestock species. From April 07 to Dec.07, camel growth is 6%, shoats is 16% while cattle increased by 23%. Though the performance of this season is poor, the growth is related to previous effect. Indebtedness for the agro-pastoral will continue to rise since their income is limited and the prices of the staple and non-staple requirement remained high with increasing trend. Source: (FSAU/partner post Deyr'07/08 assessment, R = 1)

Last comments on this Module...

Well done! You have just completed most of the work required to do an IPC analysis, and once you have completed *column 2* for all your geographic / livelihood areas, you are ready to do the classification in the next module. But before you go on, it is worth taking a moment to ask:

- Have you included all your relevant data, either **direct** or indirect?
- Is it represented in the best, most succinct way?
- Have you identified the source of each piece of evidence?
- Have you given each piece of evidence a balanced reliability score?

You will no doubt have gaps in your evidence, either because of lack of data, or poor reliability; you will also have patchy direct evidence. But you will still be able to do a classification; obviously the more evidence you have the more confident you will be in making your judgement.