



# CHAPTER

# 8

## Report preparation and dissemination

**T**he preparation of the report is often the longest task in the entire CFSVA process, as it involves many factors and actors. In order to provide the CFSVA writer(s) with concrete help, this chapter gives brief guidance on:

- Preparing and presenting a draft report;
- Preparing the final report; and
- Communicating the results of a CFSVA.

## 8.1 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

The presentation of results, either in written, tabular, or graphic form, is just as important as generating the results themselves. If you cannot make others understand what the data are telling you, then the analysis will not have the intended impact. SPSS offers a variety of options for generating tables and graphics. However, Excel offers better graphing options.

### 8.1.1 Data tables<sup>123</sup>

#### ***Overview of data tables***

Tables are the most common type of display for communicating the results of data analysis. There are many options available for tables. However, creating effective tables is often an underestimated task. It takes time to generate attractive and easily understandable tables.

A table is an array of regularly spaced numerals or words. Tables can be divided into three major types:

- Sentences listing a few numbers in the text (best for 1-5 numbers, where all are values of the same variable);
- Text-tables, i.e. indented text lines (3-8 numbers, for one or two variables; often shown as a list of bulleted points such as this one); and
- A full table that can cope with 5-100 numbers.

The following few simple rules might help you design effective tables that look professional and are easy to read.

#### **a) Use the rule of seven.**

Try not to use more than six rows or columns in one table. Too many rows and columns inevitably compromises the size of the text and consequent readability. More columns and rows demand more space and decrease the white space available for margins and separation among items. The work will then look more crowded and will be difficult to understand.

Of course, there will be times when you will need more than 6–7 columns or rows, but be aware that it will be harder for the user to effectively interpret the table.

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123. This section draws heavily from Caldwell, R., 2006.

**b) Use Serif fonts.**

Due to the fact that most presentation tables allow only for short, basic caption words or brief phrases, Serif fonts, such as Arial, Verdana, Helvetica, and Univers, are better in most situations. With its small size, Verdana works particularly well, as its design offers apparently much bigger-looking characters while using the same point size of other fonts (a small text written at 9 pts. will look much bigger and more readable in Verdana than in Arial).

**c) Create “breathing” space among all rows and columns.**

By utilizing white space or the background colour, always keep a sensibly sized empty margin between each row and column of your table to guide the eye in reading without need for gridlines and borders. Creating a table that can visually stand without the use of any of its initial default border lines is a major achievement in information design. In the best designed tables, graphic lines are used only to define the title space or the starting and ending area of the table, without becoming too redundant in spelling out the obvious separation of all rows and columns.

**d) Format titles for immediacy.**

In a table, column and row titles (also known as heads) are essential in that they offer initial and immediate explanation of the table contents. By formatting titles with emphasis (bold) and by providing titles that are short and easy to understand, one ensures that the first information component that will be read is optimized for immediacy and clarity.

**e) Align with precision.**

It is essential that all elements in a table are precisely aligned and that each column appears to the eye by virtue of its perfect alignment with its neighbouring elements and not by need of vertical lines showing to which column an item belongs. If your table cannot survive without gridlines and borders, something is wrong with it. Work at improving alignment, spacing, and margins until it looks good without any lines. Then add back a few formal lines where emphasis or area definition are needed.

**f) Include size of the sample.**

This is almost never done except in research findings, but it is a good idea to include the number of observations that means and other statistics are based on. When you interpret a table, the number of observations are very important.

**Level of reporting**

Only key results should be presented in the main report – if they are important to the “story” of food security in the country studied. All other results should be presented in annex tables.

**How to aggregate?**

Only the most relevant survey domain should be selected; this is usually the domain that shows the most significant differences for the indicator. However, for operational reasons, administrative units might be preferred in the report. A map or chart could suffice, since the data are reported in the annexes.

For example, the report could feature expenditures on food by livelihood group instead of by administrative zone, since livelihood has a typical effect on these expenditures. The experience of certain shocks can, on the other hand, be presented by administrative zone.

### 8.1.2 Graphs

Graphs (also known as charts) are visual representations of numerical or spatial information. Computer software has made it easy to make all types of graphs – both good and, all too often, bad.

A graph uses a spatial arrangement on the page (or screen) to convey numerical information. This has several advantages:

- Graphs can have very high information density, sometimes with no loss of data. By contrast, stating only the mean and standard deviation provides a summary that loses information about, for example, the number and position of outliers.
- Graphs allow rapid assimilation of the overall results.
- The same graph can be viewed at multiple levels of detail (e.g. overall impression, close-up, and exact location of several adjacent points).
- Graphs can clearly show complex relationships among multivariate data (in two, three, four, or even more dimensions).

However, graphs also have some disadvantages, especially if badly designed:

- Graphs take up a lot of space if showing only a few data points. Hence it is best not to use them if there are only a few numbers to present.
- A graph may misrepresent data, for example, by plotting regularly spaced bars for irregular data intervals.
- A line may suggest interpolation between data points where none applies.
- It can be hard to read exact numeric values, especially if badly chosen axis scales are used. If exact numeric values are required, a table is best.

It is important to understand how to make the best of graphs. Note that it may not be necessary to display all available data in your graph. The key requirement is that the graph honestly and accurately represents the data you collected or want to discuss.

The following tips will help you create graphs that are clear, legible, and easily understandable.<sup>124</sup>

- **Make the data stand out.** It is the most important part of the graph. Anything that distracts from data is undesirable.
- **Use clearly visible symbols,** which are more noticeable than any other text on the graph, such as axis labels.
- **Reduce clutter on the graph.** For example, use relatively few tick marks: four to six per axis is usually sufficient.

<sup>124</sup>. Borrowed from Dave Kelly, Jaap Jasperse, and Ian Westbrooke, *Designing science graphs for data analysis and presentation: The bad, the good and the better*. Dept. of Conservation, Technical Series 32. Wellington, New Zealand.

- **Labels on the graph should be clearly offset from the data** or even outside the axes, to ensure they are not confused with the data; appropriate abbreviations can help keep labels short.
- **Keep notes and explanations outside the data region, if possible.**
- **Overlapping symbols or lines must be visually separable.**
- **Allow for reduction and reproduction**, since most printed graphs will be reduced and photocopied at some stage: sometimes through several generations! If you can reduce a graph to 0.71 twice (i.e. reduce by 50 percent) and it is still readable, it will suit most presentation purposes.

### 8.1.3 Mapping of data and results

VAM produces many types of maps showing different kinds of data targeted at different audiences and through different kinds of media. The aim of this section is to define, within the context of the CFSVA, a framework and a roadmap for the standardization of these outputs, for a standardized methodology for map creation that allows for creating, updating, and re-using map elements, and for standardizing the look and feel of maps created using different media and portraying different messages.

#### 8.1.3.1 Thematic Maps

The purpose of producing maps of survey data is to let the reader easily understand geographical patterns in the results. It is important, however, that the results display patterns that are real. The legend should clearly show the thematic ranges or classification and other important feature symbology (e.g. to distinguish administrative boundaries of different levels). This is explained further here.

- The boundaries between colours should reflect differences in underlying data, not just how administrative zones have been (arbitrarily) drawn. With a sampling frame set up by administrative borders, the maps might display “strange” results. For example, (let us say in a Sahel country) 95 percent of the households live in the very southernmost part of district A and are mostly farmers; the map of the entire area of district A will indicate the importance of farming, whereas in reality, in the less densely populated northern part of district A, pastoralists are much more numerous. Therefore, it is meaningful to add other information, for instance from livelihood zoning, to the information obtained. Ideally, small area mapping techniques should be employed.

It may be useful to show rivers, lakes, roads, etc., on the map, but if the symbology is simple and obvious, it is acceptable to exclude these from the legend, for the sake of simplicity.

It is advisable to keep the legend dynamically linked to the layers as much as is possible. Often graphical necessities require us to convert the legend into graphical elements, thus losing the dynamic link with the layers. In this case it is advisable to make a copy of the dynamic legend before conversion and paste it outside of the page layout.

#### Range values

The message the map gives is therefore determined by the range values (generally referred to as class breaks). How these class breaks are determined is therefore very

important and should be considered with care. The following is a list of considerations to be taken into account when determining the class breaks:

1. Precision or margin of error of the indicators. Differences in colour should reflect differences in the underlying data. Regions with small differences (far from significant) should be displayed in the same colour. However, since we might be interested in “tendencies,” these differences between regions should not necessarily be significant at the 95 percent level; we only want to be reasonably confident that real differences are reflected<sup>125</sup> in the map. As a rule of thumb, the class break should not be much smaller than the margins of confidence (at 95 percent) of the estimates. For example, if the average land area per farm is estimated in the various districts with a precision of around  $\pm 0.25$  ha, a typical class break could be: <1 ha; 1-1.5 ha; 1.5-2 ha, 2-2.5 ha; >2.5 ha.
2. Values that represent proportions (between 0 and 100 percent). The estimated prevalence of an indicator will have a higher degree of confidence for extreme values (close to 0 percent or close to 100 percent) than for average values (around 50 percent). On this basis, the ranges for the extreme values can be reduced compared to those for average values. For example, if we have 200 households per reporting domain (and a design effect of 2), good class breaks could be: 0% – 10% – 25% – 50% – 75% – 90% – 100%
3. Distribution of the values. There is the need to show an indicator on a map only if areas of the map will be coloured differently, otherwise the map will not convey a message. If the margins of error of the various estimates are so large, and the mean values for the reporting domains so similar that no values are significantly different, a map should not be included.

### Typical data to be mapped

Subsequently, the following variables can be compiled and explored at the sub-national level as *intermediary* candidates/indicators for the hazard and vulnerability geospatial layers.<sup>126</sup>

(a) National level related to hazards and other shocks:

- Frequency of extreme weather hazards
- Probability of below-threshold WRSI and low crop productivity
- Number of households exposed to flooding, droughts, etc.
- Percentage of population working in agriculture or other main livelihood strategies
- Percentage geographically sensitive land areas
- Assessment of double exposure (e.g. climate change and international trade interaction)
- Hazard specific and composite hazard exposure

125. This is an issue of the type I vs. type II error. Are we more satisfied that the few differences displayed are certainly significant? (Even if we have hidden a lot of differences because we were not sure of them at the 95 percent level, many of the hidden ones might actually have been real.) Or is it better to show more differences, reducing the number of missed differences (this means including more untrue differences, however). For maps, which give more of an overview of the situation, it is important to show tendencies. Hence, it is justified to display differences that do not meet the 95 percent confidence criterion (but still meet the 80 percent one, for instance).

126. ODI: Poverty and Climate Change: Assessing Impacts in Developing Countries and the Initiatives of the International Community, [http://www.odi.org.uk/iedg/publications/participation\\_in\\_negotiations/lse\\_report.pdf](http://www.odi.org.uk/iedg/publications/participation_in_negotiations/lse_report.pdf).

## (b) Household food security and Vulnerability

- Percentage of households with an FCS below a threshold, with CSI above a threshold
- Percentage of households vulnerable to a particular shock
- Percentage of households in lowest wealth quintile
- Percentage of households without access to water and sanitation
- Percentage of households living in marginal areas
- Percentage belonging to vulnerable livelihood groups (subsistence farmers, pastoralists, etc.)
- Malnutrition rates
- Literacy rates, gender disparity, etc.
- Composite livelihood and composite vulnerability zones

## (c) Composite risk

- Composite hazard
- Composite vulnerability
- Composite risk

## 8.1.3.2 Other types of cartographic output

**Maps showing boundaries or locations**

Maps showing boundaries or locations portray accessibility or divisions of territory and are therefore related to the demography or infrastructure. For this reason it's recommended that such maps contain a populated places layer and, if necessary, an infrastructure layer showing accessibility and the impact of the boundaries or locations to the population of interest. It would also be useful to include a Hillshade backdrop.

In general, it is necessary to indicate dimensions (scale bar, scale text, projection information) and it may be necessary to show a coordinate graticule on the map. It may be important to highlight when a boundary or location appears similar or close to an existing feature yet does not necessarily coincide with it (e.g. a river and an administrative boundary).

**Raster (or matrix) layers**

Data in raster format must be further distinguished into two categories:

- Image layers: non-thematic rasters where the pixel value is not an indicator value; it has no meaning when removed from its neighbouring pixels since it is only part of a picture; and
- Raster (or matrix) layers: a thematic layer where each pixel value refers to an indicator value relative to that theme (e.g. elevation or NDVI).

The most common data set used in this category is elevation data (see following section on "Elevation data"). Other raster data sets commonly used are derived from vegetation or meteorological data (e.g. NDVI, RFE or WRSI). To display these, a thematic legend must be created, either as a continuous shading based on the pixel value or as single colours assigned to discrete pixel value ranges.

## Elevation data

Elevation is hard to portray. The best way to give the idea of the terrain's morphology is usually with the Hillshade product, although in this format the elevation information is lost, and thus by definition it becomes an image-type raster. In CFSVA maps, since elevation values are not required, it is advisable to simply use height ranges to separate the country into two to three areas of substantially different altitudes, a probable determinant of livelihood type.

Several layers are derived from elevation data and are implicitly related to it:

- Height: elevation raster where each pixel is the elevation value;
- Slope: raster where each pixel is the vertical angle with respect to the ground;
- Aspect: raster where each pixel is the horizontal angle with respect to north;
- Hillshade: image representing shadows of hills from an imaginary light source;
- Contour lines: vector lines representing linear continuums of equal elevation; and
- Height ranges: polygon vectors created by dissolving areas defined by contour lines.

The scientific way to express elevation data is to create contour lines through interpolation of the raster data. This functionality is available through the Spatial Analysis extension in ESRI products (or Vertical Mapper, in MapInfo).

Slope and aspect layers are used in analysis (e.g. for crop production and soil erosion) and fit into the raster data category and should be represented as continuous variables.

## Image Layers

Image layers should be included as is. It is generally difficult to mask values or use transparencies since the pixel values do not have a specific meaning, and because compression technologies (such as .jpg) will create small disturbances in the pixel values.

### 8.1.3.3 Cartographic elements

Maps are used and published in a variety of formats and media. In CFSVA, maps are generally used to show how an indicator relates to the country's geographical layout, for example, with regard to urbanization, ecological zoning, elevation, presence of water bodies, soil and other farming issues, neighbouring countries. These choropleth maps are known as "thematic maps" because the main layer is based on an indicator value.

Unlike maps that need to show dimensions or scale, thematic maps do not require precise measurements, and therefore there is no need for a scale indicator or the cartographic projection specification. A very simple scale bar may be useful for giving the idea of the size of a country. Only a very simple north arrow is needed if the map has been rotated to fit properly into a rectangular area.

As with all maps that will be inserted into reports, the legend, title, footnotes, logos, and other graphical elements should be inserted using the graphical capabilities of MS Word. See section 8.1.3.6 on "Exporting maps to the report."



### 8.1.3.4 VAM Symbolology

VAM symbolology is under creation as a set of styles and legends for ESRI ArcMap and ArcView 3. These will include the following:

- WFP VAM map layout template; and
- WFP logo as a legend item to be used for WFP office locations.

Maps created for reports will use the same report style used in images for maps, and should use standardized WFP office locations and any other similar symbols for map features.

### VAM Spatial Information Environment (VAM SIE) as a style repository

All symbolology and layouts should be stored in the VAM SIE repository, with an appropriate description using the metadata indexing.

- Spatial extent should refer to the area for which the template/style is relevant; generally this will be global coverage;
- Description; and
- Author name and contact information.

### Other layout elements

All layout elements should be defined in a standardized form inside the layouts and styles. As well as legend symbolology, this includes (but is not limited to) the following layout features:

- Titles
- Logos
- Frames
- Scalebar
- North arrow and other references
- Disclaimers
- Metadata

### 8.1.3.5 Consistency

To ensure correct portrayal of the indicator information, an indicator map could contain the indicator's numerical values as well as the shading or graduated symbols. These numerical values can be displayed as a map label, or as a table next to the map or in the report's text or annex. In the case of a set of maps showing the same theme for different geographic areas, or similar themes, the class breaks of both maps should be the same as well as the colour scheme. For example, two maps illustrating enrolment rates for boys and girls should have the same class breaks with the same colours, so that the reader, when comparing the two maps, intuitively understands the graphics.

A common mistake to avoid is the creation of similar maps (e.g. for different countries) with each using its own class breaks (determined by each country's data set) and then showing all the maps together using the same colour scheme.

### 8.1.3.6 Exporting maps to the report

The use of desktop publishing applications (DTP) or MS Word is fundamental in order to embed or copy thematic and other maps into report documents or to create high quality posters. These applications can also be used to improve the inclusion of other key elements on the map layout (e.g. logos, images, tables, text with styles) and can prove useful for exporting into graphic formats that are not supported by the mapping application.

When using DTP applications for including maps in reports, the following guidelines should be followed:

- The map should be created in a GIS application and exported as a map image without legend, title, or other elements.
- The legend should be exported as a separate image.
- Other necessary map components should be exported separately, for example the scalebar.
- The map and other graphical components should be exported as a WMF (windows metafile) or EMF (enhanced metafile). These formats can preserve raster, vector, and font types without degrading the quality of the image.
- The exported components should be assembled in the DTP application and given a title and other text elements following the style of the report.

### 8.1.3.7 Exporting bitmaps

Exporting bitmaps (such as .jpg, .gif, .tif, or .bmp) is not advised, since it will make the size of the document too large. The user must keep in mind that the human eye responds differently to images printed on paper compared to images seen on the screen. Therefore, results from compression become easily visible on paper when they were not visible on the screen. Also, resolution is roughly twice as high on the screen as on paper. Considering this, the recommendations are:

- Bitmaps should be avoided except if there is a strict need, for example, if font problems are incurred using metafile formats.
- Bitmaps should be exported at 300–600 dpi for photographic-quality print (glossy publication).
- JPEG format should be used only when satellite or aerial imagery is used in a map, and should be rendered at low compression (maximum: 50 percent).
- PNG (or GIF/TIFF/BMP) should be used for discrete colours. These formats can be reduced by limiting to 256, or fewer, colour palettes (8 bit) to drastically reduce file size.

### 8.1.3.8 Software applications

Although there is no declared standard GIS application for mapping within VAM, the following applications are currently in use or have been used in the past:

- ESRI ArcMap ArcInfo or ArcMap ArcView, currently the application used for map publication
- ESRI ArcView, a well-known lightweight application for map publication; currently the platform for the FIRM application (Food Insecurity Risk Mapping), used for COFSU reports
- ESRI ArcInfo Workstation, used for spatial analysis but not advisable for cartographic output. ArcMap and ArcView both access ArcInfo workstation data
- MapInfo, previously used in VAM for cartographic output but currently not in use
- Idrisi, used for raster analysis but not for cartographic output
- Erdas, used for raster analysis but not for cartographic output
- VAM SIE (currently GeoNetwork open source), the VAM spatial infrastructure architecture, and therefore the standard for GIS data catalogue and repository functionality (i.e. metadata sharing and file sharing). GeoNetwork incorporates Intermap as an online mapping system (which is currently not activated) and the future version 3 will include Geoserver and Openlayers as programmable client/server architecture for online mapping.

|                                                         | ESRI ArcMap                                                                                                                                                                                                                           | ESRI ArcView3/FIRM                                                     |
|---------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Ability to save layout templates                        | X                                                                                                                                                                                                                                     |                                                                        |
| Ability to save legend files                            | Legends can be exported as .LYR files and imported into projects; however, this is not dynamically linked (the next time the project is opened the legend will be in the project and the .LYR file will not be consulted for changes) | Legends can be exported as .AVL files and dynamically linked to layers |
| Ability to define custom symbology                      | X                                                                                                                                                                                                                                     |                                                                        |
| Ability to construct different maps from single project |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       | X                                                                      |

### 8.1.4 Annex tables

Annexes to the CFSVA should give a complete list of indicators disaggregated by important reporting domains, and possibly other levels of disaggregation based on their importance in the local context. For example:

- Administrative unit
- Food security zone
- Livelihood group
- Food security class
- Sex of the household head
- Households with disabilities
- Households headed by minors

The following is a list of key indicators to be included and analysed in a CFSVA. Descriptions of the key indicators and indices and calculated scores are presented in the annexes.

- Household size
- Age dependency ratio
- Age of household head
- Percentage of dependents
- Crowding index
- Child-headed households
- Elderly-headed households

- Marital status of household head
- Physically challenged members of household
- Sex of household head
- Age of household head
- Food stocks
- Food consumption score
- Food consumption clusters
- Food sources
- Number of meals per day (adults and children)
- Stunting
- Wasting
- Underweight
- BMI of reproductive women
- Mortality rate (global and under-5 children)
- Caring practices
- Wealth index
- Years of schooling
- Level of education
- Net enrolment rate
- Gross enrolment rate
- Literacy
- Housing construction materials
- House ownership
- Sanitation
- Water sources
- Distance from water source
- Source of lighting; cooking fuel
- Assets (household, physical)
- Household shocks
- Coping strategies
- Access to agricultural land
- Area of agricultural land
- Major crops cultivated
- Agricultural production
- Ranked main and secondary income activities
- Contribution from different income strategies to household income
- Livelihood groups
- Household expenditures and access to credit

## 8.2 PREPARING AND PRESENTING A REPORT

### 8.2.1 Before starting the preparation of the report

In the majority of cases, the CFSVA process (as seen in Chapter 2 – Managing the implementation of a CFSVA), induces collaboration with many partners and colleagues. This is why it is essential during the first stage of preparation of the survey (and ideally

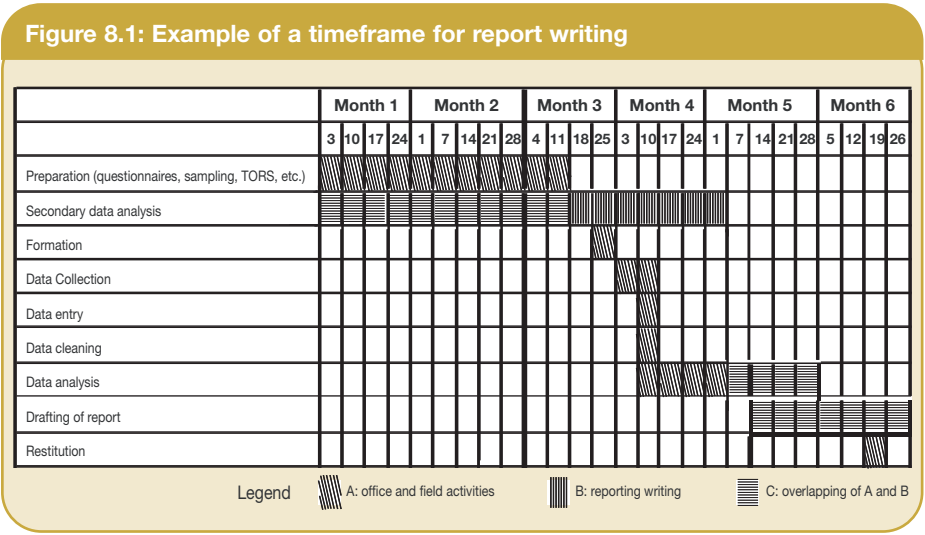
in the terms of reference of the study approved by all partners) to include clear responsibilities about the writing of the report. Different cases can be observed:

- The report is written by a single person: In this case, it could be the VAM officer or a consultant hired for the study. She/he will take care of all the sections and share it with the partners/colleagues in due time.
- The report is written by many, and then parts are combined to form the final draft. This option requires a more complex and well defined set of responsibilities.

It is also essential from the beginning to identify the person, group, or organization who will be responsible for the final clearance of the document. This is country-specific and depends on who is involved in the CFSVA, and how. Usually, the WFP country director or a ministry (or both) have the final responsibility but the role of the regional bureau (RB) or Headquarters in supplying support and guaranteeing quality is equally important. Once again, it is crucial that these responsibilities are clearly defined from the very start of the CFSVA.

### 8.2.2 Preparing a draft summary report

While it takes a great deal of time to complete a CFSVA, timeliness of reporting is a key factor. The CFSVA team/writer should attempt to produce reports within two to three months of the completion of data collection. This means that the data analysis and the writing of the report are often executed concurrently. It also means that most of the secondary data analysis and reporting is completed before the drafting of the results of primary data. The timeframe for writing the report could be as shown in Figure 8.1. (Blue represents the conducting of various office and field activities; writing of the report is represented in red.)<sup>127</sup>



127. The example here is based on the fact that a CFSVA can take from four to eight months to complete.

The writing of the report can start as early as the preparation phase, when the objectives, sampling, and methodology of the study are clearly defined. The secondary data analysis can then be added. This first draft will be a good base for the insertion of the data analysis results. The merging of the two and the drafting of the rest of the report can then be completed. The drafting of the report continues after the restitution phase, as any final comments or last-minute contributions are inserted.

### 8.2.3 Sharing and presenting the draft report

Once the draft report is prepared, including results from the secondary data analysis and the primary data, it should be shared with all partners involved in the CFSVA (this first draft might not yet include recommendations). Normally, the draft report is first shared internally with partners, WFP colleagues at CO, RB, and Headquarters and among more “technical” experts from ministries and NGOs. Their comments can then be included in the draft report before it is shared more widely to less technical actors such as programme officers. At any time during this stage, the report should always clearly indicate that it is a draft, to avoid any confusion. It helps to put the date of the last revision on the document and to regularly update partners on the review process.

The review process needs to follow a clear and established timeline, and when the report is shared for the first time, a reasonable deadline for receipt of comments has to be made. The clearer the review process, the easier it will be for all reviewers and for the writer(s) to finalize the document. An example of a review process is described in the box on the right; the process varies by country. It cannot be emphasized enough that clear and regular communication between all actors at this stage is essential.

#### Review of draft report in Mali



For the CFSVA in Mali, the CO organized a two-day retreat, to gather all comments on the draft report, with all main actors (ministries, United Nations, NGOs, RB, and Headquarters) involved in the drafting of the report. This procedure allowed all actors to discuss issues, agree on comments and deadlines, and determine who would incorporate the comments. It also saved time by bringing all actors together.

Following the presentation of the draft report and the insertion and discussion of the comments received, the draft is ready to be cleared by the designated organizations and can be called final.

### 8.2.4 Preparing the final report

The final report of the CFSVA is the result of a long process involving many partners and a great amount of data. It should be the product of compromises and final agreement among partners (especially the government) but should be based on sound analysis and present the numbers as they appear. WFP often takes the lead in the survey and uses the final results for its PRROs and country programmes. As such, the final report should be as transparent as possible and all data and the methodology should be made available to readers. Do not hesitate to refer to other finalized CFSVAs.

Despite the amount of information used in the CFSVA, the report should remain concise and clear. The editing and formatting of the document should, if possible, be done professionally,<sup>128</sup> and the document should be translated into the local language when needed (sometimes just the executive summary and the recommendations need to be translated). If the document is written in one of the official languages of the United Nations<sup>129</sup> other than English, the summary or executive brief should be translated and distributed in English for certain audiences (such as donors).

Avoid language that could be ambiguous or misunderstood. Avoid jargon and the excessive use of acronyms.

**Box 8.1: Common WFP acronyms and phrases (jargon) to avoid, or to explain, when communicating CFSVA findings to general audiences**

- EMOP, PRRO, SO, VAM
- Asset depletion
- Vulnerable group
- Food security/access/availability/utilization
- Coping strategies
- Livelihood group/wealth index
- Food basket
- Wet ration, dry feeding/ration
- Difference between acute and severe malnutrition
- Stunting and wasting
- Supplementary and therapeutic feeding

After allowing time for all concerned to review and comment on the draft, finalize the report and send it to all concerned government entities, United Nations agencies, NGOs, donors, the WFP regional bureau, and WFP Headquarters.

## 8.2.5 Essential elements of a final CFSVA report

The detailed standard outline for a CFSVA is presented in Annex 7, but the following general elements should guide the writer in drafting the report:

- Essential in a CFSVA report is an Executive Summary and/or CFSVA Executive Brief, with substantive findings, graphical overview, and information for programme design for any recommended response (see 8.4.1). Often, the Executive Summary and the CFSVA Executive Brief are one and the same.
- Analysis with key results of statistical and spatial analysis will form the main body of the document. Include individual chapter summaries. Short summary presentations are a good way to organize the findings and present them in a coherent way for a larger audience.
- Use harmonized line graphs, scatter-plots, and bar charts to illustrate trends or changes in an easy-to-read fashion.
- Provide contextual information that influences the status of food and livelihood security (through secondary data analysis).
- Keep discussions about less significant findings brief. In some cases this information can be made into a footnote or placed in an annex.

128. It is important, for example, to keep figures, graphs, and maps legible and harmonized.

129. Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian, and Spanish.

- Place information about statistical tests, such as the type of test performed, the significance value (p-value) of the test, standard errors, and other technical details in footnotes, endnotes, or annexes.
- Provide annexes that contain the lists of frequencies and descriptive statistics, methods, figures, maps, and questionnaires (these should be put on a separate CD).
- The final document should include all logos or reference to the donors and contributors to the study (an acknowledgments section) and standard WFP credit section for the report and pictures (see annexes and other CFSVAs).

### 8.2.6 Recommendations

The recommendations of a CFSVA are of crucial importance, as they will be what WFP decision-makers and partners will use to design, adjust, and implement their food security programmes, and what other assessments will first look at when an emergency occurs.

Depending on the number of partners involved and the timing of the survey, the recommendations should be prepared with the widest audience possible, including experts in all sectors touched upon by the CFSVA (education, health, food security, migration, agriculture, etc.). Ideally, the partners should have carefully read the CFSVA and been invited to contribute to the drafting of the recommendations. Usually a culling of the results is organized and recommendations are agreed upon during a one- to two-day meeting. It is important that recommendations be presented in a clear and concise manner indicating: (i) the cause for the intervention, (ii) the type of intervention proposed, (iii) the primary target group(s) and the agencies/ministry in charge of the response (see example here). The recommendations can also be divided into different sections for more clarity, separating them by main sector (health, education, policy, etc.).

**Example of recommendation matrix for a CFSVA**

| Cause of the intervention                                                                                                                      | Type of intervention                                                | Primary target groups                              | Ministries/agencies                         |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|
| There are still many food-insecure villages without access to roads. This limits farmers' ability to sell and purchase commodities at markets. | Farm to market road construction through FFW, if food not consumed. | Remote food-insecure villages without road access. | Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, WFP. |

### 8.2.7 Evaluating the quality of the final report

Prior to the report's circulation, a thorough evaluation of the content is advised. Annex 7 provides a checklist for evaluating the quality of a CFSVA report.



## 8.3 HOW TO COMMUNICATE THE RESULTS OF A CFSVA

Sharing information is an essential component of humanitarian response. Food security analysis serves its purpose only if it leads to more efficient, appropriate, and targeted responses to a food crisis. It is intended to enable WFP managers to examine response options and recommendations, for partners to consider interventions in other complementary sectors, and for donors to allocate resources.

It is therefore crucial to ensure that key food security and vulnerability analysis findings, and food and non-food response options, are communicated in an effective way to the wider humanitarian community, in country as well as in the donor capitals.

WFP has a responsibility to communicate CFSVA findings to all stakeholders, humanitarian actors, and interested parties. This is in line with WFP's commitment to transparency. It also strengthens the links between assessment recommendations and decisions on programme design and funding allocations. Sharing information will also foster dialogue and contribute to building a common understanding of a problem.

Beyond being a programming tool, the CFSVA constitutes **an information base**. A CFSVA provides an in-depth understanding of food insecurity faced by communities and threatening livelihoods. It also provides data on the characteristics of the households (demographics, asset ownership, sources of income and labour, access to infrastructures such as markets and health posts, their shocks and coping strategies, etc.), their level of susceptibility to various risk factors (droughts, floods, pests, insecurity, etc.), and their ability to cope. The breadth of data and analysis can be used outside the food security sector, making it essential to share the information as widely as possible. In addition, in an emergency this information should be easily accessible, as it is a key reference for assessing the effect of a new crisis.

Communicating the results of a CFSVA is an important step, despite being the last, of the CFSVA process. Attention must be paid to this activity, despite fatigue at the end of the process. Without effective communication, it is unlikely that the data and analysis will be used outside WFP.

Remember, CFSVA findings are used for multiple purposes and should be communicated to a range of audiences, including the following:

### WFP audience

- Managers, who require reliable and transparent information to make sound decisions about the scale and scope of a food insecurity and vulnerability;
- Programmers, who rely on CFSVA reports for designing interventions that are appropriate and operationally feasible; and
- Staff at all levels, who need timely and accurate information that can be communicated to government, donors, and other humanitarian actors for programming, resource mobilization, and advocacy purposes.

## The wider humanitarian community

- The host government, which uses the results for its own programming and policy-making;
- United Nations partners, which will need to know about the food security situation of a given country in order to design and implement their own operations and for coordination purposes;
- NGO partners, which will use WFP findings to complement their own analysis and design and to implement their own interventions;
- Implementing partners, who will need to understand the food security situation to implement interventions in the most efficient and transparent manner;
- Donors, who need information on the magnitude and severity of a crisis in order to make funding allocation decisions; and
- Media, in order to report on the situation using balanced and accurate information.

The following sections discuss the channels and communication tools through which the findings of the CFSVA can be disseminated.

### 8.3.1 CFSVA executive brief

In addition to the main report, the CFSVA team leader should prepare an executive brief which presents the key findings in a concise and easily accessible way.

In theory the executive brief could be different from the executive summary. The executive summary summarizes the findings of the report. The executive brief provides information tailored to fit the information needs of the audience, information that would be useful for decision-makers. However, it is possible to combine the executive summary and executive brief into only one document. This brief should be distributed separately from the report.

**Audience:** It is intended for humanitarian decision-makers (WFP, donors, government representatives, United Nations partners) who are not interested in the technical aspects of the assessment and who need to have a clear overview of the food security situation and the appropriate responses. It is also intended for local authorities.

These actors need to know the following:

- Who is food insecure, or vulnerable to food insecurity?
- How many people are food insecure, or vulnerable?
- Where are they?
- Why are they food insecure or vulnerable?
- What is the likelihood that the situation could deteriorate?

The executive brief should present the various recommended responses, and their objective, content, target group, and duration.

#### When to prepare it?

The team leader should start preparing the executive brief when the findings, main conclusions, and recommendations are available and internally agreed upon. It should be a stand-alone document.

**When to use it?**

The brief can be used to start disseminating the information before the final report is available. For example, it can be used at a debriefing with partners. However, the brief must first be cleared by the country director.

**Format** (See format and guidance in Annex 7):

It should be ideally two to three pages. It should contain legible visual instruments, such as a map, tables, charts, or graphics to facilitate the reader's understanding. Names and e-mail addresses of the people responsible for the assessment, who can be contacted for additional information, need to be provided.

**8.3.2 Official launch**

For every CFSVA, an official launch should be organized to present the results and recommendations to the government, partners, and donors at a high administrative and political level. The presentation should be viewed as an opportunity to ensure a wide dissemination of the results and high visibility for donors. It is advised to work with the public information officer and WFP's Communications and Public Policy Strategy Division at Headquarters to invite journalists and prepare a press release.

CFSVAs typically include recommendations for both food and non-food responses. For WFP, the presentation to stakeholders is an opportunity to bring the non-food recommendations to the attention of partners so that they can consider them for their own decisions and planning.

The launch must be organized in advance to ensure good attendance. Both technical staff and managers or decision-makers from the following audience should be invited:

- United Nations partner agencies
- Government representatives from the relevant ministries
- Local and international NGOs
- Implementing partners
- Donors

**8.3.3 Disseminating by e-mail and hard copy**

The country director is responsible for disseminating the report. Once finalized, the report and the executive brief should be e-mailed to all relevant stakeholders, both inside WFP and outside WFP. This should be done in a systematic way. A proper list of recipients in the country but also at the regional level should be drawn up (in the case of WFP, the support of Headquarters and the regional bureau should also be sought).

Mailing or delivering hard copies should also be considered, as some decision-makers and managers will not have the time to open their e-mails, download the report, and print it out, and therefore may find it more convenient to receive a printed version. The official launch could be a good opportunity for disseminating hard copies to all partners.

### 8.3.4 Media work

The media are another important channel for disseminating information. It is important to ensure that the Public Information Officer (in the country office or regional bureau) is aware of the CFSVA from the start; he/she should be informed of the analysis progress, findings, and recommendations. The Public Information Officer acts as a spokesperson and deals with media inquiries and may have to answer journalists' questions on the survey, so it is important to keep him/her in the loop.

Public Information Officers have various tools or methods in communicating information: including press releases, media advisories, news briefings, press conferences, web stories.

To inform the media on the findings, a press release is likely to be the most appropriate tool. The purpose of a press release is to issue a straightforward message. It is for the country director to decide if a press release will be issued. Various factors will be taken into account when deciding to issue a press release, such as the importance of the findings, whether they are newsworthy, the political context, and the fund-raising needs.

The press release can be issued internationally, regionally, or in the country only (in which case, it will be a local press release).

The Public Information Officer is responsible for preparing the press release. Press releases are written following specific guidelines (e.g. with the most newsworthy information at the top), using non-technical language, and are tailored to fit journalists' needs.

### 8.3.5 Posting on websites

Once cleared by the country director, the report should be sent to the Food Security Analysis Service at WFP Headquarters, for posting to the WFP internal and public websites.

Posting on other websites should also be considered:

- Reliefweb, run by OCHA, disseminates humanitarian information by updating its website around the clock. Relevant reports can be e-mailed to [submit@reliefweb.int](mailto:submit@reliefweb.int).
- United Nations country team websites often include a list of documents and reports produced by United Nations agencies.
- Humanitarian Information Centres, managed by OCHA, when present in the country, are a good place to post reports.<sup>130</sup>

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<sup>130</sup> The Humanitarian Information Centre (HIC) is a service endorsed by the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC). On behalf of the IASC, OCHA acts as steward of HICs, which aim to ensure that individuals and organizations involved in humanitarian operations have access to the benefits of information management tools to assess, plan, implement, and monitor humanitarian assistance. HICs are an inter-organizational resource whose products and services are available to the entire humanitarian community

### 8.3.6 Advocacy

Advocacy is a coherent strategy to influence policy formation, reform, and implementation. In the context of CFSVA, advocacy ranges from working with governments to inform understanding of food security conditions and recommending ways to alleviate poverty and hunger, to lobbying to donors, or raising general public awareness (WFP 2004).

Advocacy should address both food and non-food options for assisting needy populations. This is because food and nutrition insecurity is multifaceted, and in addition to food assistance, interventions may be required in such areas as education, hygiene promotion, water and sanitation, infrastructure development, and agriculture.

WFP may not be able to implement some of the response recommendations, and must therefore encourage the government or other organizations to do so. The presentation meeting is the starting point for discussions with possible collaborating partners. This should be followed up by more specific meetings with interested agencies. The purpose of such meetings is to:

- provide a detailed explanation of the reasons why particular interventions have been suggested;
- emphasize the complementary nature of different interventions, food and non-food; and
- seek commitments from other organizations regarding intervention in specific sectors.

It is usually necessary to organize a series of such meetings.

## 8.4 KEY REFERENCES: REPORT PREPARATION AND DISSEMINATION

- Caldwell, Richard. 2006. Using Tables and Graphs for Presenting Results: A session provided to the ADRA Monitoring and Evaluation Training. Bangkok, Thailand.
- FEWS NET/WFP. 2006. Rwanda Food Security Update: Poor Households Food Stock Already Gone. September.
- WFP. 2006. *Comprehensive Food Security and Vulnerability Analysis: An External Review of WFP Guidance and Practice*.
- *ibid.* 2007. CFSVA Methodology Workshop Report. Rome. April.

