# MODULE 6

## DEVELOPING YOUR MAP – INFORMATION THAT YOU NEED TO GIVE TO YOUR GIS TECHNICIAN

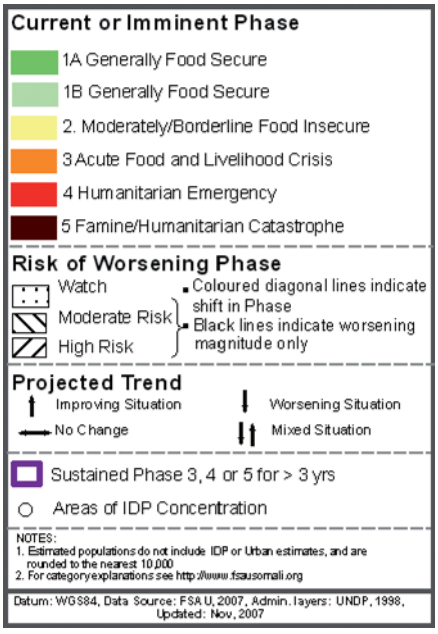
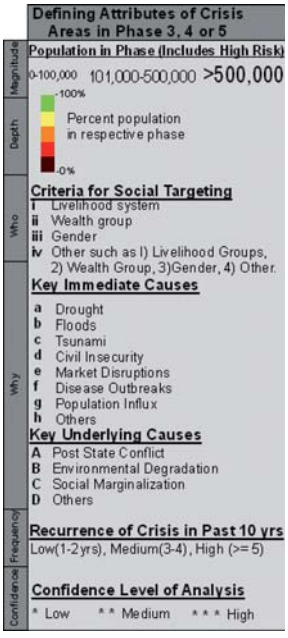
## 6.1 Objective of the Module and What You Will Be Able to Do When You Have Completed It

- **Objective:** to guide you in knowing what information to give your GIS technician in order for him/her to develop a standard IPC map.
- **You will be able to:**
  - o Put together all the information for an IPC map;
  - o Fill in call out boxes for areas in crisis (and not in crisis if you want).

## 6.2 What You Need

- ✓ Completed Evidence Template Parts 1, 2 and 3
- ✓ The cartographic protocols (revised) from the Technical Manual (Section 5.2 p.39)

**Figure 6.1: IPC Revised Cartographic Protocols**

| Spatial Delineation, Risk of Worsening Phase, and Projected Trend | Defining Attributes (of crisis areas) |
|---|---|
|  |  |





- ✓ Shape files of your areas/LZs of analysis
- ✓ A GIS technician

## 6.3 Before You Start...

The IPC map is an important part of tool as it the thing that everybody sees first. It is designed very carefully to get across complex information in a clear form to a variety of audiences. For decision makers with little time to read, the map is effective at showing the spatial distribution of the different phases and the risk of a

phase falling into a more serious situation. They may look a little further and notice population estimates, the projected trend and possibly the immediate and underlying causes. For more technical people, such as operational project managers and planners, a more detailed scrutiny would be expected, and the call-out boxes will probably be analysed together with the phases and risk. The media, the non-technical public, will generally be confused or not interested in the detail, and it is worth considering for them a simplified map without the call-out boxes, and possibly without the risk analysis.

While the map has been proved to be very effective as a way to get across the main messages from an IPC analysis, it does have inherent limitations. Firstly, it is very difficult to represent mobile populations on a static map, so where there are significant population movements occurring there is no way to point this out on the IPC map. It is also difficult to represent small pockets of a particular phase, for example IDPs in a humanitarian emergency who are spread around an area that is otherwise generally food secure (they may be living with host families). One way to represent this is to apply with red (or another phase colour) dots on top of the other phase, but this can get confused on first view with the alert/watch level of risk (black dots).

Clearly the map on its own is good at getting across the main messages, but needs to be combined with a narrative description of the different phases that gives more explanation. The statements can also bring 'hidden' things to the attention of decision makers that might not be clear from the map. For example, if malnutrition rates are high (say phase 4), but all the other outcome indicators are showing a good situation (say phase 2), then the overall convergence of evidence will lead you to classify the area as phase 2. However, unacceptably high malnutrition rates should be flagged as an issue to be dealt with in the statement, and you may have evidence to explain why the rates are high and what should be done in the immediate and longer term.

## 6.4 Step 1: Phase Classification of the Spatial Analysis (LZ; Admin Zones…etc) Together with the Risk Analysis

The first step is simply to provide the phase classifications and risk analysis to your GIS person. However, in order to represent your phases spatially, your GIS person needs to have the shape files available for your geographical area or livelihood zone (LZ). If you are doing the analysis by administrative area, this is usually not a problem as most countries will have digitised files of sub-national administrative units to a localised level. If you are doing your classification by LZ or other geographic areas (such as low lying riverine areas in the case of floods), this may pose more of a problem when you come to mapping, unless the shape files are available for these units. One common compromise is to link your area of analysis to the lowest administrative level. So for example, a particular livelihood that is predominant in the lowest administrative unit can be considered as wholly that livelihood zone, and can be linked with other administrative units that also have the same LZ to give you larger livelihood zones that cut across larger/higher administrative units when combined. This might take quite a bit of work to build up, and if possible should be done in advance of the IPC analysis event.

In addition to the phases and risk, you need to provide information on the projected trend (improving, worsening, no change or mixed signals) that you should be able to take from Parts 2 and 3 of the evidence templates; and whether the area has been in a sustained crisis phase for over 3 years (this will be indicated by a purple border on the map). Locations of IDP concentrations should also be provided and their phase so that the map will include a circle with the colour of the phase inside in the location of the IDP camp (s). Other local issues may also need to be explained such as when you have IDP populations scattered among a host community.

## 6.5 Step 2: Develop Call out Boxes for Emergency Phases (3-5) Or Other Phases That You Want to Make Particular Reference to

[Includes population estimates and the stacked bar]

The call-out boxes follow the defining attributes legend (see Figure 6.1 above) and have conventionally been used to provide more detail for areas that are in a crisis phase (phase 3, 4 or 5). However, there is no reason why you should not develop call-out boxes for non-crisis phases especially if you want to call the attention of decision makers to particular areas or issues.

The call-out boxes include information on **population estimates** in the phase that you can get from your population tables exercise. This is represented as a number (small font if 0-100,000 people affected; medium font if 101,000-500,000 people and large font if over 500,000 people.); and a stacked bar giving the proportion of population in each phase within the overall phase (See *Module 4* for more details).

**Criteria for social targeting** are coded using I, II, III… etc to refer to the unit of targeting recommended. The 'default setting' for this is I=livelihood system; II=wealth group; and III= gender: these can be changed depending upon your particular context and analysis of the food security problem[5]. The point here is to get across to decision makers the best way of targeting resources in accordance with the most affected population group to ensure that limited resources have greatest impact. You will need to tell your GIS person what your criteria are so that he can change the defining attributes box as required.

**The key immediate and underlying causes** should be available from your evidence templates parts 2 and 3. These are coded alphabetically and again can be adjusted to fit your context: you need to tell your GIS technician which codes you want to use for each cause so that he can change the attributes box.

**Recurrence of the crisis in the last 10 years** is useful to indicate the frequency of crisis in the analysis area which gives an indication of the exposure of the area to risk and the likely state of the livelihoods: generally speaking, you would expect a livelihood with frequent exposure to hazards to be in poorer shape. The frequency of crisis in the past 10 years can be low (1-2 years of crisis), moderate (3-4 years) or high (over 5 years). With time, you can use the definition of 'crisis' in the IPC sense of being in phases 3, 4 or 5. As you are introducing the IPC to your country now, you will have to use previous descriptions of the area from assessments in the past that roughly conform to the IPC crisis phases.

**The confidence level of the analysis,** the judgement on the overall confidence in the analysis should have been completed as part of the phase classification exercise. Refer to the summary matrix which you developed in *Module 2* (Figure 2.3) to help you do the classification.

## 6.6 Step 3: Develop a Clear Title for the Map Including the Period of Validity

The period of validity is usually the period between the analysis and the next major agricultural season; however it could be a shorter period depending on the nature of the hazard. For example, a flood hazard may only impact on livelihoods for a short period, as with a livestock disease if action is taken. In conflict situations, it may be necessary to update IPC products more frequently, in which case the validity of the analysis may be quite short. The rule of thumb is to decide on the period of validity before you start doing the analysis on the basis of how confident you are that your analysis will still be valid after a certain period of time. The title of the map is a matter for communicating what you are trying to get across: it might be a general food security situation analysis of a country, or focussing on a particular hazard, or perhaps a mid-season outlook with an emphasis on risk.

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[5] Criteria for social targeting provide broad guidelines for decision makers. Note that additional assessments may need to be conducted to gain a more detailed profile of different for groups and to define targeting criteria, especially in a multi-response scenario.

# MODULE 7

## HOW DO YOU KNOW YOU GOT IT RIGHT? THE PEER REVIEW PROCESS

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

- **Objective:** To provide some guidance on the peer review process and its importance in maintaining analytical rigour, objectivity and credibility.
- **You will able to:**
  - o Organise a peer review process
  - o Finalise your IPC analysis with confidence

## 7.2 What You Need

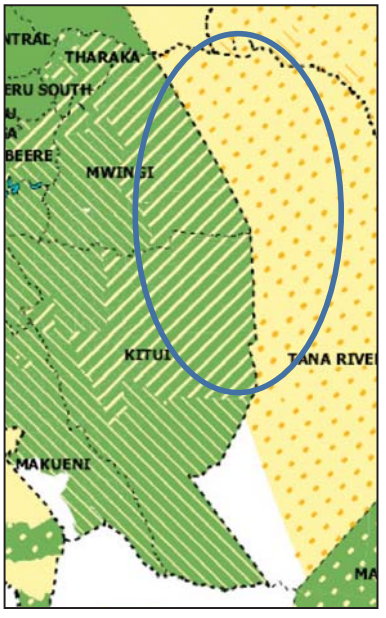
- ✓ Completed evidence templates parts 1, 2 and 3
- ✓ A provisional IPC map including risk analysis
- ✓ The right people around the table
- ✓ An independent panel if possible

## 7.3 General Description

The IPC approach actively encourages debate over food security analyses and classification, and requires a consensus to be build among key stakeholders before the final output is released. This process increases the strength of the final analysis (since everyone agrees), adds to the level of transparency (since people are encouraged to review the evidence) and generally increases the credibility of the whole exercise. The general format for a peer review is to have each analysis unit (usually put together by a small group) to present their findings to the wider group.

A peer review process is a bit like being in a court room: analysis is presented to the 'court' and is open to examination and constructive criticism. The 'defendant' who presented the analysis has to defend his or her position through the evidence on the templates. If the court decides that the evidence doesn't stand up to critical examination, then the group who developed the analysis will be asked to review their evidence and possibly make changes to their phase classification or other part of the analysis. If changes are made in this way, it is important that it is reviewed a second time and there is final consensus.

It is important to have put together a provisional map for this process since it will be possible to pick out obvious discrepancies between analyses done by different groups. Often this can be seen along an administrative boundary where you would expect a phase to be the same on both sides. Sometimes, what looks like an aberration is correct and can be explained. For example, the map in Figure 7.1 illustrates two different phases being assigned either side of an administrative boundary in Kenya, which on first sight looks unlikely. When the peer review process picked this up and challenged the two analysis groups, it emerged that the administrative boundary follows a river that separated two distinct LZs – pastoral and marginal mixed agriculture – , and that the prevailing conditions were affecting these differently. So, in this case, the peer review picked up a possible anomaly and challenged it, the defendants successfully explained their position, and ultimately no changes were made.




The importance of having the right people around the table to do the peer review should be obvious by now. If the analysis is being carried out at national level, it would be normal to have the group that developed the analysis (probably your core technical team) do

the peer review. If you have a more decentralised system, it is a good idea to conduct a series of peer reviews: at the sub-national level in which a particular classification refers to; at a higher sub-national level handling more than one analysis; and then at the national level when the whole country is being reviewed. No matter how many stages of peer review you have, it is worth considering setting up an 'independent panel review' made up of food security experts – preferably with IPC experience – who have not been part of the analysis process. This is not always possible and is not a requirement - just 'icing on the cake' and a way of increasing the credibility of the exercise.

## 7.4 Step 1: Reviewing the Phase Classification for Different Areas/ Livelihood Zones in Your Country (Or Part of Your Country)

As already mentioned, this is normally accomplished by having a series of group presentations carried out by the analysts to the wider group, interspersed with critical analysis. If a review of evidence and changes are required, they should be reviewed a second time (probably all the changes together at the end of the review) and consensus developed.

## 7.5 Step 2: Finalising Any Revisions and Preparing the Final Map and Summary Statements

Once the review has agreed on the analysis and changes required the final revised version of the map should be shown to the group for finalisation. At this point the smaller cluster groups can also finalise call-out boxes (see *Module 6*) and draft descriptive statements for each phase.

## 7.6 Step 3: Disseminating the Outputs

Having completed the peer review process you are now ready to combine your maps and statements into a report or bulletin and present this to the wider food security community. Keep in mind that in the interests of transparency, you should make your Evidence Templates available to the wider community. This may be done by posting them on a website, or distributing by email or on CDs.

**A couple of things to remember:**

- Establish a ground rule that criticism should be constructive and should not degenerate into negative arguments or personal attacks – things can get hot, but should always be professional.
- Make sure everyone has access to the evidence that is being presented – to save paper and money you can project templates onto a wall from a laptop.
- Ensure that you have got consensus on the final outputs and have the group's go-ahead to publish the findings to the wider community and in the public domain.

8

# MODULE 8

# HOW TO ESTABLISH AN IPC IN YOUR COUNTRY

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

- **Objective:** Provide some guidance and experience from other countries that will help you to establish and roll out an IPC in your country in a sustainable way.
- **You will be able to:**
  - o Identify the most appropriate institutional home for your IPC and related food security information requirements
  - o Develop a process and work plan that will help you to run your first round of IPC analysis, and set the targets for future cycles
  - o Develop plans to build capacity at the national and sub-national levels, and for decentralisation as needed.

## 8.2 What You Need

✓ **Operating Principles**: A set of principles were put together by the global IPC partnership (FAO, FEWS NET, WFP, CARE, SCUK and OXFAM (GB)) , which aim to give some guidance about what an IPC system would look and function like in any given country. Of course, these are not rules but rather a useful set of things to think about and put in place when you establish an IPC in your country. The principles are listed in Box 1.

**BOX 1**

**Draft Working Principles for Operating within a Country in the Framework of a Common Interagency Approach** (For a Full IPC System)

1. **IPC should be a consensus process facilitated by a broad interagency working group, including government and key constituencies.**
2. **All efforts made to engage and build capacity of government and promote ownership and strengthen the institutional process.**
3. **Timing of analysis linked to events/critical seasons that affect food security situation. The entry point might be a multi agency planning event.**
4. **Commitment by members of interagency working group to multi year process.**
5. **Demand driven by government to initiate an IPC process.**
6. **IPC can be started regardless of data availability. The initial situation analysis will be useful and improved as the process proceeds.**
7. **Any data used should contain confidence ranking.**
8. **IPC process should comprise a mechanism to build an institutional commitment from government**
9. **Transparency of results made available to the public in a timely manner.**
10. **IPC analysis would be done with technical neutrality through having a broad membership of the interagency group and through a transparent process of consensus building and ensuring group members participate in their technical capacity.**
11. **IPC are subject to an external peer review process to check quality and maintain standards of IPC.**
12. **The process should be used for lesson learning to improve the IPC tool.**

✓ **Mapping of Institution:** Generally speaking, the IPC should be established within existing food security institutions or coordination mechanisms. It is very useful to have analysed and mapped the various institutions relevant to food security and their relationships in information flows before deciding where your IPC system should be placed.

## 8.3 Before You Start...

It is really important to set off on the right foot when starting the IPC (as with other projects) because it can take a lot of time and effort to correct early mistakes later on. While there is no one 'correct' way to start an IPC process, selected experience from other countries which might help have been included in this module. As a general principle, the IPC should be seen as an add-on to existing food security analysis and coordination systems, not as something that is going to replace anything that is currently working, or that requires additional committees.

## 8.4 Step 1: Giving your IPC a Home – Institutional Considerations

### 8.4.1 Finding a home for the IPC: institutional mapping

Just like finding a home for yourself, it is important to look around before deciding where to place the IPC institutionally. Mapping is a useful way of doing this: listing all the institutions that are in some way engaged in food security, within and outside of government, and understanding the relationships with each other is the first step. An analysis of the food security coordination mechanisms in your country is just as important, as these tend to be multi-agency in nature. As well as the interrelationships between institutions it is also useful to map the information flows: this is important to understand the way food security information is made available to and used by decision makers so that the IPC can be placed in a good position for action to be taken. As a general principle, it is better to place the IPC in an existing functioning coordination mechanism rather than start new groups, although sometimes a working group that reports to an existing group or cluster is required to get things moving. For example in Uganda, the IPC is established first in the Office of the Prime Minister which coordinates the "Food Security and Agricultural Livelihood Cluster" co-chaired by FAO and WFP, but it was felt necessary to form a smaller and more specialised IPC Technical Working Group within the cluster to help establish the IPC.

### 8.4.2 Getting acceptance and buy-in: awareness raising; importance of national governmental ownership and leadership

Once you have worked out where the IPC should be established, you will need to do a lot of work to raise awareness with the right people inside and outside of government so that people understand what the IPC is all about. First though, it is usually necessary to have the relevant parts of government endorse the use of the IPC in your country. This would normally be required from the chair of the food security coordination mechanism, often within the Office of the President/Prime Minister (OP/OPM), as the organ of government that usually coordinates humanitarian/food security in the country. An alternative might be the Ministry of Agriculture. It is helpful if this level of government has already been exposed to the IPC in another country or as part of a regional training event. Alternatively it may be a good idea to bring an expert from another country that is using the IPC to start the awareness raising process. Keep in mind that although the IPC will be applied by technical level personnel in government and other agencies, it is their supervisors who normally make the decisions. It is essential that senior management also understand the IPC so that they can support their technical level staff involved in its application and also be in a better position to take informed decisions based on IPC products.

### 8.4.3 Getting the right people around the table

When doing food security analysis and developing an IPC phase classification, it is important that you have the right people around the table. Again there is no rule about who, but experience in other countries suggests that strong engagement form line ministries together with UN and key NGOs in a multi-agency

environment where every one can express themselves. From a technical perspective, you will want to have a good cross section of expertise including nutrition, health, water, agriculture, livestock, and education as well as more general food security people. In terms of government institutions, it would be normal to have technical officers from the line ministries responsible for the above sectors, together with the coordinating authority (OP, OPM). Keep in mind that ministries are typically divided into divisions and that it may be important to include officers from each: for example, the nutrition division as well as a more general health division from the MoH; Livestock production as well as Veterinary Services from the Ministry of Livestock/Agriculture. UN agencies would normally include WFP (VAM office if you have one), FAO, UNICEF, WHO and possibly UNDP. It is important to ensure that key NGOs are also involved, especially those with good knowledge of the areas of concern, and/or particular expertise in a sector such as nutrition. Examples would include Oxfam, Save the Children, MSF family, VSF family, CARE … etc. The Red Cross/Crescent movement as well as technical projects such as FEWS NET would also be important. Remember that together with data and information that agencies bring to the analysis, and their own technical contribution, it is also vital to have a good cross-section of stakeholders to get consensus on the outputs. This helps to build the IPC's credibility, especially in the early analysis cycles.

## 8.5 Step 2: Learn From Using the IPC in Your Country with Your Data

### 8.5.1 Using the IPC as part of ongoing processes of assessment/analysis

As mentioned earlier, it is important to make sure that everyone concerned understands that the IPC is an add-on to existing food security data gathering and analysis systems that are already in place in your country. Usually, some kind of data collection/assessment and analysis takes place at the national level after each main agricultural season in the year, to which the IPC can be a useful addition. It may be necessary to include other sources of data than are normally used before the IPC was applied (the IPC seeks to integrate different information in the analysis), but these are normally available without having to collect data specifically for the IPC.

### 8.5.2 Learning from the process

The best way to learn how to do an IPC analysis is to go through the process with data from your own country sources and with your colleagues. It is advisable to have an IPC practitioner to take your country team through the whole process the first time at least, and it is suggested that you hold a lessons learned workshop after the event to review the process and start planning the next cycle.

### 8.5.3 Data issues: mapping and meta-data analysis

A common concern that people have when starting an IPC system is 'lack of data'. It is possible to do a classification on the basis of sub-optimal data availability, but obviously the better your data (either in terms of quantity or quality) the greater your confidence will be with the outcome. As mentioned above, the IPC tries to integrate different sources of data into an overall food security analysis, and this often means looking for data and information that are not part of the normal assessment and analysis process. If, for example, your assessment tends to be based upon crop production, you will now be looking to include price data, nutrition, health, water and so on into your analysis. This can be a bit scary, but a process of data mapping will often result in revealing data that you didn't know existed. Data mapping is the process of listing the data needs against sources of data, and expanding this to take account of access, reliability, format and so on. The following matrix shown in Figure 8.1 is an example from a data mapping exercise in Kenya.

**Figure 8.1: Example of the Data Mapping Exercise Matrix from Kenya**

| MECHANISM/ SOURCE | TYPE OF DATA | FREQUENCY OF COLLECTION | CONSTRAINTS | LEVEL OF INQUIRY | GEOGRAPHIC COVERAGES | FORMAT |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| FEWSNET | • Rainfall i.e. no of rainy days<br>• Vegetation<br>• Start of season<br>• Region land conditions<br>• Flood extent and number of people affected by gender | DECAD | • Quality good except high cloud cover<br>• Good availability | National to point | National | Database and graphic format |
| ALRMP/EWS | • MUAC<br>• Prices<br>• Income<br>• Production<br>• Conflict<br>• Terms of trade<br>• Water availabity and access<br>• CSI<br>• Range and crop condition | MONTHLY | • Timeliness<br>• Lots of data not analysed<br>• Data available on request but takes time<br>• Aggregated so can<br>• MUAC | Community and households | 27 ASAL Districts | REWAS Data base at disctrict level not national |

Having identified sources of data, it should be possible to plan data collection in advance of a food security assessment and IPC event, and therefore reduce the amount of data that needs to be collected from field work. Doing a 'meta-data analysis' – meaning a review of data sources and identifying important gaps – well before a field exercise can help to focus data collection to key gaps and verifying some existing data.

## 8.6 Step 3: Building Capacity and Decentralisation

### 8.6.1 Building a national IPC team

Even if your vision is to have a decentralised food security analysis and IPC system, it makes sense to start by building a strong IPC team at the national level. This may take two or three cycles of assessment, analysis and IPC classification before your national team is fully familiar with the tool and are confident in handling data and making classifications. In a country that has two seasons (and two opportunities for completing an IPC), we are talking about 1 ½ - 2 years for this capacity building at the national level to be complete. This may seem a long time, but this period will also give the food security community in your country time to get used to the IPC map and appreciate its added value through direct experience.

In terms of who to train, you will have different groups of people who require different types of capacity building depending upon their roles. As mentioned before, your primary group for full hands-on training will be technical level people in government line ministries and participating international partners. These practitioners will normally be part of your technical working group, or similar task group. But remember that all these technical level people have bosses who are making the decisions and need to know about the IPC at a more superficial 'awareness raising' level. For your primary technical group, it is helpful to do a light ***capacity assessment and training needs exercise***, which gives information on the differential levels of your group in technical competence, and will suggest what training needs there might be to bring every one up to the same level in general food security terms. Of course your group will have specialists in particular areas, such as nutrition or livelihoods, and will be very useful resource people for the group as a whole.

Experience in other countries suggests that your technical group may not have the same understanding or perceptions of the basic concepts of food security, livelihoods, nutrition, risk, vulnerability and resilience, and particularly the interlinkages between the different concepts. For example, a health specialist may see nutrition from a disease point of view (you get sick and become malnourished); while an agricultural expert would tend to view nutrition from a food availability perspective (you have not produced enough food, so you go hungry and become malnourished); and an economist may see it from a food access angle (you don't have enough money to buy your food, so you go hungry and become malnourished). All of these perspectives are of course completely reasonable and valid, but what we are trying to do is integrate the different perspectives into a holistic understanding of food security. Certainly, it is worth considering doing a basic or foundation course on food security, nutrition and livelihoods for your technical group, before getting into detailed IPC training.

### 8.6.2 IPC Capacity Building: Training of Trainers approach

The best way to learn about the IPC is to do it with some guidance from an experienced practitioner. Using your own country data from your usual assessment and analysis process is the obvious way, but there may be other ways such as using secondary data may be available through line ministries and other partners. Generally speaking, you will want your core technical group to be able both to do the IPC analysis and then to be able to teach others, perhaps at decentralised levels. So it is important that your technical groups goes through the whole process of entering data into the templates, doing the phase classification, estimating populations in each phase, the risk analysis, response analysis, drafting statements and call-out boxes, preparing information for the mapping, and finally the peer review process. Only by going through the entire exercise 2-3 times can you really expect people to be able to train others.

### 8.6.3 Decentralisation issues

There is a general move to decentralise food security assessment and analysis (and IPC) to sub-national administrative levels in the interests of capacity building, local knowledge and cost-effectiveness. There is no reason why decentralisation should not take place with regard to the IPC, but there are a number of issues that need to be considered.

- **Capacity Building**: decentralisation means a great deal of work over at least 2 years to build the capacity of sub-national level people to the required level in order to do food security and IPC analysis confidently. In turn this means that your core technical team is fully trained and have the time to dedicate to training sub-national practitioners.

- **Resources**: in the long-term, decentralised systems will tend to be cheaper to run than if they are centralised, especially if field assessments remain an important part of your data collection. However, the investment of time and funds to build the required capacity is considerable, and needs to be assured before any decentralised process is started.

- **Rigour, objectivity and credibility**: Maintaining analytical and technical rigour and objectivity in the situation analysis is perhaps the most challenging issue when thinking about decentralisation, and is critical for the credibility of the overall system. It is reasonable to expect that pressures to distort the situation analysis will be greater the closer you get to potential beneficiaries of aid. And despite all the explaining you might do, people will still see the phase classification and population estimates as directly affecting their access to aid resources. In some countries, this plays into established practices of political patronage, and so the potential for interference has both economic and political interests and can get very messy indeed. The transparency of the evidence templates is an important aspect

of keeping the objectivity of the phase classification, both from the point of view of your technical people being able to defend their position, and to make the data available to the wider food security and humanitarian community. However, templates be altered, and perhaps the best way to maintain objectivity and credibility is through well established peer review processes that take place a sub-national and national levels (See *Module 7: How do you know you got it right: the peer review process*). Remember that reputations are slow to build and quick to destroy: your entire IPC analysis in your country can lose its credibility very quickly if objectivity is lost to political or economic influences.

## Useful Websites for IPC Training Materials

**www.ipcinfo.org** – a general website for all your IPC needs, including some training materials and links to country IPC/food security sites.

**www.foodsecinfoaction.org** - the website of the EC/FAO Food Security Information for Action project, which contains useful online e-learning courses on food security information systems and networks

**www.fsausomali.org** – FSAU's website with useful information on methodological issues around food security and nutrition and the IPC.

# ANNEX 1: Types and Sources of Data

**Table 1: Example of Relevant Types and Sources of Data for IPC Analysis Template Part 1: Analysis of Current or Imminent Phase**

| Reference Outcomes | Direct and Indirect Evidence For Phase in Given Time Period | Reference Outcomes | Direct and Indirect Evidence For Phase in Given Time Period |
|---|---|---|---|
| Crude mortality rate | **Direct evidence:** crude mortality data, or the number of deaths per 10,000 people per day for the whole population of the area of analysis.<br><br>**Source:** Ministry of Health; recent DHS survey.<br><br>**Indirect evidence:** indicative information on crude mortality or the under-five mortality rate from health information systems; health facilities; or supplementary/therapeutic feeding centers. | Food Access/ Availability | **Direct evidence:** amount of food consumed per person per day, measured in kilocalories (such as daily consumption of 2,100 Kcal per person).<br><br>**Indirect evidence:** such as market prices of staple commodities, retail sales volumes in local markets, local or national crop production, current income levels for different livelihoods, etc. Examples and sources include:<br><br>• ***Food Access***<br>o *Food sources, specifically changes in sources of food from the norm (are there any shocks to the normal food sources?)*<br>o *Income sources, specifically changes in the level of income generated from the sources (are there any shocks to the normal sources of income?)*<br>o *Expenditures (how much of household expenditures are devoted to food? Is the proportion of expenditures on food increasing? Decreasing? Stable?)*<br>o *Purchasing power (do households have enough income to buy food?)*<br>o *Social Access (are their social/cultural/political barriers limiting household access to their sources of food?)*<br>- Household livelihood data, such as from Household Economy Analysis, other livelihood-based information, Household Budget/ Consumption Surveys, etc.<br>- Recent food security assessments considering changes in food and income sources, expenditure patterns, and coping mechanisms.<br>- Current food and livestock prices compared to average and terms of trade, from FEWS NET, LEWS, WFP, Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock, or Statistics, NGOs operating locally<br>- Food security assessments from WFP (CFSVAs or EFSAs), FAO, NGOs, government organizations considering vulnerability, marginalized groups, etc.<br><br>• ***Food Availability***<br>o *Production, specifically changes in local or national production from normal*<br>o *Supply lines (have there been any shocks to food trade or markets?)*<br>o *Cereal balance sheets* |
| Acute malnutrition | **Direct evidence:** actual levels of acute malnutrition, or wasting, measured in weight-for-height and expressed as z-scores from the median. For example, Global Acute Malnutrition (GAM) rate of 12%, or Severe Acute Malnutrition (SAM) rate of 2%.<br><br>**Source:** proper malnutrition surveys conducted recently by Ministry of Health; UNICEF; NGOs operating locally.<br><br>**Indirect evidence:** mid-upper arm circumference data (MUAC) or other indicative data from sentinel health posts, hospitals, or feeding centers. | | |
| Chronic Malnutrition | **Direct evidence:** actual levels of chronic malnutrition, or stunting, measured in height-for-age and expressed as z-scores from the median.<br><br>**Source:** proper malnutrition surveys conducted recently by Ministry of Health; UNICEF; NGOs operating locally.<br><br>**Indirect evidence:** height-for-age data collected locally or unofficially by health facilities. | | |

**Table 1 (continued)**

<table>
<tr><th>Reference Outcomes</th><th>Direct and Indirect Evidence For Phase in Given Time Period</th><th>Reference Outcomes</th><th>Direct and Indirect Evidence For Phase in Given Time Period</th></tr>
<tr><td>Disease</td><td>Direct evidence: information about endemic, epidemic, or pandemic outbreaks of diseases such as malaria, acute watery diarrhea, meningitis, etc.<br><br>Source: proper health surveys through health surveillance systems; Ministry of Health; UNICEF; WHO; DHS survey.<br><br>Indirect evidence: anecdotal information about the extent of disease spread from health facilities, clinic data, etc.</td><td>Food Access/ Availability</td><td rowspan="4">- Recent harvest assessments conducted by FAO (CFSAM), Ministry of Agriculture<br>- Rainfall performance, vegetation/pasture information, and other remote sensing from FAO GIEWS, FEWS NET, JRC, etc.<br>- Livestock body conditions and animal disease prevalence from livestock monitoring systems, Ministry of Livestock, etc.<br>- Local stock availability from traders<br>- Trade flows compared to normal from cross-border monitoring systems such as WFP, FEWS NET, local NGOs, or traders<br>- FAO and Ministry of Agriculture cereal balance sheets<br>Evidence: use of insurance strategies, crisis strategies, or coping strategies, such as through a Coping Strategies Index (CSI).<br><br>Source: rapid household survey of CSI as developed by CARE and WFP; local anecdotal information from district officials or NGOs about changes in coping strategies.<br>Evidence: underlying causes of food insecurity such as quality of governance structures and infrastructure; trade policies; regulations; environmental degradation; population trends; gender/ethnic-based inequalities.<br><br>Sources: problem-tree analyses from humanitarian/development organizations, Human Development Index, etc.<br>Evidence: recurrence of or vulnerability to hazards such as drought, floods, hurricanes, earthquakes, price shocks, policy shifts, conflict, etc.<br><br>Sources: Historic analysis of frequency and effect</td></tr>
<tr><td>Dietary diversity</td><td>Direct evidence: number of food groups consumed over a given time period, such as the 12 food group method with a 7 day recall period or the 16 food group method with a 24 hour recall used to calculate a Household Dietary Diversity Score.<br><br>Source: detailed surveys conducted by WFP, UNICEF, FAO, NGOs.<br><br>Indirect evidence: anecdotal information about changes in number of food groups consumed compared to normal, or information collected informally by health centers.</td><td>Coping</td></tr>
<tr><td>Water access / availability</td><td>Direct evidence: amount of water consumed per person per day, such as 10 liters per person per day.<br><br>Source: local surveys from NGOs, government, or UN agencies<br><br>Indirect evidence: anecdotal information about changes in access to water compared to the norm, distances travelled to access water, etc.</td><td>Structural Issues</td></tr>
<tr><td>Destitution/ Displacement</td><td>Evidence: information on whether destitution/ displacement is not significant; emerging/diffuse; concentrated/increasing; or large-scale and concentrated.<br><br>Source: household surveys, camp registrars, displacement monitoring systems, or local anecdotal information.</td><td>Hazards</td></tr>
</table>

**Table 1 (end)**

| Reference Outcomes | Direct and Indirect Evidence For Phase in Given Time Period | Reference Outcomes | Direct and Indirect Evidence For Phase in Given Time Period |
|---|---|---|---|
| Civil Security | Evidence: level of extent and intensity of conflict (limited spread, low intensity or widespread, high intensity); deaths per year related to conflict; disruption of livelihood activities due to insecurity (such as extent of market disruption or reduced access to agricultural/grazing land).<br><br>Source: conflict monitoring systems; mortality surveys; key informant descriptions. | Livelihood Assets (5 capitals) | Evidence: use of or depletion of human assets (education, health), financial assets (savings, access to remittances), social assets (cooperation, gender empowerment), physical (infrastructure, telecommunications), political assets (representation, good governance), and natural assets (rangelands, soil fertility, fishing grounds).<br><br>Sources: household surveys or national socio-economic surveys using methodologies such as the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA). Local anecdotal information about the loss of assets from district officials, local NGOs, key informants, etc. |

## Table 2: Example of Relevant Types and Sources of Data for IPC Analysis Template Part 1: Analysis of Risk for Worsening Phase or Magnitude

| **Evidence of Risk for Worsening Phase or Magnitude**<br>(list hazard and process indicators) |
|---|
| **Evidence:** any information about expected hazards, trends, or upcoming conditions expected to affect food security in the coming six months. This could include issues such as:<br><br>• Drought or floods expected during an upcoming rainy season<br>• Seasonal trends; is the main hunger season approaching, or is a main harvest approaching?<br>• Hurricanes likely during the normal season<br>• Price trends; are prices expected to increase during the coming months due to other factors (poor harvest expected, increasing transport costs, etc)<br>• Conflict; are current levels of conflict in an area likely to be maintained or escalate?<br>• Disease spread; are current animal or crop diseases expected to increase due to a lack of control?<br><br>**Sources:** food security monitoring reports, weather forecasts, market analyses, etc, such as:<br><br>• Weather forecasts (ICPAC, National Meteorological Service, FEWS NET, GIEWS)<br>• FEWS NET food security updates and alerts<br>• FAO GIEWS early warning information<br>• National food security monitoring mechanism reports and market bulletins<br>• Updates on humanitarian trends such as the spread of conflict through sources presented in ReliefWeb |

## ANNEX 2: Glossary of Terms

| ENGLISH | FRANCAIS |
|---|---|
| Access | Accès |
| Accountability of analysis and response | Responsabilité de l'analyse et de l'intervention |
| Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis | Crise alimentaire et des moyens d'existence aiguë |
| Acute Food Crisis | Crise alimentaire aiguë |
| Acute Malnutrition | Malnutrition Aiguë |
| Adaptability | Adaptabilité |
| Analysis Templates | Grilles d'analyse |
| Anthropometric thresholds | Seuils anthropométriques |
| Asset base | Avoirs |
| Availability | Disponibilité |
| Basic survival levels | Niveaux de survie de base |
| Capacity | Capacité |
| Cartographic Protocols | Protocoles cartographiques |
| Chronic Food Insecurity | Insécurité alimentaire chronique |
| Civil security | Securité civile |
| Concentrated and increasing | Concentré et en hausse |
| Confidence levels | Niveaux de confiance |
| Convergence of evidence | Convergence de preuves |
| Coping strategies | Stratégies d'adaptation |
| Coping Strategies Index (CSI) | Indice des stratégies d'adaptation |
| Crisis Strategies | Stratégies de crise |
| Crude Mortality Rate | Taux brut de mortalité |
| Current or Imminent Outcomes | Effets immédiats ou imminents |
| Destitution/Displacement | Dénuement/déplacements |
| Dietary Diversity | Diversité alimentaire |
| Direct and Indirect Evidence | Preuves directes et indirectes |
| Disease | Maladie |
| Displacement levels | Ampleur de déplacement |
| Distress strategies | Stratégies de détresse |
| Donors | Bailleurs de fonds |
| Emergency | Urgence |
| Emerging and diffuse | Emergent et diffus |
| Entitlement theory | Théorie des droits |
| Expenditure gaps | Ecarts dans les dépenses |
| Expenditure patterns | Profils de Dépenses |
| Extreme Famine Conditions | Conditions de famine extrême |
| Famine | Famine |
| Famine Magnitude Scale | Echelle de l'ampleur des famines |
| Famine/Humanitarian catastrophe | Famine/Catastrophe humanitaire |

| ENGLISH | FRANCAIS |
|---|---|
| Fatality rates | Taux de létalité |
| Food Access/ Availability | Accès aux aliments/disponibilités alimentaires |
| Food Crisis Conditions | Conditions de crise alimentaire |
| Food gaps | Périodes de déficits alimentaires |
| Food insecure | En insécurité alimentaire |
| Food Insecurity Classification | Classification de l'insécurité alimentaire |
| Food Insecurity Conditions | Conditions d'insécurité alimentaire |
| Food Security Conditions | Conditions de sécurité alimentaire |
| Food security pillars | Piliers de la sécurité alimentaire |
| Generally food secure | Généralement en sécurité alimentaire |
| Hazards | Dangers |
| High Intensity Conflict | Conflit de haute intensité |
| High Risk | Risque élevé |
| Hotspot | Zone sensible |
| Household dietary diversity | Diversité alimentaire des ménages |
| Household food access and availability | Accès et disponibilité alimentaire des ménages |
| Household food consumption levels | Niveaux de consommation alimentaire des ménages |
| Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) | Echelle d'insécurité alimentaire des ménages |
| Household food shortage | Pénurie alimentaire du ménage |
| Humanitarian Emergency | Urgence humanitaire |
| Implications for Action | Implications pour l'action |
| Insurance strategies | Stratégies d'assurance |
| Inter-agency Response Analysis | Analyse interinstitutionnelle des interventions |
| IPC Reference Thresholds | Seuils de référence de l'IPC |
| IPC statement | Analyse finale IPC |
| Key reference outcomes | Effets de référence clés |
| Large scale and concentrated | A large échelle et concentré |
| Livelihood assets | Avoirs relatifs aux moyens d'existence |
| Livelihood capitals | Capital relatif aux moyens d'existence |
| Livelihood shocks | Chocs relatifs aux moyens d'existence |
| Livelihoods | Moyens d'existence |
| Long-term Food Crisis | Crise alimentaire de longue durée |
| Low Intensity Conflict | Conflit de faible intensité |
| Low probability of hazards with low vulnerability | Faible probabilité d'évènements adverses et une faible vulnérabilité |
| Magnitude | Magnitude |
| Mid-Upper Arm Circumference (MUAC) measurement | Mesure du périmètre brachial (MUAC) |
| Mixed Signals of Indicators | Indicateurs divergents |
| Moderate Risk | Risque modéré |
| Moderately/borderline food insecure | Insécurité alimentaire modérée/limite |
| Multi-agency group | Groupe interinstitutionnel |

| ENGLISH | FRANCAIS |
|---|---|
| Needs Analysis Framework | Cadre d'analyse des besoins |
| No Alert | Pas d'alerte |
| No coping | Pas de strategies d'adaptation |
| No more coping mechanisms | Epuisement des strategies d'adaptation |
| Normal/typical kcal intake | Apport énergétique normal/typique d'un groupe |
| Opportunities for triangulation | Possibilités de triangulation |
| Peer-review | Revue par les pairs |
| Phase Classes | Les différentes phases de la classification |
| Phase Classification | Classification des Phases |
| Population Tables | Tableaux démographiques |
| Poverty lines | Niveaux/lignes de pauvreté |
| Preserving productive assets | Préservation des avoirs productifs |
| Prevalence thresholds | Seuils de prévalence |
| Probability | Probabilité |
| Projected trend | Tendance prévue |
| Recurrent hazards with high vulnerability | Evénement adverses récurrents associés à une forte vulnérabilité |
| Reduced food intake | Diminution des apports alimentaires |
| Reference Hazards and vulnerabilities | Dangers et vulnérabilités de référence |
| Reference Outcomes | Indicateurs d'impact de référence |
| Reference Table | Tableau de référence |
| Referenced Threshold | Seuil de référence |
| Response analysis | Analyse de l'intervention |
| Reversible coping | Stratégies d'adaptation réversibles |
| Risk of Worsening Phase | Risques d'aggravation |
| Sale of productive assets | Vente des avoirs productifs |
| Severe Famine Conditions | Conditions de famine grave |
| Severity | Sévérité |
| Situation Analysis | Analyse situationnelle |
| Staple foods | Aliments de base |
| Starvation and death | Inanition et mort |
| Strategic Response Framework | Cadre stratégique d'intervention |
| Structural Conditions | Conditions structurelles |
| Stunting | Retard de croissance |
| Sustainable Livelihoods Approach | Approche des Moyens d'Existence Durables (AMED) |
| Technical Consensus | Consensus technique |
| Threatening future livelihood | Menace sur les moyens d'existence futurs |
| Warning | Alerte |
| Wasting | Emaciation |
| Watch | Surveillance |
| Water access/availability | Accès à/Approvisionnement en eau |

## ANNEX 3: FSAU's Method for Calculating Population Estimates for AFLC and HE IPC Phases

Calculating the estimated population in AFLC and HE is the final stage in the IPC analysis process for FSAU. As FSAU follows a livelihood approach to food and nutrition security analysis, IPC phases are determined by livelihood and wealth group, e.g. the poor wealth group in livelihood group A are determined to be in AFLC or in HE. The identification of AFLC and HE IPC phase by livelihood and wealth group follows the IPC process of compilation and analysis of all direct and indirect evidence related to the IPC reference outcomes, and a convergence of evidence to arrive at a determination of a phase. Note, FSAU's baseline livelihoods analysis on household income and food access, expenditure, and coping, combined with livelihood based nutrition analysis is what allows FSAU to determine the livelihood and wealth group in a specific crisis phase, i.e. AFLC or HE.

FSAU only calculates estimates for populations in the two crisis phases of AFLC and HE.

There are two steps in calculating the estimated population in the two phases, the determination of the percentage of a wealth group in AFLC and HE, and the calculation formula to aggregate up to district level estimates for total population estimated in AFLC and HE. These are briefly outlined below.

### 1. First Step: Determination of the Percentage of Population in the Wealth Group in the specific phase, e.g. is it all of the poor or only part of the poor who are classified in AFLC?

FSAU differentiates the rural livelihood wealth groups into four percentage shares for each of the three wealth groups (poor, middle and better-off). FSAU's has extensive information on rural livelihood baselines (i.e. poor household asset levels, income, food access, coping, etc); therefore each wealth group is divided into four percentages, i.e. 25/50/75/100 percent. FSAU has less information and analysis on urban populations, therefore less differentiation is allowed and only two percentages are applied, i.e. 50/100 percent of wealth group

The decision of whether it is the entire wealth group in a particular phase or only part of the wealth group in the particular phase depends on four main factors:

a) **the degree of homogeneity within the wealth group:** or the degree of differentiation within a single wealth group in terms of access to income, food, and coping. Are all the households in the poor wealth group – all at the same level of poverty in terms of access to food and income, or is there a wider variation from the better of the poor and the poorest of the poor. The more homogenous the wealth group the more likely the shock will affect all people within the wealth group.

b) **the severity and magnitude of the shock, and the number of shocks** e.g. complete crop failure (15% of PWA) or partial crop failure (80% of PWA). Crop failure, combined with hyperinflation of food prices, and loss of job opportunities due to conflict.

c) **the phase and the % of the wealth group in a particular phase in the previous period (s).** The choice of the percentage takes into consideration the previous analysis, confirmation and continuity of in the previous time period. For example, if in the previous six month period, 50% of the poor were identified in AFLC, and this was confirmed to be accurate, then the decision to the impact of the current shock, takes into consideration where the starting point is from the previous period, i.e. 50% of poor in AFLC.

**d) Rules of logic applied** - there are also certain rules or logic that are followed in the process, some obvious and some not so obvious.

- There are some rules that relate to the demographics and wealth. For instance you can't have people in HE before AFLC. The poor are usually the first affected and the better off are last affected, unless it is a natural disaster (e.g. hurricane) which is not dependent on household wealth and ability to cope. For example, it does not make sense if you have 50% of the middle in AFLC and no poor in AFLC or HE.

- Other rules relate to chronology: the analyst must relate the percent affected to previous analysis and that it is questionable to have a lower percentage affected if the situation has worsened over the two periods.

The decision as to the percentage of the wealth group in AFLC or HE, is therefore arrived at by the analyst after a review and analysis of the degree of homogeneity of the wealth group, and the severity and magnitude of the shock(s) and effects on reference outcomes, and the percentage confirmed for the previous period. Finally, basic rules of logic are reviewed to ensure logically continuity and consistency.

## 2. Second Step: The next stage of the process is bringing all the pieces above together into a mathematical calculation.

An simplified example of the calculation of the number of people in AFLC in a given district, where there are two livelihood zones in the district (LZ1 and LZ2) and one wealth group (poor).

(D1 * X1 *X2 *X3) + (D1 * Y1 *Y2 *Y3) = total number of people in AFLC in District

Where:

D1 = is the district population (from UNDP)
X1 =is the percent of Population in that LZ1 in that district (established by FSAU)
X2 = is the percent of the poor wealth group in that LZ1 (from baselines)
X3 = is the percent of poor wealth group in AFLC in LZ1 (from the analysis)
Y1 =is the percent of Population in that LZ2 in that district (established by FSAU)
Y2 = is the percent of the poor wealth group in that LZ2 (from baselines)
Y3 = is the percent of poor wealth group in AFLC in LZ2 (from the analysis)

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