



IPC Baseline Use and Impact Study

April 2015



**The EC in the global partnership is represented by the Joint Research Centre of the European Commission*

Contents

Acronyms.....	iii
Executive Summary	iv
I. Background	1
II. Purpose, Objectives and Methodology of the Baseline Study.....	2
a. Purpose and Objectives	2
b. Methodology.....	2
c. Limitations.....	3
III. Factors Influencing Use of the IPC in Different Contexts	4
IV. Uses and Impacts of the IPC	5
a. Food Security Policy	5
b. Allocation of Resources.....	9
c. Program Design.....	12
d. Monitoring and Evaluation	13
e. Strategic Planning	16
f. Advocacy	18
g. Coordination and Collaboration among Stakeholders.....	19
V. Challenges in Applying the IPC for Improved Decision Making	22
a. Timeliness of analysis.....	22
b. Level of analysis	24
c. Awareness	25
d. Institutionalization	26
e. Technical Standards and Technical Capacity	31
f. Demand for further development/ changing government priorities	32
g. Communication and Coordination.....	33
VI. Best Practices in the Application of the IPC.....	35
a. Strategic Institutional Relationships	35
b. Building IPC Capacity and Use “from the Ground Up”	36
c. Use of Available Technology	37
VII. Conclusions	38
VIII. Recommendations	42

Annexes	45
Annex A. Review of Cadre Harmonisé Processes, Outcomes and Lessons Learned.....	46
Annex B. Profiles of Case Study Countries	54
Annex C. List of stakeholders interviewed.....	57
Annex D. Topical Outline for Stakeholder Interviews.....	61
Annex E. Baseline Study On-line Questionnaire	65
Annex F. Institutional Affiliation, Regional Location, and Familiarity with IPC among On-line Survey Respondents.....	72
Annex G. Documents Reviewed.....	73

Acronyms

CILSS	<i>Comité permanent Inter-Etats de Lutte contre la Sécheresse dans le Sahel</i> - Permanent Interstate Committee for Drought Control in the Sahel
CIP	National Food Policy Plan of Action and Country Investment Plan
CNSA	Coordination Nationale de la Sécurité Alimentaire - Haiti
DfID	U.K. Department for International Development
DRC	Democratic Republic of the Congo
ECHO	<i>European Commission's Humanitarian Aid and Civil Protection Department</i>
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
FPMU	Food Planning and Monitoring Unit – Ministry of Food, Bangladesh
FSNAU	Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit - Somalia
GSP	Global Strategic Programme
GSU	Global Support Unit
HEA	Household Economy Approach
IGAD	Inter-Governmental Authority on Development
IPC	Integrated Food Security Phase Classification
JRC	European Commission Joint Research Center
MoAD	Ministry of Agricultural Development – Nepal
NEDA	National Economic Development Authority - Philippines
NeKSAP	<i>Nepal Khadhyā Surakshya Anugaman Pranali</i> – Nepal Food Security Monitoring System
NVAC	National Vulnerability Assessment Committee
NNC	National Nutrition Council - Philippines
PDP	Philippines Development Plan
RVAA	Regional Vulnerability Assessment and Analysis
SADC	Southern African Development Community
TWG	Technical Working Group
UTSAN	<i>Unidad Técnica de Seguridad Alimentaria y Nutricional</i> - Technical Unit for Food Security and Nutrition
WFP	World Food Programme

Executive Summary

Background

1. Since its inception in 2004, technical capacity for and institutionalization of Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC) analysis has increased substantially in participating countries. What is less clear is the extent to which IPC analysis has achieved the objective of positively influencing food security policies and programming among institutional partners. The key purpose of the baseline study is to assess the degree to which the IPC is currently achieving its overall Strategic Objective in participating regions and countries:

Decision maker's at the global, regional and country level use the IPC for decision making and this is providing the evidence and standards for better decisions that improve emergency and development policy and programming.

Objectives and Methodology

2. By examining the use of IPC information across diverse regional and national contexts, the baseline study survives multiple purposes. It not only enables measurement of the impact of the *IPC Global Strategic Programme (2014 – 2016)*, it also provides a basis for development of the IPC Monitoring Framework and informs development and implementation of the IPC Global Strategic Engagement Plan.
3. The complementary research methods employed as part of the baseline study included: 1) review of secondary information; 2) primary qualitative research carried out in nine participating countries across four regions; 3) on-line survey of IPC stakeholders at global, regional and country levels; and 4) global consultation with IPC stakeholders on preliminary baseline findings.

Uses and Impacts of the IPC

4. Respondents to the baseline study consistently affirmed the *applicability* of the IPC for decision making. However, objective evidence of the actual *impact* of the IPC on decision making is inherently difficult to capture. This is due to the fact that decision-making processes related to food security policy, allocation of resources, and program targeting are complex and dynamic. These types of decisions are typically influenced by a broad range of actors and information sources and are subject to different institutional, political and financial constraints.
5. The baseline study reveals that the IPC is generally viewed as a unique and useful tool among a broad range of stakeholders including national governments, donors, UN organizations international and national NGOs, and regional intergovernmental bodies. While the direct impact of the IPC on ***food security policy*** has thus far been limited, it is enabling senior-level government, donor and humanitarian stakeholders to draw on a convergence of the best available evidence when making policy decisions. Respondents in several countries also acknowledge that the multi-sectoral nature of IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis has contributed to a broader, more holistic understanding of food security, particularly among higher-level decision makers representing national governments.
6. The baseline highlighted a number of contextual factors that directly influence the extent to which IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis is used and what (if any) impact that use has on food security policies and programming. These factors include the extent of IPC experience; awareness

of the IPC among decision makers; institutional alignment of host agencies; and frequency of food security emergencies. To date, that impact has been greatest where IPC governance structures have been institutionalized and where recurrent food security crises have created the greatest demand for consensus-based analysis of acute food insecurity. The most substantive impact of the IPC on policy and programming has thus far been achieved in Eastern and Central Africa.

7. Representatives of donor institutions, UN agencies, governments and NGOs interviewed during field visits confirm that the IPC has been informative for **resource allocation**, particularly in response to large-scale food security crises. Relevant examples are provided by Somalia, South Sudan, Kenya and Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), in which the IPC has proven useful for informing common humanitarian appeals processes.
8. The IPC is designed and implemented as a rigorous tool for food security *situation analysis*. It is not intended to, nor is it capable of guiding comprehensive response analysis. Nonetheless, respondents in several case study countries acknowledged that information produced through IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis contributes to **program design** by helping identify priority populations and geographic areas for targeting humanitarian assistance. Examples were cited in both Bangladesh and the Philippines, where representatives of government, UN agencies and NGOs report that IPC analysis was useful for geographic targeting and response planning carried out in the wake of typhoons Haiyan (January 2014) and Bopha (December 2012) and tropical storm Mahasen (May 2013).
9. Respondents from international NGOs (INGOs) and UN organizations also note the potential of IPC analysis to contribute to **food security monitoring** as part of their “oversight and support” functions for ensuring program design is based on quality and timely analysis. In South Sudan, FAO has used sequential IPC maps to demonstrate changes in acute food insecurity caused by seasonal food shortages and the additional impact of conflict. Similarly, government representatives in both Kenya and Zimbabwe view subsequent IPC analyses as an effective means for monitoring seasonal and geographic trends in acute food insecurity.
10. The baseline study confirmed the nearly unanimous opinion that IPC processes have contributed to improved **coordination and collaboration** among food security stakeholders in participating countries. Technical Working Group (TWG) members in several countries attest that the process of consensus building around food security data collection and analysis methods has benefitted all participants by helping to identify important data gaps, reveal strengths and weaknesses among institutional members, and clarify their individual and collective commitment to the common goal of improved food security.
11. Much of the emphasis in the earlier stages of IPC was on the technical development of the analytical tools and increasing the capacity of food security analysts to use them. The IPC has continued to work with institutional partners on technical development of the IPC Chronic Food Insecurity Scale and piloting of an IPC system for classifying nutrition. With these developments, the IPC has now reached a stage where more effective **communication and coordination** of processes is critical to ensure that the **use and impact** of IPC analysis is maximized among key stakeholders.

12. The baseline study reveals that regular dissemination of quality IPC analyses of acute food security among mid- to senior-level stakeholders is not sufficient for ensuring improved decision making. This is because decision makers not involved in the technical aspects of food security analysis often lack an understanding of how IPC analysis can best be applied to improve food security policy and programming at the regional, national and sub-national levels.
13. Regarding technical aspects of the IPC, respondents from the IPC Technical Working Group in identify three primary determinants of IPC success, each of which speaks to several of the challenges highlighted previously. They include: 1) proper assessments, carried out at least twice a year with partners representing multiple sectors; 2) proper IPC governance structure led by the government to bring all necessary stakeholders together in a consistent and transparent manner; and 3) strong analytical capacity to process the data including continual identification of data weaknesses and proactive measures to improve data collection and analysis. While each of these factors clearly enhance the effectiveness of the IPC in Kenya, they are largely due to a rigorous, government supported approach to food security analysis that contributes to, but extends beyond IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis.

Challenges in Applying the IPC for Improved Decision Making

14. Despite substantial progress made since the inception of the IPC in 2004, several challenges to effective use of IPC information for decision making remain, particularly in countries where the IPC has been most recently established.
15. At this stage of evolution of the IPC, perhaps the two greatest challenges to use of IPC analysis for decision making are **limited awareness** and **institutionalization** among key food security actors. Respondents in several countries noted that senior-level stakeholders remain unaware of the potential applications of IPC analysis for decision making. Likewise, in several countries respondents highlighted the relatively low visibility of host agencies and IPC global partner institutions in promoting greater use of the IPC analysis for policy formulation, resource allocation and food security programming.
16. The **limited level, lack of timeliness and limited frequency** of IPC analysis were also cited as common challenges to ensuring consistent use of IPC information to guide decision making. In several countries, the disaggregation of IPC analysis at relatively high geographic levels, or lack of national coverage comprises its usefulness for food security policy, resource allocation or program design. Likewise, if the validation, finalization and dissemination of IPC analysis and information fall outside of key data collection, program design and funding cycles by even a few weeks, it may miss the opportunity to directly inform decision making.
17. As the technical capacity for and use of IPC analysis has continued to evolve, it has continued to face challenges in terms of maintaining **technical standards** while responding to **changing priorities** among its intended users. For instance, while the IPC has put considerable effort into strengthening the capacity of participating analysts, some stakeholders continue to express concerns regarding the quality of IPC analysis in some countries. At the same time, the cut-off points / thresholds for specific food security indicators have at times been a point of contention among countries seeking to tailor IPC tools and procedures to their own particular context. On a related note, as country capacity for analyzing and responding to acute food insecurity has

increased, several institutional stakeholders have begun to place less priority on IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis and more on analysis of chronic food insecurity, malnutrition and resilience.

18. Finally, as IPC has developed new analytical tools and expanded into new regions and countries, the emphasis has necessarily shifted from technical development toward the need for more effective coordination to enhance the use of ICP information. The currently ***limited capacity to coordinate analyses and communicate the results*** to key decision makers is largely due to limited institutionalization, as well as financial and human resource constraints among key partners at the regional and country levels. As a result the IPC currently relies heavily on Regional Coordinators and Country Focal Points to promote use of analysis among key decision makers.

Recommendations

19. Suggested improvements by IPC stakeholders and analysis of findings by the baseline study team resulted in a series of specific recommendations aimed at maximizing the sustainability of the IPC and impact of the Global Strategic Programme (2014-2016).

Institutionalization

20. Greater effort is needed by IPC Global Partner institutions to promote institutionalization of the IPC within their own organizations and more consistently advocate for use of IPC findings among key decision makers at the regional and national levels.
21. Formal inclusion of IPC roles and responsibilities in the Terms of Reference of key partners at the regional and country levels may help reduce the negative impact of turnover on institutionalization of the IPC.
22. The GSU should work directly with host government agencies to formulate and implement specific transition strategies to ensure sustainability and cede increasing financial and technical responsibility for IPC analysis to national stakeholders.

Technical Capacity and Technical Development

23. Costs may be reduced, and institutionalization increased by limiting IPC acute analysis to specific regions within countries which previous analyses show are typically most prone to acute food insecurity.
24. The applicability of IPC for food security policy and resource allocation can be effectively demonstrated through the use of subsequent IPC Acute Analyses for analysis of food security trends.
25. In order to ensure the applicability and quality of IPC analysis, the GSU and IPC Global Partners need to continue advocacy with governments and other resource partners to encourage funding of food security data collection activities at lower (e.g. sub-district) administrative levels.
26. The GSU must work closely with partners at the global, regional and national levels to consistently and transparently carry out IPC Quality Assurance and Compliance reviews especially in countries where quality concerns, and/or the existence of alternative food security information products is limiting the uptake of the IPC among decision makers.

Communication and Coordination

27. Greater efforts must be made by institutional members of IPC Technical Working Groups to coordinate the timing of data analysis and dissemination of findings with respect to key primary data collection, program design and funding cycles at the country level.
28. The IPC GSU must continue to work with regional and national counterparts to encourage and coordinate dissemination of IPC analysis at multi-stakeholder food security forums.
29. In order to increase institutionalization and use of the IPC, the GSU should work with partners to develop and disseminate information on how the IPC differs from and complements similar food security information products and systems at the regional and country levels.
30. The IPC Global Steering Committee must work closely with the Global Program Manager to determine potential means of addressing the need for greater coordination capacity at the regional and country levels. This will likely include reactivating and consistently engaging with IPC Steering Committees and/or Technical Working Groups at the regional level.

Use of IPC for Decision Making

31. There is a continued demand and need for targeted awareness raising efforts that highlight the applicability of IPC information for mid- to senior-level decision makers. Institutional partners at the regional and country levels should use the rollout of the IPC Chronic Food Insecurity Scale as an opportunity to promote the IPC as an integrated system for multi-sectoral food security analysis.
32. IPC Focal Points and TWGs could contribute to more effective use of IPC acute and chronic analyses by regularly and explicitly identifying the specific response analysis and decision making processes they have the potential to inform.
33. In addition to providing technical oversight of IPC analysis, Country TWGs and IPC Regional Committees should seek means of effectively addressing institutional and strategic issues constraining use of IPC information for decision making.
34. The GSU must work closely and consistently with partners at the global, regional and country levels to document and disseminate information on 'best practices' in application of IPC analyses for decision making related to food security policy and programming.

I. Background

35. The Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC) is a global, multi-partner initiative to facilitate improved decision making through consensus-based food security analysis. It is founded on a complementary set of analytical tools and protocols for analyzing and classifying the severity and nature of food insecurity to inform multi-agency response. The IPC analytical approach draws on a convergence of available evidence to classify the severity and causes of acute food insecurity in a manner that enables clear communication for decision making. The demand for IPC has consistently grown since its inception in Somalia in 2004, and to date, IPC Acute Food Insecurity analysis activities have been conducted in 24 countries around the world.¹
36. There is evidence that previous efforts have substantially increased the technical capacity of institutional stakeholders to utilize IPC analysis and information dissemination tools.² However, it is less clear how effective IPC information products and processes have been in positively influencing food security policies and programming among institutional partners, or what barriers must be overcome to ensure the longer-term effectiveness and sustainability of the IPC.
37. In response, the IPC Global Steering Committee (SC) gathered in October 2013 with the purpose of reaching consensus on the IPC Global Strategic Programme (GSP) 2014-2016. Incorporating feedback from partner and donor consultations at the global, regional and country levels, the IPC GSP (2014-2016) is based on four central pillars: 1) Governance and Institutionalization; 2) Technical Capacity Development and Support; 3) Technical Development and Quality Standards; and 4) Use in Decision Making. In order to enable evaluation of the impacts of the IPC GSP (2014-2016), the SC called for the completion of an *IPC Baseline Use and Impact Study*. The key purpose of the baseline study is to assess the degree to which the IPC is currently achieving its overall Strategic Objective in participating regions and countries:

Decision maker's at the global, regional and country level use the IPC for decision making and this is providing the evidence and standards for better decisions that improve emergency and development policy and programming.

38. This report presents the findings of the *IPC Baseline Use and Impact Study*. Section II describes the purpose, objectives and methodology of the baseline study and Section III highlights several common factors that influence use of the IPC among key decision makers at the regional and national levels. Section IV provides specific examples of ways in which IPC is being used to inform decision making. Section V outlines several key challenges to the application of IPC information in decision making and Section VI provides examples from selected countries on best practice and lessons learned through the IPC process. Overall conclusions of the baseline study are presented

¹The IPC global initiative is governed and strategically guided by eleven major UN agencies, international NGOs and Regional Inter-governmental bodies: Action Contre la Faim (ACF), CARE International, Comité Inter-Etats pour la Lutte contre la Sécheresse au Sahel (CILSS), the Joint Research Centre of the European Commission (JRC), the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), FEWSNET, the Global Food Security Cluster, Oxfam GB, Save the Children (UK&US), and the Integration System of Central America/ Regional Food Security and Nutrition Programme for Central America (SICA/PRESANCA) and the World Food Programme (WFP).

² Frankenberger, Timothy R., René Verduijn. (2011). End of Project (EOP) Evaluation – Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC). April 2011.

in Section VII and Section VIII offers a series of specific recommendations for more strategic and effective engagement of the IPC at the global, regional and national levels.

II. Purpose, Objectives and Methodology of the Baseline Study

a. Purpose and Objectives

39. The overall purpose of *the IPC Baseline Use and Impact Study* is to examine the extent and nature of use of IPC Acute Food Insecurity Classification among key decision makers and gauge the impact this is having on programs and policies at the global, regional and country levels. Specifically, the baseline study examines the application of IPC analysis to decisions made in the following areas:

- Food security policy;
- Allocation of resources;
- Program design;
- Monitoring and evaluation;
- Strategic planning and advocacy; and
- Coordination among food security actors

40. By examining use of IPC information in these areas across diverse regional and national contexts, the baseline study seeks to achieve the following objectives:

- *Enable assessment of the impact of the IPC Global Strategic Programme (2014 – 2016)*
- *Provide a basis for development of the IPC Monitoring Framework*
- *Inform development and implementation of strategic stakeholder engagement plans at the global, regional and country levels*

b. Methodology

41. The team responsible for carrying out the baseline study employed a complementary range of methods for collecting and analyzing qualitative and quantitative information. Each method is briefly described below.

Review of secondary information

42. The collection and analysis of primary data for the baseline study was directly informed by a desk review of secondary literature. Particular emphasis was placed on previous evaluations and program documents that highlight contextual differences in the IPC's influence on food security policy and programming at the regional and country levels.³

Remote Interviews with Senior-level Stakeholders

43. Study team members interviewed senior-level decision makers among a range of donors, IPC partner representatives and relevant food security policy organizations at the global and regional levels via telephone and Skype. These interviews were semi-structured, in-depth interviews

³ A full list of documents reviewed is provided in Annex F.

conducted with individuals who have first-hand knowledge of the evolution and application of IPC processes and information products.

Primary Qualitative Research

44. Primary qualitative research for the baseline study was carried out among a selection of countries participating in the IPC. Countries were purposefully selected for field visits to ensure a diverse range of institutional and food security contexts across the four primary regions in which IPC is implemented (see profiles of case study countries in Annex A). Respondents included IPC Regional Coordinators, Country Focal Points and Technical Working Group (TWG) members, representatives of regional policy organizations, participating government representatives, academic research staff, and IPC resource partners at the regional and national levels. In total, qualitative information was collected from over 150 individual respondents.

On-line Survey of IPC Stakeholders at Global, Regional and Country Levels

45. In order to complement and validate qualitative information, the baseline study administered a brief quantitative survey aimed at gauging the opinions of stakeholders regarding the effectiveness of IPC for informing decision making. Responses to the on-line survey were collected from approximately 160 individuals.

Global Consultation with IPC Stakeholders on Preliminary Baseline Findings

46. In order to further inform conclusions, fill remaining research gaps, and provide an interactive forum for sharing information, the IPC Global Support Unit (GSU) organized a Global Partner Consultation on the preliminary baseline findings. In addition to individuals actively engaged in IPC analysis and use at the country level, the event also included the participation of individuals representing regional policy organizations, IPC resource partners and UN agencies. Approximately 40 individuals participated in the event.

c. Limitations

47. A number of issues present challenges to the design and implementation of the baseline study as a means of determining the impact of the IPC Global Strategic Programme (2014-2016). First and foremost is the fact that IPC was initiated in 2004 and thus has already demonstrated a wide range of outputs, outcomes and impacts. Accordingly, the application of the term “baseline” to this study must be loosely applied.
48. On a related note, the baseline was specifically intended to describe the range of uses of the IPC among participating countries and the impact this has had on various types of decision making. As a result, countries were purposefully selected to capture important contextual differences in use at the regional and country levels. Alternatively, countries that have been exposed to IPC processes but have not actively pursued them, and those where IPC engagement is relatively recent, were largely excluded from the study since they cannot constructively comment on “use.” Likewise, while the process of rolling out the IPC Chronic Food Insecurity Analysis and piloting of the IPC Nutrition Classification tools was ongoing during the baseline study in several of the countries visited, data collection and analysis was strictly focused on the uses and impacts of the IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analyses.

49. While the baseline collected quantitative information in the form of to the on-line survey, the majority of ‘evidence’ of the IPC’s *impact* on complex and dynamic decision making processes is inherently qualitative and therefore difficult to objectively measure.
50. It is important to note that on the whole, responses to the on-line survey tended to be more positive than those obtained through in-depth qualitative interviews. This is likely due to multiple factors. First, given the on-line nature of the opinion survey, a sampling bias can be assumed given that respondents were ‘self-selected.’ It is not unreasonable to conclude that those that chose to respond to the on-line survey are individuals that are interested in the IPC, find it relevant/useful, and are eager to share their opinions whereas those that are more critical may have decided not to invest the time (400 individuals were asked to complete the on-line survey, 160 did so). Likewise, the Likert scale structure of the questions in the on-line survey (a simple gradient scale gauging agreement/disagreement with statements) may skew responses toward the positive among respondents who were unwilling to appear overly negative/critical. Alternatively, in-depth qualitative interviews deliberately probed respondents regarding challenges to application of IPC analysis in order to identify current weaknesses in implementation and potential areas of improvement. In light of the relative rigor of the quantitative versus qualitative research methods used in the baseline, *where results differ*, greater weight should be given to the qualitative results.

III. Factors Influencing Use of the IPC in Different Contexts

51. As mentioned, participating IPC countries were purposely selected for inclusion in the baseline study in order to capture information on use from a range of institutional and food security contexts. The baseline study confirms that the *extent* to which the IPC has been used, and the way in which it has been used varies considerably by region and country. Findings reveal that the following factors have a direct influence on the extent and nature of IPC use for decision making.

Extent of IPC experience / development

52. For obvious reasons, countries with longer experience implementing IPC have been able to make greater use of it than those that have started more recently. Not only have they undergone more rounds of analysis, but as a result, they have relatively well-developed capacity for analysis and established structures and processes for sharing information with decision makers in a manner that influences policies and programming.

Awareness of IPC among Senior-level Decision Makers

53. The most important (and perhaps most obvious) determinant of IPC use is the extent of awareness of and support for it among senior-level stakeholders. Evidence clearly shows that while the IPC may be strategically placed within specific government units, it is unlikely to gain traction as a policy tool unless and until decision makers at higher levels (e.g. government ministers, donor representatives, UN and NGO Country Representatives) are made aware of its direct applicability for planning, resource allocation and program design.

Institutional alignment and influence of host agencies

54. High priority has been placed on identifying appropriate government institutions to host the IPC in order to maximize its sustainability and influence on food security policy and programming. However, while in many countries the IPC is now housed in relevant and strategically-selected

government units, the use of IPC for decision making is determined in part by the sectoral, political and financial environments in which these units operate.

Presence of existing food security information systems

55. Baseline findings clearly indicate that IPC has greater potential in countries that have established food security data collection and analysis systems linked to planning structures at the local level. These institutional structures provide functioning and sustainable mechanisms for coordination which contribute to the legitimacy and consistent application of IPC food security information products, particularly in terms of the classification of phases of acute food insecurity. Alternatively, where existing information systems are already guiding food security policy and programming, some question the added value of introducing IPC processes and information products.

Differing priorities among regional and national food security stakeholders

56. Shifting government priorities also influence the extent to which IPC is used. For instance, in several countries governments are gradually placing less priority on emergency food security response and more on addressing longer-term (chronic) vulnerability to food insecurity, malnutrition, and urban food insecurity. Alternatively, in some countries, the increasingly frequent and severe food security impacts of climate change and other factors (e.g. conflict) have led to heightened awareness of the IPC as a potential tool for disaster risk management.

Frequency and Extent of Food Security Emergencies

57. The application of IPC Acute Food Insecurity analysis for decision making is directly influenced by the frequency and extent of food security emergencies. In Central America the Caribbean and Asia, acute food security crises tend to be less frequent and are often geographically limited in scope. This differs substantially from relatively large-scale crises in the Horn of Africa and the Sahel. At the same time, where food security crises tend to be cyclical, interest in and use of IPC information may peak during bad years only to wane during periods of relative food security.

IV. Uses and Impacts of the IPC

58. The IPC is intended to inform decision making by the full range of actors engaged in responses to acute food insecurity crises. This necessarily includes bilateral and multi-lateral donor agencies, United Nations organizations, regional policy bodies, national and sub-national governments, as well as national and international non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The nature of the use of IPC information among these stakeholders varies as expected given the different types of decisions for which each is responsible. The following section provides insight into the types of decisions the IPC has influenced in selected countries.

“The presentation/communication of data in an organized and timely manner is a great service and provides an excellent opportunity. “

- Director, Food Planning and Monitoring Unit (FPMU), Bangladesh

a. Food Security Policy

59. The baseline study reveals that a clear benefit of the multi-sectoral nature of IPC is that it helps encourage a broader, more holistic understanding of food security, particularly among higher-

level government stakeholders (e.g. Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Rural Development, National Planning Commissions, etc.). As such, it is reportedly helpful in bringing diverse actors together to discuss (and propose solutions to) complex, interrelated issues such as poverty, food insecurity, poor health and malnutrition.

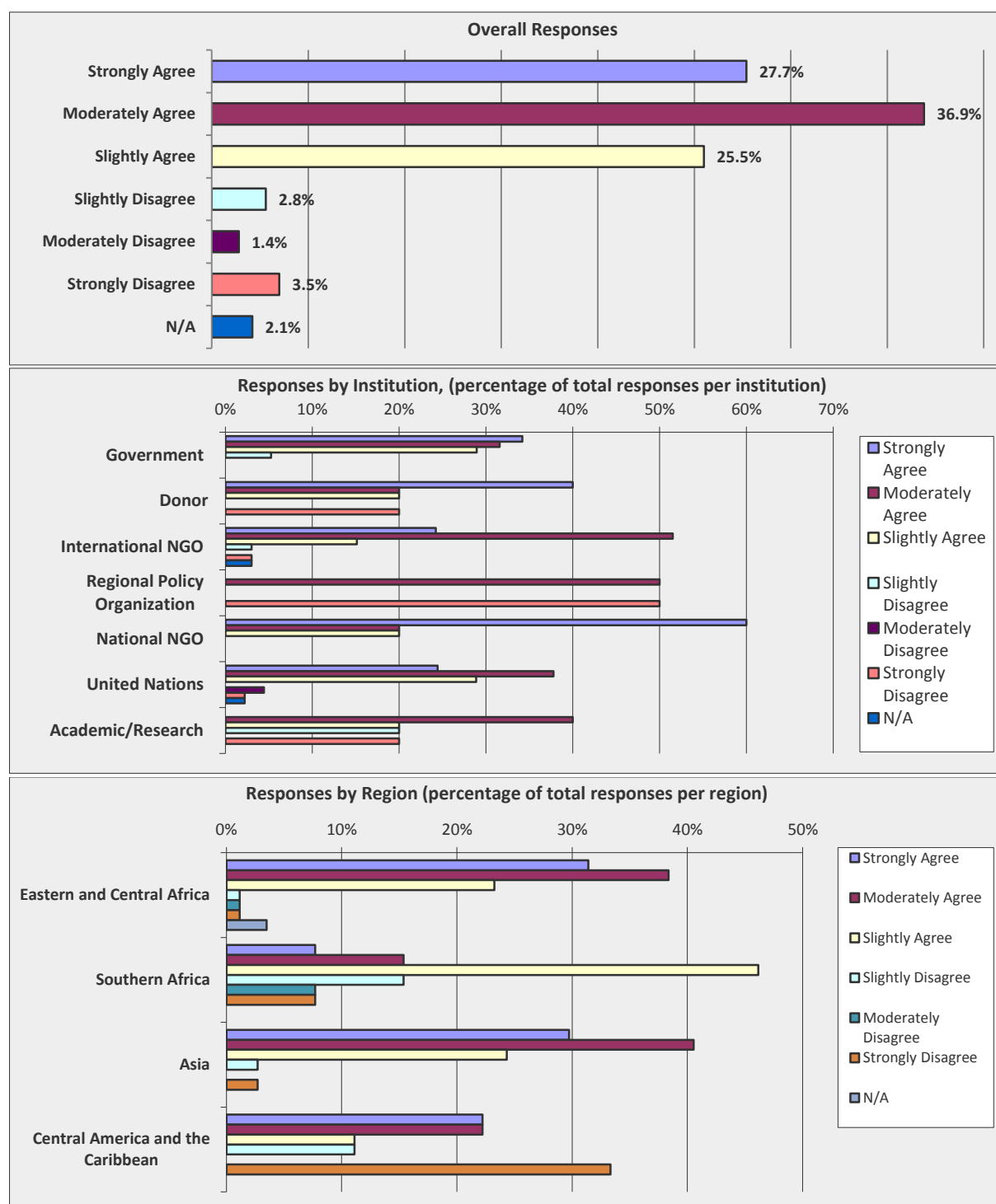
60. One prominent example is offered by the Nepal Food Security Monitoring System (NeKSAP). NeKSAP is a comprehensive food security monitoring system that incorporates information on emerging crises, markets, nutrition and household food security (based on IPC analytical tools and protocols). Government and UN representatives contacted acknowledge that NeKSAP helped expand the understanding of food security beyond a narrow focus on agricultural production and that this enhanced understanding subsequently influenced the Supreme Court of Nepal's decision to formally ratify the right to food. Other evidence of policy influence in Nepal includes incorporation of NeKSAP analysis in the Agriculture Development Strategy (ADS), Multi-Sectoral Nutrition Plan (MSNP), and 13th National Plan Approach Paper. The Nepal National Planning Commission (NPC) is also currently drafting "Procedural Guidelines" for Inter-Ministerial coordination on food security drawing on information gained through NeKSAP.
61. Another noteworthy example of the IPC's potential for influence on national policy was recently provided by the Republic of South Sudan Food Security Council (RSSFSC). In its *Statement to Food Security Stakeholders in the Republic of South Sudan* (issued in July 2014), the RSSFSC, asserting its sole authority for making statements regarding the food security status of the country, sanctioned the IPC as the main process for arriving at consensus on food security analyses.
62. Within the current context, IPC also stands to have considerable influence on decision makers given the increasing focus on basing food security, agricultural and development policy on "best available evidence." In South Sudan, senior-level humanitarian actors claim that recent IPC analyses have proven to be directly relevant and extremely useful tools for providing critical information on the dire and rapidly evolving acute food insecurity situation. The direct influence of IPC analysis on UNOCHA's Crisis Response Plan for South Sudan and the subsequent Oslo Pledging Conference was offered as justification for this opinion during the *Global Consultation on Preliminary Baseline Findings*. Perhaps most importantly in terms of institutionalization and sustainability, it was reported that the May 2014 exercise marked the first time the South Sudan Council of Ministers and Office of the President were directly engaged in using consensus-based evidence in the development of crisis response plans. This was viewed as a vitally important step in prioritizing assistance for the most food insecure populations, including those in conflict-affected areas.
63. Qualitative baseline findings underscore the fact that the ability of IPC analysis to inform food security policy at the national level is directly influenced by the institution in which it is formally located. Certain stakeholders in Bangladesh felt that the IPC should be hosted by the Ministry of Disaster Management and Relief given its role in responding to acute food insecurity emergencies. However, the decision was ultimately made to house the IPC in the Ministry of Food and specifically within the Food Planning and Monitoring Unit (FPMU). A key rationale for this decision was that the FPMU is directly responsible for developing and monitoring the National Food Policy Plan of Action and Country Investment Plan (CIP). The CIP is the main policy vehicle for determining national investments in agriculture, food security and nutrition and guides the

budget allocations and activities of 13 Ministries and 12 sub-sectors within government.⁴ By linking directly with the FPMU and the CIP, the IPC also stands to have considerable influence on donor and NGO policy in the country given their interest in maintaining consistency with government food security priorities.

64. The baseline identified other situations in which the IPC has the potential to have a significant influence on food security policy. In Honduras, FAO and WFP have collaborated with the national Technical Unit for Food Security and Nutrition (UTSAN) in advocating with the government for adoption of the IPC as *the* government mechanism for planning, implementing and monitoring responses to emerging crises. Likewise, in the Philippines, the National Nutrition Council (NNC) confirmed that IPC will be *the* tool for national food security analysis and its usefulness in this regard has been acknowledged by the Bureau of Statistics, the Philippine Statistical Authority and the National Economic Development Authority.
65. Figure 1 provides information on the perceived impact of the IPC on food security policy and programming at the country level among respondents to the on-line opinion survey. It shows strong agreement among all respondents that the IPC *has* had a positive impact on policy and programming at the country level. Overall, 90 percent of respondents agreed with this statement, with nearly a third stating strong agreement. Overall, less than eight percent of respondents disagreed with the statement.
66. In order to take a closer look at differing perceptions of IPC among respondents, data were disaggregated by institutional affiliation and by region. When interpreting this analysis, it is important to note that the extent of responses to the online survey varies considerably by both institutional affiliation and region (see Annex E). Among institutions, respondents representing national NGOs and governments were most likely to register strong agreement with the statement whereas international NGOs and representatives of United Nations organizations were more likely to express moderate agreement with it. By percentage of respondents, representatives of donors, regional policy organizations and academic/research institutions were most likely to disagree with the statement that IPC has had a positive impact on food security policy and programming at the country level, though in each of these cases, the number of responses was minimal.
67. When disaggregated by region, data show the strongest perceptions of positive impact of the IPC are from East and Central Africa, where it has been adopted more widely and for a longer period of time than other regions. The strongest disagreement with the statement came from respondents in Southern Africa and Latin America. In the case of Latin America, the relatively high percentage of disagreement can be attributed to the fact that countries within the region have only recently engaged in IPC analysis and responses to the on-line survey from the region were minimal.

⁴ Over the next five years, the CIP is valued at approximately USD 20 billion with USD 10 billion aimed at improving food security, and another USD 10 billion intended to support social safety nets.

Figure 1: On-line Survey - “IPC has had a positive impact on the effectiveness of food security policy and programming at the country level.”



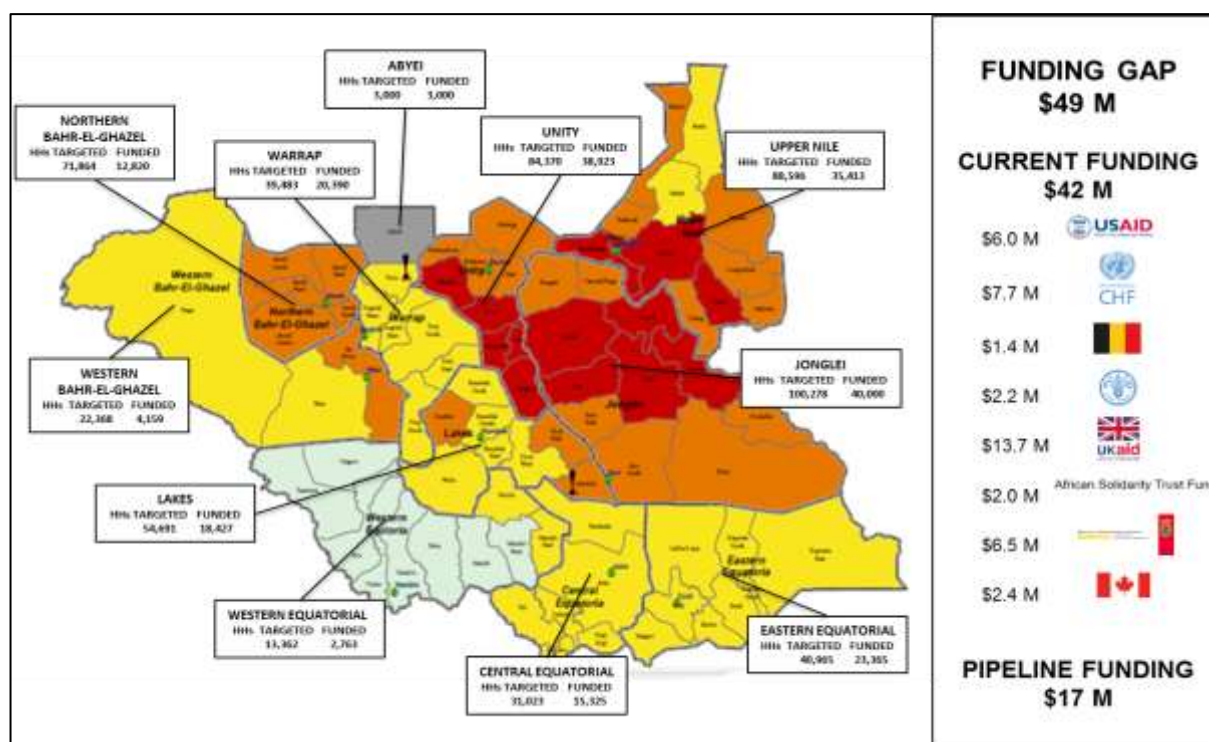
68. In Southern Africa, the relatively low opinion of IPC impact is likely due to the fact that food security actors are consistently engaged in the Regional Vulnerability Assessment and Analysis (RVAA) project and/or National Vulnerability Assessment Committees (NVAC). In countries where IPC analysis has been conducted – Malawi, Lesotho, Zimbabwe – the impact of the analysis on policy and programming has reportedly been limited due to decision makers’ current reliance on NVAC results. The NVAC system of generating annual reports (including maps) predates implementation of the IPC and, according to individuals contacted for the baseline study,

generally meets the information needs of regional food security actors. As a result, several respondents to in-depth interviews are unaware of any impact of the IPC on food security policies and programs in the region and are skeptical of the added-value of IPC efforts to do so.

b. Allocation of Resources

69. The direct influence of IPC information on the allocation of resources for food security programming in emergency situations is difficult to determine objectively for a number of reasons. First, it is often difficult to obtain internal documentation on resource allocation for specific activities or obtain it through qualitative interviews. Additionally, since donor representatives and program managers typically rely on multiple pieces of information from various sources when making resource allocation decisions, it is difficult to attribute them directly to information provided by the IPC. Nonetheless, representatives of donor institutions, UN agencies, governments and NGOs interviewed during field visits acknowledge that the IPC has been informative for resource allocation, particularly in response to large-scale food security crises.
70. A recent example is offered by South Sudan where recent IPC analysis has been instrumental in helping various agencies efficiently allocate funding from various donors contributing to ongoing emergency operations. A senior-level humanitarian representative reports that classifications and maps have been particularly useful in allocating funding to individual agencies according to their institutional mandate, geographic area of operation, the severity of acute food insecurity, and accessibility amid ongoing conflict (Figure 2).

Figure 2: FAO's Emergency Livelihood Response Humanitarian Programme – South Sudan



Source: Lautze (2014)

71. Likewise, in Somalia there is ample evidence that results of the biannual assessments disseminated via IPC communication protocols inform the Common Humanitarian Appeal Process

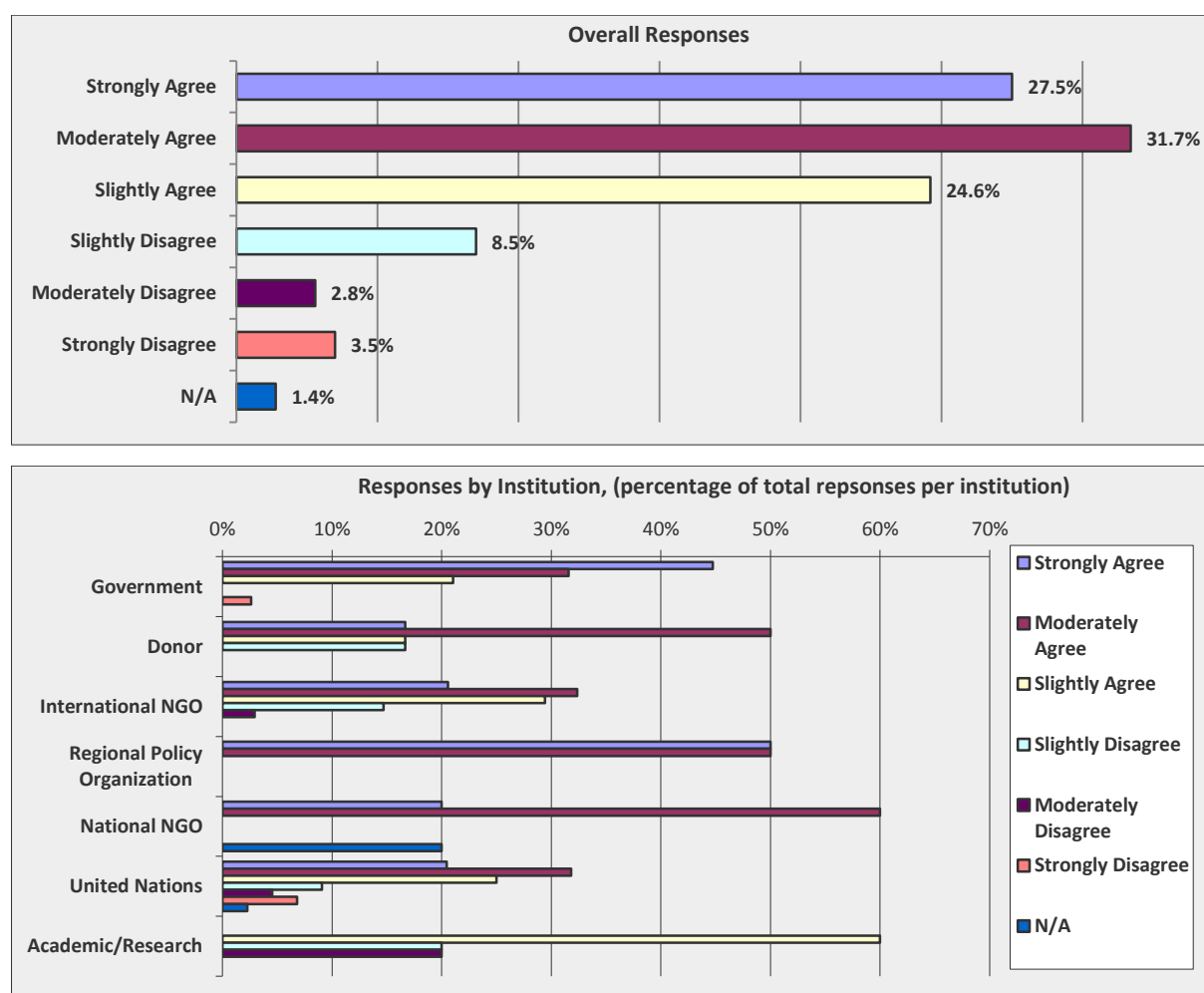
(CAP 2013-15 and its annual update); budget allocation by the Common Humanitarian Fund (CHF) and Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF). Stakeholders of the IPC in Somalia contacted for the baseline study claim due in part to IPC information maintained by the Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit (FSNAU), the food security cluster has more solid evidence than other clusters for justifying resource requirements to prospective donors. It is important to qualify this statement by noting that FSNAU's Food Security and Nutrition Analysis System (FSNAS) – of which the IPC is a single component – is a relatively unique source of robust food security information that does not currently exist in many other countries implementing the IPC.

72. Humanitarian actors in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) also report that IPC information is regularly used by UNOCHA and other UN agencies in determining resource requirements as part of the Consolidated Appeal Process (CAP) and Humanitarian Action Plan as well as allocating resources contributed to the Democratic Republic of the Congo Pooled Fund (DRCPF). Interviews with IPC stakeholders in Kenya also revealed that amid the 2011 drought, the Chair of the Food Security and Nutrition Working Group (FSNWG) for East and Central Africa was invited to the office of the President to make a presentation on the acute food insecurity status based on recent IPC analysis.⁵ As a result the IPC map was instrumental in mobilizing the Government of Kenya to target 10 districts for emergency assistance.
73. In Haiti, the Groupe Technique de Sécurité Alimentaire et Nutritionale (GTSAN) facilitates the discussion of food security analysis and prioritization of resources based on IPC input produced under the Coordination Nationale de la Sécurité Alimentaire (CNSA) and IPC Technical Working Group (Groupe de Travail Technique - GTT). For example, a multi-stakeholder analysis in the Nord-Ouest that included IPC maps and analysis was recently used by the General Secretary for the Ministry of Agriculture (MARNDR) and the Chief of Cabinet for the Prime Minister's office and development to commit resources to the area.
74. In several countries visited during the baseline study, the direct influence of the IPC on the allocation of resources has been limited. In the countries where IPC has been more recently established, this is due to the fact that awareness of IPC and its applicability for policy and resource allocation remains limited among higher level decision makers. In other countries, use of IPC information for resource allocation by the UN and INGOs has at times been constrained by the limited level of analysis (e.g. only part of the country covered, or analysis at a relatively high administrative level – province or district). In most cases where the limited level of analysis was identified as a problem, the lack of data availability at lower administrative levels was cited as the primary cause.
75. Figure 3 provides data on the opinions of on-line survey respondents regarding the applicability of IPC information for decisions related to budgeting and resource allocation. It shows that nearly 85 percent of respondents agree that the IPC is useful for informing these types of decisions (28 percent of whom "strongly agree"). Alternatively, 15 percent of respondents disagreed with the statement that IPC is useful for informing budgeting and resource allocation decisions.
76. Among different institutions, governments and regional policy organizations were most likely to strongly agree that the IPC is useful for making decisions related to resource allocation.

⁵ The FSNWG was set up by key Food Security Partners including Save the Children, IFRC, OXFAM, World Vision, FEWSNET, OCHA, WFP and FAO to improve coordination and response to Regional Food Security and Nutrition issues.

Alternatively, representatives of United Nations organizations, donors agencies and international NGOs expressed relatively substantial disagreement with the idea that the IPC is useful for informing decisions related to resource allocation. This finding is consistent with qualitative information obtained through in-depth interviews carried out during field visits. During these interviews, several respondents suggested that the primary constraint to use of IPC to guide resource allocation is the relative lack of analysis at sufficiently low administrative levels.

Figure 3: On-line Survey - “IPC information products are useful for informing decisions related to budgeting / resource allocation.”



77. Finally, in a sign of ongoing institutionalization of the IPC, but also related to resource allocation, is the increasing responsibility for funding of IPC activities being taken on by host governments and other participating agencies. For instance, the Government of Kenya currently pays for 40 percent of the annual cost of the IPC. The remaining costs are shared among other humanitarian actors (e.g. UN organizations). In Nepal, the Joint Secretary of the Ministry of Agricultural Development (MoAD) reports that 25 percent of NeKSAP budget will be covered by the government next year. In the Philippines, the NNC has allocated nearly USD 25,000 for IPC in FY 2014 to fund IPC advocacy visits to regional development councils; core group and steering committee meetings; and a refresher course on Quantum-GIS.

c. Program Design

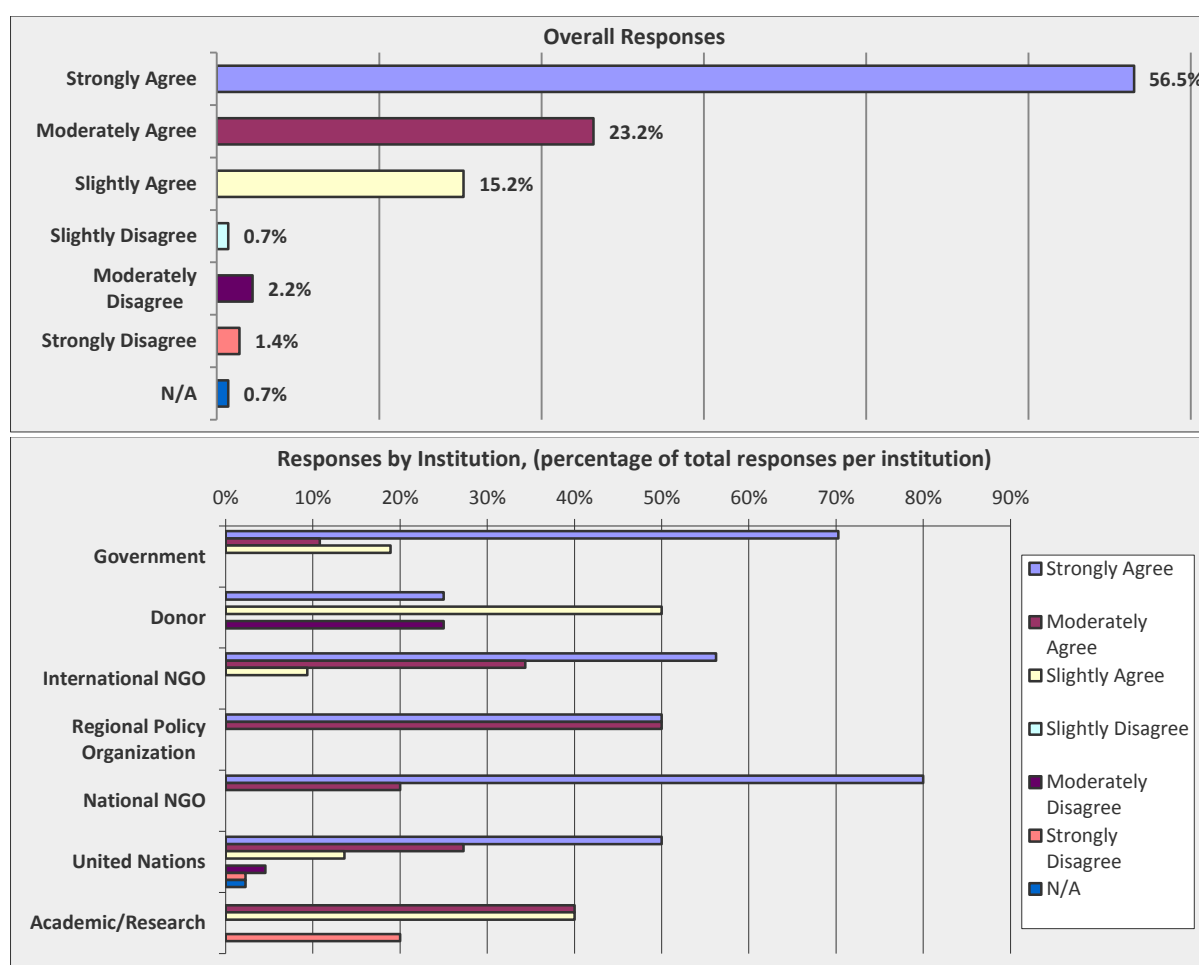
78. For those unfamiliar with IPC procedures, it is important to reiterate that its intended purpose is to serve as a reliable, accessible tool for *situation analysis*. As such, the ultimate step of the IPC phase classification process is use of a convergence of evidence to justify identification of “*priority response objectives*.” The IPC is not designed to guide the separate, but related process of *response analysis* which entails the identification of appropriate food security activities. For the purposes of the baseline, the impact of the IPC on “program design” was considered exclusively in terms of the influence of IPC analysis on geographic (as opposed to household) targeting of food security programs implemented in response to acute food insecurity.
79. Baseline findings confirm that the IPC has the greatest potential to directly influence the design and implementation of food security interventions in areas where: 1) acute food insecurity is classified in the wake of a large-scale emergency; 2) data is available at a relatively low (e.g. sub-district) level; and/or 3) local government officials have awareness of the information and are empowered to make resource allocation decisions.
80. Respondents in several case study countries acknowledged that information produced through the IPC process is being used by NGOs and UN agencies both for targeting geographic areas of project implementation and to some degree for advocacy with donors. Others note that through the inclusion of nutrition indicators (anthropometrics, dietary diversity, wasting), the IPC has informed program design by clarifying linkages between food security and nutrition.
81. In the Philippines, representatives of the Ministry of Agriculture report that IPC analysis carried out in the wake of Typhoon Haiyan (in January 2014) will likely have an indirect influence on programming and budget allocation given that it was used as evidence for the post-disaster needs assessment. The FAO Representative in the Philippines reports that his own office made use of IPC in the design and targeting of input packages following Typhoon Bopha (December 2012). WFP also reported using IPC information on Mindanao for design of Protracted Relief and Recovery Operation (PRRO) in 2012. Likewise, IPC information reportedly helped inform the Government of Bangladesh’s response plan in the wake of Tropical Storm Mahasen (May 2013).⁶
82. In Haiti, USAID and OCHA also acknowledge having used IPC food security classification to target intervention areas. WFP Haiti also acknowledges targeting its activities (e.g., cash for work, school feeding, supplementary feeding) based on recommendations from CNSA and IPC analysis/products. Bilateral and multi-lateral donors in the DRC and Nepal similarly state that IPC analysis has been used for geographic targeting purposes by implementing organizations they currently fund.
83. Figure 4 (below) shows that nearly 95 percent of respondents to the on-line survey agree that IPC analyses are useful for guiding decisions related to the design of food security programming. Alternatively, only 4 percent disagree with the statement. While this information is certainly encouraging with respect to the IPC’s overall strategic objective, it is interesting in that it is somewhat contradicted by qualitative information gained through interviews in case study countries visited during the baseline. In many cases, respondents to in-depth qualitative

⁶ Darcy, James, Pierre Leguéné. (2013). Strategic Evaluation. FAO/WFP Joint Evaluation of Food Security Cluster Coordination in Humanitarian Action. Aide Memoire: Bangladesh Country Case. 6 December 2013.

interviews pointed out the many challenges of using IPC analysis to guide the design and implementation of food security programs. Insight into these challenges is described in detail in Section V.

84. Agreement that IPC is useful for program design is strongest among government and international and national NGOs. While the majority of representatives of UN organizations also agree that IPC analysis is useful for this purpose, there is also some disagreement among UN representatives with the statement that the IPC is useful for informing decisions related to program design. Alternatively, there was no disagreement with the statement among representatives of government, international or national NGOs.

Figure 4: On-line Survey - “IPC analysis and information products are useful for guiding decisions related to food security program design.”



d. Monitoring and Evaluation

85. As was the case for program design, a qualification of “monitoring and evaluation” is warranted in terms of how IPC influence on M&E has been interpreted in the baseline study. To be clear, food security stakeholders do not currently use IPC analysis to monitor or evaluate the specific activities they are implementing. Given the limited frequency of IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis and relatively broad geographic areas on which it is focused, the IPC is ill-suited for this purpose. Rather, multiple respondents – including representatives of INGOs, governments, and donors – stated that IPC analyses are applicable for monitoring food security trends and gauging the effectiveness of policies and programs aimed at preventing acute food insecurity.

86. Respondents from both INGOs and UN organizations participating in in-depth interviews during field visits report using IPC information as part of their “oversight and support” functions for ensuring program design is based on quality and timely analysis. For example in South Sudan, the subsequent IPC maps from January 2013, May 2013 and January 2014 have been used to demonstrate changes in acute food insecurity caused by seasonal food shortages and the additional impact of conflict (see Figure 5). In South Sudan, as in other countries, it is expected that the ability to distinguish between dynamic contributors to acute food insecurity and longer-term structural patterns of vulnerability will be enhanced through application of the IPC Chronic Food Insecurity Scale.

Figure 5: Sequential IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis for South Sudan

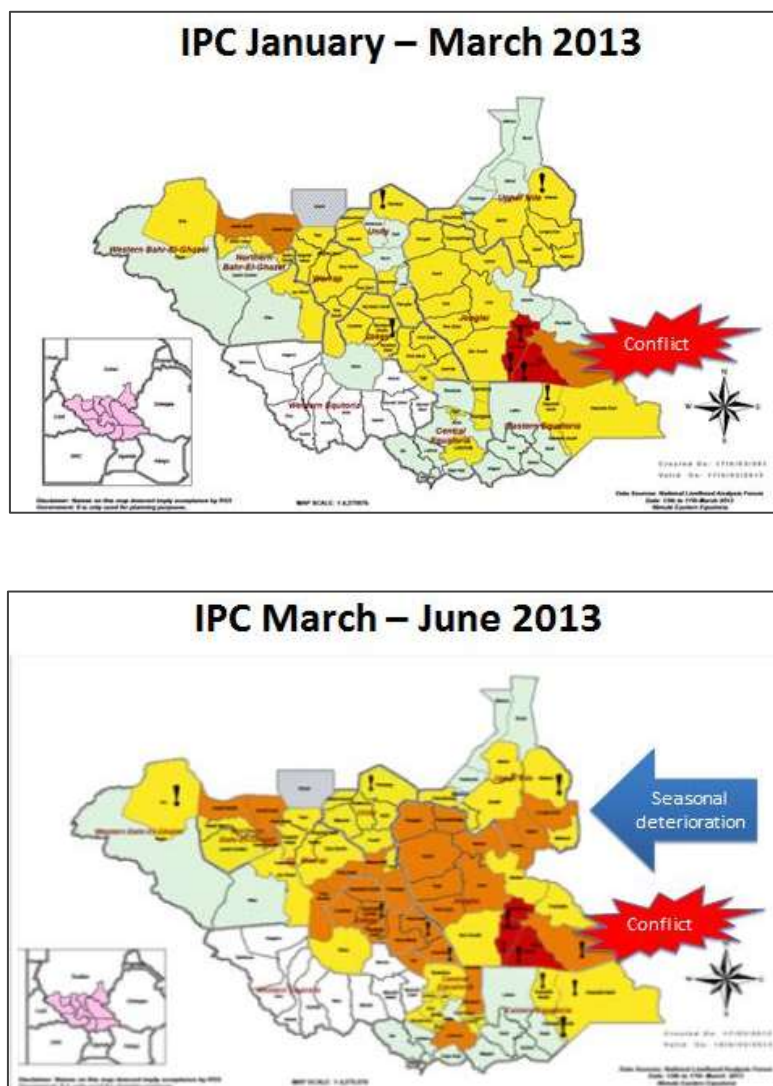
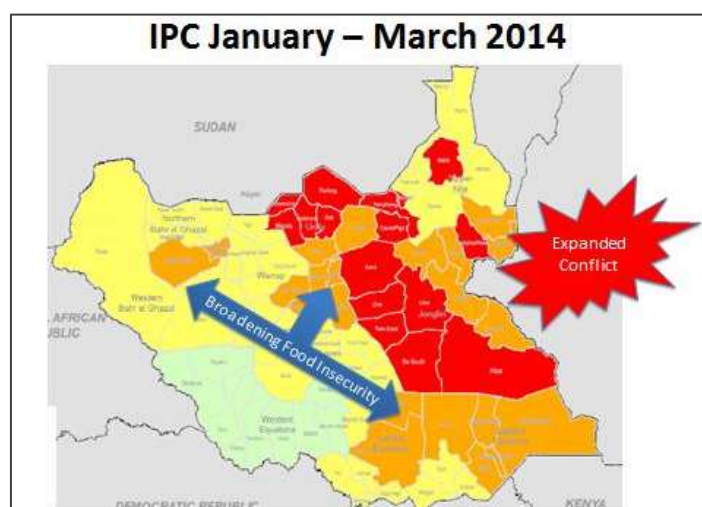
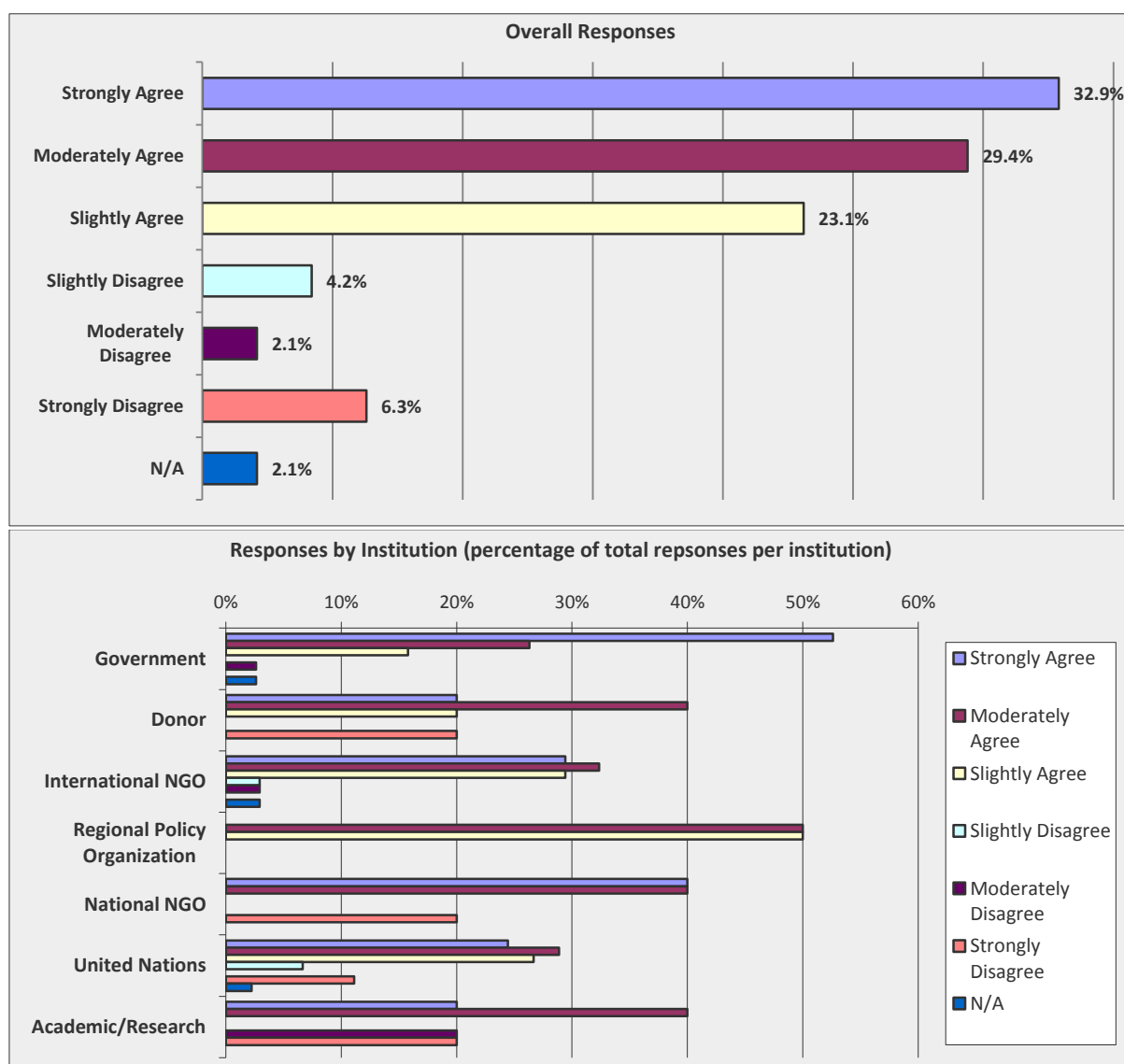


Figure 5 (cont.): Sequential IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis for South Sudan



87. The Deputy Humanitarian Coordinator for South Sudan expressed her opinion that several years of support for capacity building on food security analysis (including IPC) has strengthened the capacity of stakeholders at the national level to provide reliable information on the food security impacts of the ongoing crisis. However, despite progress, the most recent IPC analysis carried out in South Sudan in the context of the ongoing food security emergency highlighted existing gaps in the collection of data on malnutrition and mortality. As a result, both the Ministry of Health and UNICEF have prioritized (and resourced) emergency nutrition assessments in affected areas.
88. The Government of Kenya has joined others in stating its intention to use subsequent rounds of IPC analysis dating back several years to examine trends in emergency response to help determine the extent to which targeted interventions have effectively prevented recurrence of acute food insecurity.
89. Figure 6 (below) shows strong agreement with the idea that IPC processes of analysis are useful for monitoring and evaluation with over 85 percent of respondents agreeing with the statement. However, a relatively higher percentage of respondents (6.3) “strongly disagreed” with the statement and an additional 6.3 percent “slightly” or “moderately” disagreed.
90. Agreement that the IPC is useful for monitoring and evaluation of food security programs is strongest among respondents representing government and international NGOs. Disagreement with the statement was strongest among representatives of UN organizations.

Figure 6: On-line Survey - “IPC processes and information products are useful for monitoring and evaluation of food security programs.”



e. Strategic Planning

91. The baseline study also considered the use of IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis for strategic planning on the part of policy actors and agencies implementing food security programs. Although limited, use of IPC analysis for strategic planning has already contributed to impact in some countries.
92. IPC analysis and information has been used most effectively to inform national food security and agricultural planning in countries where it is hosted by and relatively ‘institutionalized’ within influential government agencies. For instance in Nepal the Ministry of Agricultural Development (MoAD) has recently established a Food Security and Nutrition Division and the Joint Secretary of MoAD claims that they regularly use NeKSAP information for ministry planning.
93. United Nations organizations, international NGOs and donors also report using IPC analysis to inform medium- to longer-term strategic plans. For instance, DfID representatives in Bangladesh claim that IPC maps and information were referred to in developing their longer-term strategies

(3-, 7-, 10-years) in line with the Country Investment Plan (CIP). Meanwhile both ActionAid and Concern International in Bangladesh acknowledge that IPC information was useful in developing their current 5-year Strategic Plans. ActionAid staff in Bangladesh also report that the IPC has been an important tool for informing development of emergency preparedness plans to guide responses to future disasters

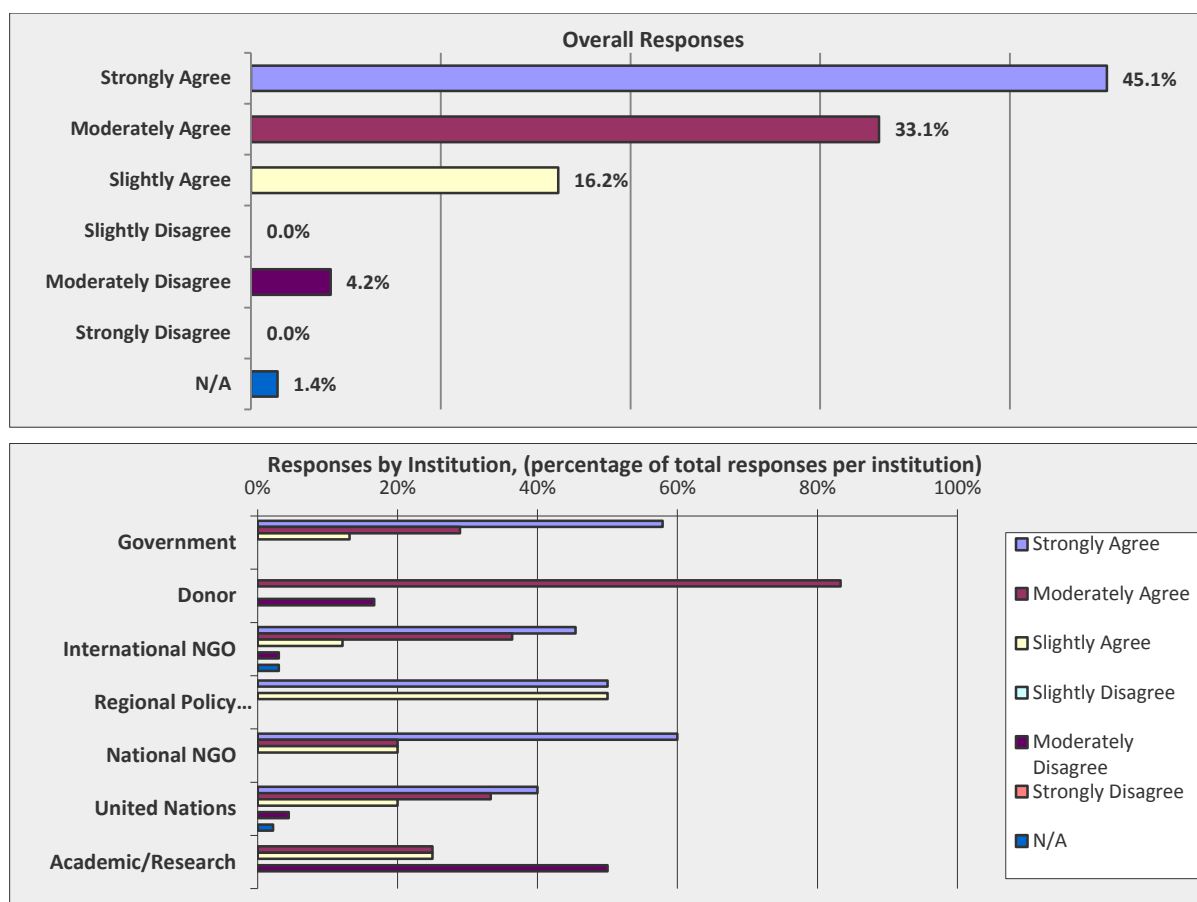
94. Likewise IPC maps and information were used as part of the multi-stakeholder analysis of food security in the northwest of Haiti and subsequently informed the UN/OCHA Humanitarian Action Plan and the EU/ECHO Humanitarian Implementation Plan.⁷⁻⁹ At the same time, there is reportedly increasing interest among relevant ministries in Haiti (e.g. Ministry of Social Affairs and Labor; Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources and Rural Development; Ministry of Public Health) in reports generated by the IPC TWG as tools for revising or developing strategic plans related to food security and social protection in the disaster-prone country. Finally key regional food security stakeholders in Honduras report using IPC products to formulate a strategic plan, which served to bring together the private sector, universities, government, NGOs, civil society organizations and donors to reorient and coordinate response at a local level.

Figure 7: On-line Survey - “IPC processes and information products are useful for strategic planning.”

⁷ CNSA. 2014. Evaluation rapide de la situation de sécurité alimentaire et nutritionnelle dans le bas Nord-Oest. Rapport de Mission. February 2014.

⁸ UN OCHA. 2014. Humanitarian Action Plan (HAP).

⁹ EU/ECHO. 2013. Humanitarian Implementation Plan 2014. Haiti. Accessed at: http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/haiti_en.pdf.



95. Figure 7 shows very strong agreement with the idea that IPC processes and information are useful for strategic planning. Only 4 percent of respondents reported ‘moderate’ disagreement with the statement. Again, respondents representing government and national NGOs expressed the strongest agreement with this statement. In fact, no government or national NGO respondents disagreed with it. Disagreement with the statement that IPC analyses are useful for strategic planning was strongest among UN organizations, international NGOs and representatives of academic/research institutions.

f. Advocacy

96. Baseline findings reveal that the IPC has often been used effectively as a tool for advocacy. The most commonly cited uses of IPC for advocacy are for resource allocation in response to food security crises and for improved data collection to enable IPC analysis.
97. WFP Regional Staff in Eastern African acknowledge that the IPC is a great tool for advocacy regarding the “big picture” and the number of people in need of assistance. In an example of this, the humanitarian country team for Somalia recently prepared a 90-day immediate appeal for which the geographical needs analysis and targeting was done using FSNAU/IPC instruments. On a similar note, lessons learned through the response to the 2011 famine – including IPC’s role in informing it – are being used to advocate for early action among all food security stakeholders in Somalia. There is reportedly substantial support for the IPC among humanitarian institutions in DRC, most of whom attest to its usefulness for advocacy at the national level. They claim it helps draw attention to humanitarian crises and therefore is influential for resource mobilization. FAO

Bangladesh also claims to have used IPC information to tailor proposals to EU and DfID for activities in coastal areas where IPC analysis has been focused.

98. In data-scarce environments the introduction of the IPC has been effective in raising awareness of the need for more consistent collection and analysis of quality food security data. For example, a representative of the Philippines Statistical Authority acknowledged that the IPC has helped advocate for more comprehensive collection of food security data at the local level. Although it has not yet served this purpose, the WFP VAM Unit in Bangladesh feels that the IPC could be a valuable tool for advocating for more detailed/in-depth assessments in geographic areas that are repeatedly demonstrated to be in critical phases of food insecurity.

g. Coordination and Collaboration among Stakeholders

99. The baseline revealed the nearly unanimous opinion that IPC processes have contributed to improved coordination and collaboration among food security stakeholders in participating countries. Again, the most recent and noteworthy example of this is presented by South Sudan. For instance, a senior-level official involved in developing the humanitarian response to the ongoing crisis there claims that by serving as the primary gauge for the acute food insecurity status of vulnerable populations – including those affected by the ongoing conflict – the IPC “has shaped the entire humanitarian response.”
100. As evidence, the IPC May 2014 products for South Sudan have been disseminated as high as the office of the President and have been endorsed by a Cabinet Resolution. Respondents claim these achievements were only made possible in the context of a conducive institutional environment and the presence of credible champions in the government to influence policy and programming levels. National stakeholders state that these elements may be just as important as adoption of important technical aspects such as technical training on the use of a standard methodology.
101. Likewise, stakeholders in other countries – ranging from technical analysts, to donor representatives, to government officials – acknowledge that “the IPC process is as important as the IPC product.” For example, while key IPC Global Partners (i.e. WFP, FEWNSET) maintain their own systems for monitoring food security at multiple levels, they perceive the value of the IPC largely as a means of getting all actors together on the same page in terms of understanding and classifying food insecurity. Likewise, TWG members in several countries attest that the process of consensus building around food security data collection and analysis methods has benefitted all participants by helping to identify important data gaps, reveal strengths and weaknesses among individual members, and clarify their individual and collective commitment to a common goal – improved food security. Technical Working Group members from several countries visited also report that the process of convening for collective IPC analysis has helped to answer the “4 W’s” – Who? What? Where? When? – that serve as the basis for linking situational analysis to response planning.

“The IPC has been a very valuable for bringing analysts from multiple sectors together. It’s helped them reach consensus using standard technical language to classify the food security situation. It’s not the tools, but rather the process that’s most important.”

- Senior Regional Programme Advisor, World Food Programme

102. In addition to its potential application for monitoring food insecurity trends, several respondents claimed that participation in the TWGs have strengthened the technical capacity for analysis among members. For example, representatives of the WFP VAM Unit in Bangladesh claim that the IPC has proven an effective means of providing training to analysts on key aspects of food security including accurate interpretation of anthropometric information.
103. In a clear example of coordination, the IPC TWG in Bangladesh reported that IPC has contributed to greater coordination on data collection by helping to ensure that the Joint Needs Assessment (JNA) includes standardized indicators complementary to IPC analysis.¹⁰ The effort has reportedly helped promote synergy and technical consensus among key food security actors in Bangladesh.
104. By convening and strengthening links between analysts representing diverse institutions, IPC is resulting in benefits well beyond situational analysis that extend to food security programming as a whole. According to several respondents in case study countries, this opportunity was lacking before. For example, in the Philippines, NGO members of the TWG claim that they tried to forge closer collaboration with their colleagues in other organizations for a long time but that the IPC has proven the most effective means of doing so because it has directly involved the government (e.g. National Economic Development Authority) from the outset and provides a unifying focus on food security. They also feel that the diversity of TWG members – older and younger, more experienced and more innovative – is a real asset to the process of collective food security analysis.
105. A separate analysis of FAO's contribution to countries undergoing transition following food security crises found that the IPC was an important tool for facilitating consensus (and increasing accountability) among key stakeholders in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC). The study determined that the IPC serves a very important function by creating local level food security governance (stakeholders meeting at the same table at national and sub-national levels). According to the report, stakeholders in DRC expect that the capacity to complement IPC Acute Food Security Analysis with Chronic Analysis will inform development of a country-level resilience framework to guide medium- and long-term decision making amid protracted food security crises.¹¹ Similarly, key informants in Haiti consider the IPC to be a good process for seeking consensus among diverse food security stakeholders. Although true consensus has not always been reached for each of the analyses conducted, participants feel the methodology allows for sufficient transparency in reporting such that the potential limitations (e.g., areas of disagreement among analysts, missing data) are known and can be objectively considered by decision makers.
106. In a promising sign for the IPC in Central America, a recent meeting between FAO and WFP Country Offices and the Technical Unit for Food Security and Nutrition (UTSAN) – which promotes coordination among all government entities and donors in Honduras – outlined the need for commitment on the part of the government to openly adopt the IPC as part of its monitoring system for food security and nutrition. Rather than operating independently of other food

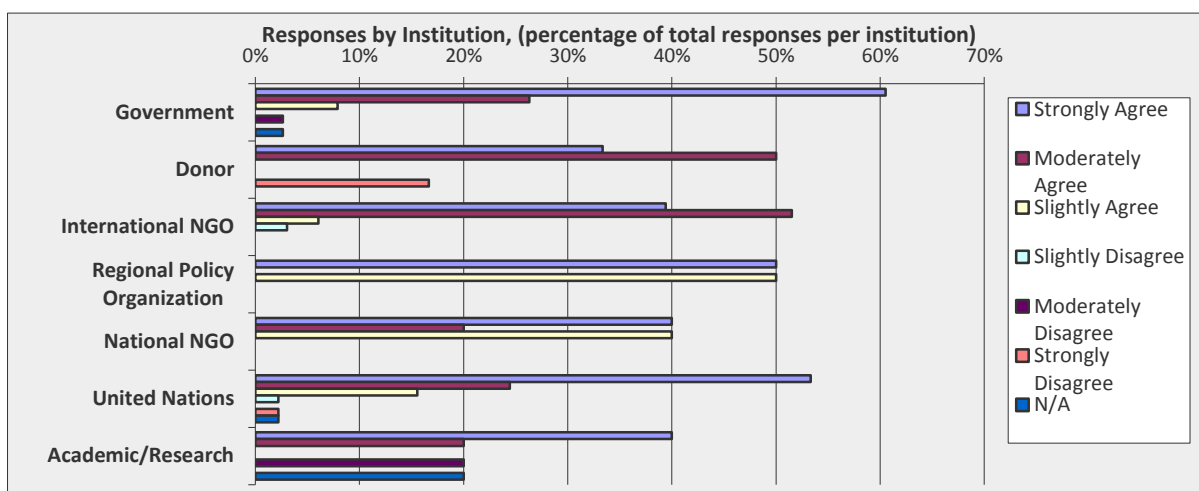
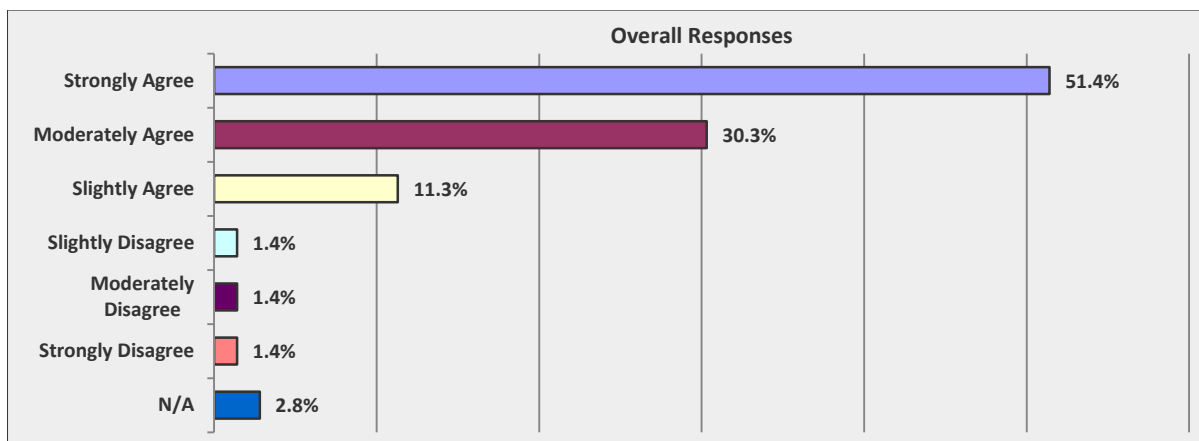
¹⁰ The Emergency Capacity Building Project (ECB) initiated the Joint Needs Assessment (JNA) in Bangladesh through coordination with approximately 20 International Non-governmental Organizations and the support of WFP, UNICEF, the Comprehensive Disaster Management Programme (CDMP) and the Assessment Capacities Project (ACAPS). The JNA is led by CARE and funded by DfID.

¹¹ FAO. (2014). Evaluation of FAO's contribution to crisis-related transition: Linking Relief, Rehabilitation and Development. Office of Evaluation. July 2014.

security and nutrition information systems, it was envisioned that IPC would be fully integrated in the government's food security and nutrition "observatories" (consortia of local entities and individuals responsible for data collection). On a similar note, WFP and FAO leadership at the regional and sub-regional levels have agreed to promote the IPC where possible, once information is made available from rapid assessments to elaborate analysis of the food security impacts of the ongoing drought in Central America.

107. Figure 8 affirms the widespread agreement among respondents that the IPC has contributed to improved networking and collaboration among food security and nutrition stakeholders. The data show that 93 percent of respondents agree with the statement whereas just over 4 percent expressed disagreement with it. Agreement with the statement was strongest among respondents representing government and international NGOs. Interestingly disagreement with the statement was greatest among representatives of UN organizations. While some disagreement was expressed by representatives of donor agencies and academic/research institutions, the relatively high percentages are based on very small sub-samples.

Figure 8: On-line Survey - "The IPC process has contributed to improved networking and collaboration among food security and nutrition stakeholders."



V. Challenges in Applying the IPC for Improved Decision Making

108. Despite the substantial progress made since the inception of the IPC in 2004, and significant successes in the areas of institutionalization and technical development, several challenges to effective use of IPC information for decision making remain, particularly in countries where the IPC has been most recently established. The following section describes several of the most common challenges to using IPC for decision making highlighted by the baseline study.

a. Timeliness of analysis

109. A major challenge in ensuring consistent use of IPC analysis to inform decision making has been coordination of analysis with respect to food security data collection, program planning and funding cycles. If the validation, finalization and dissemination of IPC analysis and information fall outside of these timeframes by even a few weeks, it may miss the opportunity to positively influence or inform food security policies, resource allocation and program design.

110. A case in point was identified through the country visit to Malawi, where IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis has thus far been conducted outside the mainstream of the Malawi Vulnerability Assessment Committee (MVAC). The MVAC reporting period in June links directly to government, WFP and INGOs preparations for emergency relief during the hunger season (November – March). Respondents to the baseline study reported that the additional time required to reach consensus on IPC meta-analysis of multiple assessments, and the process of

obtaining government approval of IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis often causes it to miss the relatively narrow window for decision making related to annual food security program planning. As a result, the IPC has yet to have a direct influence on food security policy and program design in the country. Several respondents within and beyond Africa (e.g. Bangladesh, Philippines) are aware of the coordination of IPC with the Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP) in Somalia and cite this as best practice for aligning IPC analysis with recurrent funding cycles.

111. The limited frequency of IPC analysis is viewed by key government stakeholders and implementing organizations as a primary constraint to its use for decision making. Respondents representing both UN agencies and international donors also point out that an IPC ‘report’ issued every six months is too infrequent to capture important changes in acute food insecurity resulting from seasonal variations, natural disasters, political unrest, etc. and therefore may not be useful to those responsible for developing and implement effective short-term responses.
112. The timeliness of IPC analysis has proven to be particularly important for decision making in the wake of large scale disasters such as Typhoon Haiyan (Philippines) or the ongoing food insecurity crisis in South Sudan. In such cases, respondents point to a struggle to balance between the need for reaching consensus and official sanction of the findings, and the need to use the best available information as quickly as possible to save lives and livelihoods. Respondents in both Haiti and Honduras indicated they’d like to see IPC maps produced on a quarterly basis so that they could be used to effectively monitor the food security situation and help target interventions *before* a crisis occurs. An obvious constraint to more frequent analysis pointed to by several respondents is the limited amount of funding available for data collection and subsequent analysis by Technical Working Groups.

Figure 9: On-line Survey - “IPC information products are disseminated in a timely fashion.”

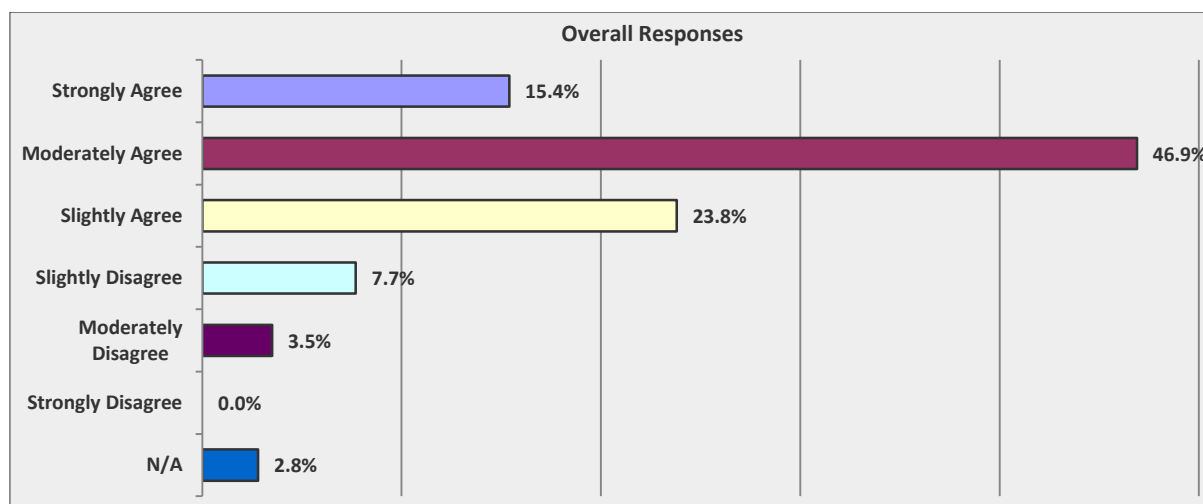
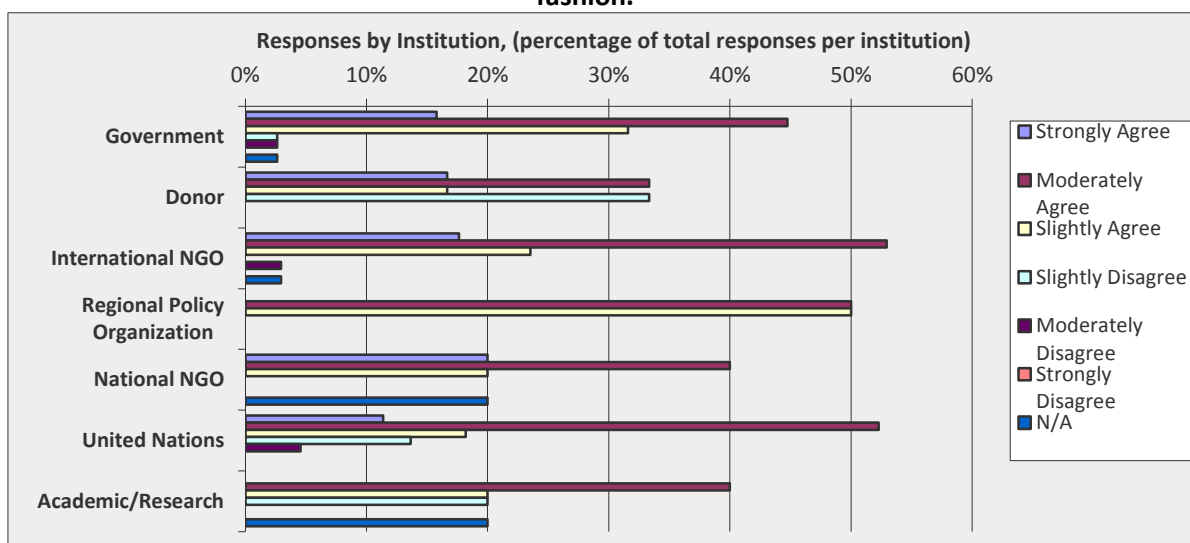


Figure 9 (cont.): On-line Survey - “IPC information products are disseminated in a timely fashion.”



113. Figure 9 shows presents data that is somewhat contradictory to perspectives shared during in-depth qualitative interviews. The figure shows that the clear majority (86 percent) of respondents to the on-line survey agree that IPC information products are disseminated in a timely fashion. Nonetheless, over 11 percent of respondents disagree with this statement. While there is general agreement across institutions with the statement that IPC analysis is timely, the percentages of respondents that “strongly agree” with it are relatively low compared to other statements included in the on-line survey. Given their position as key stakeholders, it is important to note that disagreement with the statement was relatively high among those representing UN organizations, government, international NGOs and donors.

b. Level of analysis

114. In several countries, the limited level of IPC analysis (i.e. broad geographic disaggregation, limited coverage) is viewed by stakeholders as a primary constraint to its use for food security program design and resource allocation. In some instances IPC analysis has only been carried out in certain areas of the country (not national coverage) severely limiting its applicability for development of national policy. Representatives of the National Economic Development Authority (NEDA) of the Philippines – the institution responsible for developing the Philippine Development Plan (2011-2016) – stated their initial intention to use the IPC to inform development of the PDP. They envisioned the IPC as a useful tool for identifying areas most in need of development assistance, but subsequently realized that the lack of national coverage prevented the IPC from being used in this way.

115. In many more cases (e.g., Bangladesh, Philippines, Haiti, Honduras, Zimbabwe, Kenya) respondents cited the challenge posed by the relatively high geographic level of IPC analysis and classification (e.g., province or district). The reason this serves as a critical constraint for informing resource allocation and project design (targeting) is that both are typically determined at lower (smaller) geographic or administrative

“If the goal is to improve program design and targeting we must have sub-district information.”

- Head, VAM Unit, WFP Bangladesh

levels. On a related note, representatives of IPC Global Partner institutions report that IPC's approach to population estimation makes it difficult to accurately assess the number of people in need of food assistance as a basis for determining funding needs.

116. While the IPC regularly makes use of information collected at the household, community and sub-district levels, analytical processes are commonly aimed at arriving at an "area based classification" (based on an estimated minimum of 20 percent of the population being in a specific phase or worse). In essence, this requires that household-level data is "aggregated up" with other sources of information on the particular administrative level. As a consequence, respondents to the baseline study often feel much of the relevant information for designing food security programs is lost in the process.
117. In addition to limiting the usefulness of IPC analysis for informing resource allocation and project design, the broad geographic level of analysis can actually present constraints to institutionalization among government and other partners. As explained by the FAO Representative in the Philippines – based on his experience with IPC in other countries - when officials see an entire district within a certain 'classification', even when they know that communities or sub-districts within the larger area may not fit that classification, they may have reason to question the reliability and applicability of the analysis (given that they don't understand the technical constraints of aggregating data for classification).
118. An important reality leading to this constraint is that a substantial portion of the data required for IPC analysis is not always available at lower (e.g., sub-district) administrative levels. This has very real implications for the design of emergency food security response, particularly in areas experiencing ongoing crisis. For instance, in South Sudan and the Central African Republic, standard food security data is simply not available across multiple areas of the country, largely as a result of inaccessibility due to conflict. Likewise, the dynamic situation and large-scale movement of populations often compromises the validity of recently collected data. Unfortunately in these settings, as elsewhere, the aggregation of data at a relatively high level makes IPC information difficult to use for geographic targeting and implementation of humanitarian relief activities, including WFP emergency food assistance. In such situations, WFP relies on its own assessment and monitoring data for targeting needy populations and households.

c. Awareness

119. A common challenge facing the IPC in several countries has been engaging higher-level decision makers in the use of IPC information for policy development, resource allocation and program design. According to respondents regularly engaged in technical aspects of the IPC, this is largely the result of limited awareness of IPC tools and processes and their applicability for decision making among higher-level decision makers.
120. Respondents in several countries point toward a lack of clear understanding of the full potential of IPC in decision making among senior-level decision makers and professional staff involved in food security programming. According to respondents, this often comes down to a simple lack of awareness of IPC analytical processes and information products. In certain cases, there has been a distinct lack of sensitization on the IPC among government stakeholders. As a result, potential users of IPC information products in some countries express an inaccurate view that the IPC has

been developed and implemented primarily as a tool designed to influence NGOs and donors rather than governments. Meanwhile, the baseline study found that some within key government units maintain false expectations of the IPC based on their understanding of it as a tool for response planning. Finally, senior-level government officials in some countries who might use the IPC to inform policy and resource allocation fail to fully appreciate the applicability of it due to their continued understanding of agricultural production as the primary determinant of food security.

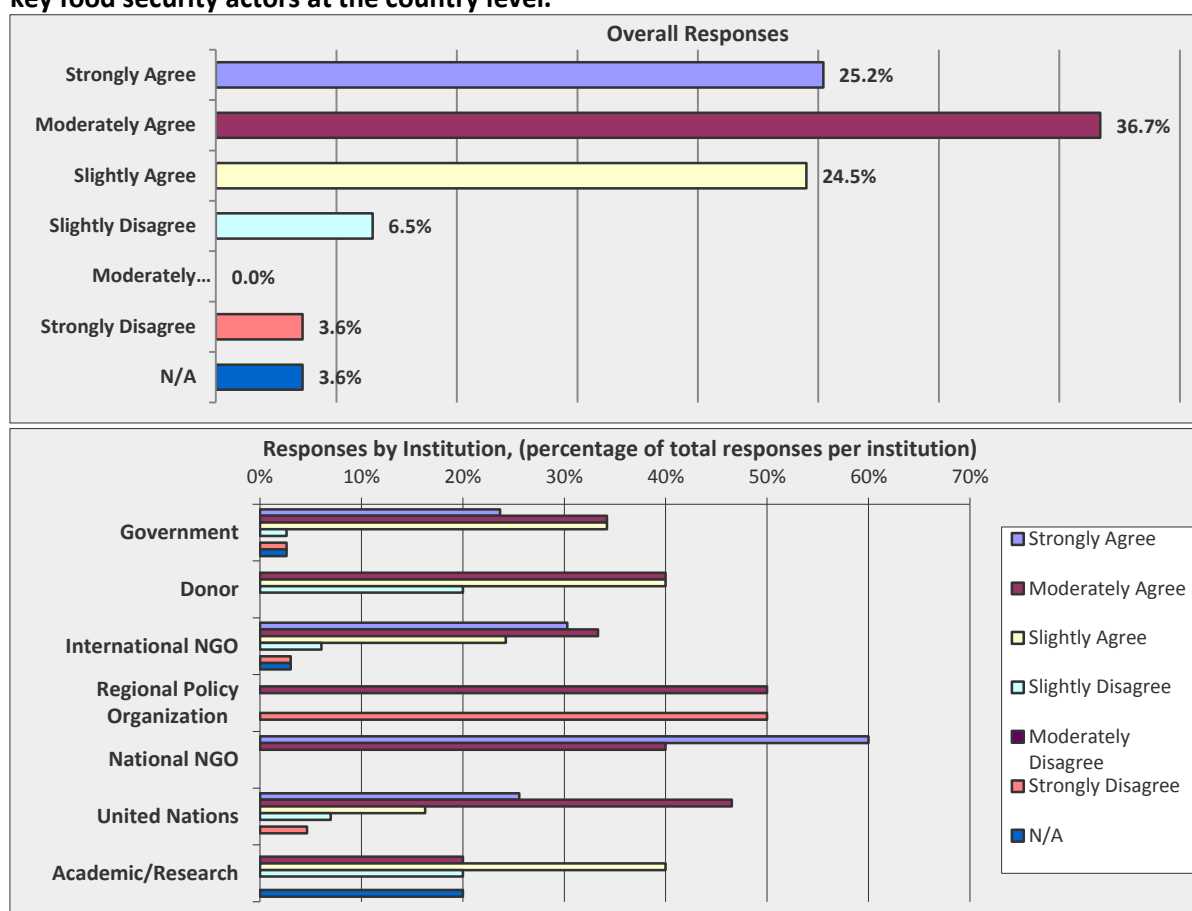
121. Several respondents attribute the lack of awareness of the IPC at senior levels to a general lack of human capacity within host agencies. In particular, they explain that there is typically not sufficient time (or financial resources) allocated to IPC Focal Points or other TWG members to effectively engage in awareness-raising. Several government actors contacted during field visits state that country-level representatives of IPC Global Partner institutions have not taken a prominent role in advocating for the IPC among their government counterparts.
122. Whatever the reason, the generally limited participation of senior-level decision makers in the IPC to date has resulted in a situation where the demand for IPC products is often driven by technical stakeholders rather than by potential users of information products.

d. Institutionalization

123. Common definitions of institutionalization refer to “embedding” behaviors, processes, practices within an organization or social system. For the purposes of the IPC – and the baseline study – institutionalization focuses on the extent to which key food security stakeholders (governments, donors, UN organizations, NGOs) demonstrate “ownership” of the IPC’s consensus-based approach to analyzing available evidence to classify the severity of food insecurity. The extent of ownership can be inferred by official government hosting of the IPC, establishment and regular convening of TWGs, allocation of resources for IPC analysis by multiple stakeholders, integration of IPC analysis into food security strategies and policy frameworks, and synergy with other food security information initiatives.
124. The ongoing difficulties associated with ‘institutionalization’ also pose challenges to the use of IPC information for policy formation, resource allocation and program design. As mentioned in Section IV, considerable progress has been made in establishing the IPC with strategic government agencies at the national level. However, the extent to which these actors can translate their role as IPC host agencies into direct *influence* on food security policy and program mechanisms is often determined by a range of legal, political, financial and other issues.
125. For instance, while several respondents in Bangladesh agreed with the strategic choice of the Food Planning and Monitoring Unit (FPMU) as the host agency for the IPC, they readily acknowledged that awareness of the FPMU and its role in food security policy is limited among government officials outside the Ministry of Food. Likewise, the NNC in the Philippines has been instrumental in establishing the IPC in the Philippines and is credited by multiple respondents for doing an excellent job in coordinating the TWG. However, respondents also state that its placement within the Ministry of Health has limited the ability of the NNC to engage senior-level actors in other sectors in the use of IPC information.

126. In Haiti, the Coordination Nationale de la Sécurité Alimentaire (CNSA) is viewed by respondents as a logical choice to house the IPC given its role in developing and monitoring strategic frameworks and policies on food security. According to stakeholders, the provision of CNSA's legal status occurs through the legislative process, which has apparently stalled, perhaps due to other more urgent political issues during an election year. As such, CNSA is not legally recognized by the government and therefore has limited – or no – influence on national level policies, programs or allocation of resources regarding food security.
127. In several countries, respondents noted the relatively low visibility of Global IPC Partners in promoting use of the IPC among other institutional stakeholders. For instance, several respondents noted a lack of clarity over whether FAO or WFP “owns” the IPC, due in part to the lack of documented use of IPC results by either of these agencies. When questioned during the baseline, some FAO representatives acknowledge the limited use of IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis for FAO's country operations, but expressed their view that it is much “easier” for others to apply this type of information in targeting humanitarian assistance. The implication was that as a largely policy-oriented institution, with relatively limited capacity to deliver food aid and other emergency assistance, FAO is less able to directly apply information provided by the IPC Acute Food Insecurity Classification to its own programming. The rationale for this explanation is likely to be addressed in part through the rollout of IPC Chronic Food Insecurity Analysis tools.
128. Multiple countries cited staff turnover as a limiting factor to institutionalization of the IPC due to its adverse impact on the technical capacity for food security and nutrition analysis among key government counterparts. Given the relatively low level of awareness of IPC, particularly in countries where it has been recently established, reassignment of key individuals can also have a substantially negative influence on the use of IPC for decision making. Similarly, in some countries the limited frequency of TWG meetings (due to a lack of funding) is also having a negative impact not only capacity building, but also awareness raising and institutionalization of the IPC.
129. Figure 10 shows the opinions of on-line survey respondents regarding whether the IPC has been incorporated into strategies and work plans of key food security stakeholders at the country level. It is important here to distinguish these as *opinions* rather than observable facts regarding actual incorporation of the IPC in strategies and work plans. While the data show generally favourable results (over 86 percent) agree, a relative large percentage (over 10 percent) disagree that IPC has been institutionalized in this way.
130. Among different institutions, agreement with the statement was strongest among those representing governments, international NGOs and UN organizations. However, among representatives of each of these institutions (and others) there was also some strong disagreement with the statement.

Figure 10: On-line Survey - “The IPC has been incorporated into the strategies and work plans of key food security actors at the country level.”

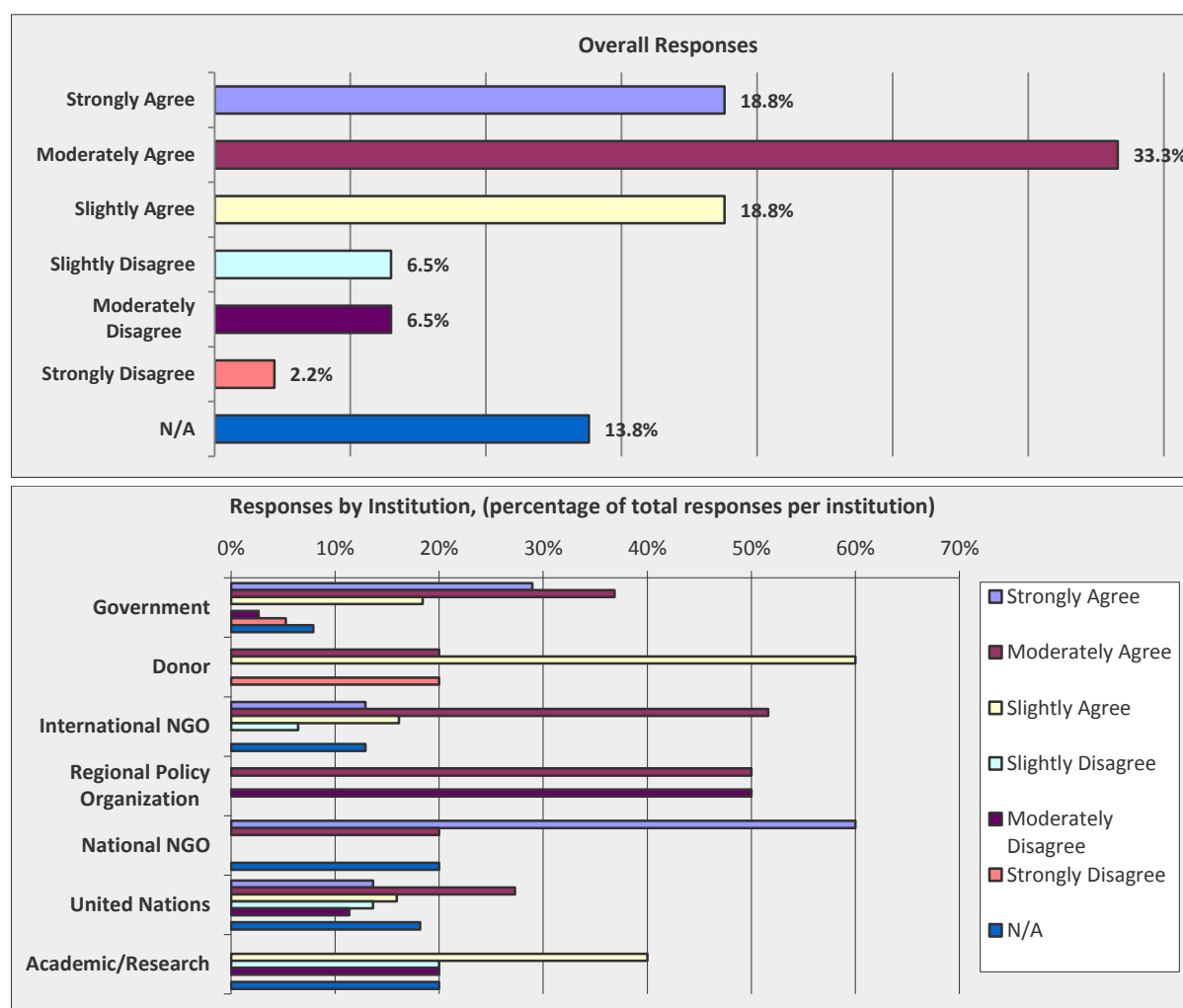


131. The baseline study clearly revealed that limited institutionalization of the IPC is also a factor at the regional level. For example, while the Inter-Governmental Authority on Development (IGAD) chairs the Food Security and Nutrition Working Group (FSNWG) and the FSNWG hosts the Regional Steering Committee for IPC in East Africa, the IPC has reportedly not had a substantial influence on food security policy at the regional level due to limited participation of senior-level government representatives in IGAD.

132. In southern Africa, institutionalization of the IPC has been hampered by the pre-existence of strong institutional ties between the Regional Vulnerability Assessment and Analysis (RVAA, formerly the Regional Vulnerability Assessment Committee – RVAC) Programme, WFP, and DfID. As a result of this partnership, the RVAA and corresponding National Vulnerability Assessment Committees (NVACs) have developed into widely-used food security and vulnerability information systems. This situation has created substantial challenges to greater use and institutionalization of the IPC in the region. Due to inconsistent or ineffective awareness-raising, there is a general sense among several key stakeholders in the region that the IPC does not substantially improve upon food security analysis already available through NVACs. This is particularly the case since NVACs rely on data collected via the Household Economy Approach (HEA) which is available at the sub-district level. In comparison to the IPC, HEA stakeholders have invested much effort in raising awareness among senior decision makers on the application of HEA model and situation analysis.

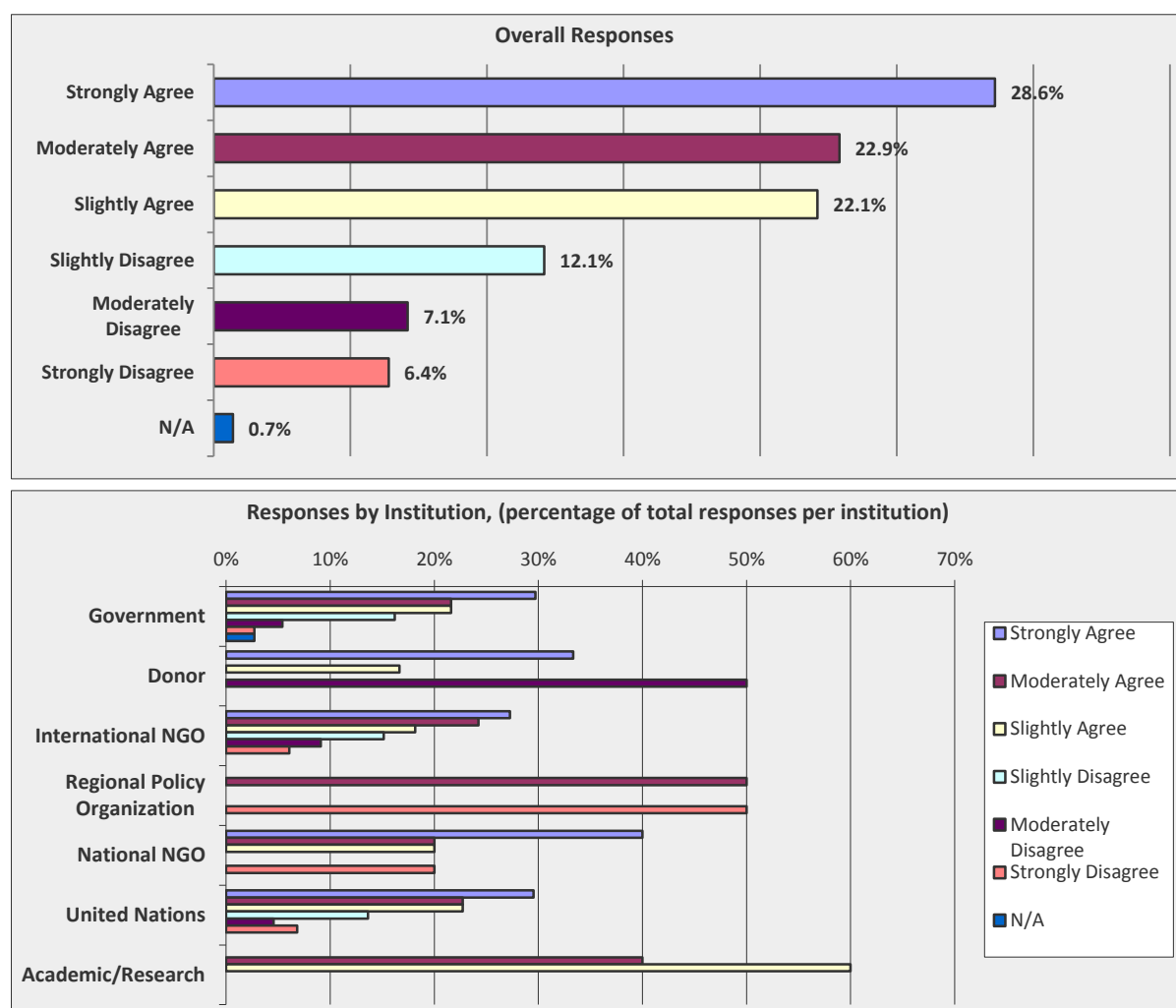
133. In southern Africa, as in other regions, there is a certain degree of sensitivity among food security stakeholders regarding the status of the IPC as a ‘meta-analysis’ tool. Specifically, given that the IPC analysis incorporates data collected and analyzed by partners, representatives of those institutions are justifiably concerned about IPC being presented as “new” information for decision makers. In such instances, it is apparent that IPC Regional Coordinators, Country Focal Points and TWG members need to more proactively communicate the added-value of a convergence of all available data and consensus-based analysis.
134. Since its inception as a regional project in 2012, the IPC in Asia has made substantial progress toward institutionalization at the national level. For example, national governments of Bangladesh and the Philippines have officially confirmed formal adoption of the IPC and outlined measures to ensure the IPC is integrated into national food security frameworks. However, at the regional level, while a Regional Steering Committee and Technical Working Group were established, they have failed to meet regularly or take an active role in promoting institutionalization of the IPC in the region. While FAO and WFP have thus far coordinated with one another on establishment of the IPC in Asia, this is reportedly less the result of ‘institutionalization’ than of close working relationships between select individuals. Likewise, while ECHO has been a promoter of IPC in the region, respondents claim that it has often been “going it alone” in this role, with limited support from other multi-lateral donors in the region.
135. Figure 11 shows data on the opinions of on-line survey respondents regarding the incorporation of the IPC into the strategies and workplans of key food security actors at the *regional* level. Again, while the opinions are generally positive (71 percent agree), there is stronger disagreement among participants that IPC has been incorporated in this way at the regional level (over 15 percent disagree). The fact that nearly 14 percent of respondents did not answer this question likely points to a lack of awareness of whether the IPC has been incorporated into regional strategies and workplans or not. Regardless, of the reality, this lack of awareness sheds light on the degree to which IPC has been ‘institutionalized’ at the regional level.
136. The findings presented in Figure 11 are interesting in that they show less agreement among representatives of government, donors, international NGOs and UN organizations with the statement that IPC is incorporated in strategies and work plans at the regional level than was expressed regarding similar incorporation at the national level. This finding is consistent with qualitative information gained through case study visits and is not surprising given the relatively recent establishment of the IPC in some regions (e.g. Central America, Asia) and widespread adoption of NVACs in southern Africa.

Figure 11: On-line Survey - “The IPC has been incorporated into the strategies and work plans of key food security actors at the regional level.”



137. Figure 12 also provides insight into the extent to which IPC has been institutionalized in participating countries and regions. While IPC is in fact a multi-partner effort aimed at generating consensus-based meta-analysis of food security information, nearly 74 percent agree that the IPC is viewed as an FAO initiative by a majority of stakeholders. In a more promising sign for institutionalization of the IPC, over one quarter of respondents (25.5 percent) disagree with the statement. This general finding (three-quarters in agreement, one-quarter in disagreement) holds true for representatives of government, international NGOs and UN organizations, each of which are key stakeholders among whom the IPC seeks to be institutionalized.

Figure 12: On-line Survey - “The IPC is viewed by the majority of stakeholders as an FAO initiative.”



e. Technical Standards and Technical Capacity

138. The first and second “phases” of the Global IPC project, spanning from 2007 to 2010, focused largely on establishing the methodology and strengthening technical capacity for IPC meta-analysis of data related to acute food insecurity. Since that time, consistent progress has been made on refining technical components of the IPC process, resulting in finalization of Version 2.0 of the IPC Technical Manual in June 2012. Despite substantial and widespread improvements in the technical capacity for IPC Acute Food Security Analysis, the baseline study revealed that important technical challenges remain.

139. For instance, while the IPC has put considerable effort into strengthening the capacity of participating analysts – including carrying out regular trainings and establishment of an IPC analyst certification system – some stakeholders continue to express concerns regarding the quality of IPC analysis given the limited technical capacity of individuals responsible for determining food security classifications. For instance, respondents to in-depth interviews point out that the *number* of people trained in IPC analysis at the country level does not necessarily ensure the *quality* or reliability of IPC analysis, especially if the individuals trained do not have previous experience in food security analysis. Without this experience, some technical

representatives of partner institutions question whether all TWG members can accurately interpret what is often partial or inferior quality information in order to reach valid conclusions. Even where TWGs are established and functioning, they continue to encounter occasional challenges in reaching consensus given that various agencies utilize different methods for collecting and analysing information on standard indicators.

140. The cut-off points / thresholds for specific food security indicators used in IPC Acute Food Insecurity classification have also been a somewhat common point of contention among TWG members, particularly those in countries seeking to tailor IPC tools and procedures to their own particular context. While IPC technical advisors have been open to TWGs using contextually-specific information as indirect evidence for classification, they have thus far been unwilling to allow changes to the global IPC reference table (including thresholds) in order to ensure both quality and comparability.
141. However, even where IPC analysis and procedures have been applied somewhat uniformly in neighboring countries, the ability to develop reliable IPC maps at the regional level has at times been compromised by the limited quantity and quality of the underlying data. For example, the FSNWG is able to generate regional maps of acute food insecurity in East Africa based on IPC analyses carried out in ten participating countries.¹² However, each of these countries demonstrates a different capacity to collect and analyze data required for IPC classification. This leads to serious concerns over the quality of data on specific indicators (e.g. food consumption, nutrition, mortality, morbidity). When developing regional maps, the quality tends toward the lowest common denominator – the regional map is only as good as the lowest quality national data, which is sometimes not very good. As a result potential users (e.g. donors) have expressed scepticism regarding the validity of the regional map for informing decisions related to food security policy and resource allocation.
142. As mentioned previously, the lack of data availability at lower administrative levels continues to pose a substantial constraint to the use of the IPC for decision making, particularly related to resource allocation and targeting. The reasons for the lack of underlying data for IPC analysis at lower administrative levels vary considerably across contexts. In addition to reliable funding for data collection at lower (e.g. sub-district levels), limited institutional commitment to food security analysis, lack of technical capacity for survey design and data management
143. This relates to technical capacity in that in addition to funding shortfalls related to data collection, there simply are not enough people at the local level with the technical capacity to collect or analyze the data required for IPC analysis.

f. Demand for further development/ changing government priorities

144. At its inception in 2004 in Somalia, IPC was widely regarded as a unique and directly applicable tool for standardizing analysis of acute food insecurity in a manner that informed decision making related to emergency response. While it is now capable of serving that purpose in many more countries, the evolving nature of food insecurity and the increasing capacity for emergency response at the national level has influenced the demand for IPC processes and information

¹² Burundi, Central African Republic, DRC, Djibouti, Kenya, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan, Tanzania, and Uganda.

products. It is largely in response to this demand that IPC has developed standardized tools and processes for Chronic Food Insecurity Analysis.

145. Host governments in several countries visited during the baseline study assert that in recent decades, they have substantially increased their capacity to predict, analyze and respond to acute food insecurity. As a result, they feel that the applicability of the IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis has subsequently decreased. A case in point was offered by representatives of the FPMU in Bangladesh who stated that the last famine declared in that country was in 1974. Alternatively, several countries participating in the IPC are intent on making similar gains in the capacity to analyze and respond to chronic food insecurity. In certain instances, this has simultaneously created a substantial demand for IPC Chronic Food Insecurity Analysis and has constrained institutionalization of IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis.
146. On a related note, several respondents in different regions feel that use and institutionalization of the IPC is constrained by its limited focus on situation analysis. To overcome this, they argue for greater IPC involvement in response analysis. While this is not a new demand, IPC leadership at the global and regional levels continues to advise against direct IPC involvement in responses analysis for several reasons. Chief among these is that response analysis and planning requires a different skill set, different types of information (e.g. on implementation costs, logistics, partnership opportunities) and involves a different array of stakeholders than food security analysis. Additionally, there is concern that direct IPC participation in response analysis may lead to opportunities for (or the perception of) bias in terms of food security analysis aimed at informing response.
147. While TWGs in Uganda, Tanzania and Nepal have piloted their own approaches to response analysis based on IPC (NeKSAP in the case of Nepal) results, other regional stakeholders remain skeptical of the use of IPC for response analysis. They feel that most governments have legal frameworks that guide sector responses and that the IPC is not well suited for managing that process given its focus on classifying acute food insecurity.
148. Finally, as previously mentioned, there is considerable demand to further contextualize IPC analysis tools in regions other than Eastern Africa (where they were initially developed). Respondents in both Asia and Central America make the obvious point that the nature of food insecurity in these regions – particularly in terms of severity and frequency – is substantially different than in the Horn of Africa. As a result, they would like to see adaptations of IPC tools and procedures to reflect key differences in both the decisions they face, and the structures through which they are made. Similarly, given the limited engagement with IPC in Southern Africa (with the possible exception of Zimbabwe), some respondents in the region question whether the added-value of the IPC warrants an additional layer of meta-data analysis in a resource-scarce environment where opportunity costs can be high. Some government stakeholders, some feel that it may be more cost-efficient and effective to invest in more rigorous analysis of nutrition, urban food insecurity and/or resilience.

g. Communication and Coordination

149. The earlier stages of IPC development were primarily focused on technical development of analysis tools and communication products as well as building technical capacity for IPC Acute

Food Insecurity Analysis among TWGs. Now that the IPC initiative has expanded to include new countries and regions – and a larger network of stakeholders – the emphasis has necessarily shifted from technical development toward the need for more effective coordination to enhance use of IPC information.

150. While the Global Support Unit (GSU) is housed within FAO, at the global level the IPC is guided by a multi-agency Steering Committee (SC) and supported by a number of multi-lateral donors. In participating countries, IPC analysis is conducted and communicated by multi-agency TWGs and the process is theoretically “owned” by national governments. As the IPC has expanded around the world, regional policy institutions have also taken an increasing role in coordinating IPC processes and communicating the results to decision makers. As a result of this dynamic interaction between diverse actors at multiple levels, the IPC has experienced a number of challenges related to communication and coordination.
151. Despite the perceived value of the IPC for informing response to the ongoing food insecurity crisis in South Sudan, the most recent analysis exercises carried out in the relatively new country presented many challenges and opportunities for lesson learning. Most notably, IPC experience in South Sudan since December in 2013 reveals the critical importance of coherent processes for reaching technical consensus, reviewing and endorsing analysis and consistently communicating results. This proved to be very difficult – but ultimately vital for effective decision making – in an emergency situation in which the timeliness of data at times took priority over the process through which it was produced. Following recent analysis exercises, institutional members of the TWG did not uniformly adhere to IPC coordination and communication protocols and as a result, messages disseminated to policy makers, donors, and the media regarding the potential for famine were not cleared at the appropriate levels. This experience, and similar (though less urgent) issues in Kenya reveal the importance of having strong, experienced leadership within the TWG to maintain clear lines of communication with relevant authorities. Specifically, the lesson is that appropriate processes and protocols must be maintained to ensure and that the multiple institutions involved in IPC analysis speak with one voice.
152. A common challenge revealed by the baseline study is a general lack of consistent and effective communication that promotes use of IPC information for decision making. While technically-oriented respondents have a generally favourable view of the usefulness of IPC information for guiding food security policy and programming, they readily acknowledge that many ‘decision makers’ remain relatively unaware of its potential. Accordingly, several respondents to in-depth qualitative interviews in case study countries recommended that the IPC make greater efforts to build the capacity of mid- to senior-level decision makers to understand and apply the IPC information to guide policy, resource allocation, strategic planning and program design.
153. The lack of financial and human capacity to coordinate the dissemination of IPC analytical products in a manner that consistently informs decision making was also commonly cited by country- and regional-level stakeholders as a common challenge. An example is offered by the case of southern Africa where many decision makers apparently do not appreciate the added value of the IPC over other sources of food security information, specifically the HEA activities that form the basis of National Vulnerability Assessment Committee (NVAC) reports. NVACs activities are coordinated primarily through the RVAA Programme overseen by the Southern African Development Community (SADC). Over the last decade, the U.K. Department for

International Development (DfID) has dedicated substantial funding and human resources to coordination, communication and advocacy related to HEA activities and the RVAA. Having not allocated similar financial and human resources at the regional level, the IPC now faces considerable challenges in promoting greater use among key decision makers. Respondents to the baseline study reported that they are unaware of any documentation or other material that clearly establishes the added value of the IPC in the region or its potential advantage over other analytical tools currently being used. As a result, despite years of engagement and training of many individuals, the IPC is still viewed by some in the Southern Africa region as being in the “piloting” stage.

154. Given financial and human resource constraints, the IPC currently relies heavily on Regional Coordinators and Country Focal Points. The baseline finds that they are currently at or near their limit in terms of capacity to simultaneously manage both the technical and coordination aspects of the IPC. Regional Coordinators and Country Focal Points have each been trained as technical food security analysts and have substantial experience with the IPC. As a result are they fully capable of building technical capacity for and maintaining the quality of IPC food security analysis. However, in certain cases they may lack the distinct skills, knowledge, or experience necessary to effectively promote uptake of the IPC as an important tool among higher-level decision makers.
155. Respondents also point out that in addition to the specific technical and coordination tasks related to the IPC, promoting greater use of it among decision makers in government and the humanitarian community largely depends on the presence of credible champions and recognized institutional arrangements. As such, many report that the limited engagement of IPC Global Partners at the regional and country levels is a significant constraint. They feel there is a wealth of knowledge and influence at the global level that could be of great benefit at the regional and country levels (e.g., promoting IPC and helping to bring governments online, resourcing country- and regional-level activities).
156. Finally, there has been a general lack of documentation and communication of “best practices” in the application of IPC information for decision making. Despite substantial differences in the institutional and food security context among participating countries, many respondents are eager to learn from effective use of the IPC in other areas of the world. Despite some notable exceptions, many respondents reported little or no knowledge of IPC successes and challenges in other countries.

VI. Best Practices in the Application of the IPC

157. Although the IPC has only recently expanded to and rapidly evolved within several new regions and countries, its application has generated several innovative and effective practices. The baseline study sought to capture information on these best practices as a means of determining when, where and how they might be replicated and scaled up in support of the IPC GSP (2014-2016). A brief description of several best practices is provided below.

a. Strategic Institutional Relationships

158. Given the importance of institutionalization to the sustainability and use of IPC analysis for decision making, the baseline study sought to identify effective means of establishing and strengthening institutional relationships, particularly at the country level.

159. One such example is provided by the Kenya Food Security Steering Group (KFSSG) which hosts the IPC in Kenya. The KFSSG is relatively exceptional compared to other IPC countries in that it is led by government, but also involves direct participation of UN agencies and as well as national and international NGOs. The KFSSG has also deliberately maintained a multi-sectoral response to food insecurity by promoting the direct participation of government agencies focusing on agriculture, livestock, health, water, education and marketing. After developing food security analysis reports (including IPC analysis) at both the national and district levels, the KFSSG shares them with heads of various sectoral ministries in a time and manner that enables them to decide what (if any) responses are warranted in that particular sector.
160. In Bangladesh, the IPC is housed within the Food Planning and Monitoring Unit (FPMU) under the Ministry of Food. One potential advantage of this arrangement is that a major focus of the FPMU is addressing chronic food insecurity, in part through its implementation of the National Food Policy Capacity Strengthening (NFPCS) Programme, which is also provided with technical support from FAO. Under its mandate within the Bangladesh Ministry of Food, the FPMU is also responsible for developing and monitoring the implementation of the National Food Policy Plan of Action and Country Investment Plan (CIP). The fact that the CIP helps to determine budget allocations to 13 different government ministries involved in agriculture, food security and nutrition creates considerable potential for the IPC to have a direct influence on national policy in Bangladesh.
161. In Honduras, the IPC is housed within the Technical Unit for Food Security and Nutrition (UTSAN), which is situated in the President's Office (Secretaría de Estado del Despacho Presidencial - SDP). UTSAN is responsible for coordinating, planning, monitoring, and other tasks related to effective and efficient implementation of the government's food security plan - *Política de Seguridad Alimentaria y Nutricional* (PSAN.) PSAN is complemented by the National Strategy on Food Security and Nutrition (ENSAN). ENSAN promotes decentralized responses to food security and development issues to 16 regional food security roundtables (Mesa SANs), based on 16 watersheds (microcuencas).

b. Building IPC Capacity and Use “from the Ground Up”

162. Throughout the history of the IPC, stakeholders have commonly sought to establish awareness and adoption of processes and protocols for analysis among key institutions at the national level. To an extent, this has contributed to progress made towards institutionalization and use of IPC information for decision making. On the other hand, this “top-down” approach to IPC implementation at the country level has continued to encounter challenges in the form of limited data availability and limited application of IPC information in decisions made at lower levels. However, the baseline study did reveal a number of instances where sub-national actors have been effectively engaged in IPC processes.
163. One important example is offered by NeKSAP in Nepal. NeKSAP has made substantial progress towards institutionalization, increased capacity for food security analysis and informed decision making through involvement of District Food Security Networks (DFSNS). DFSNs include local government officials representing different sectors, staff from national and international NGOs and civil society. Following establishment of the NeKSAP Framework Document, District Food Security Networks (DFSNS) were expanded to 72 Districts (out of 75 in the country) between

December 2010 and May 2011. DFSN members have subsequently been trained on District-level Food Security Monitoring and Analysis based on NeKSAP /IPC. To date, NeKSAP reports that a total of 2,850 participants have received District Food Security Monitoring training, 1,577 (55 percent) of whom are government staff. Substantial credit for the capacity of DFSNs to support NeKSAP analysis is owed to WFP Nepal field staff who have consistently helped to strengthen food security analysis capacity among their local government counterparts.

164. The Joint Secretary of the Ministry of Agricultural Development in Nepal confirmed that involvement of DFSNs has led to widespread adoption of NeKSAP among government at mid- to lower-levels. This has reportedly helped to “streamline the process” of linking food security information to decision making. For instance DFSNs are responsible for generating trimester reports that inform decisions related to budgeting and activity selection (e.g. seed distribution, fertilizer, irrigation, etc.).
165. In Honduras, the IPC is currently being implemented at a regional level through Food Security and Nutrition Roundtables (Mesas de Seguridad Alimentaria y Nutricional; Mesa SAN), which serve as platforms for policy and community discussion and action. There are 16 Regional Mesa SANs throughout the country, most of whom represent many (e.g. 30-50) municipalities. While Region 13 (R13 covers the Golfo de Fonseca region, comprising 45 municipalities) is essentially the only region in which the IPC process and production of information products is fully functional, interest by other Mesa SANs is growing.¹³ There is some thought to conduct IPC analysis based on *microcuencas*, or watersheds, to fit with the system of *mancomunidades* (associations of multiple municipalities). Based on IPC experience to date, officials with UTSAN are promoting the idea that IPC be municipally-led, helping to strengthen mancomunidades and build national capacity from the ground level up. In this way, they feel the IPC is well-positioned to contribute to the goals of the Government of Honduras’s Alianza para el Corredor Seco (ACS) 2014-2019 which aims to improve food security monitoring and evaluation capacity at the country level.
166. Finally, the IPC TWG in the Philippines has provided a positive example of building the IPC “from the ground up” by making physical follow-up visits to areas where acute food insecurity has been classified through IPC analysis. In addition to providing TWG members with first-hand validation of their analysis, these follow-up visits have reportedly served to instill greater confidence in the findings among key stakeholders and increased awareness of the IPC and its potential use at the provincial level. To date, the National Nutrition Council of the Philippines has used its own resources to conduct in-depth validation exercises of the results in 10 provinces.

c. Use of Available Technology

167. The baseline study revealed instances in which various actors at the national and sub-national levels are utilizing available technology and infrastructure to collect, analyze and disseminate information related to food security. For example, as part of the Joint Needs Assessment in Bangladesh, researchers were able to use “Union Parishad Helplines” (telephone) to collect basic information at a sub-district level using standardized questionnaires. Representatives of UN

¹³ UTSAN. 2012. VII Cumbre mundial de Universidades contral el hambre. Catacamas, Olancho, Honduras.
http://unag.edu.hn/WEB_UNAG1/linked/panel%201%20-%201%20mariano%20jimenez%20-%20utsan%20-%20honduras.pdf.

organizations interviewed in Bangladesh feel that IPC may be able to replicate and expand this model to improve availability of basic food security information at the sub-district level.

168. In the Philippines FAO is rolling out a similarly simple tool for enabling food security analysis at a sub-provincial level. Funded by UNICEF, the system is being piloted in 10 municipalities. It requires that local data collectors obtain basic food security information and enter it on standard, pre-formatted Excel spreadsheets. The thought is that if this system can be expanded to meet minimal IPC data requirements it could provide an efficient avenue for collection of food security data that would benefit IPC analysis. Currently envisioned as an early warning tool, FAO representatives feel that the information being collected could easily and effectively be integrated into more sophisticated IPC analysis.
169. Though not directly linked to the IPC, WFP describes a very active social media environment in the Philippines they feel could be leveraged to enhance awareness of the IPC. They cite a “Hunger Micro-Site” they launched in March 2014 in conjunction with the Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD). The Rappler “Hunger Project Micro-Site” (<http://www.rappler.com/move-ph/issues/hunger>) has thus far been visited by over 200,000 people, many have whom have also provided comments. Every week, the website hosts a 30-minute interactive radio discussion entitled “Talk Thursday” aimed at promoting dialogue to “make food security and nutrition a popular issue”. WFP reports that the effort has already gained positive attention and involvement of high-level government officials.

VII. Conclusions

170. Analysis of qualitative and quantitative information as part of the baseline study has revealed a number of important conclusions regarding the use and impact of the IPC. These conclusions not only give insight into the progress already made by the IPC in various countries and regions, they also provide a basis for assessing the impact of the IPC GSP (2014-2016) and highlight key areas for improvement.
171. In general, representatives of government and non-governmental organizations tended to have the most positive perspective on the applicability of IPC analysis for policy formulation, resource allocation and program design. Alternatively, donor representatives and UN agency staff tended to express greater reservation regarding the impact the IPC has thus far had on informing these types of decisions. This overall conclusion is supported by both in-depth qualitative interviews and responses to the on-line opinion survey. These differences in perspective among various institutions point toward the important differences in the types of decisions each is responsible for as differences in their access to relevant and timely information.
172. Overall, respondents to the baseline study share a generally positive view on the applicability of IPC for its intended purpose – informing decisions related to food security policy and programming. They describe it as a somewhat unique and relatively effective approach to developing consensus-based food security analysis in a manner that translates available data of sufficient quality into actionable information for decision makers.
173. Much of the emphasis in the earlier stages of IPC was on the technical development of the analytical tools and increasing the capacity of food security analysts to use them. The IPC has continued to work with institutional partners on technical development of the IPC Chronic Food

Insecurity Scale and piloting of an IPC system for classifying nutrition. With these developments, the IPC has now reached a stage where more effective **communication and coordination** of processes is critical to ensure that the **use and impact** of IPC analysis is maximized among key stakeholders.

174. While respondents to the baseline study affirm the *applicability* of the IPC for decision making, objective evidence of the actual *impact* of the IPC on decision making is inherently difficult to measure. This is due to the fact that decision-making processes related to food security policy, allocation of resources, and program targeting are complex and dynamic, typically drawing on a broad array of information sources and subject to a range of institutional and political influences. In order to apply baseline study findings for gauging the effectiveness of the its Global Strategic Programme (2014-2016), the IPC will need to consistently report progress on specific *outcomes* and IPC *outputs* as part of a comprehensive monitoring and evaluation framework. The means through which these outputs and outcomes are linked to the expected *impact* on decision making should be clarified in an IPC logic model.

Contextual Factors

175. The baseline clearly determined that a number of contextual factors have a direct influence on the extent to which IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis has been used and what (if any) impact use has on food security policies and programming. These factors include the extent of IPC experience; awareness of the IPC among decision makers; institutional alignment of host agencies; presence of and direct linkages with existing food security information systems; information priorities of food security stakeholders, and frequency of food security emergencies.
176. The IPC has been utilized most extensively and had the greatest impact in Eastern Africa, the region where it originated. In particular, the IPC has proven an effective tool for informing policy and programming responses to food security impacts of recurrent drought and conflict among decision makers in South Sudan, Somalia and Kenya.
177. There are very encouraging signs regarding the interest in, and potential uses of the IPC in Asia, Central America and the Caribbean. Currently in Asia a key challenge to greater use and impact of the IPC is limited awareness of its applicability among senior-level decision makers and ongoing demand for further contextualization of analytical tools. Respondents in Central America also seek greater contextualization of the IPC, particularly given their relative lack of exposure to acute food insecurity emergencies.
178. Of the four regions visited, interest and use of the IPC is perhaps most limited in Southern Africa. This is primarily due to previous and ongoing investment by stakeholders in other food security analysis methods (Household Economic Analysis and Vulnerability Assessment Committees at the regional and national levels).
179. In Southern Africa previous and ongoing engagement in VAC processes also present high opportunity costs for introducing and institutionalizing IPC, especially if the proposed benefits of the IPC – such as a situation analysis and improved networking among FSN stakeholders – already exist. Similarly, there are various competing demands for investments in food security and nutrition information systems, such as the development of tools for measuring urban food insecurity, malnutrition, resilience, etc.

Institutionalization

180. Through the direct engagement of strategic partners, IPC has made substantial progress towards institutionalization in each of the countries visited during the baseline survey. Evidence of this is provided by the official hosting of the IPC TWG in key government agencies; the diverse range of agencies represented in IPC TWGs; and increased levels of IPC funding provided by national counterparts. Despite substantial progress toward institutionalization of the IPC at the country level, much progress still needs to be made toward greater institutionalization of the IPC at the regional level.
181. Findings suggest that creating a conducive environment for institutionalization of IPC within host governments is often dependent on selection of politically strategic departments to host the IPC and empowering individual 'champions' within those departments to advocate for its use in policy and programming.
182. In several countries participating in the IPC, data collection, analysis and management are coordinated primarily by international organizations revealing limited capacity for data collection and management of food security information among national partners. Through its Global Strategic Programme (2014-2016), the IPC seeks to have a direct influence on the capacity of national institutions to collect, analyze and manage food security information for decisions related to policy and programming. The baseline clearly shows that this capacity does not currently exist to the same extent in countries visited.
183. Baseline study activities carried out in Asia, Central America and Southern Africa point to the critical need for IPC to be effectively and consistently coordinated within current partnership arrangements and existing food security information systems in order to achieve greater institutionalization and sustainability. This is likely to require a degree of flexibility in terms of IPC analytical tools and processes. For example, in response to repeated calls for contextualization, technical staff within the GSU have advised their counterparts within TWGs that they are free to incorporate more locally-accepted, context-specific indicators as indirect evidence for interpreting food security outcomes. The GSU has also clarified that while informal guidance has recommended that IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis be conducted twice per year, the frequency of analysis is at the discretion of the TWG and should only be undertaken when it is relevant for informing decision makers about changes in the acute food insecurity situation.

Technical Development of the IPC

184. The baseline reaffirms the considerable demand among stakeholders for the IPC Chronic Food Insecurity classification. As a result of continued technical development and improvement of chronic food insecurity analysis tools, the IPC Acute and Chronic Food Insecurity Classifications can now be promoted as a complementary, integrated approach that presents accurate situation analysis for context-appropriate response planning.
185. Given the considerable demand for the IPC Chronic Food Insecurity Classification tools, combined with the need to tailor them to country contexts, it is critical that IPC Food Security Technical Advisors within the GSU, IPC Regional Coordinators, and IPC Country Focal Points provide regular and consistent technical advice on the roll-out of the tools.

186. To date, the IPC has not been consistently used for comparing acute food insecurity at the regional level with the possible exception of East Africa. In that region, the divergent quality of available data has led some to question the validity and usefulness of IPC information for decision makers at the regional level.
187. Regarding technical aspects of the IPC, respondents from the IPC Technical Working Group in identify three primary determinants of IPC success, each of which speaks to several of the challenges highlighted previously. They include: 1) proper assessments, carried out at least twice a year with partners representing multiple sectors; 2) proper IPC governance structure led by the government to bring all necessary stakeholders together in a consistent and transparent manner; and 3) strong analytical capacity to process the data including continual identification of data weaknesses and proactive measures to improve data collection and analysis. While each of these factors clearly enhance the effectiveness of the IPC in Kenya, they are largely due to a rigorous, government supported approach to food security analysis that contributes to, but extends beyond IPC Acute Food Insecurity Analysis.

Uses and Impact of the IPC

188. Across regions and countries, respondents most familiar with the IPC consistently state that the IPC *process* – building consensus on analysis of standard indicators of acute food insecurity – has been as important as the development of IPC information *products*. At the country level, there is widespread agreement that engagement with the IPC has been helpful in forging a more close-knit community of food stakeholders with greater capacity for quality food security analysis.
189. The baseline study clearly confirms that the IPC has demonstrated its potential to achieve its intended impact – informing decisions related to food security policy and programming. To date, that impact has been greatest where IPC governance structures have been institutionalized and where recurrent food security crises have created the greatest demand for consensus-based analysis of acute food insecurity. The most substantive impact of the IPC on policy and programming has thus far been achieved in Eastern and Central Africa. There is growing interest in the IPC and great potential for it to influence food security policy and programming in Asia and Central America, particularly with the roll-out of the IPC Chronic Food Insecurity Analysis Tools.
190. In order to have a direct and discernible influence on resource allocation IPC must first be incorporated into policy processes and planning cycles adopted by government, United Nations organizations and International NGOs. While this has happened in some regions and countries, more effective coordination and collaboration is needed to encourage greater use and impact of the IPC in others.
191. The baseline study reveals that regular dissemination of quality IPC analyses of acute food security among mid- to senior-level stakeholders is not sufficient for ensuring improved decision

“The IPC has proven itself in this crisis. It is without question the most important decision making tool that we have on the humanitarian side right now. IPC analysis is driving the entire humanitarian response to an extremely complicated and very serious crisis. “

- Deputy Humanitarian Coordinator, FAO Representative, South Sudan

making. This is because decision makers not involved in the technical aspects of food security analysis often lack an understanding of how IPC analysis can best be applied to improve food security policy and programming at the regional, national and sub-national levels. Concise communication materials on the potential applications of IPC for decision making are needed to overcome this constraint to use and impact.

Challenges in Applying the IPC for Improved Decision Making

192. The inability of IPC in many countries to provide analysis at lower (e.g. sub-district) administrative levels limits its ability to directly influence resource allocation and design of food security programs in response to acute food insecurity. Collection and analysis of data at lower geographic levels (sufficient to enable IPC analysis) will require a higher level of commitment from all actors – government, donors, UN, INGOs – in terms of capacity building, coordination, and funding.
193. In many countries, representatives of Global IPC Partner organizations have not played a strong role in promoting the potential benefits of IPC analysis among key decision makers. This may be due in part to lingering perceptions of the IPC as “an FAO product” and limited awareness of the IPC among senior, non-technical staff. It is also reported that IPC partner organizations often rely on their own monitoring and evaluation data to make food security policy and programming (e.g. targeting) decisions given that it is typically disaggregated at lower administrative or geographic levels.
194. Currently, IPC Regional Coordinators and Country Focal Points are fully engaged in addressing the logistical and technical support needs of IPC analysis and often lack the capacity to effectively coordinate necessary IPC promotion and advocacy among senior-level stakeholders.
195. As use of IPC processes and protocols continues to expand across multiple regions and countries, there is a growing demand for contextualization of analytical tools (both Acute and Chronic) in order to promote sustainability and optimize usefulness to decision makers. The continued demand for contextualization in different regions and countries creates challenges for the IPC in terms of ensuring both quality and comparability.
196. Institutionalization and context-appropriate technical support is best provided by IPC Regional and Country Technical Working Groups. Unfortunately, several TWGs at the regional and country levels have not been consistently active due insufficient coordination capacity and funding shortfalls.

VIII. Recommendations

197. The following recommendations follow directly from the opportunities and challenges identified during the baseline study and are intended to contribute to achievement of the strategic outcomes of the IPC Global Strategic Programme (2014-2016). They reflect a combination of analysis of baseline data by study team members and suggestions for improvements in the IPC made by region and country-level stakeholders.

Institutionalization

198. IPC Global Partner institutions should ***make greater effort to institutionalize the IPC within their own organizations*** and more consistently advocate for use of IPC findings to inform food security

policy and programming among government, UN agencies and international NGOs. In order to enable this, senior-level partner agency staff should be encouraged to participate in dissemination of IPC information.

199. The Global Support Unit (GSU) should ***advocate for formal inclusion of IPC roles and responsibilities in the Terms of Reference of key institutional partners***. This would not only minimize the impact of turnover among key individuals, it would also help to prioritize allocation of sufficient time and human resources for IPC among other activities.
200. In countries that are in the “consolidation stage” of IPC development, the GSU should ***work directly with host agencies to formulate specific transition strategies*** designed to ensure sustainability and cede increasing financial and technical responsibility for IPC analysis to national stakeholders.

Technical Capacity and Technical Development

201. In countries where multiple acute food insecurity analyses have now been completed, Regional Coordinators and Country Focal Points should ***promote the IPC as an effective tool for trends analysis*** and monitoring the effectiveness of donor investments and food security policies aimed at preventing food security crises.
202. In order to make more effective use of limited financial resources, consideration should be given to ***limiting IPC acute analysis to specific regions within countries*** which previous analyses show are typically most prone to acute food insecurity.

“We have not taken full advantage of trends analysis using the data we have where IPC has been implemented for several years. This information could be used to determine if situational analyses and programming responses are helping reduce acute food insecurity or not. “

- Head, National Drought Management Authority (NDMA), Kenya

203. Using concrete and contextually appropriate examples of the applicability of IPC analysis, the GSU and IPC Global Partners should ***consistently advocate with governments and other resource partners for funding data collection activities at lower (e.g. sub-district) administrative levels***. For countries that have yet to achieve nation-wide coverage of IPC analysis, funding support for data collection and analysis where it does not yet exist could make IPC much more applicable to development of national food security policy.
204. In order to garner greater support for IPC analysis among inter-governmental bodies, the GSU should ***seek means of improving the regularity and quality of IPC Acute Food Security Analyses at the regional level***. Such efforts will likely require more consistent technical and logistical support from IPC Regional Working Groups.

Communication and Coordination

205. Deliberate efforts need to be made by IPC Technical Working Groups to ***coordinate the timing of data analysis and dissemination of findings with key primary data collection, program design and funding cycles at the country level***. Informative examples of effective coordination with

respect to regular data collection, programming and funding cycles are provided by the IPC in Somalia and the Cadre Harmonisé in West Africa.

206. IPC Regional Coordinators and Country Focal Points should ***disseminate IPC analysis at multi-stakeholder food security forums at the regional and national levels***. Doing so would be an effective means of soliciting greater technical, logistical and or funding support for IPC from regional and national stakeholders. Potential examples include regional and national donor forums; Humanitarian Coordination Task Team meetings; Food Security Cluster events and regular government policy and planning meetings.
207. Improved strategic engagement of the IPC requires ***greater integration of IPC analysis with complementary food security information systems and processes***. This would entail consistent identification of country-level food security information systems and enabling representatives of these food security information initiatives to participate in IPC analysis and information dissemination.
208. In order to increase institutionalization and use of the IPC, technical staff and Regional Coordinators should ***develop and disseminate information on how the IPC differs from and complements similar food security information products***, and its added value vis-à-vis these products. In keeping with the multi-sectoral, multi-stakeholder approach adopted by the IPC, development of these materials should be based on collective input from relevant technical partners.
209. Currently, Regional Coordinators are unable to provide consistent technical oversight of IPC analysis while simultaneously improving the communication and coordination to ensure institutionalization and greater use of IPC information among decision makers in all participating countries. The IPC Global Steering Committee and Global Program Manager should ***discuss potential means of addressing the need for greater coordination capacity at the regional and country levels***.
210. The IPC GSU should ***identify effective means of reactivating and consistently engaging with IPC Steering Committees and/or Technical Working Groups at the regional level***. In several cases these regional groups have not met regularly and thus are unable to provide context-specific technical and strategic support at the country levels. These regional groups should include the active participation of IPC global partner agencies.

Use of IPC for Decision Making

211. The IPC GSU (including Regional Coordinators) and Country Focal Points should prioritize efforts to ***increase awareness of the applicability of IPC information among mid- to senior-level decision makers***. This includes development and delivery of training on “*IPC for Decision Makers*” tailored to the specific regional and national context and the particular type and/or level of decision makers involved. This is due to the fact that the information needs – and potential applications of IPC analysis – are likely to vary across countries and regions and will somewhat different for cabinet ministers, UN and NGO Country Directors, and donor portfolio managers. Where necessary, the training should include information on integrated food security concepts in order to increase understanding among non-technical audiences. Maximum effort should be made to involve qualified local stakeholders in facilitation of awareness raising activities.

212. Opportunities should be sought to ***disseminate IPC information beyond traditional food security stakeholders***. This includes politicians, relevant private interests, media outlets (television, radio, print media) and social media forums. Such efforts may prove instrumental in increasing popular support for improved food security policies and program responses and could contribute to greater institutional demand for IPC information. Dissemination of IPC information to such groups should utilize concise, non-technical language prevent misinterpretation or miscommunication of analysis.
213. ***IPC analysis exercises (for both acute and chronic food insecurity) should include explicit identification of the specific response analysis and decision making processes they have the potential to inform***. This will encourage IPC Regional Coordinators, Country Focal Points, and TWG members to consistently view analytical products as context-specific decision making tools rather than global public goods.
214. In addition to providing technical oversight of IPC analysis, ***TWGs at the regional and country levels should seek means of effectively addressing institutional and strategic issues constraining use of IPC information for decision making***. This might be achieved by identifying core TWG members who are best capable of serving as “champions” of the IPC among key government, NGO, UN and donor counterparts.

Annexes

Annex A. Profiles of Case Study Countries

Annex B. Profiles of Case Study Countries

Annex C. List of stakeholders interviewed

Annex D. Topical Outline for Stakeholder Interviews

Annex E. Baseline Study Questionnaire

Annex F. Baseline Study On-line Questionnaire Responses

Annex G. Documents Reviewed

Annex A. Review of Cadre Harmonisé Processes, Outcomes and Lessons Learned

Background

For over a decade, the Permanent Interstate Committee for Drought Control in the Sahel (*Comité permanent Inter-Etats de Lutte contre la Sécheresse dans le Sahel, CILSS*) has been engaged in the development and testing of the *Harmonized Framework for the Analysis and Identification of Areas at Risk and Vulnerable Groups in the Sahel*, more commonly referred to as the *Cadre Harmonisé* (CH).

Continued technical development of CH tools and institutionalization of processes has led to increased similarities and convergence between the IPC and the CH. Accordingly, the IPC Steering Committee (SC), Global Support Unit (GSU) and institutional partners are working closely with the CILSS Cadre Harmonisé Technical Committee to promote exchange of best practices and harmonization between the complementary food security analysis systems. One key element of this collaboration has been provision of IPC GSU input on development of the CH Technical Manual which was finalized in 2014. The IPC GSU continues to serve as an active member on the CH Technical Committee. Similarly, CILSS is an active member of the IPC Global Steering Committee.

Cadre Harmonisé analysis is currently carried out in 16 countries – Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea-Conakry, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Senegal and Togo, Benin,

Guinea Bissau, Liberia and Sierra Leone. In the three countries most severely affected by the Ebola crisis (Guinea-Conakry, Liberia, Sierra Leone) the most recent analysis in February 2015 was conducted at the regional level with members of the country teams travelling to Dakar and conducting the analysis together with CH Technical Committee members.

Development and Institutional Context of the Cadre Harmonisé

Key CH stakeholders consulted as part of this review credit the food security and governance context of West Africa with serving as both a key reason for, *and* a constraint to the success of the CH. They claim that interdependence of countries within the region has grown in recent decades as a result of integration of food production systems and markets, continued population growth and migration, and the evolving socio-political environment. In this sense, the regional context has enhanced the applicability of a harmonized approach to analysis to inform policy and resource allocation. At the same time, the political context has at times constrained the use of CH “evidence” among certain high-level decision makers.

According to one respondent, the instability of some national governments and the impact of disruptions to seasonal climate patterns on regional food security often make the window for informed decision making in the wake of food security crises particularly narrow. It has been within this context that the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and CILSS have prioritized the implementation of the CH in participating countries and the use of analysis to inform coordinated policy, resource allocation and programming decisions throughout the region.

Prior to 2003, individual actors throughout the region were using a diverse set of research methodologies and analytical models for monitoring food security. In the view of one regional donor representative, this resulted in a regional “crisis” prompted by divergent responses on the part of humanitarian agencies, each acting on the basis of their own evidence. This situation prompted CILSS to initiate the Cadre Harmonisé in 2003-2004. Despite responding to a clear need, several respondents agree that in the early phases of its development the CH was “more of a concept than a tool.”

Meanwhile, the lack of comparable food security analyses in West Africa created an opportunity for FAO to advocate for establishment of the IPC in the region following its effective use in Somalia. Respondents generally agree however, that initial efforts to introduce the IPC in West Africa were largely ineffective since FAO did not adequately consult with CILSS and therefore the IPC was viewed as being duplicative of the already existing *Cadre Harmonisé*.

CILSS eventually elected to integrate many of the IPC tools and protocols within the CH as a means of raising its global profile. Adoption of certain elements of the IPC analytical approach (e.g. standard indicators, mapping protocols) also ensured greater comparability of CH food security analyses within and beyond the region. The decision to integrate elements of the IPC within the CH also responded to a strong desire among regional stakeholders to have a common methodology for food security analysis.

Like the IPC the CH is a multi-partner initiative. Harmonization of the IPC and the CH is aided by the fact that regional representatives of several IPC Global Partners (FAO, WFP, FEWSNET, Oxfam, ACF, Save the Children, JRC) play an active role in coordination of the CH at the regional level. Meanwhile,

the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) has officially endorsed the CH as a harmonized tool for food security analysis in the Sahel and West Africa, covering a total of 17 countries.

Technical Issues

As is the case with IPC, the quality of CH analysis at the regional level is negatively affected by the varying availability of food security data among individual countries. Respondents claim that the level of information in coastal countries is not the same as countries in the Sahel. In fact, one respondent claims that the varying availability of data across CH countries – including the abundance of data in some – can actually make technical consensus among partners *more* difficult to achieve because certain organizations want their own data to serve as the basis for CH analysis.

Other respondents state that the quality of CH analysis is adequate to inform effective decision making and feel that continued critiques about its quality are primarily used to advocate for greater resource mobilization. Importantly, given the food security context of the region, some sources feel that limited availability of data on nutrition and mortality currently poses the greatest constraint to the quality of CH analysis. While the lack of a Technical Manual for CH was viewed by some as an initial challenge, there is now a manual that serves as a “common point of reference” for guiding CH analysis.

Finally, some respondents allude to the political sensitivity of food security analysis in West Africa and point to the potential for manipulation (selective application) of CH analysis among decision makers. In order to counter this potential and promote consistent use of “evidence” as a basis for policy formulation and food security programming, some respondents feel that greater effort should be placed on building the technical capacity of young professional leaders in the region. In their view, one opportunity for this would be on the job training for CH analysis among individuals currently employed in national Early Warning Systems agencies. Since October 2012 over 300 individuals have received training on CH food security analysis.

Other respondents cite the ongoing discussion of CH compliance with IPC analysis in pointing out that the IPC can in turn benefit from certain technical improvements made by the CH. For example, they point out that in seeking to refine IPC technical guidance and make it applicable to the regional context, the CH has gone beyond the IPC (“where it is vague”) in determining indicative scales such as establishing thresholds for “stable livelihoods.”¹⁴

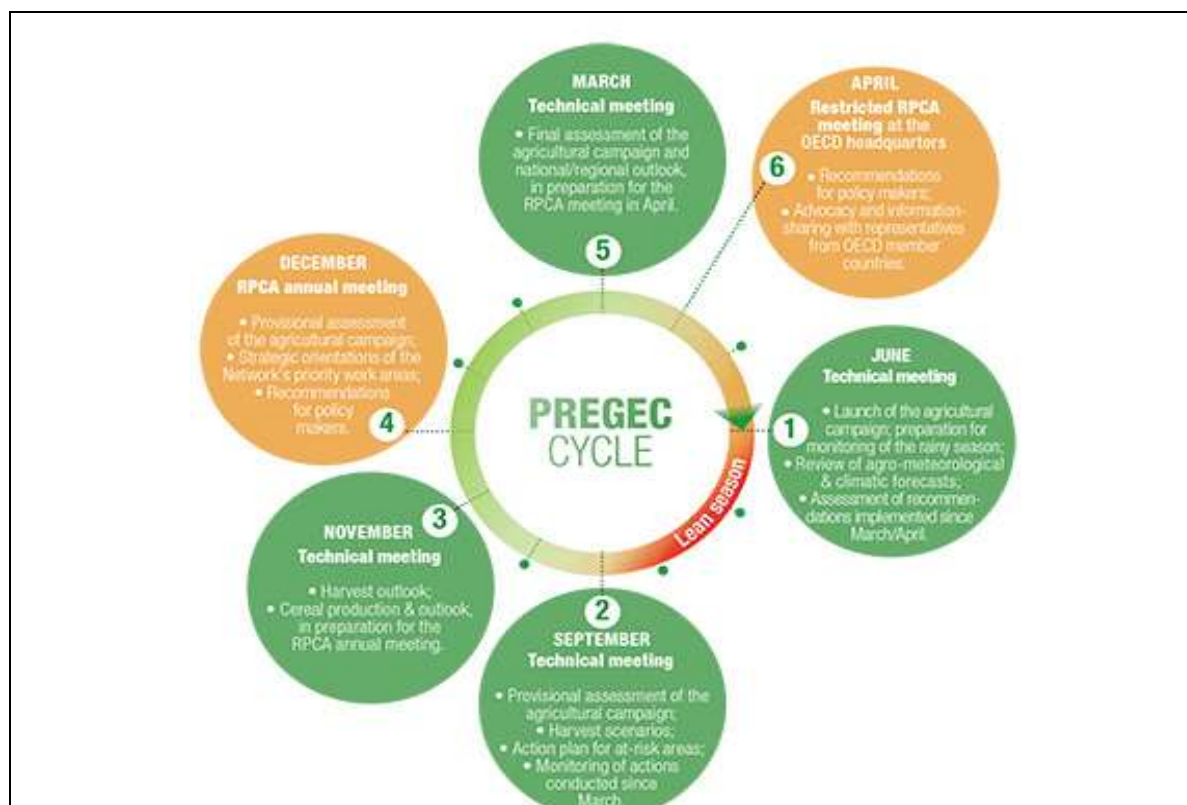
Coordination and Governance of the Cadre Harmonisé

A key feature of the CH – and one that IPC intends to learn from – is its approach to regional coordination and direct linkage to decision making. The key mechanisms through which coordination of the CH is linked to decision making are the Regional System for the Prevention and Management of Food Crises (PREGEC) and the Food Crisis Prevention Network (RPCA). To facilitate consensus-

¹⁴ Food Security Officers with IPC Global Support Unit (GSU) claim that Version 2.0 of the Technical Manual is intentionally vague on the use of indirect evidence as a means of enabling countries to develop their own context-specific thresholds for indirect evidence. In fact, the Manual encourages the development of indirect reference tables, similar to those that the CH has developed based on the West Africa context. The utility of these tables is limited since they are valid for making comparisons only at the national or regional level. Alternatively, IPC tables of direct evidence are purposefully designed to ensure comparability at the global level.

building among regional stakeholders – including government and donors – the network relies on the expertise of member institutions specializing in the production and analysis of information on food and nutritional security (CILSS, FAO, FEWS NET, UNOCHA, WFP).

Figure 13: Regional System for the Prevention and Management of Food Crises (PREGEC) Cycle



Source: <http://www.oecd.org/site/rpca/aboutus/>

The linkage lies in the fact that each of these institutions plays an important role in the development and implementation of the CH. In essence, the CH is the approach adopted by PREGEC for fulfilling its responsibility to collect, analyze and disseminate food security information to guide policy, programming and resource allocation decisions made by the regional Food Crisis Prevention Network (RPCA). Regular cycles of analysis are carried out simultaneously twice per year (February-March, October-November) in each of the 16 countries participating in the CH. This not only ensures comparability over time and space, it also helps CH analysis link directly to policy formulation, program design and resource allocation at the regional level. Figure 13 illustrates the major steps involved in integrating CH analysis into the PREGEC.

Similar to regions participating in the IPC, the CH is governed by a Regional Technical Committee comprised of various governmental and non-governmental stakeholders in West Africa. While several respondents affirm that regional leadership and ownership of the CH is strong, others claim that at times individual partners have posed challenges to building consensus. In particular, there is concern that influential members of the Regional Technical Committee use their position to “tamp down” (minimize) CH phase classifications in certain countries contrary to the technical opinions expressed by less influential members. As a result, some respondents feel that CH analysis

may be under-utilized in some countries due to the fact that stakeholders may not have confidence in the technical validity of the results.

Use and Impact of the Cadre Harmonisé

Respondents confirm that Cadre Harmonisé analysis is used by the RPCA to guide response and program planning throughout the region. They note that a significant sign of the applicability of CH analysis for policy is its official adoption by ECOWAS as an official trigger mechanism for mobilization of regional food reserves in response to food security emergencies. Nonetheless, despite this notable achievement on the policy front, respondents were unaware of instances in which ECOWAS has activated/acted upon this CH “trigger” to allocate food reserves.

Several respondents explain that similar to the IPC, the CH has had a positive influence on basic understanding among senior-level decision makers by encouraging them to recognize and respond to underlying factors contributing to food insecurity. They explain that in the past decision makers, particularly those representing national governments, tended adopted a “dogmatic stance” to promoting food security that focused exclusively on food production.

By adopting a standardized approach to food security analysis, the CH has also helped address what was described by one respondent as a “horrendous” situation in terms of the availability of data. For example, there were reportedly 12 Household Economic Analysis (HEA) profiles for the region as recently as 2007. By 2012, there were 50 HEA profiles. With the continued development and coordination of the CH, stakeholders including government, international NGOs and UNOCHA now have a reliable, uniform and directly comparable source of evidence on which to base policy, programming and resource allocation decisions.

Finally, one donor representative claimed that with improvement in the consistency and quality of analysis, the CH is now being used to inform resilience programming in the region, including initiatives supported by the Global Alliance for Resilience (AGIR) in Sahel and West Africa.

Challenges

Some respondents feel that questions related to the compliance and/or compatibility of the CH with the IPC continues to pose a challenge to its use among decision makers, particularly those outside the region. For example, they state that current technical differences between the CH and the IPC limits the use of CH analysis for making regional comparisons of food security as a basis for resource allocation. They also claim that existing differences between the CH and the IPC contribute to a perception among global stakeholders that CILSS maintains a somewhat insular view of food security and regional policy and does not place a high priority on achieving standardization with global actors.

Alternatively, others feel that the IPC Steering Committee and Technical Advisory Group (TAG) are not always aware of, sensitive or responsive to important institutional and contextual issues influencing CILSS and the CH. Several respondents feel that some IPC thresholds are not contextually appropriate for West Africa, and that this often poses a challenge to reaching technical consensus among CH partners.

Similar to the IPC, respondents note that awareness of and appreciation for the capacity of CH analysis to inform food security policy remains limited among mid- to senior-level stakeholders,

particularly those representing national governments. They explain that while response planning on the basis of gaps identified by food balance sheets was relatively simple, utilizing more refined CH analysis to inform response planning requires greater understanding and technical capacity.

Some also claim that the close professional and personal relationships between CILSS representatives and political leadership in the region occasionally pose challenges to coordination of the CH. They claim, however, that this is beginning to change with younger generations taking an increasing role in the CH. In the views of some, these young professionals are more objective, vocal and have greater technical capacity than their predecessors in national and regional institutions. Alternatively, others claim that turnover of professional analysts trained in the CH are a “constant” issue. One respondent expressed the opinion that AGHYMET does not currently have sufficient staff to ensure the timeliness and quality of data collection to support CH analysis throughout the region.

Several respondents claim that the lack of / disparity of data availability for CH analysis at the country level poses a problem for consistent, quality analysis at the regional level. For example, some feel that limited availability of data on *outcome indicators* has promoted a reliance on *contributing factors* which are highly context-specific, and not directly comparable.

According to some respondents the sustainability of the CH is threatened by the lack of longer-term funding commitments. It is reported that no funding is currently provided for CH analysis by ECOWAS or individual member states.

Finally, a mix of institutional and technical issues was cited as a challenge to the coordination and use of IPC analysis. For instance, recurrent technical differences of opinion and disparities in influence among members of the Regional Technical Committee have reportedly limited ownership and use of CH among some stakeholders. In particular, some respondents feel that the tendency of some member institutions to exert influence from outside the region undercuts national processes that are critical for supporting institutionalization and use of the CH.

Some donor representatives express concern over development of new IPC analytical tools (e.g. Chronic Scale, Nutrition Classification). They feel that development of new analytical tools could contribute to confusion regarding the purpose of different tools among decision makers and detract from their overall understanding of the severity of food security crises. Others feel that failing to include West African countries in the development and piloting of the IPC Chronic Food Insecurity Analysis tools was a missed opportunity.

Recommended Improvements in the Cadre Harmonisé

The following recommendations for improving the coordination and use of CH analysis were *not* formulated by the IPC GSU. Rather, they were shared by individual respondents who currently have a direct role in coordination of the CH.

Institutionalization and Governance

- Some stakeholders feel that the consistency and applicability of CH analysis for decision making would be improved by promoting a specific strategy for ensuring the quality of CH analysis. Others argue that the consistency and quality of CH analysis would be improved if coordination of CH analysis was managed by a politically independent institution.

- Several respondents feel that the CH needs to reconsider its current governance structure, including the CH Regional Technical Committee. Of particular concern is the influence on final analysis results exercised by some members with close ties to governments and/or donors. They argue that the CILSS must prioritize establishment of a CH Steering Committee that is functional from a technical standpoint *and* able to manage institutional politics.
- It is important to promote and enable better coordination between the CH and the IPC. Currently, there is a common perception that “the CH is the cousin that the family doesn’t like (an inferior copy of the IPC).” Greater coordination between the two complimentary analysis tools may help to overcome this misconception and clarify that there are multiple opportunities for cross-fertilization. One commonly cited opportunity for collaboration between the CH and IPC is on the definition of contextually appropriate thresholds for indicators common to the CH and IPC.

Technical Issues

- Some claim that greater effort should be made to recognize, utilize and build the capacity of food security analysts throughout the region. Doing so would help counter the range of political concerns that often influence CH analysis at the regional and national levels. Respondents claim that there is a growing community of technically competent and collegial young professionals who can effectively promote the use of CH analysis for improved decision making. In the words of one “these technicians – if supported with adequate investments – will outlast the politicians.”
- Building greater capacity for CH analysis is also seen as critical for ensuring quality and sustainability. Some respondents feel that institution of a CH Analysis certification system (similar to that developed for IPC) could help to verify and sustain capacity for quality analysis.
- Several respondents feel greater emphasis needs to be placed on coordination of data collection to support CH analysis. This is likely to entail provision of CH training among all partners at the regional and country levels, as well as organization of available food security information in advance of CH analysis workshops.
- Many feel that CH needs to continue to work closely with the IPC to fine reference indicators and ensure that they are contextually appropriate for West Africa. One example offered is reaching agreement on a more simple and uniform set of indicators for food consumption in order to minimize the current divergence of evidence provided in individual countries.

Greater Use of CH Analysis

- Some respondents feel it is increasingly important that CH complement its regional focus with greater support at the country level. They claim that in order to ensure greater use of CH analysis, efforts need to be made to improve awareness and understanding of the applicability of CH analysis among government decision makers. They expect that this effort would also encourage greater investment in CH beyond CILSS.
- While CILSS has been relatively effective in linking food security analysis with food security policy and programming mechanisms, some respondents feel that there is a need to clearly and consistently distinguish between CH situation analysis and response analysis. In the words of one, “CH is supposed to release results, not recommendations.” It is felt that the close working

relationships that currently exist between food security analysts and those responsible for planning responses contributes to a perception of politically-influenced analysis results.

- Some feel that awareness raising efforts should clarify the type of responses that CH analysis can and cannot inform. In particular while CH is capable of informing responses to food security crises and food-related causes of malnutrition, it is not capable of effectively guiding responses to non-food related causes of malnutrition in the region.
- Some feel that CILSS should work closely with partners (e.g. West African Club of OECD – in Paris) to balance the analysis of technical food security information with analysis of the evolving political climate at the national and regional levels. They claim this is important because the process of decision making is just as important as the product, particularly given the current political climate. In order to ensure consistent use and sustainability, food security analysis tools must be accessible and meaningful at the ground level (not just something that is adopted from / promoted by regional or global levels).

Annex B. Profiles of Case Study Countries

Country	Institutionalization	Technical Development	Application
East and Central Africa			
Kenya	- Introduced 2007 - Hosted by National Drought Management Authority (NDMA)	- Total of 14 rounds of analysis - Conducted Chronic Pilot in September 2013	- IPC maps in semi-annual KFSSG reports informs multiple sectors (www.kenyafoodsecurity.org) - KFSSG reports are basis for planning food security interventions by sector at district and national levels
Somalia	- Pioneered IPC in 2004 - Hosted by Food Security and Nutrition Analysis Unit (FSNAU)	- Total of 25 rounds of analysis - Leading technical initiatives (e.g. nutrition security scale)	- IPC products used regularly by humanitarian country team and donor agencies to inform type and geographic targeting of humanitarian response - Clusters design their Consolidate Appeal Process (CAP) project sheets based on priority areas identified through IPC analysis
Southern Africa			
Malawi	- Introduced 2009 - IPC 'steered by' Malawi Vulnerability Assessment Committee (MVAC)	- Two rounds of analysis completed with Version 2.0 - Conducted Chronic Pilot in October 2012	- IPC analysis disseminated at SADC regional meetings 'awareness raising' events for national decision makers - Few examples of IPC influence on food security policy or program design
Zimbabwe	- Introduced 2009 - TWG is embedded in Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZimVAC)	- Three rounds of analysis completed (2 with Version 2.0) - Conducted Chronic Pilot in October 2013	- Most recent IPC analysis presented to Vice President's Office by Zimbabwe Food and Nutrition Council - FEWSNET actively using IPC compliant approach to early warning

Country	Institutionalization	Technical Development	Application
Central America and the Caribbean			
Haiti	- Introduced in 2013 - Hosted by Coordination Nationale de la Sécurité Alimentaire (CNSA)	- Two full rounds of analysis - Regular technical support missions from GSU and Regional Coordinator	- IPC Maps used in Humanitarian Action/Implementation Plans (UNOCHA / ECHO) - ACF used IPC results to advocate for with donors in response to food insecurity in northwest region
Honduras	- Introduced in 2012 - IPC hosted by Unidad Técnica de Seguridad Alimentaria y Nutricional, (UTSAN) within the President's Office.	- Total of 5 rounds of analysis (for different regions of Honduras) - Chronic pilot in February 2013	- Used by Region 13 Food Security Roundtable (Mesa de Seguridad Alimentaria y Nutricional; 1 of 16) to develop multi-stakeholder strategic plan for food security - IPC well-positioned to contribute to Government of Honduras' Alianza para el Corredor Seco (ACS) goal of improved M&E related to food security
Asia			
Bangladesh	- Introduced in 2012 - IPC hosted by Food Planning and Monitoring Unit, Ministry of Food	- Two full rounds of analysis - Chronic pilot in November 2013 - Regular technical support missions from GSU and Regional Coordinator	- IPC results presented to Food Security Cluster (FSC) and Humanitarian Coordination Task Team (HCTT) - FSC members regularly using IPC and have incorporated it into their 2013-2014 workplan
Nepal	- Introduced in 2009 - NeKSAP / IPC hosted by Ministry of Agriculture Development (in conjunction with National Planning Commission)	- Quarterly analysis since 2009 (approx. 20 rounds) - Chronic pilot in September 2012 - Ongoing efforts to ensure compliance of NeKSAP with IPC protocols	- NeKSAP analysis has informed government's Agric. Dev. Strategy (ADS), 13th National Plan (2013-2016), and Multi-Sectoral Nutrition Plan - NeKSAP / WFP piloting response analysis in 2014

Country	Institutionalization	Technical Development	Application
<i>Philippines</i>	- Introduced in 2012 - IPC hosted by National Nutrition Council (NNC), Ministry of Health	- Two full rounds of analysis - Chronic pilot in February 2013 - Regular technical support missions from GSU and Regional Coordinator	- IPC info. contributed to situation analysis in the wake of typhoons Bopha (2012) and Haiyan (2014) - IPC well positioned to inform Philippines Development Plan (PDP)

Annex C. List of stakeholders interviewed

Name	Position/Title
Central America and the Caribbean	
Regis Chapman	Chief of Operations
Margareet Barkhof	Regional Programme Advisor VAM
Carmelo Gallardo	Regional Coordinator for PESA in Central America
Alberto Bigi	Emergency Coordinator
Manuel Viega	Regional Coordinator for Latin America & the Caribbean
Gilda Walter	Regional Technical Manager, Guatemala
Maria Bernardez	Regional Food Assistance Expert, ECHO Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean
Ramon Guevara Flores	Project Coordinator for Resilience, ACF, Nicaragua
Guillermo Perez Rivas	M&E Coordinator, CONASAN, El Salvador
Hector Roca	WFP VAM Unit, Guatemala
Mario Touchette	WFP, Guatemala
Patricia Palma	Director, PRESANCA, El Salvador
Haiti	
Gary Mathieu	Director, Coordination Nationale de la Sécurité Alimentaire (CNSA)
Carrel Laurent	Office Chief Food-assisted Development and Humanitarian Support, USAID Haiti
Jyminor Guerisma	Field Program Manager, USAID Haiti
Marie Florence Cadet	Senior Program Manager, USAID Haiti
Lucas Honauer	Deputy Country Director, ACF
Frits Ohler	FAO Representative
Ernest Manirambona	FAO Agronomist
Jean Carrel Norceide	VAM Unit
Harmel Cazeau	Responsable du Réseau Décentralisé d'Information, CNSA
Jean Dudson Ariscat	Assistant National Technical Manager
Joseph Alix	National Technical Manager
Cédric Charpentier	Food Security Analyst
Honduras	
Milton Flores	Deputy Representative
Maria Julia Cardenas Barrios	FAO Representative
Herbert Yanes	VAM Officer
Cesar Castillo	VAM Officer
Ramón Borjas	Deputy Director, UTSAN
Sylvanie Jardinot	Assistant for Cooperation and Commerce, EU
Danilo Manzanares	Mesa SAN Region 13 – Golfo de Fonseca
Asia	
Siemon Hollema	WFP VAM Asia
Sid Krishnaswamy	VAM Officer, WFP Uganda (former IPC Asia Regional Coordinator)
Nepal	
Somsak Pipoppinyo	FAO Representative, Nepal and Bhutan
Binod Saha	Assistant FAO Representative

Shrawan Adhikary	Program Officer
Hemrag Regmi	Under Secretary, Ministry of Agricultural Development; Focal point of NeSKAP / IPC Country Working Group
Vijoy Kumar Mallick	Joint Secretary, Ministry of Agricultural Development, Agricultural Promotion and Statistics Division
Navin Hada	AID Project Development Specialist - USAID
Yamuna Ghale	Senior Programme Officer
Ingo Neu, MD, MPH	Lead Facilitator, REACH / National Nutrition and Food Security Secretariat (NNFSS)
Madhu Subedi, PhD	Programme Officer, National Nutrition and Food Security Secretariat
Amy Prevatt	Food Security Specialist - USAID
Evan Meyer	Agricultural Officer - USAID
Raj Kumar Rai	Deputy Risk Management Adviser - GIZ
Rajesh Dhungel	EFSVL Regional Capacity Builder, Oxfam GB-Asia
Luma Nath Adhikari	Livelihood Specialist, Save the Children
Prakash Kabre	Project Manager, CARE Nepal
Nawaraj Upadhyaya	DGM, Nepal Food Corporation
Rudra Sharma	Planning Officer - National Planning Commission
Chandika Paudel	Planning Officer - National Planning Commission
Bangladesh	
Dr. Naseer Farid	Director, Food Planning and Monitoring Unit (FPMU)
Olivier Brouant	Head of Office, EU Delegation
Hajiqul Islam	Research Director, Ministry of Food
Shafiqur Rahman	Humanitarian Assistance Coordinator - CARE Bangladesh
Jahangir Hossain	Liaison Officer, Department of Agricultural Extension
Chowdhury Abdullah Al Asif	Program and Research Analyst, Hellen Keller International (HKI)
Koyela Sharmin	Project Officer - Training and Documentation, Concern Universal
Damien Joud	Head of Department, Food Security, Livelihoods and DRR - ACF
Abdul Alim	Manager, DRR and Climate Justice - ActionAid
Amirul Islam	Manager, Food Rights and Sustainable Livelihoods - Action Aid
Afroza Taznin	GIS Analyst, Helen Keller International
Nusha Yamina Choudhury	Head, Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping (VAM) Unit - WFP
Kayenat Kabir	Senior VAM Officer, WFP
Valeria Poggi	International Project Officer, FAO
Arifur Rahman	Poverty and Livelihoods Advisor - DfID
Ciro Fiorillo	Chief Technical Advisor (FAO), National Food Policy Capacity Strengthening Programme
Lalita Bhattacharjee, Ph.D	Nutritionist (FAO), National Food Policy Capacity Strengthening Programme
Mohammad Ismail Mia	Research Officer, Food Planning and Monitoring Unit (FPMU), Ministry of Food
Noor Ahmed	Deputy Program Coordinator, Solidarites International
Saidur Rahman	Statistical Officer, Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics
Dr. M. Shahe Alam	National Economic Availability Advisor (FAO), National Food Policy Capacity Strengthening Programme
Feroz Ahmed	IPC National Coordinator
Philippines	

Dipayan Bhattacharyya	Head, Food Security
Bernard Mrewa	National Food Security Cluster Coordinator
Yvonne S. Duque	Child Well-Being Programming Officer
Aristeo Portugal	Assistant FAO Representative
Alberto Aduna	Project Coordinator, FAO
Juanito Berja	Programme Officer - GIS Specialist, WFP
Levy Casal	Food Security and Livelihood Supervisor - ACF
Jay Abola	Project Officer - Asian NGO Coalition (ANGOC)
Hygeia Ceres Catalina Gawe	Chief, Nutrition Surveillance Division, National Nutrition Council
Tamara Palis	Senior Economic Development Specialist, National Economic and Development Authority
Bess Lim	Chief, Management Information Division - Department of Agriculture
Maria Theresa Talevera	Director, Institute of Human Nutrition and Food, University of the Philippines
Maria Duran	Officer in Charge, Agriculture Accounts and Statistical Indicators Division - Philippine Statistics Authority
Manual Nagulon	Statistician II, Philippine Statistics Authority
Carmelita Distreza	Statistical Coordination Officer, Philippine Statistics Authority
Joyce Mae Pioneta	Project Assistant/Training Coordinator, Department of Agriculture
East and Central Africa (ECA)	
Luca Alinovi	Director Regional Emergency Office (REOA), FAO
Karine Garnier	Deputy Director Regional Emergency Office (REOA), FAO
Phillip Fong	Regional Data Information Officer (REOA), FAO
Elliot Vhurumuku	Senior Regional VAM Officer. WFP
Deborah Saidy	Deputy Regional Director ECA Bureau, WFP
Sergio Regi	Food Security Analyst, ECA Bureau, WFP
Justus Liku	Global Emergency Unit CARE
Kenya	
Simon Muhindi	National Food Security and Information Systems Officer, FAO
Yvonne Forsen	Head of VAM and Nutrition, Kenya Office, WFP
James Odour	Head, Kenya National Drought Management Authority (NDMA)
Nick Haan	Consultant, Former IPC Global Program Manager
Somalia	
Francois Batalingaya	Country Director, World Vision Somalia
Daniel Molla	FSNAU (FAOSO)
Rudi van Aaken	Head of Office, FAO Somalia
Amy Lynn O'Toole	CARE Somalia
Andrew Lanyon	Chief of Party SomRep, World Vision Somalia
Georgina Jordon	Senior Advisor SomRep, World Vision Somalia
South Sudan	
Sue Lautze	FAO Representative, Deputy Humanitarian Coordinator
Erminio Sacco	Chief Technical Advisor, FAO South Sudan
Southern Africa (SA)	
Ignacio Leon-Garcia	Head, ROSA/UNOCHA

Ms Noroarisoa Rakotomalala-Rakotondrandria	Chief EPR, OCHA
Mario Samaja	Senior Coordinator - FAO
Erin O'Brien	M&E Officer
Sarah Longford	Senior Regional Programme Advisor - WFP
Ms Phumzile Mdladla	Regional Technical Manager, Chair Regional IPC TWG - FEWSNET
Daison Ngirazi	Regional FS Specialist - FEWSNET
Ms Michelle Carter	Country Director RSA and Lesotho -CARE
Bentry Chaura	Senior Programme Officer - SADC-FANR D
Duncan Samikwa	Programme Coordinator - RVAA PMU
Mokotla Ntela	Regional IPC Coordinator

Malawi

Victoria Geresomo	MVAC Chair - Ministry of Economic Planning and Development
Simon Mulungu	MVAC member/ Economist - Ministry of Economic Planning and Development
Imran Nedi	MVAC member/ Economist - Ministry of Economic Planning and Development
George Chimseu	MVAC Technical Advisor - Ministry of Economic Planning and Development
Fyawupi Mwafongo	MVAC member - Department of Disaster Management Affairs
Walusungu Kayira	IPC Coordinator - Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development
Ms Ethel Luhanga	Nutritionist/ MVAC member - Department of Nutrition, HIV and AIDS
Ms Loyce Fatchi	Agronomist/ MVAC member - Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security
Ms Florence Rolle	Country Director - FAO
Ms Coco Ushiyama	Country Director - WFP
Ms Mia Seppo	Resident Coordinator - UNDP
Ms Chiyambi Mataya	MVAC member - OXFAM
James Bwirani	Country Representative - FEWSNET

Zimbabwe

David Phiri	Regional Director, FAO
David Mfote	Head Zimbabwe Office, FAO
Douglas Magunda	Senior Food Security Analyst, FAO
Andrew Odero	Head of VAM and M&E, WFP
Godfrey Kafera	FEWSNET
Justin Mupeyiwa	USAID
Liesl Karin Inglis	Food Security Attache, European Union
Anthea Kerr	Livelihoods Advisor
George Kembo	Director, Zimbabwe Food and Nutrition Council (FNC)
Yvonne Mavhunga	Food Security Officer, Zimbabwe Food and Nutrition Council (FNC)
Peptual Nyadenga	Communications Officer, Zimbabwe Food and Nutrition Council (FNC)
Herbert Zvirere	Data Analyst, Zimbabwe Food and Nutrition Council (FNC)
Innocent Mangwiwo	Data Analyst, Zimbabwe Food and Nutrition Council (FNC)
Dorothy Mavhiri	Strategic Advisor, Zimbabwe Food and Nutrition Council (FNC)
Lloyd Chadzingua	Communications Officer, Zimbabwe Food and Nutrition Council (FNC)
N. Taruvinga	Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency
Tamburiro Pasipangodya	Zimbabwe National Early Warning Unit (NEWU)
Jennifer Mayer	Country Director, Mercy Corps

West Africa – Cadre Harmonisé

Jan Eikenaar	Technical Advisor, Resilience and AGIR, ECHO
Jorge Oliveira	Food Security and Natural Resources Management Advisor, USAID
Anaïs Lafite	West Africa Regional Representative, Action Contre la Faim (ACF)
Naida Pasion	Former Regional Program Director for West Africa, Save the Children
Anne-Claire Mouilliez	Regional VAM Advisor/West Africa, World Food Programme
Laouali Ibrahim	Regional Technical Manager, FEWSNET
Peter Thomas	Food Security Analyst – West Africa, FEWSNET

Annex D. Topical Outline for Stakeholder Interviews



IPC Baseline Use and Impact Study

Qualitative Topical Outline

I. Participation

- 1) Describe your level of participation in the process of IPC analysis and information dissemination?
- 2) Who do you interact with most closely regarding generation of IPC information products?
Describe the quality of this interaction.

II. Relevance

- 3) Describe the relevance of IPC analysis and information products for your responsibilities. Please explain where it adds value or what particular elements/products (e.g. analytical template, cartographic protocol (maps), population tables, strategic response framework) you feel are most useful.
- 4) How relevant is the IPC for comparing varying levels of food insecurity at the sub-national level? country level? Regional level?
- 5) How effectively do IPC information products (maps, reference tables, etc.) communicate situation analyses, early warning signals and response options?
- 6) How have cyclical changes in the levels of food insecurity (at regional and country levels) affected the demand for (and use of) IPC analysis?

- 7) What is your opinion of the relevance of the Chronic Food Insecurity Phase Classification?¹⁵ In what ways could the chronic scale be made more relevant and useful to your organization?
- 8) How does the IPC complement and/or overlap with other food security information systems at the regional and country levels?

III. Use

- 9) To what extent to your or your organization use IPC information in making decisions related to resource allocation for food security programming?
- 10) What (if any) influence has the IPC had on public (government) expenditure to achieve food security among vulnerable areas/populations?
- 11) What is your opinion of the timeliness of IPC information dissemination?
- 12) Describe the usefulness of IPC information products in formulating programming responses to pending food security crises. How could the usefulness of the IPC in such situations be improved?
- 13) Describe the extent to which the IPC has contributed to government coordination mechanisms to address food insecurity among vulnerable areas/populations.
- 14) Describe the accessibility of current IPC current communication formats for use by senior-level decision makers. What (if any) ways might the format of IPC communication (information sheets) be improved for the purposes of decision making?
- 15) Has your organization utilized IPC information products for strategic planning? If so, how? If not, why not?
- 16) Has your organization used IPC information for advocacy and/or proposal development? If so, describe. If not, why not?
- 17) Cite/describe an example from your experience where you feel the IPC was most useful for food security policy or programming. What particular factors most contributed to the utility of the IPC in this situation?
- 18) Are you aware of efforts made at the country or regional levels to document best practices and lessons learned from the use of the IPC? What (if any) influence has this documentation had on implementation of the IPC at the country level? Regional level? Global level?
- 19) How effective have country-level and regional events (e.g. analysis workshops) been in promoting the IPC framework and its use by multiple partners?

¹⁵ As of April 2014 IPC Chronic Scale has been piloted in eight countries –Malawi, Zimbabwe, Kenya, Honduras, Guatemala, Nepal, Bangladesh, Philippines

- 20) How (if at all) has the IPC been incorporated into monitoring and evaluation systems of key food security actors (government, UN, civil society)?

IV. Impact

- 21) Describe what you feel is the most noteworthy impact of the IPC to date at the country level. Regional level? Global level?
- 22) How has the IPC influenced collaboration and joint-action between food security stakeholders at the country level? Regional level? Global level?
- 23) What (if any) investments should the IPC consider making to increase its impact at the country, regional, and global levels?
- 24) Describe the extent to which the IPC has contributed to sustainable improvements in linkages between food security information, policy formulation and program development.
- 25) Has the IPC been incorporated into the strategies and work plans of key food security information system actors at the country level? Regional level? Global level? If not, why not?

V. Strategic Engagement

- 26) In what ways might the IPC engage more strategically with existing or proposed government food security and nutrition policy?
- 27) What (if any) areas/components of the IPC information sharing require additional support to more strategically engage with stakeholders at the country, regional and global levels?
- 28) How might communication be improved to promote greater use and impact of the IPC at the country level? Regional level? Global level?
- 29) How might governance and management structures of the IPC be improved to enhance strategic engagement at the country level? Regional level? Global level?
- 30) What (if any) changes could be made to the current food security information system structure (at country, regional, global levels) to more effectively utilize IPC analysis and information products?

IPC Baseline Use and Impact Study

Respondent Information

Thank you for participating in our survey. Before answering the survey questions, please provide the following information to help us better understand the results.

1. In which region of the world do you work?

2. What type of institution do you represent?

3. Which of the below best describes your level of familiarity with IPC processes and protocols?

Relevance of the IPC

4. There is general awareness of IPC process and information products (maps, communication templates) among its intended users (senior-level decision makers).

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

5. IPC is useful for comparing varying levels of food insecurity at multiple (global, regional, national, sub-national) levels.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

IPC Baseline Use and Impact Study

6. The IPC's new Chronic Food Insecurity Phase Classification will be relevant for policy formulation and decision-making related to longer-term food security programming.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

Use of the IPC

7. IPC information products are regularly used by decision makers at the regional level.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

8. IPC information products are regularly used by decision makers at the country level.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

IPC Baseline Use and Impact Study

9. IPC information products (maps, communication templates, etc.) effectively communicate situation analyses to inform response options.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

10. IPC information products are disseminated in a timely fashion.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

11. IPC information products are useful for informing decisions related to budgeting / resource allocation.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

IPC Baseline Use and Impact Study

12. IPC analysis and information products are useful for guiding decisions related to food security program design.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

13. IPC processes and information products are useful for strategic planning.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

14. IPC processes and information products are useful for proposal development.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

IPC Baseline Use and Impact Study

15. IPC processes and information products are useful for monitoring and evaluation of food security programs.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

Impact of the IPC

16. The IPC process has contributed to improved networking and collaboration among food security and nutrition stakeholders.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

17. IPC has had a positive impact on the effectiveness of food security policy and programming at the regional level.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

IPC Baseline Use and Impact Study

18. IPC has had a positive impact on the effectiveness of food security policy and programming at the country level.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

Strategic Engagement of the IPC

19. The IPC has been incorporated into the strategies and work plans of key food security actors at the regional level.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

20. The IPC has been incorporated into the strategies and work plans of key food security actors at the country level.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

IPC Baseline Use and Impact Study

21. The IPC is viewed by the majority of stakeholders as an FAO initiative.

- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

22. The IPC is complementary to other regional and national Food Security and Nutrition Information Systems (FSNIS).

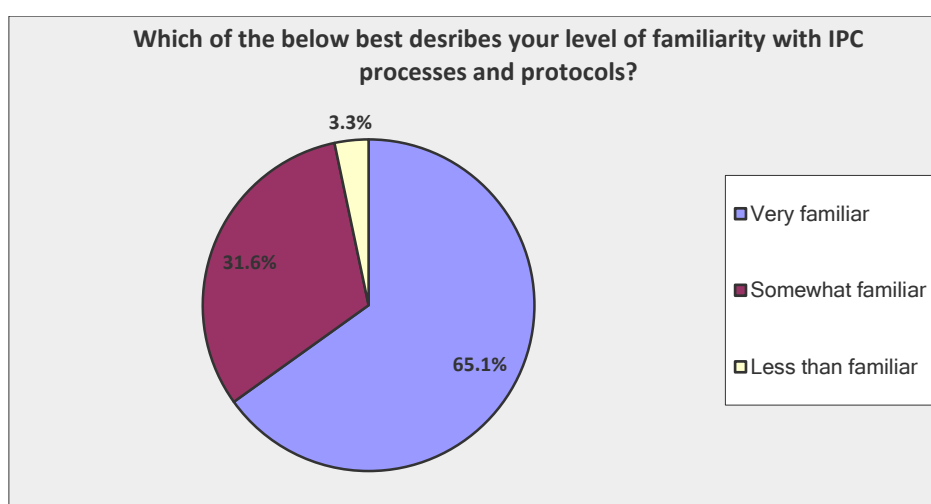
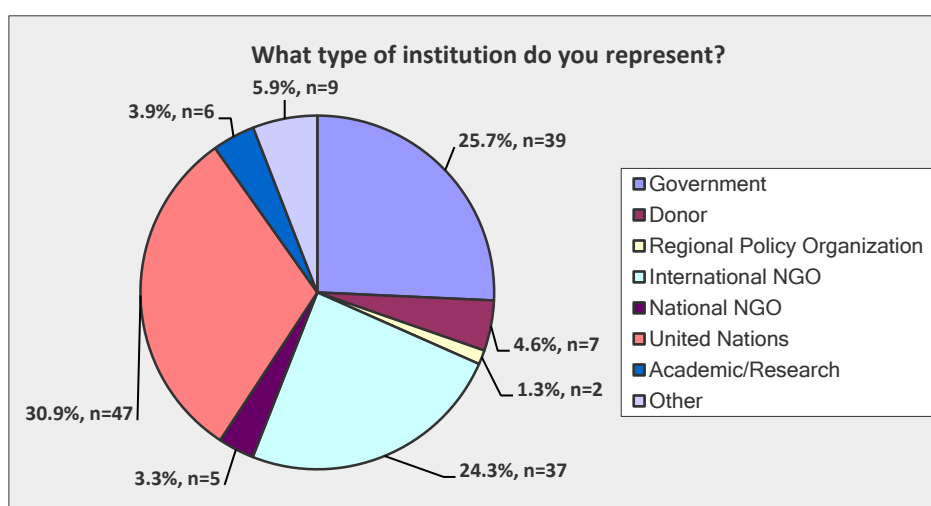
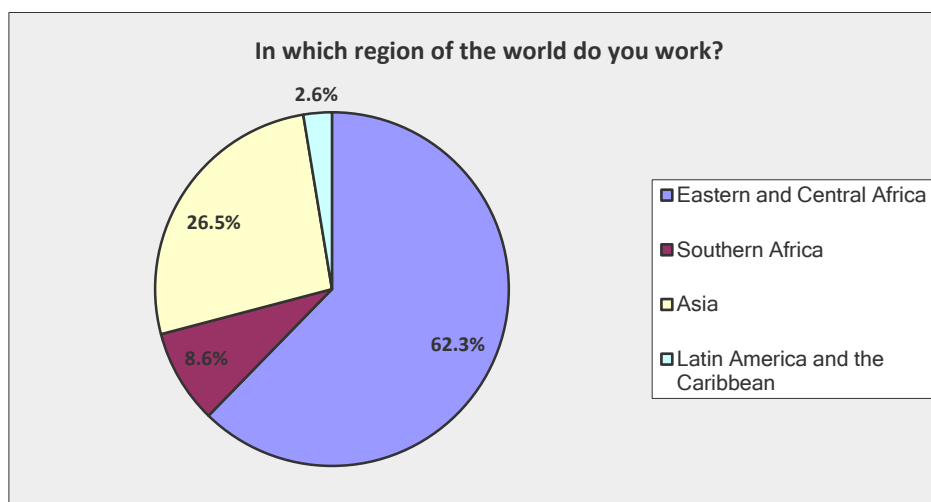
- ☐ Strongly Agree
- ☐ Moderately Agree
- ☐ Slightly Agree
- ☐ Slightly Disagree
- ☐ Moderately Disagree
- ☐ Strongly Disagree
- ☐ N/A

Challenges and Next Steps

23. What are some of the common challenges to promoting use of IPC processes and information products for improved decision making?

24. What steps should be taken to create greater awareness and use of IPC information products among key decision makers?

Annex F. Institutional Affiliation, Regional Location, and Familiarity with IPC among On-line Survey Respondents



Annex G. Documents Reviewed

- CNSA. 2014. Evaluation rapide de la situation de sécurité alimentaire et nutritionnelle dans le bas Nord-Oest. Rapport de Mission. February 2014.
- Darcy, James, Pierre Leguéné. (2013). Strategic Evaluation. FAO/WFP Joint Evaluation of Food Security Cluster Coordination in Humanitarian Action. Aide Memoire: Bangladesh Country Case. 6 December 2013.
- EU/ECHO. 2013. Humanitarian Implementation Plan 2014. Haiti.
- FAO. 2014. Evaluation of FAO's contribution to crisis-related transition: Linking Relief, Rehabilitation and Development. Office of Evaluation. July 2014.
- FAO. 2013. Findings of the Food and Nutrition Security Information Systems Assessment of MAFC&RD and MARF. Institution Capacity Assessment Analysis of AFIS Project. Juba, South Sudan, September 2013.
- Frankenberger, Timothy and René Verduijn. 2011. Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC) End of Project Evaluation. April 2011.
- Government of Bangladesh. 2013. Official Letter of Commitment to IPC. Food Monitoring and Planning Unit (FPMU), Ministry of Food. November 19, 2013.
- IPC. 2014. IPC in Asia – Regional Brief. IPC Brief No. 17. June 2014.
- IPC. 2014. IPC in East and Central Africa – Regional Brief. IPC Brief No. 18. June 2014.
- IPC. 2014. IPC in Central America and the Caribbean – Regional Brief. IPC Brief No. 19. June 2014.
- IPC. 2014. IPC in Southern Africa – Regional Brief. IPC Brief No. 20. June 2014.
- IPC. 2013. Response Analysis of IPC Products. Karamoja Pilot Report. Kampala. December 2013.
- IPC. 2013. IPC in West Africa – Regional Brief. IPC Brief No. 21. June 2014.
- IPC. 2013. Lessons Learnt from the Pilot Phase of Implementing IPC Pilots in Asia – Practical tips for the key steps of the process. March 2013.
- IPC. 2009. Project Proposal: IPC Southern Africa Seed Project. Regional Strategic Support to National Vulnerability Assessments Committees in Southern Africa Development Community. Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) Regional Vulnerability Assessment Committee (RVAC) IPC Technical Working Group. January 2009.
- Krishnaswamy, Siddharth. 2014. Handover Report – IPC Asia.
- Lautze, Sue. 2014. Crisis in South Sudan: Update, Status, Requirements, Reflections. PowerPoint Presentation.
- Marsland, Neil, Suleiman Mohamed and Marrten Immink. 2011. A Response Analysis Framework: Discussion Papers.

- Maxwell, Dan. 2013. Response Analysis in Food Security Crises: A “Road Map.” Humanitarian Practice Network (HPN) Presentation. February 25, 2013.
<http://www.odhpn.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/events-presentations/1422.pdf>
- Shoham, Jeremy and John Borton. 2009. IPC External Links and Relationships Study. Final Report. July 2009.
- UN OCHA. 2014. Humanitarian Action Plan (HAP).
https://docs.unocha.org/sites/dms/CAP/HAP_2014_Haiti.pdf
- UTSAN. 2012. VII Cumbre mundial de Universidades contral el hambre. Catacamas, Olancho, Honduras.
http://unag.edu.hn/WEB_UNAG1/linked/panel%20-%20-%20mariano%20jimenez%20-%20Outsan%20-%20honduras.pdf.
- Verduijn, René and Herma Majoor. 2011. External End-of-Project Evaluation. IPC Regional Project, Phase II – Consolidation of the IPC in the Volatile Humanitarian Context of the Central and Eastern Africa Region. Final Report. January 2011.
- World Food Program (WFP). 2014. Nepal Khadhya Surakshya Anugaman Pranali (NeKSAP) – Nepal Food Security Monitoring System. Evolution, Experiences and Use. May 5, 2014.