ENHANCING LAND REFORM MONITORING EFFECTIVENESS:
A Toolkit for CSOs

ANGOC

LAND WATCH ASIA

Founded in 1979, ANGOC is a regional association of national and regional networks of non-government organizations (NGO) in Asia actively engaged in food security, agrarian reform, sustainable agriculture, participatory governance, and rural development. ANGOC member networks and partners work in 14 Asian countries with an effective reach of some 3,000 NGOs and community-based organizations (CBOs). ANGOC actively engages in joint field programs and policy debates with national governments, intergovernmental organizations (IGOs), and international financial institutions (IFIs).

Land Watch Asia (LWA) is a regional campaign to ensure that access to land, agrarian reform, and sustainable development for the rural poor are addressed in national and regional development agenda. The campaign involves civil society organizations in seven countries-Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, and the Philippines. It aims to take stock of significant changes in land policy; undertake strategic national and regional advocacy activities on access to land; jointly develop approaches and tools; and encourage the sharing of experiences of coalition-building and actions on land rights issues.

ENHANCING LAND REFORM MONITORING EFFECTIVENESS:

A TOOLKIT FOR CSOs

ANGOC

LAND WATCH ASIA

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CONTENTS

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A TOOLKIT FOR ENHANCING LAND REFORM MONITORING EFFECTIVENESS

With the recent rise in commercial interest in land and the growth in foreign agricultural investments, land reform monitoring takes on greater importance. Whereas monitoring used to focus on simply assessing performance of land administration, it now also keeps an eye on the possible reversal or flouting of agrarian policies. Land monitoring is crucial in improving land governance to address rural poverty and food security. It is important and timely for CSOs amidst commercial pressures on land and the rise in land conflicts. It also provides necessary feedback in assessing land reform implementation while ensuring government accountability. Monitoring also strengthens CSOs' campaign and advocacy work by holding dialogues with various stakeholders towards facilitating partnership.

ANGOC / Land Watch Asia (LWA) launched the *CSO Land Reform Monitoring Initiative* in 2010. The initiative aims to: enhance platforms, dialogue and common action on land-related issues among CSOs, governments and IGOs, and develop CSOs' capacity to monitor land tenure and access to land. It is a component of the Land Watch Asia regional campaign.

A FRAMEWORK FOR CSO MONITORING OF LAND REFORMS

LWA has developed a framework for CSOs to use for monitoring land reform in Asia—this is one of its key outputs. This framework seeks to guide CSOs as they undertake monitoring. It identifies indicators on *outcomes on land tenure and access to land* that will help CSOs critically examine whether the rural poor's land tenure is more secure, and

whether their access to land has been enhanced. The framework was developed the proposed indicators in Bangladesh, Cambodia, India (focussing on Bihar), Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, and the Philippines in 2010 and 2011.

FROM TRAINING PROGRAM TO TOOLKIT TO ENHANCE LAND REFORM MONITORING EFFECTIVENESS

Effective monitoring enhances land rights advocacy. LWA partners recognize that their advocacy should be informed and supported by solid, credible, and relevant data, and effectively communicated and shared with policymakers and stakeholders. In addition, sharing experiences in monitoring with one another contributes to learning about how to do monitoring better.

The Land Watch Asia campaign and its partners have made strides in promoting the rural poor's access to land, including engaging national governments in constructive policy dialogues and on-the-ground partnerships. However, as country focal points begin full-scale monitoring using the land monitoring framework, ANGOC/LWA see the need to enhance partners' specific skill sets in data collection and analysis, policy analysis, report writing and documentation, and sharing results and lessons.

The overall goal of this training program is to enhance the capacities of LWA partners in monitoring land reform, particularly on knowledge building and dissemination. Training sessions built on participants' knowledge and skills of how to effectively monitor, focussing on the areas of: research methods (data gathering and analysis); policy analysis; report writing; policy dialogue and dissemination of results; and using social media for advocacy.

The book in your hands is the fruit of this training program. We have refashioned the lectures and presentations into a toolkit for land rights advocates. We have gone to great lengths to make sure the articles are clear and easy to read. It is our great hope that they strengthen not only

your understanding of the basics of monitoring; but also your conviction of its importance, and your commitment to the land rights agenda through better monitoring. After all is said and done, what we most desire is for farmers, fishers, women, and indigenous peoples to have secure access to and control of their land for their livelihoods.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

CSO LAND REFORM MONITORING FRAMEWORK IN ASIA
Land Watch Asia/ANGOC[1]

BACKGROUND

Land Watch Asia (LWA) is a regional campaign to ensure that the rural poor's access to land is addressed in national and regional agendas towards sustainable development. The campaign involves civil society organizations (CSOs) in Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Cambodia, Indonesia, Pakistan, Philippines, and Sri Lanka.

Convened by the Asian NGO Coalition for Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (ANGOC), LWA has several aims. First is to take stock of significant changes in the policy and legal environments in relation to *land access of the rural poor.* Second, advocacy activities promoting land access must be strategically positioned and strengthened at national and regional levels. Approaches and tools to this end must be conceived and pursued jointly among CSOs Finally, lessons and experiences on coalition-building and actions on land rights issues must be shared.

ANGOC and LWA pursue campaign activities with national governments, intergovernmental organizations, and regional institutions that play critical roles in protecting and enhancing the poor's access to land. The campaign activities of LWA are strongly anchored on the participation of these stakeholders. Their roles retain a primacy to the overall strategy of the LWA campaign.

This monitoring framework was developed to enhance the capacities of CSOs in monitoring agrarian reform, which forms one of the identified program areas of LWA within its policy advocacy component.

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[1] Prepared by Roel R. Ravanera for the Asian NGO Coalition for Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (ANGOC) and Land Watch Asia (LWA).

RATIONALE

Rural poverty continues to afflict food producers in Asia—those who are marginalized and disadvantaged, including farmers, indigenous peoples, women, pastoralists, and fishers. Compounding their woes is poor access to land and other productive resources, in spite of policy and program initiatives on agrarian reform. The prolonged neglect of the agricultural sector has been a major reason behind rural poverty and hunger.

However, in recent years, investments in agriculture have increased. The 2009 World Investment Report of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) documented a growth of 17% in foreign direct investments (FDIs) in South, East and Southeast Asia in 2008. Inflows in agriculture exceeded $3 billion a year between 2005 and 2007, up from below $1 billion a year between 1989 and 1991 (UNCTAD, 2009).

Growing commercial competition for land is accompanied by increasing investments in agriculture. Land grabs are also taking place amid a host of other challenges confronting rural communities throughout the region such as local elite interests, climate change, and poor policy and legal frameworks on land. Agricultural investments, in turn, are potential hosts for other tensions within the rural communities.

With this changing policy environment, issues and processes on land have grown more complex. The work of CSOs will require more research and understanding of the issues, fully appreciating, documenting, and analyzing differing contexts among the eight countries, and producing reliable data. The key result areas of these steps will inform CSO policy dialogues on land with government and intergovernmental institutions.

This CSO land reform monitoring initiative can provide feedback on the status and impacts of various interventions in local communities, especially those affecting women and cultural minorities. For beneficiaries of agrarian reform programs, land reform monitoring is a validation of greater security in land tenure and broader access to land. Its participatory nature could extend the purposes of monitoring into educating and empowering different stakeholders. Among like-minded institutions, land reform monitoring can be used in facilitating partnership, networking, and complementation.

This land reform monitoring framework will articulate the assumptions, indicators, methodology, and mechanisms for CSOs to engage governments constructively and examine other countries' experiences as part of the regional campaign. This framework intends to clarify the direction and parameters in monitoring land reform implementation and to create a guide for the LWA members in conducting their policy advocacy work.

OBJECTIVES

The CSO Land Reform Monitoring Framework aims to:

1. Identify key indicators for CSO Land Monitoring;
2. Ascertain the various users and uses of the framework;
3. Suggest instruments to gather data and generate output tables for land monitoring; and
4. Recommend an institutional mechanism to implement the framework.

FRAMING THE LWA LAND REFORM MONITORING

A participatory broad-based consultation was adopted in developing the framework to orient CSO and LWA members who are uninitiated in systematic land reform monitoring. Indicators and implementation processes and mechanisms were identified and formulated in the process.

The process started with a draft framework based on existing literature. (A major source is the ANGOC publication **"SECURING THE RIGHT TO LAND"**, which presents regional and country perspectives on access to land for the rural poor.) It was then improved and expanded by academic experts and practitioners, then subjected to roundtable discussions and e-consultations. National and regional meetings were convened to solicit additional ideas, refine the indicators, and discuss viability of the process and mechanics. Two sets of pilot testing were conducted, the results of which were presented in a regional meeting attended by partners and representatives from governments and intergovernmental organizations.

After eight months, during which pilot tests of the framework were conducted in seven countries and participants' inputs were gathered, the initiative was markedly embraced by the members.[2] Along the way, key bottlenecks were resolved and the campaign was readied for implementation. A User's Guide for CSO Land Reform Monitoring was drafted to capture the experience and lessons from the piloting process. The document is not intended to be a definitive manual, as it is a work in progress, evolving together wth the framework.

PROCESS OF CRAFTING THE LWA LAND REFORM MONITORING FRAMEWORK

Literature Review, February 2010

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Furnished Concept Note and Roundtable Discussion with Land Watch Philippines, Quezon City, Philippines, April 2010

↓

Experts' Meeting with Dr. Barkat of HRDC and Dr. Laksmi Savitri of the Sajogyo Institute, Bangkok, Thailand, May 2010

↓

Pilot Testing in three countries: Bangladesh, Indonesia and Philippines, June - September 2010

↓

Regional Consultation, Bangkok, Thailand, September 2010

↓

Monitoring Framework Revision and Continuation of Pilots: Indonesia and Philippines, October 2010

↓

Planning Meeting for second batch of pilots: Cambodia, India (selected states), Nepal and Pakistan, May 2011

↓

Piloting of second batch, May to July 2011

↓

Regional Workshop - Presentation of Preliminary Findings, Jakarta, Indonesia, July 2011

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[2] The seven countries where pilots were undertaken are: Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan and the Philippines.

THE LAND REFORM MONITORING FRAMEWORK

Tenure and access to land are the main outcome indicators in monitoring agrarian reform programs in Asian countries. The framework assumes that strengthening land tenure and access leads to food security and poverty reduction. The opposite condition, landlessness, leads to conflicts and violence (see figure below).

LWA LAND REFORM MONITORING FRAMEWORK
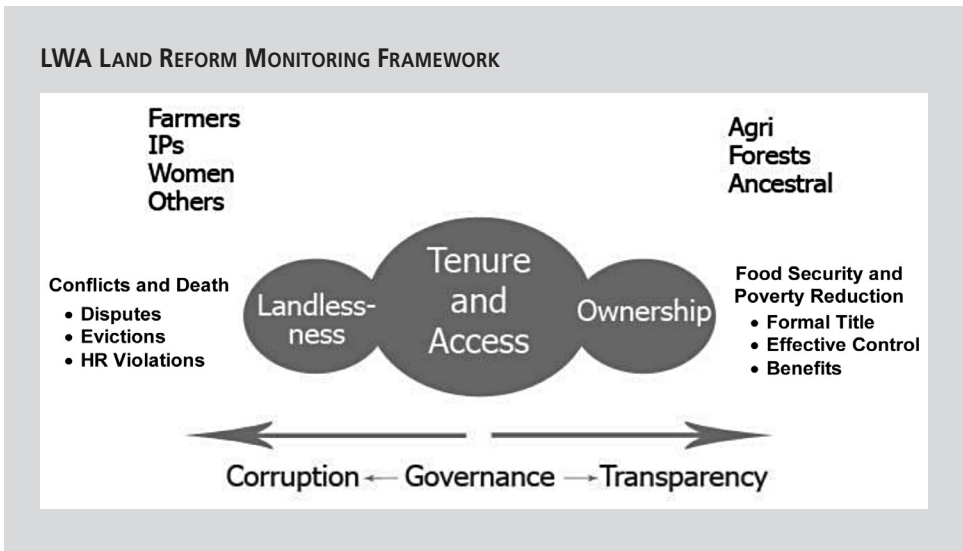
Access to land by farmers, indigenous communities, and women, together with other land-based sectors, is essential for their survival and development. Land is not merely a foundation of their livelihood, but also of their identities and cultural practices. Even national food security hangs on this balance between the economic and the cultural.

Land tenure, access, and control over the land, are governed by customs, rights, and at the national or state level, legislations. Governments implement land or agrarian reform programs to institute these legislations. Governing these programs are rules, authorities and institutions.

Security of tenure over land among these sectors and their constituencies is cemented by land ownership or lease, any of which involves various rights. These include the right to use, dispose or transfer as inheritance, depending on existing traditions or legislations. These rights or entitlements

are manifested frequently through legal documents such as land titles. Greater ownership allows the ability to invest, plan, and care for these lands. Subsequently, beneficiaries attain self-reliance in their needs, improvements in the quality of lives, environmental sustainability, and a collective contribution to feeding their compatriots.

Landlessness is not only the result of evictions, leasing out to investors, and contractual arrangements but is also an inherited condition between dispossessed parents and their children. Increasing agricultural investments and commercialization of lands have been recently feeding the vicious cycle of these processes. Case studies by LWA members show that when this happens, it can lead to conflicts and violence.[3]

Governance plays a critical role in determining control over the land. The welfare of land-based communities and the preservation of the environment have infinitely better chances of being advanced with democratic and transparent processes. This principle highlights the importance of the policy work of LWA and other CSOs.

SCOPE AND INDICATORS

Given the broad CSO concerns and extensive processes involved in monitoring, attempts by CSOs on land reform monitoring are usually constrained by lack of resources and unsuitable mechanisms. As a strategic measure, the scope must be clearly defined and targeted, and the mechanisms should fit members' operational capacity.

Scope

CSO monitoring encompasses other land-related issues that also inform NGO missions. Broader social issues such as food security, poverty, governance, and the environment are not marginalized. These issues compel attention and will figure in the results and analyses of the LWA land reform monitoring initiative, even as it retains its focus on tracking the implementation status of agrarian reform programs.

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[3] Refer to ANGOC's regional journal, Lok Niti "Land Grab: Changing the Terrain of Land Tenure". Vol 18/1 2012.

Levels of operation

LWA members operate at the local, state, national, and regional levels. Some of them conduct or have conducted land reform monitoring on their own as a component of other programs to address specific concerns.

For reasons of practicality, the LWA land reform monitoring initiative will operate at the *national level* in all countries except India, where agrarian reform programs are legislated and implemented at the state level. Governments in Asia have varied agrarian reform programs given the diversity of land characteristics and political environments. Land administration and availability of data also vary across countries.

There is value, however, in including selected indicators that will allow regional comparisons. The new wave of agricultural investments transcends national boundaries. Although many of these investments are agreed among Asian countries, these transactions have to be analyzed at the regional level. Moreover, regional institutions such as the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), South Asia Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) and the Asian Development Bank (ADB) are positioned as stakeholders in these land transactions.

Selecting the indicators

The monitoring framework follows a certain logic of *inputs, processes, outputs, outcomes and impacts* (Bending, 2009). In relation to agrarian reform issues, "inputs" are land laws, agrarian policies, and budgets; "processes" relate to the implementation of agrarian reform programs, resolution of dated and current land disputes, as well as verification and formalization of claims over land areas; "outputs" are results and accomplishments such as the number of land titles issued, property rights restored or distributed, and provision of support services; "outcomes" are consequences and positive effects of the previous three factors, for instance in the form of tenure security and access to land; while "impacts" are tied to the ultimate aims of food security and poverty alleviation (see next page, **"CONCEPTUAL LAND REFORM MONITORING FRAMEWORK"**).

Focus, indicators, and data to be collected are incumbent upon *national focal points.* This allows flexibility to address specific national concerns linked to their advocacies and action agenda.

In the pilot monitoring projects conducted in Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, and the Philippines, several indicators were tested. Some indicators had to be dropped due to unavailability of data. Refer to the regional summary of the results of the country pilot experiences **"MONITORING LAND REFORMS IN ASIA: STATUS CHECK"**).

CONCEPTUAL LAND REFORM MONITORING FRAMEWORK

INPUTS
Land Laws, Policies, Public Expenditures

PROCESSES
Agrarian Reform programs, resolution of disputes, formalizing land claims

IMPACTS
Food Security, Poverty Alleviation

OUTPUTS
Land Titles, Property Rights, Support Services

OUTCOMES
Tenure Security, Access to Land
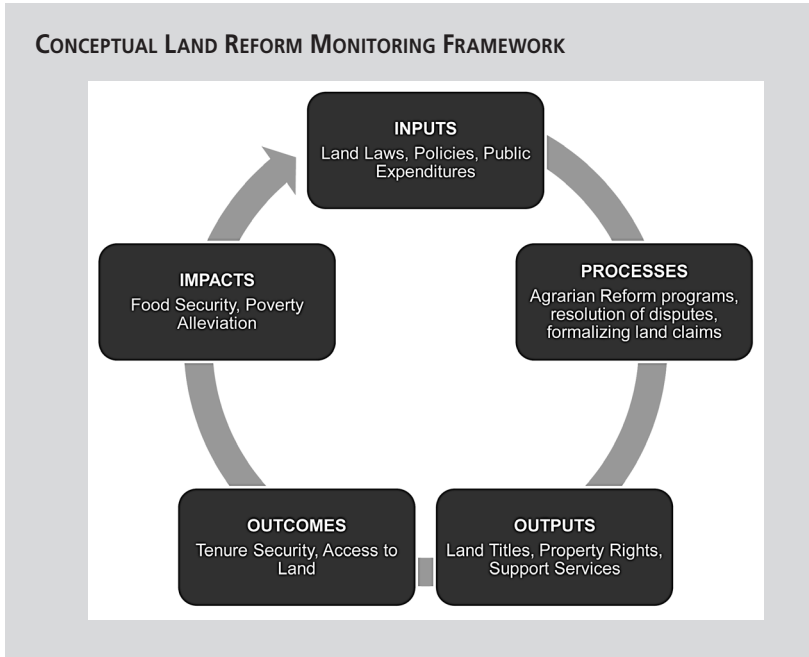
Common regional indicators

While the national contexts vary and agrarian reform programs differ across countries, there is agreement on the desired outcomes: greater access to land and stronger land tenure for the farmers and indigenous communities, particularly women and other disadvantaged sectors. After all the agrarian reform laws have been crafted, programs implemented and titles issued, summary questions for accomplishment remain: are the farmers' tenure on land more secure? Do they have greater access to their lands?

Access to Land, which "is the ability to use land and other natural resources, to control the resources and to transfer the rights to the land and take advantage of other opportunities (FAO in IFAD, 2008)" covers the following issues:

➲ Distribution or concentration of land ownership, in this case, *effective* ownership or possession of a title deed as the legal owner, right to cultivate the land (usufructuary right), and the right to harvest the cultivation (benefits);

➲ Displacement of smallholders; and

➲ Landlessness, "the state of those agricultural workers not owning or renting land and without access to permanent employment (FAO, 2003)."

Land Tenure, on the other hand, "refers to the rules, authorities, institutions, rights and norms that govern access to and control over land and related resources. It defines the rules and rights that govern the appropriation, cultivation and use of natural resources on a given space or piece of land. It governs who can use what resources, for how long and under what conditions. Strictly speaking, it is not land itself that is owned, but rights and duties over it (IFAD, 2008)."

There are three main aspects of enhanced access to land: (i) strengthening land tenure security and land rights; (ii) increasing the amount of land that someone has access to; and (iii) improving the productivity of land. Alternatives to enhancing access to land for agriculture may include promotion of non-farm activities and urbanization (IFAD, 2008).

After a series of validation workshops and the piloting phase of the draft monitoring framework by the countries, the following is a list of indicators that are generally available and accessible.

LAND TENURE

Land Disputes, which are "conflicts arising out of competing interests or when different parties have varying interests on the same parcel of land" (FAO, 2002).

- ➲ Number of people killed(per 100,000 population)
- ➲ Number of people detained(per 100,000 population)
- ➲ Number of people harassed(per 100,000 population)
- ➲ Number of cases received(per 100,000 population)
- ➲ Number of cases investigated(per 100,000 population)
- ➲ Number of cases adjudicated(per 100,000 population)
- ➲ Number of cases of land grabbing
- ➲ Percentage of area of land grabbed
- ➲ Average time in years for dispute resolution
- ➲ Additional indicators
- ➲ Annual loss of time due to disputes
- ➲ Monetary loss

Evictions, considered "the permanent or temporary removal against the will of individuals, families and/or communities from the homes and/or land which they occupy, without the provision of, and access to, appropriate forms of legal or other protection (Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights)."

- ➲ Number of households evicted/ displaced from farms (per 100,000 population)
- ➲ Number of households becoming totally homeless because of eviction

ACCESS TO LAND

Ownership

- ➲ Land ownership distribution by size
- ➲ Gini coefficient/bottom-to-top ratio (for analysis)

Tenancy Rights

- ➲ Number of sharecroppers
- ➲ Percentage of sharecroppers with legal documents
- ➲ Percentage of contract farmers' area in relation to total agricultural area

Landlessness

➲ Gini coefficient (for analysis)

➲ Number and percentage of landless persons among rural population

ADDITIONAL INDICATORS: BUDGETS AND POLICIES

Budget

➲ Agrarian reform budget

Policies

➲ Land use policies

➲ Women's access to land

➲ Policies for marginalized groups (IPs, fishers etc)

➲ Policies or guidelines on foreign investment in land

ESTABLISHING NATIONAL AND REGIONAL MECHANISMS FOR LAND REFORM MONITORING

LWA will undertake land reform monitoring in Asia. Members of LWA will take the lead in their respective countries. The ANGOC Regional Secretariat will provide the necessary support in processing national data and consolidating them for regional comparisons.

National

The following activities will be undertaken at the national level:

1. Adoption of the monitoring framework

A consultation process of adopting the proposed CSO Land Reform Monitoring Framework will be initiated. The framework may be revised according to the needs, relevance, and suitability to country situation. Agreed common regional indicators, however, will be maintained and used by LWA members in all countries.

2. Setting up national steering committees and secretariats

Using the monitoring framework, members of LWA will set up their own National Steering Committee that will provide policy direction and guidance. It is suggested to build on various expertise and to include NGOs, farmer organizations, members of the academe, and other relevant sector representatives. Government "champions", whenever appropriate, may be invited as members of the steering committee.

The National Steering Committee will be supported by a Secretariat that will be responsible for day-to-day operations.

3. Conduct of land reform monitoring

The National Secretariat, under the guidance of the steering committees, will undertake land reform monitoring. It should not only collect and collate information but also provide analyses as bases for more strategic interventions among members. It should strengthen its information capacity to influence policy makers.

4. Data validation

The success of land reform monitoring depends largely on the credibility of data. Collected information will be validated and triangulated. Data sources should be researched and double checked.

5. Dissemination of reports

Reports will be produced annually. To influence programs and policy directions, reports will be submitted to appropriate government, intergovernmental organizations, and the media. Forums and dialogues will also be convened to advocate urgent issues. Blogs and other information technology platforms will be utilized to reach a wider audience.

Geographic information system (GIS)-generated maps will also be used to enhance the presentation of monitoring data. These maps are powerful analytical, advocacy and communication tools, especially when employed in land

issues. It can complement the data gathered by demonstrating relationships, such as the correlation between landlessness and poverty, in a visual manner.

Regional

At the regional level, a similar process and mechanism will be established; selected indicators for regional comparison will be central to analyses. Comparative analysis will figure greatly. Follow-up studies will also be conducted to substantiate data results.

CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED AND LESSONS LEARNED

Inputs from participating countries have revealed common ground through the pilot testing of the framework. A general agreement is that there is a deficiency in, if not absence of successful implementation of essential land reform programs exists. For instance, in Indonesia, policies have been crafted but have not been implemented.

Representatives of Pakistan also share that the unavailability of "updated and reliable official data regarding land use and tenure" caused setbacks in the completion of their study. Another challenge is the scarcity of institutions directly advocating land rights and its attendant issues. Land reform had been a strong movement in the early 1970s but has weakened in the past decades. Only recently has there been an urgent call for another large-scale advocacy, with the onset and exposition of massive land grabbing.

Indigenous communities and women are major concerns of the participants. It has been observed that most of land acquisitions in the rural areas have reached the uplands, affecting many indigenous communities. And with the increase in population and demand for land, most of those left landless are women.

POSTSCRIPT

The increasing competition for land, which is anticipated to intensify in the near future, requires good governance to balance competing interests of various sectors towards attaining food security and sustainable rural development.

Monitoring these developments will be valuable in making sound and informed policy decisions. The input of CSOs will be critical because of their ability to articulate the situations of farmers and other vulnerable sectors.

This framework provides the general parameters for LWA members in monitoring agrarian reform programs in their own countries. It is not meant to be a detailed manual but a reference for anchoring their policy and advocacy work. The accompanying *User's Guide for CSO Land Reform Monitoring* provides the road map but leaves enough room for creativity and value additions.

For those who are more academically inclined and would want to pursue the development of Land Reform Development Index that has been thoroughly discussed by some partners, this framework can serve as the foundation in developing quantifiable indicators using mathematical formulations.

If resources allow, LWA should invest in establishing a database that will facilitate the collection, processing, and dissemination of data and results. Such database will be a valuable contribution in the efforts of CSOs to uphold land rights in rural Asia.

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AN INTRODUCTION TO MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Rainier Almazan

> *This article emphasizes monitoring and evaluation of projects—but lessons can easily be applied to monitoring using Land Watch Asia land reform monitoring indicators on land tenure and access to land.*

MONITORING

What is monitoring?

▷ Monitoring is the built-in mechanism to check that things are going to plan and enable adjustments to be made in a methodical way (Oxfam, 1995).

▷ Monitoring is a systematic and continuous assessment of progress of a piece of work over time (Save the Children, 1995).

What is the purpose of monitoring?
We monitor to:

⮑ Assess quality and quantity of work done in relation to each objective

⮑ Rectify, improve, adapt, and derive lessons

Monitoring for Land Watch Asia

Specific to the Land Watch Asia campaign, we are monitoring the implementation of land reform, mainly looking at access to land (land ownership) and land tenure (disputes and evictions, land conflicts), as well as inputs (laws and policies, budgets).

We seek to enhance our capacities to monitor and evaluate to **inform our policy advocacy** not only at the national level, but also at the regional and global levels.

What do we monitor?

> If you have a project design, you decide on the activities, expected outputs, and results.

Activities

▷ Things a project or program (e.g., land reform) does

Outputs

▷ Products or consequences of project activities

▷ Tangible deliverables i.e. goods (e.g., manual), services (i.e. computer repair shop) or desired behavioral manifestations (e.g., can demonstrate, through exercise, computer typing); products or consequences of a project

Results

▷ Things that happen because of what the project or program does

▷ Effects of outputs

We use data and information from monitoring to

➲ Plan/act on issues or concerns
  ⊙ Inform the development of strategies and tactics
  ⊙ Inform design of specific activities

➲ Mobilize/manage
  ⊙ Move resources (people, materials, money, information, time)
  ⊙ Identify and adjust poorly performing components or pressure concerned agency

➲ Communicate, report, and replan
  ⊙ Share information
  ⊙ Report on project performance to the stakeholders and donors

Guiding principles of monitoring

- ➲ Focus on minimal but key information from critical areas to avoid being overwhelmed by reports and unnecessary data.
- ➲ Include all forms of communication: (verbal, written, formal, informal) to create opportunities to cross-check information
- ➲ Use verifiable evidence (e.g. indicators) to assess progress.
- ➲ Enhance the quality of actions through learning and accountability. Receiving information creates an obligation to act on the implications (both operational and strategic).

WHAT ARE INDICATORS?

Indicators are information needed to help determine progress. An indicator provides, where possible, a clearly defined unit of measurement and a target detailing the quantity, quality and timing of expected results.

Use SMART criteria.

- ➲ Specific
- ➲ Measurable
- ➲ Attainable
- ➲ Results-based
- ➲ Timebound

Quantitative vs. qualitative indicators

Quantitative

- ▷ Number—raw number of cases (counting)
- ▷ Percentage—% of total cases (proportion)
- ▷ Rate—based on population (denominator) usually represented per 100,000 (magnitude vis-à-vis population size)
- ▷ Ratio
- ▷ Proportion
- ▷ Rating

Computing for rate

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{\text{No. of cases (numerator)}}{\text{Population size (denominator)}} \times \text{constant value}$$
(e.g. per 100,000 population)

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{50}{50,000} \times 100,000$$
$$= 0.001 \times 100,000$$
$$= 100 \text{ per } 100,000$$

Qualitative

▷ Description of the status of an intended result, analysis of documents, opinions, documented observations

A performance indicator clarifies what we intend to measure. *It does not tell us what level of achievement signals success.* That is why we need **baselines** and **targets.**

REMEMBER

➲ Indicators should complement one another in terms of cross-validation, and point problems with each other.

➲ Indicators should as much as possible be disaggregated by gender, age, or whichever category desired.

➲ The number of indicators should be small; as a rule of thumb, maximum of six per objective.[1]

➲ Indicators may be relevant to stakeholders based on different needs and interests.

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[1] The CSO Land Reform monitoring framework developed by the Land Watch Asia campaign has more indicators, as a full-scale monitoring effort.

How can we verify that the planned level of performance has been achieved?

We can verify that we have achieved the planned level of performance through **data.** We ask the following questions:

1. In what units of measurement do we collect the data ?

2. Who has the data (who is your source of data)?

3. How will we gather the data?

4. How frequently?

5. Who will gather the data?

6. How do we interpret the data?

7. What will it cost?

Specific typologies of indicators

Indicator type	Definition	When to use	Examples
Risk/Enabling	Measures influence of external factors on project	During project designing usually.	Socio-economic, legal, political, weather using scoring or ranking method
Input	Measures resources devoted to project	At start of Project, at which point baseline data are collected	Credit disbursed; fertilizer purchased
Process	Measures delivery activities; monitor achievements through time	While Project is ongoing	Views of landless farmers re: land tenure rights; participation rate of farmers
Output	Measures immediate results	Used near the end of donor involvement	No. of land tenure cases filed in court; compliance rate increase among landowners
Outcome/ Impact	Measures long-term effects of project	Used after donor involvement. Usually 3–5 years after the project ended (or was concluded, completed).	No. of landless farmers decreased by X% Farm income increased by X%

MONITORING CYCLE FOR LAND REFORM

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                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │      INPUTS          │
                    │ Land Laws, Policies, │
                    │ Public Expenditures  │
                    └─────────────────────┘

   ┌─────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────────┐
   │      IMPACTS         │        │     PROCESSES        │
   │ Food Security,       │        │ Agrarian Reform      │
   │ Poverty Alleviation  │        │ programs, resolution │
   │                      │        │ of disputes,         │
   │                      │        │ formalizing land     │
   │                      │        │ claims               │
   └─────────────────────┘        └─────────────────────┘

   ┌─────────────────────┐        ┌─────────────────────┐
   │     OUTCOMES         │        │     OUTPUTS          │
   │ Tenure Security,     │        │ Land Titles,         │
   │ Access to Land       │        │ Property Rights,     │
   │                      │        │ Support Services     │
   └─────────────────────┘        └─────────────────────┘
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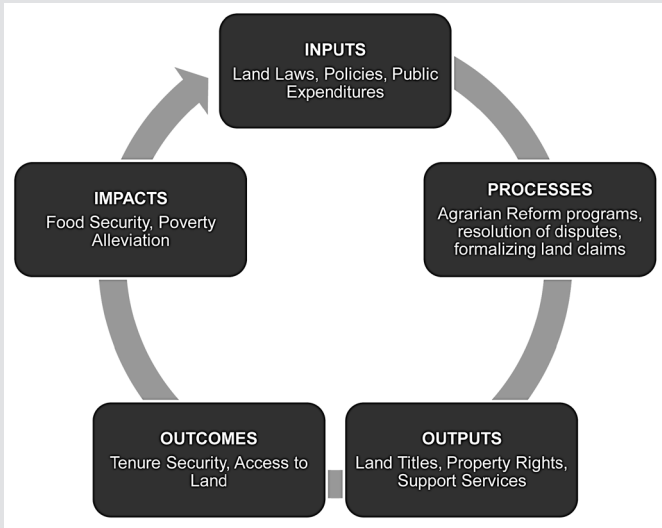
Criteria in selecting indicators
Reliability
▷ Information is accurate and consistent. How do we determine accuracy or reliability? Multiple uses of same instrument (interview, survey,etc.) yield similar results and can be tracked through time.
Disaggregation
▷ e.g., male-female, young-old, by crop, farm size, education
Validity
▷ Information provided is close to the reality being measured.
Easy to understand and clearly defined

REMEMBER!
❝*Not everything that counts can be counted… and not everything that can be counted… counts.*❞
Albert Einstein

LAND REFORM MONITORING INDICATORS

Land disputes

- ⮫ Number of people killed(per 100,000 population)
- ⮫ Number of people detained(per 100,000 population)
- ⮫ Number of people harassed(per 100,000 population)
- ⮫ Number of cases received(per 100,000 population)
- ⮫ Number of cases investigated(per 100,000 population)
- ⮫ Number of cases adjudicated(per 100,000 population)
- ⮫ Number of cases of land grabbing
- ⮫ Percentage of area of land grabbed
- ⮫ Average time in years for dispute resolution

Access to land

Ownership

- ⮫ Land ownership distribution by size
- ⮫ Gini coefficient/bottom-to-top ratio (for analysis)

Tenancy Rights

- ⮫ Number of sharecroppers
- ⮫ Percentage of sharecroppers with legal documents
- ⮫ Percentage of contract farmers' area in relation to total agricultural area

Landlessness

- ⮫ Gini coefficient (for analysis)
- ⮫ Number and percentage of landless persons among rural population

Basic monitoring sample format

Activities	Target outputs	Actual outputs	Score or % of accomplishment	Reason for deviation

EVALUATION

What is evaluation?

▷ Evaluation looks at the *impact* of the project and the *appropriateness* of the action. Monitoring and evaluation collect information to improve projects after they have started.

▷ Evaluation can occur during implementation, at the end, or even a few years after the project is completed, and draws conclusions about whether the right job is/was done well.

Types

According to evaluator

➲ Self-evaluation (participatory)

➲ Independent evaluation: Internal; External

According to timing

➲ Interim/mid-term

➲ Terminal

➲ Ex-post (impact)

Core evaluation concerns
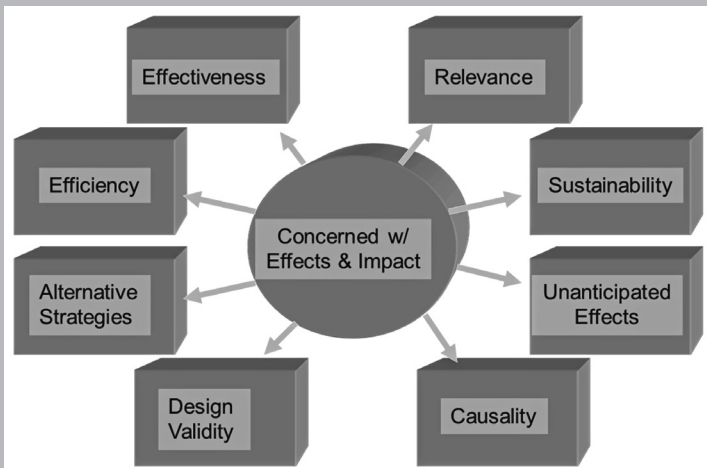
Information sources for evaluation (or "means of verification" in monitoring parlance)

- ➲ Project documents and subsequent revisions
- ➲ Progress reviews and self-evaluation reports
- ➲ Reports of previous independent evaluations
- ➲ Major project outputs
- ➲ Minutes of management committees and other relevant committees
- ➲ Organizational charts, by-laws
- ➲ Annual reports of partner organizations such as NGOs, CBOs, government
- ➲ Socio-economic profiles and other development indicators of groups, communities, regions, or countries
- ➲ Relevant national policy documents
- ➲ Lessons from similar projects in the country concerned or in other countries
- ➲ Interviews with relevant stakeholders
- ➲ Survey results

MONITORING ⟷ EVALUATION

Results	Impact
➲ What happened?	➲ Why did it happen or not happen?
➲ Accepts design as given	➲ Focus
➲ Focus	➲ Causality
➲ Efficiency	➲ Unplanned change
➲ Execution	➲ Net impact
➲ Compliance with procedures	➲ Causal relationship between outputs and objectives
➲ Achievement of outputs	
➲ Feedback	➲ Challenges design
➲ Replanning	➲ Replanning

Are we doing things the right way?   **Are we doing the right things?**

Tools for evaluation

➲ Participatory rapid appraisal (PRA) and other related tools: e.g., community profiling, mapping, interviews, sampling

➲ Quantitative tools: e.g., financial analysis, statistics

➲ Tools from anthropological traditions: e.g., participant observation

Our choice of evaluation tools depends on

➲ How much it complements the project (or program) philosophy and approach

➲ Perception of stakeholders as a way of addressing their needs/problems

➲ Involvement of end-users in data identification, gathering, analysis, and results

➲ Matching with capacity of stakeholders

➲ Adaptability to stakeholders' daily activities

➲ Capacity to provide timely information

➲ Reliability of results generated

➲ Consistency with complexity and cost of evaluation level (i.e. simple, comprehensive)

➲ Reinforcement of community solidarity

➲ Sensitivity to gender considerations

Sometimes, people confuse objectives with outputs!

EXERCISE

PROVERB: One can lead a horse to water, but one cannot make it drink.

Convert it into a project design. There are activities, outputs and results.

Translated into design

- ➲ A thirsty horse is the problem.
- ➲ The fountain, the rope, and the man are inputs.
- ➲ Leading the horse to the fountain is an activity.
- ➲ The horse should have drunk from the fountain is an output. The horse drinking from the fountain is an output.
- ➲ Addressing the thirst of the horse by letting it drink from the water fountain is an objective.
- ➲ To improve the health of horses is the purpose.
- ➲ A herd of happy horses is the overall goal.

The drinking behavior and the fountain are the outputs. Access to such fountain and benefits derived from such access (i.e., improved health of the horse) are the results.

PARTICIPATORY MONITORING AND EVALUATION (PME):
TRANSLATING THEORY INTO PRACTICE

Rainier Almazan

> *Participatory monitoring and evaluation (PME) adds the important element of "people's participation" to the monitoring and evaluation mix.*

PARTICIPATION

There are two major ideas when we talk about participation:
▷ *Whose Reality Counts?* (Robert Chambers, 1997)
- ➲ Starts with people's knowledge as basis for planning and change

▷ *Who Counts Reality?* (Marisol Estrella and John Gaventa)
- ➲ Raises questions of "who measures" and "who defines" the indicators and measurements—is it the researcher? or the people being observed?
- ➲ A follow-up to Chambers' book

Once again, the elephant...

Source: http://www.jainworld.com/literature/story25.htm
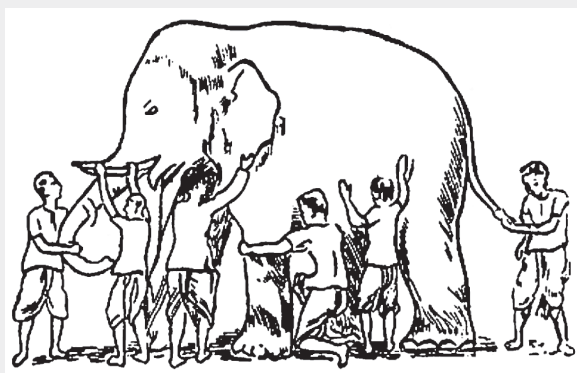
Eight blind men are debating on what an elephant looks like. To the one touching the ..., the elephant is a...
- ➲ Snout ... a snake
- ➲ Tusk ... a spear
- ➲ Ears ... fan
- ➲ Leg ... tree trunk
- ➲ Body... big wall
- ➲ Tail ... rope.

Everybody is actually telling the truth. (But they are only describing one aspect of the whole.)

That is the point of participation: when people participate, you are getting everyone's perceptions of reality. If we put together all the findings, then we will come up with a relatively accurate image of the elephant.

WHAT IS PARTICIPATION?

Participation is formally defined as: *"people's involvement in decision-making processes, their sharing in the benefits of development programs and their involvement in efforts to evaluate such programs"* (Cohen and Uphoff, 1977).

Participation is also:*"[T]he organized efforts to increase the control over resources and regulative institutions in given social situations, on the part of groups and movements of those hitherto excluded from such control"* (UNRISD).

Food for thought

These definitions talk about sharing—but actually they talk about benefits and never about risks. But risks should also be shared by the beneficiaries.

INCREASING INTEREST IN PME

On a global level, interest in PME is stimulated by the following:

- ➲ Performance-based accountability
- ➲ Management by objective (MBO) or management by results (MBR)
- ➲ Scarcity of development funds
- ➲ Demand for development success
- ➲ Movement towards decentralization and devolution
- ➲ New forms of oversight
- ➲ Improving capacity of NGOs and CBOs

But regardless of labels and definitions, PME's common feature is "participation"— "empowerment" of the "object" and "subject" of change, that is—the people concerned.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF PME?

PME is used for

- ➲ Assessing impact
- ➲ Project planning and management
- ➲ Organizational strengthening or institutional learning
- ➲ Understanding/negotiating stakeholder perspectives
- ➲ Increasing public accountability

CRITIQUES OF CONVENTIONAL M&E

- ➲ It tends to be costly and ineffective in assessing real project achievement. You have to buy expensive equipment or software, or tap consultants.
- ➲ It fails to involve project beneficiaries or the end user of the program
- ➲ Project evaluation becomes an "external specialist's playground" removed from beneficiaries' day-to-day reality.
- ➲ It becomes a donor-driven tool to control projects and developments.
- ➲ It emphasizes quantitative measures that are difficult to understand, especially for "ordinary" people.

BENEFITS/ADVANTAGES OF PME

PME…

- ➲ Enhances participation and involvement of beneficiaries and other stakeholders
- ➲ Improves stakeholders' understanding of the development process
- ➲ Increases the reliability of findings that are locally relevant
- ➲ Improves the sustainability of project implementation (as ownership of the project becomes localized)
- ➲ Increases local capacity for M&E ("ordinary" people become more adept at monitoring their own programs)
- ➲ Allows sharing of experiences through systematic documentation and analysis based on broad-based participation
- ➲ Strengthens people's negotiating position and accountability to donors
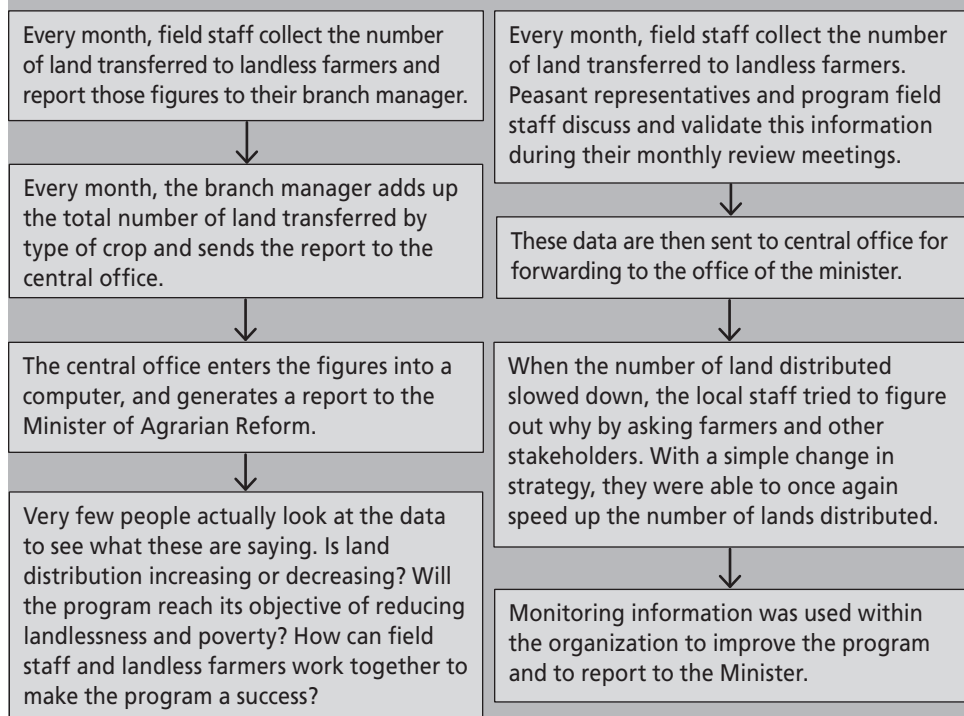- ➲ Allows more efficient allocation of resources

CONVENTIONAL M&E VS. PME

	CME	PME
WHO?	external experts	local people, the project staff and the facilitator
WHAT?	predetermined indicators	stakeholders define objectives and indicators
HOW?	scientific objectivity; standardized process; complex; limited access to results (results are not shared widely; sometimes only shared with donors, with project management, or the board of directors)	self-evaluation, simple methods, open sharing of results
WHEN?	upon project completion	more frequent, small scale evaluations
WHY?	accountability, summative, funding decision	empowers local people

Case 1—Land reform using CME

Every month, field staff collect the number of land transferred to landless farmers and report those figures to their branch manager.

↓

Every month, the branch manager adds up the total number of land transferred by type of crop and sends the report to the central office.

↓

The central office enters the figures into a computer, and generates a report to the Minister of Agrarian Reform.

↓

Very few people actually look at the data to see what these are saying. Is land distribution increasing or decreasing? Will the program reach its objective of reducing landlessness and poverty? How can field staff and landless farmers work together to make the program a success?

Case 2—Land reform using PME

Every month, field staff collect the number of land transferred to landless farmers. Peasant representatives and program field staff discuss and validate this information during their monthly review meetings.

↓

These data are then sent to central office for forwarding to the office of the minister.

↓

When the number of land distributed slowed down, the local staff tried to figure out why by asking farmers and other stakeholders. With a simple change in strategy, they were able to once again speed up the number of lands distributed.

↓

Monitoring information was used within the organization to improve the program and to report to the Minister.

Using PME, the farmers themselves are involved in the process, whereas CME is more indirect and controlled.

WHAT ARE THE COMMON PRINCIPLES FOR PME?

1. It promotes participation

2. It promotes self and group learning (awareness)

3. It promotes principled negotiation among stakeholders

**4.** It recognizes flexibility

Principle 1: Participation

▷ When you say participation, the first question is *M&E by whom?*

⤷ Who initiated and conducts the M&E? Is it going to be internally led (Will it be led by the project staff, by the farmers?) Are you going to hire external evaluators? Or will it be jointly led?

⤷ As a corollary: Will it be institution-based (e.g., ANGOC as the institutional anchor or mechanism) or community-based (e.g., a local organization of farmers who will conduct the evaluation)?

▷ The second question is: *Whose perspective?*

⤷ Whose perspective are you going to take in the monitoring and evaluation?

⤷ Which stakeholder is given importance?

⤷ In any land transfer program/ land monitoring program, the farmers are not the only main stakeholders; there are others, including the landowners, government. Everybody is a stakeholder. You need to define which stakeholder is given more importance in the PME. Is it the perspective of the farmers, the perspective of the agency who is conducting the PME, or the perspective of government?

⤷ The answer always depends on who is the end user of the information.

Levels of participation

THE PARTICIPATION CONTINUUM
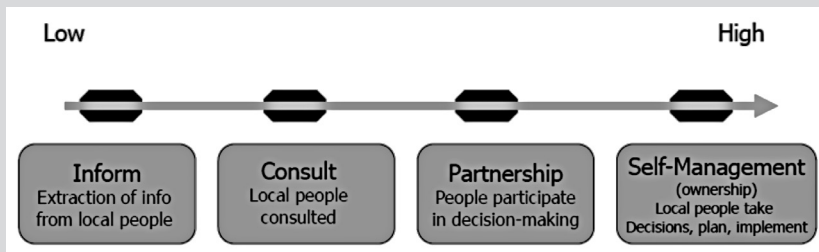
Source: World Bank (1976). The World Bank participation sourcebook.
Washington, DC: The World Bank.

- ➲ **Inform**—The lowest form of participation, it simply means informing people and extracting information from them.
- ➲ **Consult**—You consult local people, but it does not necessarily mean you will follow their recommendations.
- ➲ **Partnership**—You group together with the people concerned, and make decisions together.
- ➲ **Self-management**—In this highest form of participation, local people make the decisions and plans, and implement them. This is the most ideal situation.

Participation matrix

The participation matrix below can be used as tool by any NGO or community-based group planning to initiate projects such as participatory action research. Any research designer might want to determine what type of participation he or she wants to see from the people involved in the different stages of a research project.

Steps in the research cycle	Inform	Consult	Partnership	Self-Management
Problem identification		X	X	
Research planning and design		X		
Data collection proper		X	X	
Data analysis and interpretation		X	X	
Result dissemination			X	X

For example, if you plan to initiate a participatory research project, you might want to see that in the identification of the research topic or problem, the community must be consulted and should be a part in this crucial first step. After all, they will be the main beneficiaries of the study's findings. In the design stage, you will probably want to employ the consultative type of participation primarily because of the technical nature of the task at hand.

Ultimately, the level of participation will depend on the situation, your objectives, and the stage in the project cycle. Define the level of participation you want while undertaking monitoring work. What kind of work do you want them to do? Do you just want them to be informed? Or do you want them to be consulted? Do you want to partner with them? Or do you want them to run the whole show?

Some thoughts on participation

➲ Participation is easier said than done. It is easy when we're talking here, but implementation is very difficult. I have experienced doing it. Here, in my experience, when I identify problems, it is possible and relatively easy to do partnership with people. But the planning of the research is a bit difficult since designing requires technical skills. So we consult people and we inform them—but we cannot involve them at the partnership level because they cannot engage in design and other technical aspects. But sometimes they can do data collection, for as long as they can understand the design. In my experience, data management is already being done by the people themselves. In data analysis, we consult them. But in result dissemination, it is up to you.

➲ Participation requires money. For example, if data will be disseminated only in the community, you don't need money. But if you are going to present data in a public forum, then that will require money as you need to rent a venue. Even in data collection, even if they are volunteers, you will need to give them some amount of money for coffee, for transportation.

Principle 2: Self and group learning

▷ *How can you use PME to enhance people's learning?* The process
of PME should promote adult learning and awareness-building
based on liberation education framework.

▷ The question is whether to conduct the PME in a community or
institutional context.

Principle 3: Principled negotiation

▷ Development process involves everyone; therefore, M&E should
be multi-stakeholder.

  ➲ Because there are many stakeholders in the land transfer
  process, you can use the PME as a point of entry for the different
  stakeholders to negotiate with one another. It becomes a
  tool of communication and even conflict management.

▷ Negotiation is essential to develop trust and consensus among
stakeholders.

▷ However, this is easier said than done, because negotiation is a
"socio-political exercise"

▷ As a socio-political exercise, PME is affected by factors such as
power, equity and social change: *who creates and who controls
knowledge and its production?*

  ➲ e.g., If I am a landowner, I would be in a more powerful
  position than the farmer, because I am rich. You have to be
  conscious of that relationship in process and negotiation. If
  the relationship is not equal, then the negotiation will not
  be equal. Make sure that in negotiations between the farmer
  and the landowner or government, there is some leveraging
  that takes place.

▷ Depending on the balance of forces, a PME process can either
enfranchise or disenfranchise; empower or disempower.

▷ This becomes evident in the development or choice of project
objectives and indicators.

Principle 4: Flexibility

▷ Flexibility and experimentation are regarded as integral aspects of PME. When we talk about people's participation, remember that people are not predictable. Because people are unpredictable, you must allow for changes in designs if necessary—you have to be flexible. Listen to the feedback of the people.

▷ There is no blueprint or precise set of approaches.

THINK ABOUT IT

Unequal power relations

"Multi-stakeholder bodies are not always the benevolent force they purport to be, especially for indigenous peoples. There are stories of unequal power relations being extensively used to marginalize indigenous peoples. For instance, multi-sectoral bodies aim to engage indigenous peoples' governance of territories, but this has led to drastic results. Multi-stakeholder bodies only marginalize indigenous peoples; in reality, control and access of the land were never with the people. They will just sit there as exhibits rather than substantive partners of governance of territories."

CRITICAL ELEMENTS IN GENERATING DATA AND USING INDICATORS

Tim Bending

3 ways of gathering information

1.	Research
2.	Journalism
3.	Monitoring

These 3 ways serve different purposes. They gather different things, and can be complementary. For example, you might periodically report on a small number of indicators, but also carry out in-depth research to understand what the monitoring results mean. You can also communicate that information journalistically—why the issue matters—through film or other media.

WHAT IS MONITORING?

Monitoring means making a series of observations over time to assess compliance with, or the achievement of, certain standards or objectives.

WHAT IS AN INDICATOR?

- ⮊ A selected, pre-defined, measure of success (or failure)
- ⮊ Indicators are useful in assessing the achievement of pre-defined goals or ideas of progress.
- ⮊ Indicators come from program monitoring and evaluation. There's no point waiting for the end of a program before deciding what success looks like. For purposes of accountability, you have to define those in advance using indicators.
  - ⊙ e.g. MDGs—it was necessary to define indicators of success

WHAT IS AN INDICATOR? (con't.)

➲ Indicators are not always used in relation to specific goals.

⊙ e.g. the Human Development Index (HDI) uses existing data to define development progress in a different way; the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), which developed the HDI, sought to reject the idea that development success was based only on economic growth. The HDI has also served as an advocacy tool.

Do I need indicators?

Not all monitoring has to use indicators. Indicators are not always essential.

➲ ILC's Land Matrix, which collects data on large-scale land acquisitions and present these in graphs, tables, etc. They do not have land grabbing indicators per se or an index.

➲ A study on land conflicts in Indonesia could be a one-off study or an ongoing data gathering exercise using crowdsourcing—and this would be monitoring. Land conflict indicators are not necessary; rather, you can say these are the many conflicts. Identify them.

WHAT MAKES A GOOD INDICATOR? WHAT MAKES A GOOD DATA SOURCE?

Considerations of **relevance**

➲ Does it have anything to do with what you want to assess?

➲ Does it reflect all aspects of what you want to assess? Or would you need multiple indicators to get a better overview?

➲ Does it reflect other things that you don't want to assess? Is the result going to be affected by things you're not interested in which can make interpretation difficult?

➲ Is the timing relevant/is it up-to-date?

➲ Is the information sufficiently disaggregated (e.g. gender)?

Practical considerations

- ➲ Are data available? (and how much does it take to get hold of that data?)
- ➲ Are data collectible? (how much work will that involve?)
- ➲ Is the range of selected indicators manageable? (We may have a long list, but is that manageable?)

Design considerations

- ➲ Can you make the desired comparisons (over space/time)?
- ➲ Is it precisely defined? (i.e., are any 2 people going to use the indicator and interpret it in the same way)?
- ➲ Do indicators triangulate/cross-check?
- ➲ Can everyone understand it?

Process considerations

- ➲ Participatory or top-down?
- ➲ Reflects dominant voices or marginalized?
- ➲ Who owns the selection of indicators/information sources?
- ➲ Is indicator selection an empowering process?

The way we develop indicators can be valuable in itself. Defining what is success or failure, what problems need to be addressed; this process can be empowering for people.

USING EXISTING INFORMATION SOURCES

Examples: Official statistics and government records, published and unpublished research, media reports, company reports, records held by CSOs, etc.

What we need to know

- ➲ Is it relevant?
- ➲ Is it disaggregated by gender?
- ➲ Is it up-to-date?

What we need to know (con't.)

- ⮑ Is it comparable?
- ⮑ Is it biased?
- ⮑ How available is it?
- ⮑ Who owns the data?

Food for thought

- ⮑ Initiatives often over-estimate the availability of *useful* data. The data are out there (available)—yes, but how much can really be used?
- ⮑ Are they surveying mostly men? Are they looking only at easy-to-reach places? Who decides what gets reported in media? We have to think about how available data really are. *Even finding out what data there are can be time-consuming.* Sometimes you need political capital to get data.
- ⮑ An organization might put a lot of work in generating data, but you have to be careful. If you're using just government data, the public may not trust the data. The question remains—whether people really feel ownership over data.

How do we know if it's biased?—Assessing data

"When we are looking at a data source, we cannot assume it is unbiased, nor can we take it at face value. Instead, we try and find out about the methodology used to produce that data. We ask: Where did it come from? Who surveyed? Who was involved? What types of media? We can try and identify areas of bias and we take that into account.

The problem with data collection is that it is also subject to bias; we must take that into account. What's being reported in media, what's not? Don't overstate, don't add interpretation, and identify the source of information.

GETTING NEW DATA

How: Surveys, surveys of experts, CSO records, satellite imagery, crowd-sourcing, action-research, etc.

Disadvantages	Advantages
➲ Cost, time	➲ You define what is measured.
➲ Need expertise	➲ The value of new information.
➲ Value of data only as good as your methodology	➲ Allowing the "other side of the story" to be told.
➲ The "credibility issue" for CSOs: convincing others your methodology is sound, unbiased, and representative may be difficult.	

However, despite these disadvantages, collecting new data can be powerful and valuable. At the end of the day, if we are completely reliant on data other stakeholders are collecting, it limits what we can do and say. Often, the information we feel we need is simply not collected and the only way it can enter the public sphere is for someone to go out and try and collect it in some way. If we only use existing data, what's new? New data are something no one else has—this becomes the reason why people can notice our initiative. **#**

POLICY ANALYSIS

We do not do research for its own sake. We study specific situations in order to influence changes in the bigger system. We study how people and communities are affected by the rules and norms of institutions, which are probably more influential and powerful than us. The exercise of power has implications on our lives and the lives of poor people.

AFTER DOING RESEARCH, WHAT?

" The point is not (only) to interpret the world but to change it. "
Marx

The common problem of NGOs is that after the work is finished, after the deadlines have been met, and after the report is out, we think the work is done. But we have to *communicate* that report.

The common mistake is we do not know *where* to bring our research. When we do research, we try to understand the situation better and try to see things from other perspectives. We try to take the perspective of poor people and try to understand why they act in a certain way.

However, our advocacies may influence our views. For example, we may romanticize the poor—thinking all poor people are honest, even though some of them may be dishonest.

Research is important for NGOs because it should help us examine our own organizations and evaluate whether we are doing the right things the right way. We may be pulled in certain directions because of donor pressures—but our research should tell us whether we are moving in the right direction. We want to influence the bigger picture, multiply the effectiveness of our work, and advocate for more funding and policy. Through research, we can plan to expand the scope and influence of our work, despite our size and limited resources.

What is policy?

Policy provides direction for decisions and actions.
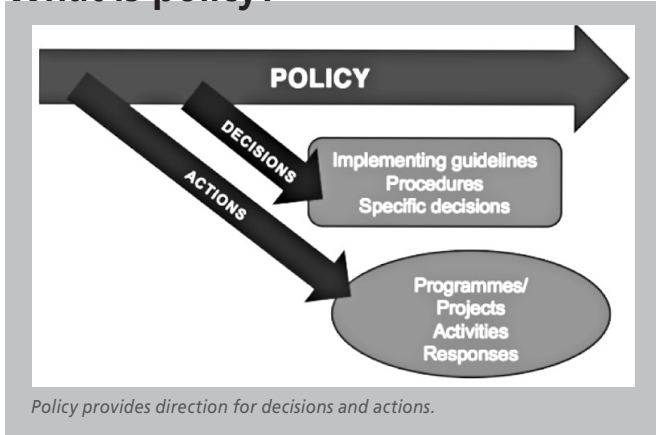
Policy provides the direction for decisions made or actions taken, especially within government (see figure).

However, it can be difficult to determine just what policy is. Policy is not just what is written. Some policies are unwritten—they are more of a "practice" or the way things have been done for a long time. For example, the British constitution, is usually described as "unwritten," as it is not a single written document, in contrast to that of many other countries.

It is also difficult to determine what policy is because people may say one thing, but then do something else. One definition of policy is that it is what organizations say they will do—but what we are more interested in is what they *actually* do (Pasteur, 2001).

Policy is like, again, the proverbial elephant: you only know it when

The blind men and the elephant

It's a fan! It's a wall! It's a rope!

It's a spear!

It's a snake! It's a tree trunk!
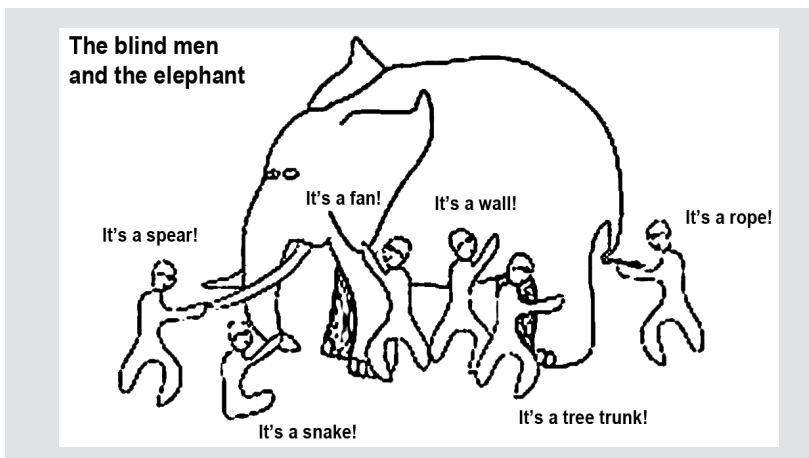
POLICY PROCESSES

Policy is not static—it keeps moving and changing. Even how people make decisions may change. The ways people make decisions change. Therefore, when we look at policy, we have to understand policy *processes.*

Policy processes can refer to the processes of making policies and decision-making—processes that shape the way issues are thought and talked about, as well as the way by which issues are put on the agenda.

It can also refer to the processes of defining problems or goals, coming up with policy solutions or choices, and implementing these. That is, policy processes are not just about producing statements or declarations, but also about implementation and review.

GROWING COMPLEXITY IN POLICY PROCESSES TODAY

In today's context, policy processes are growing more complex, with policy processes on land issues being no exception. Let's take a few examples:

▷ **Globalization**

Decisions are increasingly taken by outside forces, and their impacts are increasingly externalized. Capital flows all over the world, but people cannot move in the same way i.e., free flow of goods and capital.

▷ **Rise of institutions that are faceless and more complex**

It is very difficult to pinpoint accountability and responsibility with corporations. Accountability is less direct; there are more layers of decision-making and more complex relationships.

▷ **From landlord–tenant to investment relationships**

In the past, relationships were simple, such as tenant vs. landlord. You could bring the tenant to talk to the landlord. However, today, relationships are more complex in structure, accordingly making policy processes more complex. *What are the implications on policy processes when decisions are increasingly externalized?*

For example, a Thai corporation is investing in Cambodia. Who is the decision maker? Whom do you talk to? How do you access the decision-maker? Land grabbing reflects the same concerns. If you trace the roots of land grabbing, who is responsible? Curiously, many land grabs are financed by hedge funds from developed countries. Hedge funds come from people's retirement funds, among others. If you run after the investors, are you running after these people? It presents a dilemma. Hedge funds come from savings with people's best intentions, but they were used for land acquisition. Who do you run after? Where would the policy be directed at? Policy processes are increasingly confronted with the challenge of establishing accountability.

Nonetheless, new opportunities are provided by:

⮒ decentralization in some countries

⮒ new communications technologies

⮒ new norms of citizenship and civil society.

POLICY PROCESSES ARE POLITICAL

Changing or influencing policy is a political process. Policies can include or exclude the interests and perspectives of poor people. For example, reforms in land policy involve changing power relations. Different stakeholders have different agenda for the same policy. Policy processes tend to be controlled or managed by the ruling elites, who are often landed. To enhance the poor's ownership and control of land, NGOs lobby for reforms. The agenda and process of how you engage policy will depend on your position and level of influence.

What is important is that while you have an advocacy, you must still present **sound** evidence.

POLICY ANALYSIS

Policy analysis is part of the overall policy process
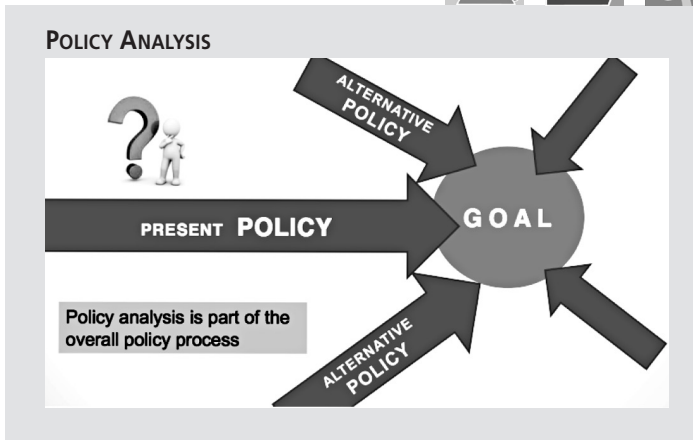
WHAT IS POLICY ANALYSIS?

Policy analysis is *"determining which of the various **alternative** policies will most achieve a given set of goals in light of the relations between the policies and the goals"*.
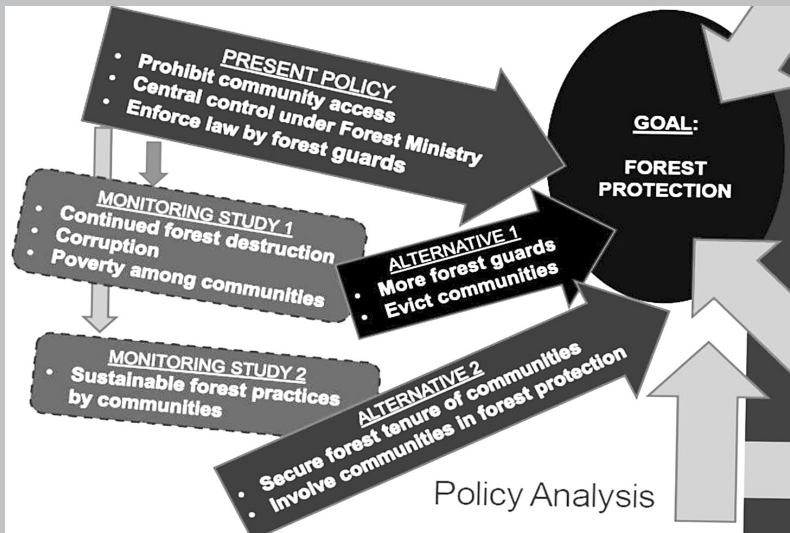
Take for instance two studies monitoring a forest policy stipulating the prohibition of community access, central control under the forest ministry and the enforcement of the law by forest guards. What the policy aims to ultimately achieve is forest protection. On one hand, Monitoring Study 1 might look into continued forest destruction and corruption, and may propose more forest guards and the eviction of communities (Alternative 1). On the other hand, Monitoring Study 2 looks at sustainable forest practices by communities and its alternative (Alternative 2) is securing forest tenure of communities and community involvement in forest protection.

TYPES OF POLICY ANALYSIS

Analysis of policy

▷ **Example:** Analysis of a proposed National Land Use Act

▷ **Nature:** analytical and descriptive

▷ **Tools:** impact analysis, feasibility study, gap analysis, cost-benefit analysis, etc

Analysis **of** policy is a policy-focused analysis. You study an existing policy in terms of gaps, guidelines, international instruments, etc.

Analysis for policy

▷ **Example:** Using local community-based forest management (CBFM) experiences to influence forest reform

▷ **Nature:** prescriptive, includes "policy reform"; examines potential alternatives

▷ **Tools:** case study reviews, stakeholder analysis, livelihood analysis

Analysis **for** policy is a people-focused analysis. It is directed towards policy change.

METHODS AND TOOLS FOR ANALYZING POLICY AND POLICY PROCESSES

A range of methods and tools to help analyze policy and policy processes (see table below) is available to us.

METHODS AND TOOLS FOR ANALYZING POLICY AND POLICY PROCESSES

Policy processes and actors	**Stakeholder analysis,** network mapping (see figure, next page), key informant interviews
	Semi-structured interviews, preference rankings, **problem tree analysis**
Livelihood strategies	
Social capital	**Power analysis,** social maps, institutional analysis
Policy priorities	Visioning, **force-field analysis**
Policy context	Timeline review (review of how policies have evolved)
Policy statements	Document analysis, gap analysis
Institutions and organizations	Institutional analysis, social maps, power analysis, network mapping

Source: Pasteur (2002), as cited in IFAD SL Workshop "Approaches & Methods for Institutional Analysis", 2003.

EXAMPLE OF A NETWORK MAP
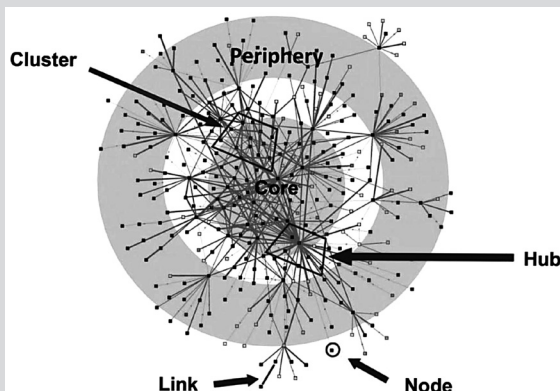
When you do network mapping, you can identify important clusters or players. You can identify hubs and see the links and nodes.

There are not many network maps that exist globally covering all the institutions working on land. Linking the system in terms of respective roles and responsibilities on the land issue would add value to the work we do on land rights advocacy.

Image from wiser.org (blog.wiser.org/network-mapping) as taken from the Monitor Institute.

THE PURPOSE OF POLICY ANALYSIS FROM A CSO PERSPECTIVE

We CSOs do policy analysis because we are looking for change beyond incremental improvement or "reformist reforms" –we hope to effect more structural and permanent social change. We want to change not only the specific situation, but more importantly, we want to change the rules of the game—a shift from A to B—aided by research and policy analysis.

To illustrate, we want to:

- ⊃ Stop destructive policies (mining, logging, evictions)
- ⊃ Introduce protective measures (Free, Prior and Informed Consent [FPIC], impact assessments)
- ⊃ Introduce new policy for its direct effects
- ⊃ Reform existing policy (land and resource reforms)
- ⊃ Transformative reforms (land and resource reforms; governance reforms)
- ⊃ Ensure implementation of policies
- ⊃ Scale up local action (community-based resource protection and management)
- ⊃ Gain legitimacy (entitlements)
- ⊃ Recognize rights (indigenous peoples' domains)

When we look at our success in terms of influencing a policy process, and how our research continues to feed into it, there are small levels of success. The following table provides one example.

LEVELS OF ACTIVIST SUCCESS IN A POLICY PROCESS

Levels of success	Indicators of government policy change
1. Access to an institution	Activists testify in a Congressional hearing
2. Agenda setting in an institution	A congress member introduces a bill that includes progressive measures
3. Policy change in an institution	Congress enacts legislation with the progressive measure
4. Desired output from the institution	The legislation is enforced
5. Desired impact achieved	The legislation is enforced enough that it has intended consequences
6. Reform of the institution	People elect a more progressive Congress that is inclined to enact progressive policies

Source: Schutt, Randy (2001). Inciting Democracy: A Practical Proposal for Creating a Good Society, *p140.*

Policy work does not end when the policy has been written. Policy analysis entails ensuring its implementation. Hence, monitoring the implementation of policies is critical. Our analyses should be backed up by solid evidence, gathered through rigorous research. The box below provides some questions in designing research that will inform our advocacy. Remember that policy analysis is not a mere "add-on" *after* research. Again, we do policy analysis in the hope that we can ultimately effect meaningful, structural change.

Designing research for policy: guide questions

- ➲ What is the context of the policy under question?
- ➲ What is the content or provision of the policy?
- ➲ What does the advocacy want? What changes does it expect?
- ➲ What is the range of choices or options for the advocates?
- ➲ What are the terms of negotiation? What terms are negotiable and what terms are not?
- ➲ What strategies are possible and realistic?
- ➲ How do strategies connect the advocacy issue at the national and local levels and where applicable, at the international levels?
- ➲ What materials (e.g., case studies) are needed to support the argument and the proposal?

Source: Co, Edna (1999). Beating the Drums: Advocacy for Policy Reform in the Philippines.

METHODS FOR POLICY ANALYSIS

Tony Quizon

> In this section, we present four useful methods and tools for conducting policy analysis: stakeholder analysis, force field analysis, problem tree analysis, and power analysis.

STAKEHOLDER ANALYSIS IN POLICY

Stakeholder analysis is "the process of identifying individuals or groups that are likely to affect or be affected by a proposed action, and sorting them according to their impact on the action and the impact the action will have on them" (Wikipedia, n.d.).

HOW IS IT USED?

"Stakeholder power analysis is a tool which helps understanding of how people affect policies and institutions, and how policies and institutions affect people. It is particularly useful in identifying the winners and losers and in highlighting the challenges that need to be faced to change behavior, develop capabilities and tackle inequalities" (IIED, 2005).

Additionally, stakeholder analysis may also be done as part of policy research, and as part of multi-stakeholder processes—namely dialogue and negotiation.

STEPS

1 Clearly state the issue, concern, or proposal

2 Identify the stakeholders

3 Analyze their roles, interests, relative power and capacity to participate (or 4Rs)

4 Map out the stakeholders in a matrix according to their interest and level of power or influence

5 Assign actions to take for each square in the quadrant.

STEPS IN STAKEHOLDER ANALYSIS
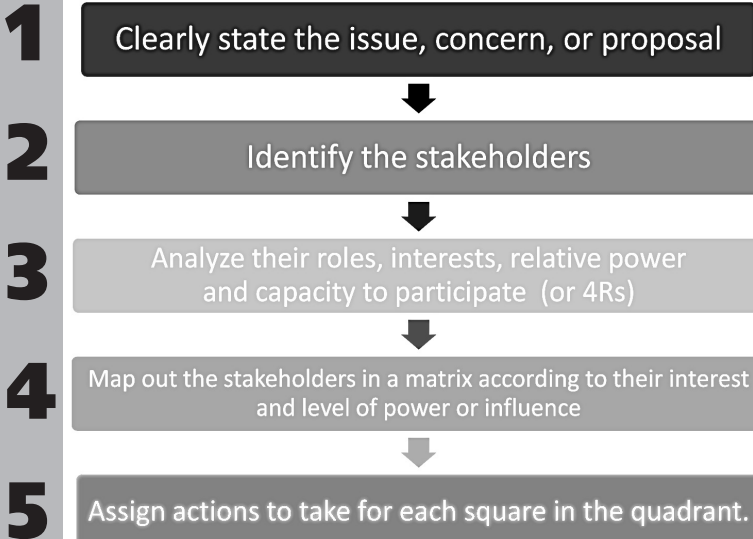
1. Stating the issue

Clearly state what the issue, concern, or proposal is. Remember that your stakeholder analysis is contextual, and is likely to change depending on the issue you select. This means that there is no "one size fits all" stakeholder analysis.

2. Identifying stakeholders

Once you have identified the core problem, it is time to identify the stakeholders. Stakeholders are the actors—the individuals, groups, or institutions—that have an interest in the issue. Depending on the degree to which they are affected, they may be classified as primary, secondary, or tertiary (usually institutional stakeholders). They can be the beneficiaries, victims, financiers, or instigators. Stakeholders can also be at the local, district, national, or international levels.

Start identifying stakeholders by asking around—looking into stakeholders in specific land issues. You should describe how you are going to do this in your research design.

The figure below shows guide questions in identifying primary, secondary, and tertiary stakeholders.

> Once you have identified the core issue, you can identify the stakeholders by asking whose livelihoods are directly affected (primary stakeholders), those whose livelihoods are indirectly affected (secondary stakeholders), and those who exert influence or have an interest in the core issue (tertiary stakeholders).
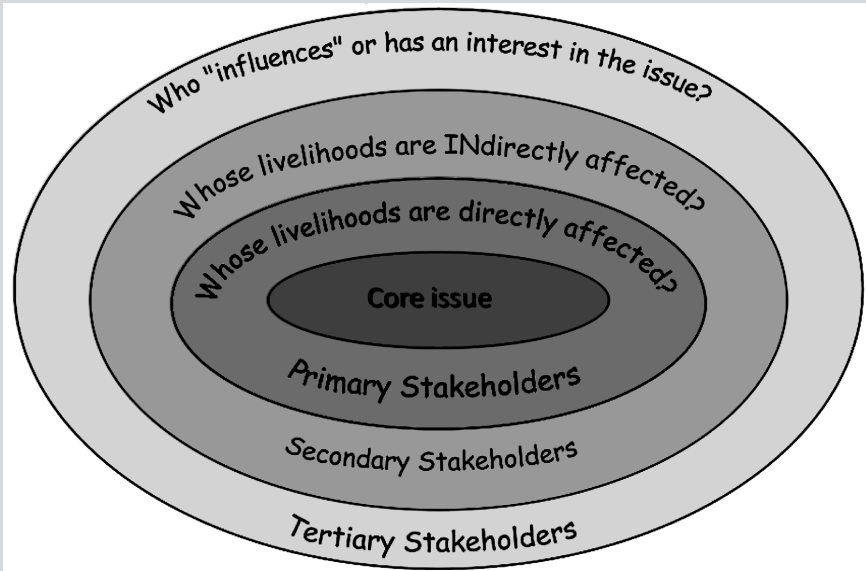
Source: International Fund for Agricultural Development. Approaches and Methods for Institutional Analysis (PPT).

3. Analyzing roles, interests, power, and capacity

We recommend using the 4Rs tool in stakeholder analysis (see table below). The 4Rs—namely rights, rewards and benefits, responsibility, and relationships—bring to light important considerations, from recognizing just how stakeholders are affected, to seeing the various *roles* they play.

THE 4 RS IN ANALYZING THE ROLES OF STAKEHOLDERS

| Rights	What are their rights?
Rewards and benefits	Who pays? Who benefits?
Responsibility	What is their responsibility or role with regard to the issue?
Relationships	How are they related to the issue? How close or how far?

4. Map out stakeholders in a matrix

The next step is to map out stakeholders in a 4 x 4 matrix (4 rows by 4 columns) according to their level of interest (low or high) and their degree of power or influence (weak/low or strong) on the issue. What is the nature of their interests? What are their interests in the proposed change? Do they have a high potential interest from the proposed policy or change? What about their degree of influence? Are they considered as powerful groups? Note that some groups may have very high interest, but no power over an issue.

Stakeholders can be assigned into one of four quadrants. The four quadrants are: high interest–weak influence; low interest–low influence; high interest–strong influence; and low interest–strong influence.

STAKEHOLDER MAPPING MATRIX

The level of interest (y-axis) moves from low to high, while the level of power or influence moves from low to high (x-axis), to create a 4 x 4 matrix of stakeholder interest vis-a-vis their influence. There are four combinations: high interest, weak influence; low interest, low influence; high interest, strong influence; and low interest, strong influence.

Level of Interest	High interest Weak influence	High interest Strong influence
	Low interest Low influence	Low interest Strong influence

Level of Power or Influence (Low ← → High)
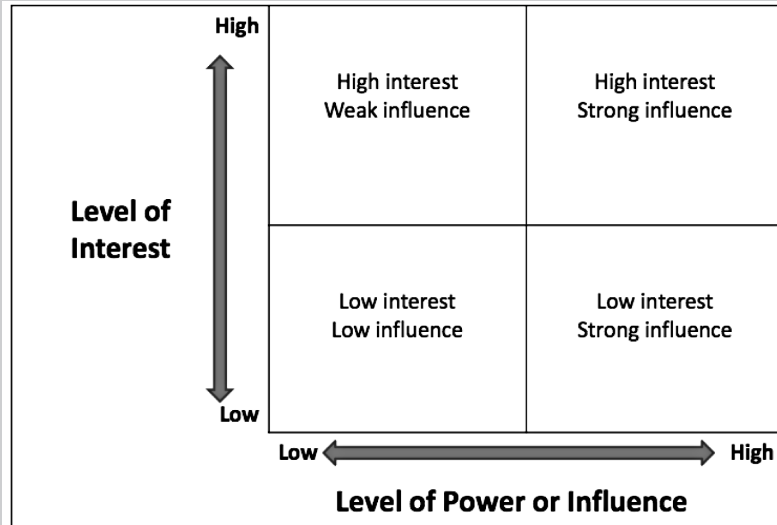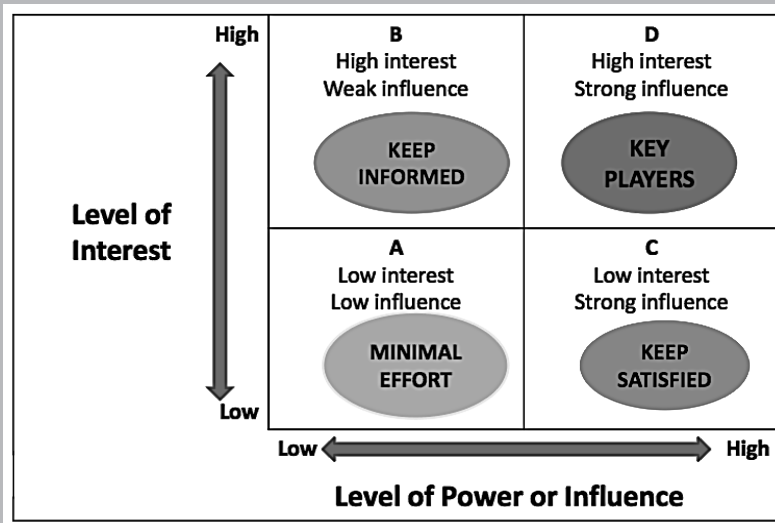
Source: Gardner, 1986

5. Assign actions for each square in the quadrant

Now that you have mapped out stakeholders and assigned them into one of four squares in the 4 x 4 matrix, you can proceed with determining actions or responses for each set of combinations of interest and power or influence. Gardner (1986) prescribes certain corresponding actions for each quadrant, as shown in the following figure.

POWER/INTEREST STAKEHOLDERS MATRIX

Each quadrant has a corresponding response.

		B High interest Weak influence KEEP INFORMED	**D** High interest Strong influence KEY PLAYERS
Level of Interest		**A** Low interest Low influence MINIMAL EFFORT	**C** Low interest Strong influence KEEP SATISFIED

Level of Power or Influence (Low → High)

Source: Gardner, 1986

Essentially, those in Quadrant D are the **key players** who have both a *strong influence* and *high interest*—you must therefore **focus your efforts and attention on them.** If the *influence is high,* but the *interest remains low* (Quadrant C), then the course of action to take is to **keep these stakeholders satisfied.** If the *interest is high,* but *influence is weak* (Quadrant B), it will serve you well to **keep them informed** (especially if you have a campaign). Lastly, for stakeholders who have a *low interest* as well as *low influence,* it is advisable for you to **keep efforts to a minimum.**

Example 1
STAKEHOLDERS IN FOREST POLICY REFORM

To illustrate stakeholder analysis, the figure below identifies the different stakeholders in forestry policy reform.

STAKEHOLDERS IN FOREST POLICY REFORM

On the left side are stakeholders who are likely to support forest policy reform that gives local communities greater access to forest resources. On the right side are stakeholders who are likely to resist forest policy reform.
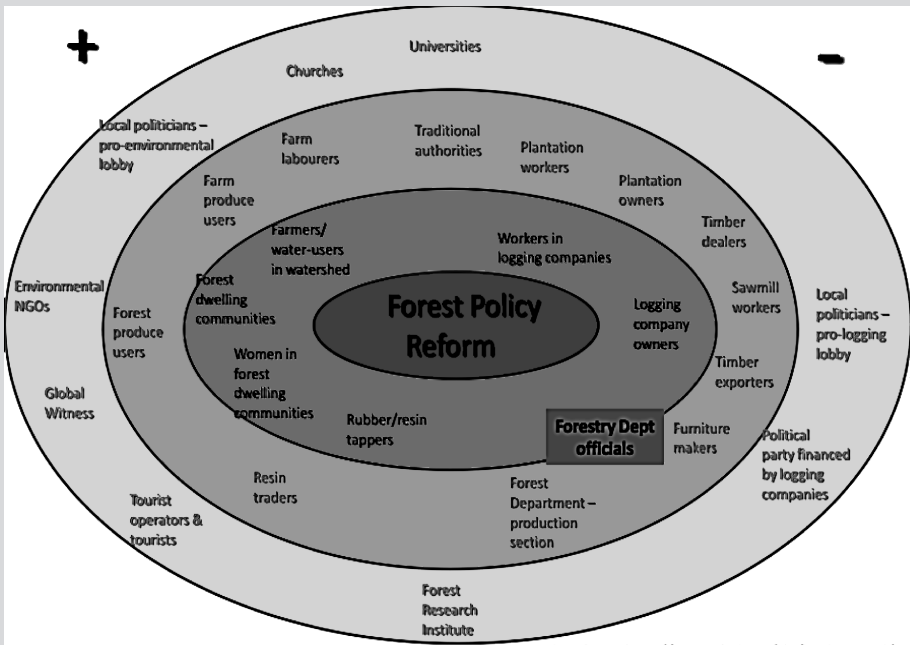
Source: International Fund for Agricultural Development. Approaches and Methods for Institutional Analysis (PPT).

Based on this figure, *primary* stakeholders are farmers, water users in the watershed, forest-dwelling communities, women in the forest-dwelling communities, resin and rubber tappers. If there is forest policy reform, which leads to more access, they will be in support of the policy. Workers in the logging and mining companies and logging company owners will constitute primary stakeholders against the policy.

Secondary stakeholders in the forest area include resin traders, forest produce users, farm produce users, farm laborers, traditional authorities, while plantation workers and owners, timber dealers, etc. are secondary stakeholders living outside the forest area.

At the *tertiary* level can be found universities, forest research institutes, churches, local politicians and the pro-environmental lobby, environmental NGOs, tourist operators, etc.

The following table contains a stakeholder analysis. As stakeholder maps will vary depending on your needs, note that instead of our simplified 4 x 4 matrix, there are two new columns: potential impact of policy and the importance of group. In addition, it is possible to evaluate the level of interest, or the importance of a group, as "medium" (besides "low" and "high").

STAKEHOLDER ANALYSIS IN FORESTRY POLICY REFORM

Stakeholder group	Nature of interest in policy decision	Potential impact of policy	Relative importance of interest	Importance of group	Influence (power) of group
PRIMARY					
Women in forest dweller communities	Improved food security	High	High	High	Low
Resin tappers (male)	Sustained income	High	High	High	Low
SECONDARY					
Forestry Department officials	Institutional responsibility + income	High	High	High	High
TERTIARY					
Environmental NGOs	Protection of forest biodiversity + funding from overseas donors	Medium—High	Medium	Medium	Low

Socio-political Structures in Land Reform in Capiz, Philippines
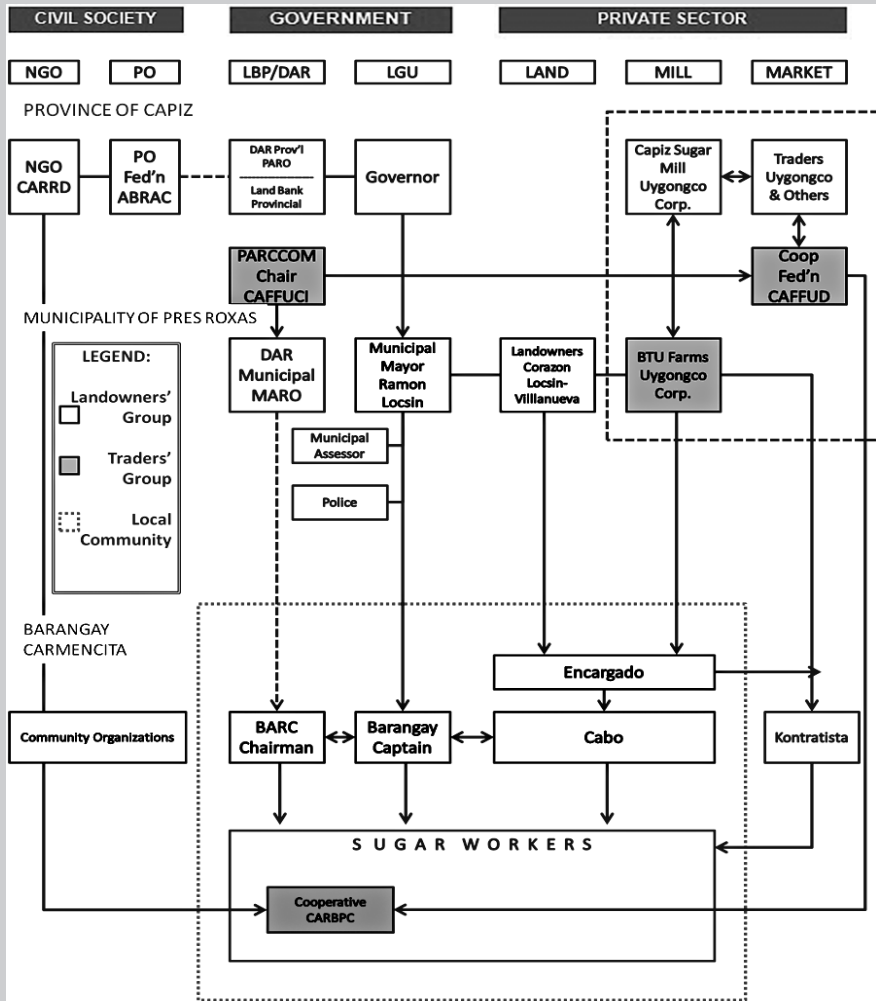
Source: Tony Quizon, CARRD, 2001.

Example 2
STAKEHOLDERS IN LAND REFORM IMPLEMENTATION

Example 2 is borrowed from the Center for Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (CARRD) and its work on land reform policy implementation in the municipality of President Roxas, Capiz, Philippines. The figure above presents the socio-political structures in land reform—

classifying them as civil society (NGO, people's organization), government (local government unit, Department of Agrarian Reform, Land Bank of the Philippines), and private sector (landowners, traders, and local communities). This example of social mapping in one town shows a complex web of power relations. It shows that the local mayor is also the landowner, and controls the leadership of the local farmers' organization. In terms of interest in land reform implementation, the social mapping shows landlords and encargados (supervisors of the plantation who are also farmers). You can also see the split between different farmer groups. The local Department of Agrarian Reform (DAR) is rather on the side of the landlord. Moneylenders, fertilizer traders are all on the side of the landlord. But looking at the bigger picture, in terms of the national policy, you find the NGO CARRD and other agrarian reform supporters.

The figure below shows the primary, secondary, and tertiary stakeholders in land reform implementation.

PRIMARY, SECONDARY, AND TERTIARY STAKEHOLDERS IN LAND REFORM IMPLEMENTATION IN HACIENDA CARMENCITA, CAPIZ, PHILIPPINES (2001)
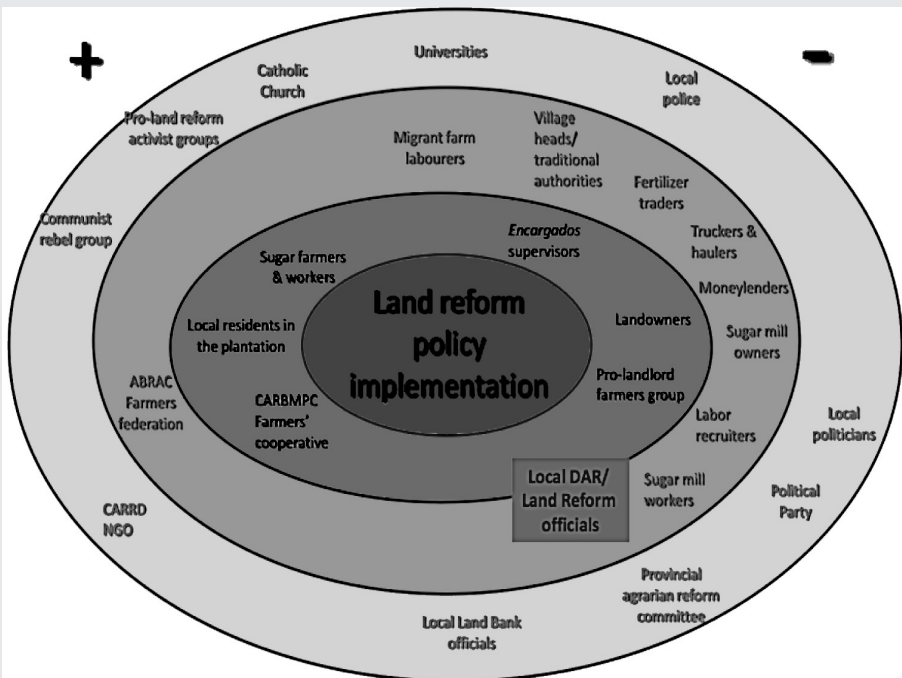
Source: Tony Quizon, 2012.

After this exercise, CARRD proceeded with analyzing these stakeholders by determining their level of interest (high or low), and the level of power or influence (low or high, weak or strong). To illustrate, the landlords' level of interest is high and the degree of power they exercise is likewise high. In contrast, a local people's organization would have a high interest but weak influence. Sugar farm workers have low-level power, whereas government officials have a high degree of power.

STAKEHOLDER ANALYSIS FOR HACIENDA CARMENCITA, CAPIZ, PHILIPPINES

Stakeholder group	Nature of interest in policy decision	Potential impact of policy	Relative importance of interest	Importance of group	Influence (power) of group
PRIMARY					
Sugarworkers	Food security	High	High	High	Low
Migrant workers	Work & income	High	High	High	Low
SECONDARY					
Local land reform department officials	Institutional responsibility + income	High	High	High	High
TERTIARY					
CARRD NGO		Medium—High	Medium	Medium	Low

EXERCISE

Identify a key issue you face in land reform monitoring. List the stakeholders involved. Analyze their interests.

Sources

International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD). Approaches and methods for institutional analysis (PPT). Retrieved from **http://www.ifad.org/sla/background/**

International Institute for Environment and Development. (March 2005). Stakeholder power analysis. Retrieved May 2013 from **http://www.policy-powertools.org/Tools/Understanding/docs/stakeholder_power_tool_english.pdf**

Quizon, Antonio and Arostique, Anthony (2000). Collective Farming in Hacienda Carmencita, President Roxas, Capiz Province. Quezon City: Center for Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (CARRD).

Stakeholder analysis (n.d.). In Wikipedia. Retrieved May 4, 2013, from **http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stakeholder_analysis**

Learn more

The International Institute for Environment and Development has an excellent online resource called *Power tools: for policy influence in natural resource management.* Though no longer updated, the site remains and is accessible on:
http://www.policy-powertools.org/index.html
You can find articles on stakeholder influence mapping, stakeholder power analysis, and the Four Rs.

FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

Force Field Analysis was developed by Kurt Lewin in the 1940s. Lewin originally used the tool in his work as a social psychologist. He did pioneering work in group dynamics. Today, however, Force Field Analysis is also used in business, such as in making and communicating "go/no-go" decisions.

Force field analysis is a **decision-making** tool that helps us analyze the factors—people, resources, attitudes, traditions, regulations, values, needs, desires, etc.—found in complex problems. It also helps us analyze the forces for or against a plan or proposed action.

As a tool, it frames problems in terms of factors or pressures that support the status quo (restraining forces) and those pressures that support change in the desired direction (driving forces). The figure below shows the force field template.

FORCE FIELD TEMPLATE

| DRIVING FORCES | Vision, plan goal | RESTRAINING FORCES |
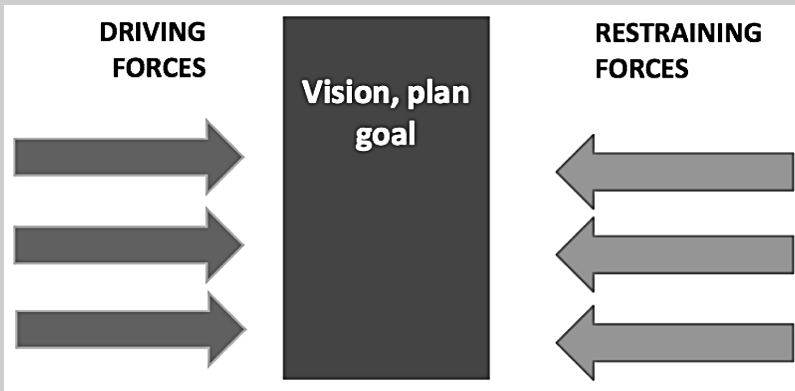
In the middle, write your vision or plan. Driving forces are the forces that push your vision or plan forward. Restraining forces are obstacles preventing you from reaching your plan or goal. The driving forces must exceed the restraining forces for the desired change to occur.

Moreover, force field analysis is an **action-planning** tool. By identifying factors that need to be addressed and monitored for change to be successful, it serves as a tool for managing change. It also helps

us identify the forces that need to be strengthened or increased, and those that need to be reduced or controlled.
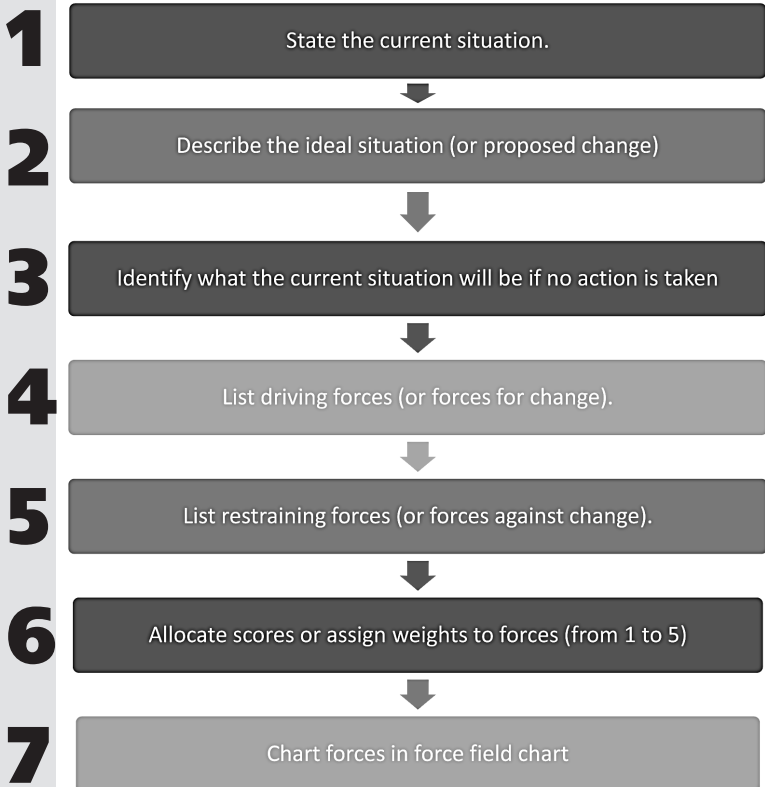
In contrast with stakeholder analysis, force field analysis does not only look at actors, but also at the forces involved.

In the case of land reform, the push or driving forces may be farmers wanting land, whereas the restraining factors may be landlords refusing to yield control over their land. But farmers—owing to fear or a culture

STEPS IN FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

To undertake a force field analysis, there are a few simple steps to follow (see figure below). The important thing is to identify the forces for change and against change and be able to put a value to these forces.

STEPS IN FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

1 State the current situation.

2 Describe the ideal situation (or proposed change)

3 Identify what the current situation will be if no action is taken

4 List driving forces (or forces for change).

5 List restraining forces (or forces against change).

6 Allocate scores or assign weights to forces (from 1 to 5)

7 Chart forces in force field chart

The following figure provides an example of force field analysis. The positive and negative forces are given corresponding weights (between 1 to 5). In this example, the forces for change outweigh the forces against change.
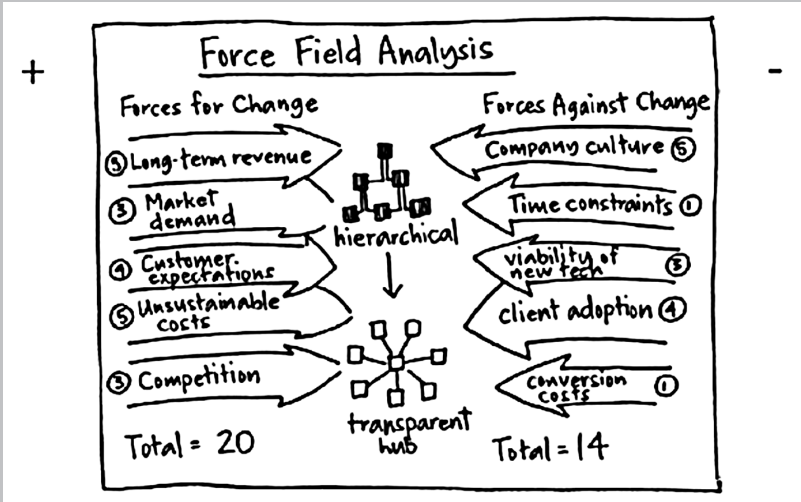
This is a force field analysis of a company's proposal to change the structure of its sales force from a hierarchical to a transparent hub system. Positive or driving forces are: long-term revenue, market demand, customer expectations, unsustainable costs, and competition. Negative or restraining forces are: company culture, time constraints, viability of new technology, client adoption, and conversion costs.

Source: Taken from Gray D., Brown S., and Macanufo S. (2010). Games Torming: A Playbook for Innovators, Rulemakers, and Changemakers. USA: O' Reilly Media , Inc.

ACTIONS FOR CHANGE

Once you have charted the driving and restraining forces and their corresponding weights, you will have to make a decision on what to do. There are two options for change: either you strengthen the driving forces or you reduce the intensity of restraining forces.

According to Kurt Lewin, the **better choice** is to reduce the intensity of restraining forces. Why? Because increasing the strength of the driving force will only lead to an increase in the intensity of restraining forces. **#**

GROUP EXERCISE

Situation

You are the national government. There are 50 illegal farmer families in a forest area, who remain in poverty and continue to destroy the forest through slash-and-burn farming. An NGO is working to organize the community. Many local officials complain that NGOs are creating trouble. Government has limited funds.

Plan

Invite the XYZ Company to take over and transform part of the degraded land (200 hectares) into a plantation, so that the families will have regular jobs and better incomes, and forest destruction by farmers will be reduced or stopped.

## Proposal

Set up a 200-hectare XYZ Company plantation.

Instruction

Identify the stakeholders and make a force field analysis. Discuss possible courses of action for the government.

PROBLEM TREE ANALYSIS[1]

A problem tree is a tool used to identify the main problems and establish cause and effect relationships between problems. The key purpose of a problem tree analysis is to ensure the identification of "root causes" and address them in project planning including design, rather than focusing only on the symptoms of the problem(s).

A PROBLEM TREE
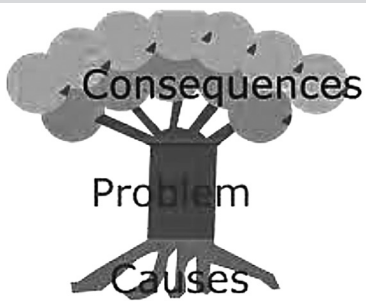
A common mistake is thinking that a cause is actually an effect. For example, we say people are poor *because* they have no money. But not having money is not the *cause* of poverty—in fact it is the *effect* of poverty. If you fail to distinguish between cause and effect, your analysis will be flawed.

Problem trees are simplified but fairly accurate representations of reality. In a problem tree, the core problem is in the

A PROBLEM TREE AS APPLIED TO AQUACULTURE

Source: AusAID

_____
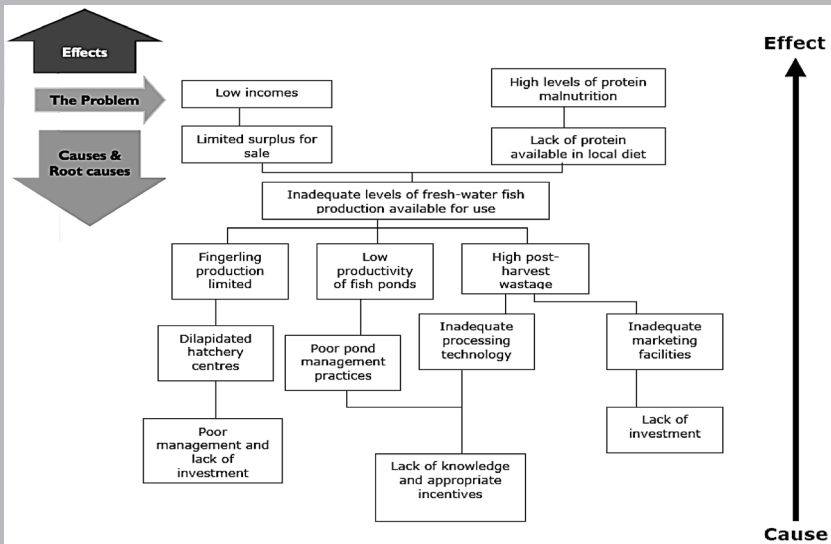
[1]   Reference: Almazan, Rainier. PROJECT MANAGEMENT: Logical Framework Approach

middle. In the figure below, the problem tree represents an aquaculture project, whose core issue is inadequate levels of freshwater fish production. What are the root causes of inadequate fish production? This may be because of limited supply of fingerlings, low productivity, and wastage of harvest. But if you dig deeper, you will get at the root causes. Production is limited, for example, because centers for hatchery are dilapidated or broken down. Dig a little deeper, and you will arrive at a root cause, that is, poor management and lack of investment. Exploring why there is low productivity, we reason that this is because of poor pond management practices. If we look deeper into the chain of causation, we will get to the root causes, which are the lack of knowledge and incentives for the workers.

Move up the problem tree, and you will see the effects. For instance, one of the effects of inadequate levels of freshwater fish production is limited surplus.

You also find—if this is the problem—inadequate freshwater fish. You find effects. You have limited surplus, therefore limited incomes. Also nutrition-wise, there's lack of protein, leading to high levels of protein malnutrition.

PREPARATORY STEPS

➲ **Define scope of investigation.** What are we really trying to solve? Poverty? Injustice? Lack of income? Poor health? The more specific you are—the more specific your actions.

➲ **Inform yourself further.** Once you have identified a problem, try to learn more about the situation. Why are people landless? Why do people not earn enough income from their land? Is it because they're not using the land? Or perhaps someone else is using it? Maybe someone controls the input, or maybe it's poorly managed. You can find the root causes. The better you identify the problem, the better you identify the causes.

➲ **Identify relevant stakeholder groups.** Problem tree analysis is best done with a group of 25 participants at the most. You can't just do it alone, sitting in front of a computer. This is part of a stakeholder analysis—the process is as important as the product! **If time permits, use this exercise with**

PREPARATORY STEPS (con't.)

> **different stakeholders to test differences in perspectives and priorities.** If you ask a group of women about a problem and you ask a group of men about the same problem—there's a good chance that when they look at the causes, their perspectives will be similar but still different.

> ⟳ **Conduct analysis**

GROUP EXERCISE

Identified issue

Many NGO researches are just gathering dust, and are not used.

Instruction

Transform the Problem Tree into an Objective Tree!

OBJECTIVE TREE ANALYSIS

In workshops, people tend to be overloaded with problems—what do we do? Once you have identified your problem tree, how do you transform it into a planning or objective tree?

An objective tree analysis is an analytical tool to formulate appropriate objectives at all levels and define their relationships in terms of means and ends. If the problem tree shows the **cause and effect** relationship between problems, the objective tree shows the **means–end** relationship between objectives.

Before you can make your objective tree analysis, you need to have already made your prerequisite: problem tree and stakeholder analysis.

Initial steps

> ⟳ In its simplest form, the objective tree uses exactly the same structure as the problem tree, but with **problem statements (negatives) turned into objective statements (positives).**
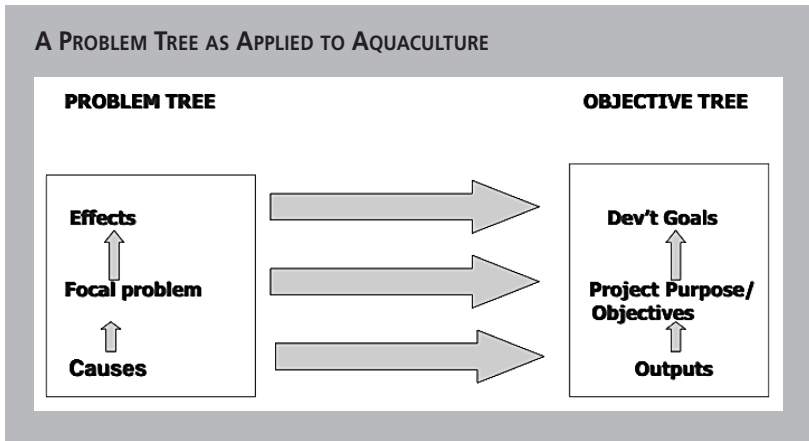
➲ The results of the stakeholder analysis may help **provide better focus on priority problems** and not all of the original problem statements may therefore need to be translated into objective statements.

What is the relationship between the problem tree and the objective tree?

Effects become development goals. The problem is translated as the project purpose. Causes are transformed into outputs. See the figure below.

A PROBLEM TREE AS APPLIED TO AQUACULTURE

PROBLEM TREE		OBJECTIVE TREE
Effects	⟹	Dev't Goals
↑		↑
Focal problem	⟹	Project Purpose/Objectives
↑		↑
Causes	⟹	Outputs

Doing an objective tree analysis

Using the example in aquaculture that we used earlier for our problem tree analysis, we will do an objective tree analysis. We will transform the problem of inadequate levels of fresh water fish into an objective.

If there are adequate levels of freshwater fish production, what is the objective? You can start with "adequate levels of freshwater fish production" but you will really have to be more specific. What exactly is the adequate level? For example, 50 kg of freshwater fish production available per day is reasonably adequate. That then can become your objective. You simply do not copy the problem and reword it. Instead, you put measurable targets in your objective statement.

All of the effects of this problem become your goals. Why do you want to produce 50 kg per day—to improve incomes by 100 baht per family, for instance. High levels of malnutrition were an effect of this problem—your goal will then be to reduce infant and child malnutrition by x% or increase the weight of children by 30% so it becomes measurable.

Outputs therefore are meant to reach the objective. This is where you look at proper management. What are your specific outputs? If the workers are training in proper management—what kind of skills need to be developed? What are the specific incentives? Increase the pay by x% or improve the working conditions. Hopefully, a correct analysis in determining your outputs will lead to your objective that will contribute to your goals.

Remember you have to be clear in your analysis, because when you plan, it must address the way you analyze. Sometimes we confuse objectives with outputs, with means (with funding, personnel, investments).

TRANSLATING A PROBLEM TREE INTO AN OBJECTIVE TREE
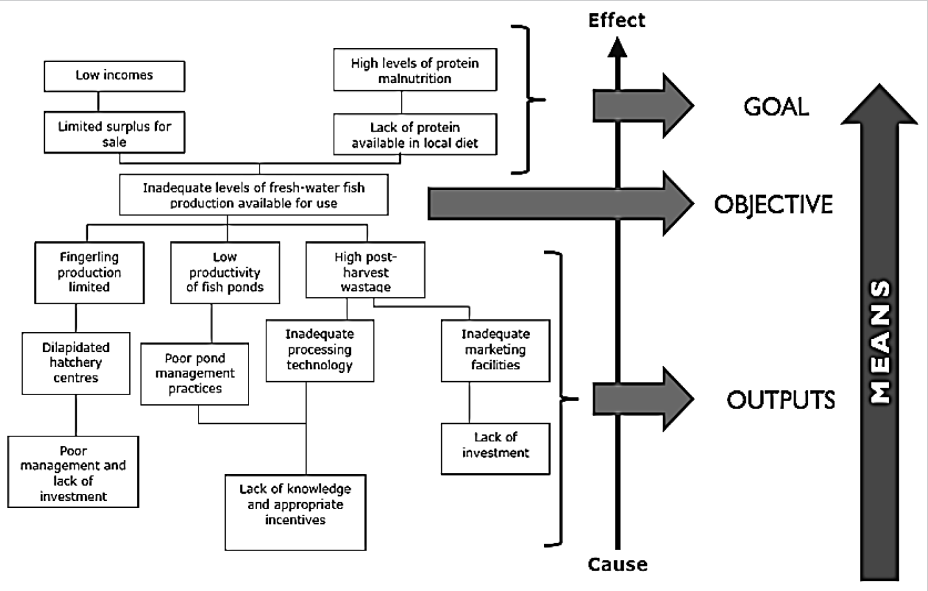
Source: AusAID

Questions to ask while doing an objective tree analysis

➲ Are the statements clear and unambiguous?

➲ Are the links between each statement logical and reasonable? (Will the achievement of one help support the attainment of another?)

➲ Is there a need to add any other positive actions and/or statements? More details may be required.

➲ Do the risks achieving the objectives and also having sustainable outcomes appear to be manageable?

➲ Are the positive actions at one level sufficient to lead to the results desired?

➲ Is the overall structure simple and clear? Simplify if possible or necessary.

Defining Strategic Options

Questions to ask:

➲ Should all of the identified problems and/or objectives be tackled, or just a selected few?

➲ What is the combination of interventions that is most likely to bring about the desired results and promote sustainability of benefits?

➲ What are the likely capital and recurrent cost implications of different possible interventions, and what can be realistically afforded?

➲ Which strategy will best support gender equality, international labor standards promotion, environment protection?

➲ Which strategy will most effectively support institutional strengthening objectives?

➲ How can negative impacts on gender equality, international labor standards or environment be best mitigated?

Common criteria (alternative analysis)

➲ Benefits to target groups—equity and participation

➲ Sustainability of benefits

➲ Compatibility with local culture

➲ Total cost and recurrent cost implications

➲ Financial and economic viability

➲ Technical feasibility

➲ Contribution to institutional strengthening and management capacity building

➲ Environmental impact

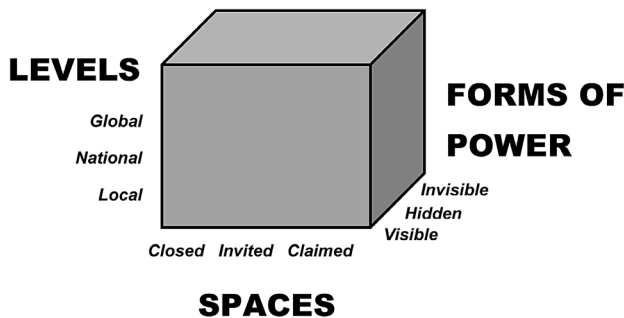➲ Compliance to labor standards

➲ Gender equity

POWER ANALYSIS

Power analysis is about understanding power relations in order to effect social change. This section introduces readers to the Power Cube, comprising forms, spaces, and levels of power, which many development workers find practical. The information in this section is taken from powercube.net, developed by the Participation, Power, and Social Change team at the Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex. It is also based on previous work by some activist intellectuals.

WHAT IS POWER ANALYSIS?

Power analysis is about identifying and exploring the multiple power dimensions that affect a given situation, so as to better understand the different factors that interact to reinforce poverty. It is also analysis for change.

FACES OF POWER

THE "POWER CUBE": LAND, SPACES, AND FORMS OF POWER

LEVELS

Global
National
Local

FORMS OF POWER

Invisible
Hidden
Visible

Closed   Invited   Claimed

SPACES

1. Levels of power

➲ household

➲ local

➲ national

➲ global

2. Spaces

Power is acted out in different spaces.

➲ **Closed:** decisions made by closed groups (e.g. boards, governments, corporations)

Not everyone can just come in. But within those closed spaces there are other closed spaces of power.

➲ **Invited:** people asked to participate but within set boundaries

You may be invited to a meeting, but you cannot vote. It may be a small victory, yes, but it is not your space.

➲ **Created:** less powerful actors claim a space where they can set their own agenda

Created space can be exemplified by physical space—such as when people take over the land, or when you can say that a particular space is yours. It can also be a venue for discussion—public hearings, forums on the internet.

3. Forms

Power takes different forms.

➲ **Visible:** observable decision-making mechanisms

This form of power can refer to the process by which government enacts law, process by which people claim spaces.

➲ **Hidden:** shaping or influencing the political agenda behind the scenes

The hidden "power of resistance" manifests in various ways. For instance, indigenous peoples have hidden power, because they are able to maintain their way of life despite external pressures. People also exert their power through resistance in ways that may appear to be against the law. Squatting is an everyday form of resistance. Vending on the sidewalk may be illegal but poor people claim that space through their hidden power.

➲ **Invisible:** norms and beliefs, socialization, ideology

Some invisible forms of power come from within, can be positive or negative , can be religious, etc.

KEY QUESTIONS TO ASK WHILE DOING A POWER ANALYSIS[1]

➲ **WHO? Actors, Organizations, Institutions**

Whose voice is trying to be heard? Who is directly helping these voices to be heard? With indirect support from whom? To be heard by whom?

➲ **WHERE? Context, Levels, Spaces**

In what context? At what levels are voices trying to be heard? In what kinds of "spaces" are voices trying to be heard? (e.g. formal/closed, invited, created/claimed from below)

➲ **WHAT? Sectors, Issues, Power**

Which aspects of poverty and marginalization are being addressed? What change are groups and partners trying to affect? Which kinds of power relations are relevant to the right to be heard? (e.g. visible, hidden, invisible/internalized). What are the gender dimensions of these power relations?

➲ **HOW? Strategies, Methods, Models**

What strategic approaches are used to respond to issues? What is the logic behind the choice of partners, allies and actors? What are the models of change and understandings of power relations?

FOUR EXPRESSIONS OF POWER[2]

There are four expressions of power:

1. **Power over: dominance**
2. **Power with: collaboration**
3. **Power to: constructive**
4. **Power within: inner power**

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[1]   Taken from Oxfam's Quick Guide to Power Analysis, which is available on the PowerCute website. Retrieved from: **http://www.powercube.net/wp-content/uploads/2009/11/quick_guide_to_power_analysis_external_final.pdf**

[2]   The section on expressions of power is taken from Lisa VeneKlasen and Valeries Miller's A New Weave of Power (2002, p.55), as cited in **powercube.net**

1. Power over

Typical examples of this expression of power include dominance, repression, force, and coercion. *Power over i*nvolves taking power from someone else, and then using it to dominate and prevent others from gaining it. In politics, those who control resources and decision-making have power over those without.

People tend to repeat the *power over* pattern in their personal relationships, communities and institutions. When marginalized or powerless groups gain power in leadership positions, they may sometimes "imitate the oppressor" and dominate over the others.

We tend to look at power only in its negative form—that is, *power over* or *dominance.* Yet other positive forms of power exist—*power with, power to,* and *power within.*

When a landlord treats his tenants as if they were puppets, and does not hear their voices, he exerts his power over *them.*

2. Power with

Power with is about finding common ground among different interests and building collective strength. Based on mutual support, solidarity and collaboration, *power with* multiplies individual talents and knowledge.

They say if people march or move together—*power with*—is enough. No. We have to reach the *power to* and the *power within.*

The Philippine community spirit of bayanihan— *of helping each other—is an example of* power with.

3. Power to

Power to refers to the unique potential of every person to shape his or her life and the world.

4. Power within

Having *power within* means having a sense of self-worth and self-knowledge. *Power within* is the capacity to imagine and hope.

We have lots of power but may not know it! We have the power to reach our dreams and cast our nets wide (not just to catch fish!). We also have the power within to know what we can do and hope for. In fact, many grassroots efforts use individual storytelling and reflection to help people affirm personal worth and recognize their power to and power with.

Reflections from Ekta Parishad's Jansatyagraha 2012 (non-violent foot march)

Poverty is power. Only the poor can walk barefoot on the road. They can sleep with one meal a day. They can turn their weakness around—into power.

Sources

Illustrations are borrowed with permission from the Center for Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (CARRD). 1993. Sulong Magsasaka! Isang Manual para sa mga Organisador. Quezon City: CARRD.

Powercube.net is the go–to site for information and tools on power analysis. The following are available on Powercube:

- ⮑ Oxfam. Quick Guide to Power Analysis. Retrieved from: **http://www.powercube.net/wp-content/uploads/ 2009/11/quick_guide_to_power_analysis_external_ final.pdf**
- ⮑ VeneKlasen, L. & Miller, V. (2002) New Weave of Power, as cited in powercube.net. Retrieved from: **http://www. powercube.net/other-forms-of-power/expressions- of-power/**

Learn more

Pantazidou, M. (2012). What next for power analysis: A review of recent experiences with the powercube and related frameworks. IDS Working Paper, Volume 2012, No 400. Retrieved from: **http:// www.ids.ac.uk/files/dmfile/Wp400.pdf**

MAKING A LITERATURE REVIEW

Rainier Almazan

A literature review is a fundamental step in doing any research. This article explains what a literature review is, and provides some guidelines on how to do one.

WHAT IS A LITERATURE REVIEW?

A literature review is both an *activity* and a *written product.* It is an activity because you need to read materials about the phenomenon—in our case land issues—and review them. And after reading everything you need to learn about land reform, you need to convert your research into a written document.

Moreover, it puts current research efforts into perspective. It serves as a foundation for consolidating existing knowledge about the problem, and suggests appropriate ways to expand what is already known.

A literature review is extremely important *before* you start collecting data. It will prevent you from just reinventing the wheel—as well as studying something someone else has already studied.

To avoid that, you need to:

- ⮩ Learn about history, origin, scope of the problem
- ⮩ Learn about methodologies used successfully to study related research questions
- ⮩ Learn what answers already exist for general research questions
- ⮩ Identify variables and indicators that need to be measured and learn what methods are already available to measure them
- ⮩ Decide the best way to acquire data
- ⮩ Refine research questions and propose answers to them in the form of hypotheses
- ⮩ Select appropriate statistical analyses to be used

And *after* you collect data, you need a literature review to:

- ➲ Attempt to explain differences between current findings and existing knowledge
- ➲ Identify ways in which current findings are consistent with and support existing knowledge
- ➲ Specify how current findings advance knowledge
- ➲ Develop theories and formulate hypotheses
- ➲ Help identify areas where further research is needed—and where action is needed.

WHERE CAN I FIND LITERATURE SOURCES?

- ➲ Academic journals
- ➲ Books
- ➲ Theses and dissertations
- ➲ Government documents
- ➲ Private sources (non-profit organizations or for-profit organizations): annual reports, business reports, project/program documents
- ➲ Newspapers and magazines
- ➲ *Reliable* internet sources (remember that not everything you see and read on the internet is reliable!)
- ➲ Photos, videos, audio materials

HOW DO I KNOW IF A LITERATURE REVIEW IS ADEQUATE?

- ➲ Reasonable number of references: usually 15–20.
  You don't need 100 references. But of course, *if* you are industrious and have the time, you can go beyond the 20.
- ➲ The literature you should be studying should be recent—with the exception of classic literature.

What is recent? The materials should be within 10 years from the time the study is conducted. For example, if you are going to conduct research on land reform today, then the materials that need to be studied should be those materials published within the past 10 years. However, the classics, such as the works of Max Weber or Karl Marx, whose ideas are still valid today, are important references that can and should be read regardless of era.

➲ Does it focus on research topic?

➲ Does it describe differing viewpoints?

It is important you do not just do a review of literature that supports only your premise or your views. Some people only review materials that support their own position, which is not the correct way of doing research. You need to study both what is against and what is for your ideas or your hypothesis.

➲ Does it describe the methods used?

PLAN YOUR SEARCH

One of the most common weaknesses of students is *the failure to plan their search.* They go to the library without any clear plan. Then they get overwhelmed by the amount of literature available in the library and on the internet—and do not finish their work.

You must plan accordingly:

➲ Decide on the type of review, its extensiveness, and the types of materials to include.

➲ Key: systematic and organized

➲ Set parameters:

⊙ Schedule. How much time do you really have? As activists, we are engaged in research, and many other activities. We are all busy, so our research must be clearly time-bound.

⊙ Minimum number of literature/materials to review.

PLAN YOUR SEARCH (con't.)

- ⊙ Scope. How many libraries or knowledge centers you will visit, etc. This will also depend on your schedule and financial resources.

- ➲ Decide how to record bibliographic citation for each reference and how to take notes, e.g. notebook, 3x5 card, computer file.

MAKING A LITERATURE REVIEW

- ➲ Critically review each article in terms of key concepts, findings and/or methodologies and viewpoints stressed

- ➲ Summarize and compare the articles with one another. Note similarities and differences—and the bases for these differences.

- ➲ Make bibliographic notes [Figure 1]. This will make things easier for you when you begin writing up your research.

- ➲ Prioritize articles according to their direct connection to your research topic.

- ➲ Integrate the various articles into one review article, which will form the core of your Review of Literature.

EXAMPLES OF NOTES ON AN ARTICLE—FULL CITATION ON A BIBLIOGRAPHIC CARD AND A NOTE CARD

FULL CITATION ON BIBLIOGRAPHY CARD

Pierce, John C., M. N. Steger, N. P. Lovrich. P. S. Steef, 1988. "Public Information on Acid Rain in Canada and the United States." Social Science Quarterly 96:193–202.

NOTE CARD

Pierce et al. 1988

TOPICS Factors that shape people's knowledge about public issues. Acid Rain, Self-interest. U.S. and Canada.

Based on a prior study, the researchers note that education alone does not lead to knowledge about a public policy issue. Knowledge can be based on characteristics of the individual (e.g. gender, income, education), which works in general regardless of a specific policy, or on motivation due to the relevance of a policy for individual self-son's motivation to acquire information. They locked at one policy, acid rain, and asked: Does motivation affect knowledge in different settings—Canadian culture, which is more collectivistic and where people are the victims of U.S. policy and the individualistic U.S. culture?

Hypotheses   People acquire knowledge about a public issue when they perceive it affecting their self-interest.

Method The authors mailed questionnaires to samples of 1,000 people living in Michigan and 1,000 in Ontario. A little over hall were completed and returned. They measured knowledge about the issue in four ways. They also looked at motivational variables. Including general characteristics and the personal sensitivity of relevance of the issue.

Findings Using statistics and percentaged tables, they found that motivational factors (e.g., personal sensitivity and relevance) led to greater knowledge of the acid rain issue than general characteristics, although both had some effect. Motivation or personal relevance was stronger in Canada, where the national context heightened sensitivity.

> The first part is a full citation on a bibliography card; while the second part is about the content of the article: summary, hypothesis, method, and findings. Don't make life difficult for yourself—adopt the good practice of making bibliographic notes.
>
> The sample bibliographic card and note card were taken from:
> Neuman, W.L. (2003) Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Qualitative Approaches. USA: Allyn & Bacon, Incorporated.

RESEARCH FOR SOCIAL CHANGE:
OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH AND DESIGN

Rainier Almazan

This article presents a very simple and easy-to-understand introduction to the different categories of research, as well as how to begin designing your research.

TYPES OF RESEARCH

1.   BASIC   vs.   APPLIED

⮑ Driven by researcher interests	⮑ Driven by organizational/community interests
⮑ Unrelated to immediate practical issues/concerns	⮑ Closely related to immediate practical issues/concerns

In our case, we are doing applied research, as our research is driven by the land rights agenda. Our research is or will be practically applicable to our present work. Basic researchers will not be concerned with practical purposes per se.

2.   QUALITATIVE   vs.   QUANTITATIVE

⮑ Stresses inductive logic	⮑ Stresses use of deductive (linear) logic towards a conclusion
⮑ Seeks to understand human experience from the perspective of those who experience them	⮑ Careful measurement of variables
⮑ It emphasizes words like subjective, relative, or contextual	⮑ Relatively large, representative case samples
⮑ Data collection is less structured and standardized	⮑ Control of other variables through randomization or other methods
⮑ Sample representativeness of a population is not a major concern	⮑ Standardized data collection methods
	⮑ Statistical analyses of data

Data collection for qualitative research is less standardized. Your sample does not have to be representative or random. For as long as your sample population meets certain criteria, they can be interviewed. Whereas for quantitative research, you will need to use standard questionnaires and random sampling. You will use statistical tools for analyses.

One strength of *quantitative research,* especially if you use it correctly and use random selection, is that you can actually project the conclusions onto the whole population. You can draw generalizations about the behavior of a particular population based on a small sample.

For example, a group that studies electoral behavior in a certain electorate can project with some accuracy whom the people will vote for president if the election is held now. In contrast, the power of *qualitative research* is that it allows you to study something in greater depth. Rather than simple yes or no questions, you can probe. However, you can only make conclusions about the behavior of your interviewees, you cannot project them onto the larger population.

Qualitative and quantitative methods for research are usually presented as an either-or debate. There are certainly researchers who believe the qualitative approach is superior to the quantitative approach, just as there are some who suggest that quantitative methods are better than their qualitative counterparts. In reality, the approaches are not only *complementary,* but are also often two sides of the same coin.

Data collected, presented, and analyzed in a quantitative manner are not by nature any more reliable than qualitative information. The assumptions and biases of the researcher inform both types of research, with one type often convertible to the other. Moreover, all quantitative data are based on qualitative judgments; and all qualitative data can be described and manipulated numerically.

But it does not have to be either-or. Quantitative and qualitative methods can go together, strengthening each other. If you have the resources, do both.

3.   EXPLORATORY   VS.   EXPLANATORY

⮞ Small sample of participants	⮞ Larger samples of participants
⮞ Usually not concerned with representativeness	⮞ Concerned with representativeness
⮞ Data collection uses flexible instruments with qualitative properties	⮞ Instruments are typically quantitative
	⮞ Meets standards of validity and reliability

We use exploratory research to learn more about a particular subject. It can also serve as a preliminary activity to explanatory research— where we seek to find out even more about the topic so as to explain and draw conclusions.

STEPS IN RESEARCH

1. **Choosing the question.**

   This is usually the most difficult part. We would need to work backwards—reviewing past studies about the question or topic, before defining the question.

2. **Designing the research methods.**

   Designing the research method is both art and science. It is science because you need to follow certain protocols for your research to become valid, while it is art because it requires practice. Note that each country has its own systems for collecting data, so it is difficult to compare one dataset with a dataset from another country. For example, various definitions exist for your indicators. Those classified as "landless" in Bangladesh may not be considered "landless" in Nepal. Or they may be called "land poor". To produce comparable data, we must gather data using the same methods.

3. **Collecting the data**

   The first question is: What data are available? What data do we need to generate ourselves? How much work would

this entail? Who should get it—staff, external consultants, student volunteers or the people themselves? For example, in terms of the people to gather data—your decision will affect the kind of data collected. External consultants may generate good data, but may be very expensive to hire. Student volunteers will be relatively affordable, but may come at the expense of data quality.

4. Analyzing and interpreting data

This is a tricky step unless you are careful. Many researchers have different perspectives on how to view the data collected. It pays to be sensitive to one's perspective or philosophy when interpreting data.

5. Reporting the results

Since we are doing research as a public service, in order to change the world, we have to disseminate that information and present it in a way that the public understands.

STEPS IN THE RESEARCH PROCESS

RESEARCH PROCESS

- Define Problem/Choose Topic
- Focus Research Question
- Data Collection Method
- Collect Data
- Analyze Data
- Interpret Data
- Disseminate Findings
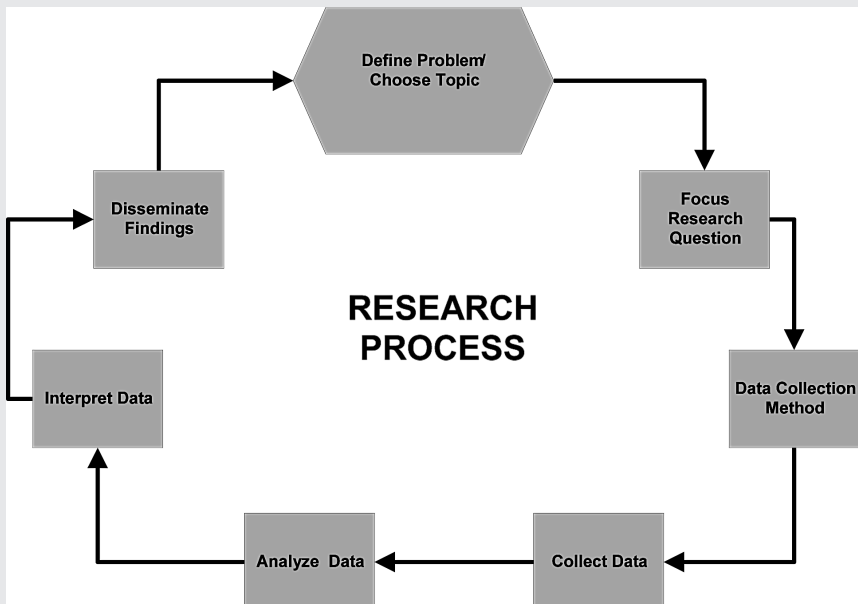
When you follow these steps, you are making a research design! Making a research design has similarities with a plan of intervention worked out by a community organizer, or an agriculturist doing field work. Remember that before you do field work, you prepare by coming up with a plan. *A research design is a plan.* It describes how, what, when, why the data will be collected.

Here are some questions you specifically need to ask as you do your research:

- ➲ Where and when should the research be conducted?
- ➲ What data should be collected?
- ➲ From whom or what can the data be best obtained (sources)?
- ➲ How should data be collected?
- ➲ What variables will need to be measured?
- ➲ How should they be measured?
- ➲ What other variables, if any, need to be controlled, and how should this be accomplished?
- ➲ How should the data collected be organized and analyzed?
- ➲ How should research findings be disseminated?
- ➲ How much funds do we need to perform the research? How should the funding be allocated?

Don't forget that *the more data you want, the more expensive the research becomes.* Each dataset you need has a corresponding monetary value. You cannot simply get all the data out there. Therefore, you must choose wisely which data you want to get.

Finally, in determining what kind of research is needed, the following questions can guide you as you go about designing your research.

- ➲ What are the goals and desired outcomes of the project?
- ➲ What are the activities needed to achieve those goals and outcomes?
- ➲ What information is needed along the way, at various points in the project cycle, to support those activities?
- ➲ How can that information be best obtained?

This is easier said than done. You must really sit down and think about how to go about the plan, how to carry on your research effectively and efficiently so you won't waste time, money, and people's resources. **#**

QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Rainier V. Almazan

Recall the differences between qualitative and quantitative research in **"Research for Social Change: Overview of Research and Design"** (see previous chapter). The two types of research are different in terms of logic (inductive vs. deductive), data collection methods, and focus. The table below highlights other differences between quantitative and qualitative research.

Quantitative vs. Qualitative Research

Quantitative research	Qualitative research
Starts with test hypothesis	Captures and discovers meaning from data
Concepts are in form of variables	Concepts are in form of themes, motifs, generalizations and taxonomies
Defines and uses measurements	Measures created in ad hoc manner and often specific to individual setting
Data are numerical based on measurement	Data are in form of words: documents, observations, transcripts
Theory is largely causal and deductive	Theory can be causal or non-causal and often inductive
Procedures are standard and replicable	Research procedures are particular and replication is rare
Data analysis—statistics	Analysis proceeds by extracting themes or generalizations from evidence and organizing data to present coherent picture

Qualitative research takes on a non-positivist perspective. Such a perspective relies on both interpretative and critical approaches.

Interpretative approach is concerned with studying how ordinary people manage their practical affairs in everyday life or how they get things done. It is also concerned with people's interactions. Plain observation, participant observation, interviewing, case study, grounded theory, and field research use this interpretative approach.

Critical approach is the process of study that goes beyond surface illusions to uncover the real structures in the material world so that people can change it. Historical analyses, comparative analysis, political economy analyses use the critical approach.

The social context is critical

In qualitative research, the **social** context is critical—it is key to understanding a social phenomenon. This requires taking note of the past and what surrounds the focus of the study—it sets parts of social life in the context of the larger whole. For example, you must describe the situation of poverty in a town in a Negros Occidental before going into details about the local sugar industry.

Moreover, social context is important because the same events or behaviors may actually have different meanings in different cultures or historical eras. Elections in the United States will hold a different significance from elections in the People's Republic of China. Women's rights have come a long way—how we understand women's rights today is vastly different from how they were perceived in colonial times.

Focus on a few cases

Qualitative research focuses on a few cases rather than many, choosing to *go into greater depth and detail* when gathering data. The researcher is *immersed in people's lives and culture,* looking for patterns in the lives, actions and words of people in the context of the complete case as a whole.

To understand more about the difference between qualitative and quantitative research, let's hear about how two researchers would approach the topic of women and gender roles in the home, in terms of focus and methodology. A *quantitative* research surveys 1,000 married couples. Her research finds that women perform the household chore of washing dishes in 70% of the cases involving women who work outside the home, and in 90% of the cases involving full-time housewives.

A *qualitative* researcher observes all chores and activities of 10 married couples for six months. In that time, he or she discovers that if a woman works outside the home, interpersonal tension over doing chores is greater, and the male is likely to assist in small household chores but without taking full responsibility for traditional female tasks.

Researcher integrity

An issue that arises in qualitative research is the question of trust in the qualitative researcher—in terms of objectivity and reliability. How do we check for this?

We suggest the following checking mechanism:

- ➲ Triangulation—look for internal consistency
- ➲ Historical evidence
- ➲ Great volume of detailed written notes
- ➲ Supporting evidence such as photos, audio/video recordings, documents, maps, diagrams, etc.
- ➲ Awareness of personal biases
- ➲ Make a self-disclosure in the study.

Ethics in Research:
PLAGIARISM

This section is culled from **plagiarism.org,** *which is an excellent resource on plagiarism and how to avoid it. We cannot emphasize enough how serious an offence plagiarism is. It is highly unethical to plagiarize. Further, plagiarized work erodes our credibility, and therefore undermines our efforts in advocacy. Also, see the related section on* **Acknowledging Sources.**

WHAT IS PLAGIARISM?

According to the Merriam-Webster online dictionary, to "plagiarize" means:

▷ To steal and pass off (the ideas or words of another)
▷ To use (another's production) without crediting the source
▷ To commit literary theft
▷ To present as new and original an idea or product derived from an existing source

In other words, plagiarism is an act of fraud. It involves both stealing someone else's work and lying about it afterward.

1. But can words and ideas really be stolen?

According to Philippine and US law, the answer is yes. The expression of original ideas is considered *intellectual property,* and is protected by copyright laws, just like original inventions. Almost all forms of expression fall under copyright protection as long as they are recorded in some way (such as a book or a computer file).

The following are considered plagiarism:

⮡ Turning in someone else's work as your own
⮡ Copying words or ideas from someone else without giving credit
⮡ Failing to put a quotation in quotation marks
⮡ Giving incorrect information about the source of a quotation
⮡ Changing words but copying the sentence structure of a source without giving credit
⮡ Copying so many words or ideas from a source that it makes up the majority of your work, whether you credit them or not.

Most cases of plagiarism can be avoided, however, by citing sources. Simply acknowledging that certain material has been borrowed and providing your audience with the information necessary to find that source is usually enough to prevent plagiarism.

TYPES OF PLAGIARISM
1. Sources not cited

Plagiarism is not always a black and white issue. The boundary between plagiarism and research is often unclear. Learning to recognize the various forms of plagiarism, especially the more ambiguous ones, is an important step towards effective prevention.

➲ **"The Ghost Writer"**
The writer turns in another's work, word-for-word, as his or her own.

➲ **"The Photocopy"**
The writer copies significant portions of text straight from a single source, without alteration.

➲ **"The Potluck Paper"**
The writer tries to disguise plagiarism by copying from several different sources, tweaking the sentences to make them fit together while retaining most of the original phrasing.

➲ **"The Poor Disguise"**
Although the writer has retained the essential content of the source, he or she has altered the paper's appearance slightly by changing key words and phrases.

➲ **"The Labor of Laziness"**
The writer takes the time to paraphrase most of the paper from other sources and make it all fit together, instead of spending the same effort on original work.

➲ **"The Self-Stealer"**
The writer "borrows" generously from his or her previous work, violating policies concerning the expectation of originality adopted by most academic institutions.

2. Sources cited (but still plagiarized!)

⮁ **"The Forgotten Footnote"**

The writer mentions an author's name for a source, but neglects to include specific information on the location of the material referenced. This often masks other forms of plagiarism by obscuring source locations.

⮁ **"The Misinformer"**

The writer provides inaccurate information regarding the sources, making it impossible to find them.

⮁ **"The Too-Perfect Paraphrase"**

The writer properly cites a source, but neglects to put in quotation marks text that has been copied word-for-word, or close to it. Although attributing the basic ideas to the source, the writer is falsely claiming original presentation and interpretation of the information.

⮁ **"The Resourceful Citer"**

The writer properly cites all sources, paraphrasing and using quotations appropriately. The catch? The paper contains almost no original work! It is sometimes difficult to spot this form of plagiarism because it looks like any other well-researched document.

⮁ **"The Perfect Crime"**

Well, we all know it doesn't exist. In this case, the writer properly quotes and cites sources in some places, but goes on to paraphrase other arguments from those sources without citation. This way, the writer tries to pass off the paraphrased material as his or her own analysis of the cited material.

Source

What is Plagiarism? (n.d.) Retrieved May 6, 2013, from **http://plagiarism.org/citing-sources/whats-a-citation**. Also retrieved October 29, 2013.

Types of Plagiarism. (n.d.) Retrieved October 29, 2013. **http://www.aub.edu.lb/it/acps/Documents/PDF/types_of_plagiarism.pdf**

HOW CAN WE DEAL WITH PLAGIARISM?

Discussions from the training[1]

➲ **Have a policy on plagiarism.**

Your organization should have a clear policy on plagiarism, which contains procedures and protocols of reviewing. For example, you can have someone like an editor in the organization review your papers. Somebody else should read your papers to prevent possible plagiarism. A clear policy will also make it clear what the sanctions are if any member of the staff is caught plagiarizing. You can also have an orientation among staff on plagiarism, so everyone is aware of what it is.

➲ **Checking for plagiarism.**

These days, copy-pasting is easy. But at the same time, it is also easy to check for plagiarism. Google can do this. Anti-plagiarism software is also available. An easy way to check is to simply randomly select suspected lines or paragraphs, and put it in the Google search bar, and Google will find it for you. Enclosing the suspected lines in quotation marks will refine your search.

➲ **Copyrights.**

A copyright is the legal right granted to the creator of an original work, and is considered a form of intellectual property. You can have a copyright exclusively yours. Having a copyright protects your work. Many NGOs waive their copyrights, and allow others to distribute these for free, for advocacy or educational purposes. For example, ANGOC publications are copyright-free (no need for royalties) but need to be acknowledged properly. If you use it for such purposes, it should be used for *free.* Once you start selling work, you will be charged royalty fees.

EXERCISE

Why do you think students/advocates plagiarize? Identify possible reasons. Identify possible ways to prevent plagiarism.

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[1] Training on ehnacing land reform monitoring effectiveness—May 2013, Bangkok. Organized by ANGOC.

ETHICS IN RESEARCH

Rainier Almazan

This article explores what ethical considerations should govern our advocacy, particularly in the Land Watch Asia campaign. It acknowledges that though moral standards vary, there are basic principles in research that can help us ensure the integrity of our work.

ETHICS

Ethics—from the Greek word ethos, which roughly means "character"—is the study of society's standards of right and wrong; dealing with moral conduct; duty and judgment; the formal and professional rules of conduct; and moral principles by which a person is guided. Unfortunately, ethical issues are not that straightforward and many ethical considerations are subjective.

Ethics answers questions such as: Who should benefit or suffer from the researcher's actions? Whose rights should take priority? Does the end (i.e., increased knowledge) justify the means (i.e., methods used to acquire it and its potential for harm)?

Research is confronted with various ethical issues. We will briefly discuss a few here.

Labeling: Subjects, partners, participants

How will you call your subjects—partners? research participants? Each word has some kind of premise. When you call your research respondents "subjects", there is a premise you are more powerful than the person you are interviewing. If I am the researcher, it implies I am "intellectually superior" than the person. If you use partner, does that mean we are equal in doing the research? Is it a partnership between you and the farmer; or are they just plain participants?

Volunteers

When you undertake research, you may mobilize volunteers. But what is a volunteer? Many people tend to associate the word "volunteer"

with "free labor". However, this is untrue—not everything about volunteerism is free. It's not possible to get everything free. You should at least feed your volunteers, cover their transportation and meals. How do you reward volunteers? How do you take into consideration cultural differences, as well as power differentials? Most volunteers are students; this has power implications. For example, how are you going to treat them? Are you going to acknowledge them in your paper or not? Some do, some don't.

Dual-role relationships

How do you define your independence as a researcher? For instance, in scientific research in the pharmaceutical industry, it happens that doctors who conduct the research are also physicians. What if you find out the medicine or drug you are testing is not working? These mark a conflict of interest.

Deception/covert (secret) observation

Deception is generally not a preferred method. For example, if you want to observe a community in its natural state, if you say you are an observer or researcher, the people in the community may change their behavior. It is essential you don't tell them you are a researcher. But if you do that, you are deceiving people by not telling the whole truth. That is also an ethical question. Researchers are therefore divided on this issue—it is a judgement call. To the extent possible, you should have full disclosure. But you must be very careful about that.

Moreover, if you are using deception in your research, it should be accompanied by a debriefing. In the case of the Reader's Digest social experiment—where researchers "lost" 12 wallets in 16 cities around the world, with each wallet containing about $50, plus the owner's contact information and family photo. All of the people who returned the wallets were debriefed. The reporting team explained to them what the experiment was all about. You owe it to the subjects of the research to explain it to them.

PRINCIPLES OF RESEARCH

The following are some principles of research.

1. Veracity

You are bound to tell the truth even if findings go against the premise or what you want to come out with. Failure to do so will make you lose your credibility.

2. Confidentiality

Confidentiality is an active attempt to remove from records elements that might indicate the participants' identity such as by using pseudonyms for subjects and places, different demographics, etc., while anonymity means subjects remain nameless throughout the entire process, even the researcher, such as with some types of self-administered questionnaires.

If you are dealing with child abuse, women in difficult situations, you cannot expose them to the public. You must protect their identity. If something is told to you "in confidence", such as a family secret, will you include that in your research work?

3. Fidelity or promise keeping

You may have promised people in the community that you will help them if they help you in your research. Do not forget your promises and run away after your research is finished.

4. Objectivity and reporting

It is part of the researcher's responsibility to put forth valid data and interpretations. In line with research principles (usefulness, validity), it is the responsibility of researchers to disseminate their findings.

WHY BE ETHICAL?

We can give three excellent reasons why you should be ethical:

1. You will be more respected.

2. You will avoid public humiliation.

3. It's good for your health and conscience—you'll probably sleep better at night.

ARE THERE LIMITS TO WHAT WE CAN STUDY?

It depends on your country's political, cultural, and economic context. In some countries, such as the United States and the Philippines, only a few restrictions exist, so almost anything can be studied as long as it is evidence-based. Still, in many other countries, researchers fear being thrown into jail for covering political, social, or cultural taboos. For example, in some countries, stem cell research that uses human embryos is being restricted.

On balance, most academic, private and public officials recognize that an open and autonomous social scientific community is the best path to generating unbiased, valid knowledge.

INFORMED CONSENT AND IMPLIED CONSENT

Informed consent refers to the individual's express agreement to participate free of fraud, deceit, and duress of similar inducement or manipulation; whereas implied consent is indicated by the action of the participant such as taking time to fill up a self-administered questionnaire or agreeing to participate in the study on tape.

A rule in research is if you interview a person, you need his or her consent. A signed consent is ideal, but if not possible, then implied consent is fine. In participatory research, if you ask a farmer to sign an informed consent form, he or she may not want to sign a document. But

if you specifically ask him or her whether he or she is willing to participate in this research, and he or she agrees, and this is reflected in the minutes of the meeting, then it should be acceptable as consent.

Special considerations must be made when it comes to informed consent. First, be aware of the power differences between participants and the researcher. For example, there may be a poor-rich dichotomy: If I don't give in to your request, you might not give me money.

Second, there is inadvertent and advertent manipulation—through payments and incentives, such as making it a practice to pay people for their responses. Such arrangements destroy the pureness of intentions of future researchers.

Finally, recognize that children and cognitively challenged subjects cannot make a decision. **#**

GUIDELINES FOR INTERVIEWING FOR RESEARCH

Rainier V. Almazan

INTERVIEWS

▷ Method of data gathering that involves a conversation between two or more people (the interviewer and the interviewee) where **questions** are asked by the interviewer to obtain information from the interviewee.

▷ Interviews can be divided into two types, interviews for assessment and interviews for information.

▷ Could be structured, semi-structured or unstructured (informal)

SOME TYPES OF NON-RESEARCH INTERVIEWS

Type	Purpose
Job/Scholarship interview	Determine the suitability of a job applicant for a given job position; for scholarship; usually confidential
Assistance (therapeutic) interview	Determine the nature of client's problem & recommend course of action/solution; usually confidential
Journalistic interview	To create newsworthy press releases; sources may be confidential
Investigative (forensic) interview	Determine the nature, extent, motive & culpability of a suspect behind a crime & the victim; gather evidence; results may be used in court of law
Entertainment interview	Stimulate interest, enjoyment among listening or viewing audience

EFFECTIVE INTERVIEWING REQUIRES SKILL IN THE FOLLOWING AREAS

- ➲ Listening
- ➲ Paraphrasing
- ➲ Asking questions/probing
- ➲ Note taking

Listening

- ➲ Sit or stand still where you are
- ➲ Look at the speaker, make a note of non-verbal communication
- ➲ Listen for basic facts and main ideas
- ➲ Listen for attitudes, opinions, or beliefs
- ➲ Do not interrupt the speaker
- ➲ Use positive, non-verbal communication to prompt the speaker

Paraphrasing

- ➲ Repeat your understanding of their comments in your own words
- ➲ Ask the speaker if what you have said is correct and ask for any clarifications
- ➲ Make sure key points by the speaker are captured
- ➲ Ask as a check to verify understanding
- ➲ It can be useful to summarize discussions onto flip charts and points during the discussion. This allows participants to correct any misunderstandings, and also to discuss ideas disconnected from the original speaker. This may allow them to be more honest and/ or critical.

Probing

▷ **Open probe:** Questions that begin with how, what, which, when, and who. Effective to encourage responsiveness and reduce defensiveness.

▷ **Compare and contrast:** Questions that ask the other person to look for and discuss similarities or differences. These types of questions help the responder develop and express ideas while allowing the interviewer to steer the direction of the interview.

▷ **Extension:** A question that builds on information already provided.

▷ **Clarification:** Questions designed to get further explanation about something already said.

▷ **Laundry list:** Techniques where the interviewer provides a list of choice options to the interviewee. This encourages the other person to see beyond a single choice and to state a preference.

▷ **Imagining:** Any question which allows the individual to imagine or explore an alternative reality by giving themselves a different viewpoint or perspective.

Note taking

▷ It is important to capture the information from the interview as accurately as possible. Material from an audio recording can be used later to fill in gaps. Modern and compact recording gadgets such as MP3 recorders can be very useful.

▷ Video documentation can also be useful to record not only the proceedings of the interview but also to analyze non-verbal reactions and behavior of the interviewee; or in the case of the focus group discussion (FGD), the interaction of the participants.

INTERVIEWER BIAS

Type	Nature/Description
Respondent error	→ Forgetting, embarrassment, misunderstanding or lying by respondent, or influenced by interviewer appearance, demeanor, etc.
Interviewer sloppiness	→ Contacting wrong respondent, misreading a question, omitting question, reading questions in wrong order, recording wrong answer, misunderstanding respondent
Intentional subversion	→ Purposeful alteration of answers, omission or rewording of questions, choice of alternative respondent
Failure to probe	→ Failure to probe general or vague answers

GUIDELINES FOR THE CONDUCT OF FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS[1]

[1]*Rainier V. Almazan*

WHAT IS A FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION?

▷ A carefully planned group discussion designed to obtain perceptions of a defined area of interest in a permissive and non- threatening environment;

▷ Group participants can influence each other by responding to ideas and peception;

▷ Conducted with approximately 7–10 participants by a skilled interviewer-moderator.

WHAT IS THE GENERAL GOAL OF FGD AND ROLE OF THE MODERATOR?

➲ The goal is to obtain as much useful information as possible. Confidentiality helps. Group interaction can bring out additional information.

➲ The moderator stimulates the group discussion and keeps it on course, as necessary. S/he should not take a position on anything, but should listen.

➲ Every response is considered valid. There is no attempt to support or criticize any response, resolve any issue, address any individual problem or concern or reach any conclusion. Both concrete information and opinions are relevant (Sherraden, 2001).

➲ The moderator should not be concerned if the group is silent at any point. It may be the first time that participants have thought about the issue you are discussing.

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1   This section draws heavily from Chronic Poverty Research Centre (2014).

   CPRC Methods Toolbox: Retrieved from www.chronicpoverty.org/page/toolbox.

FGD MEMBERSHIP

▷ The membership of each group should be as **homogenous** as possible, representing a particular segment of the population.

▷ Group members should not be close friends (Sherraden, 2001). The aim is to *"create conditions that promote both comfort and independence of thought, in order to maximize discussion and self-disclosure"* (ibid.).

BASIC SEQUENCE OF FGD EVENTS

1. Formulate the research question.
2. Identify and train moderators.
3. Generate, pre-test, and revise the interview guide.
4. Develop the sampling frame.
5. Decide what incentives to use to encourage people to attend. Choose one or more from: payment, food and drink, childcare, feedback on findings, a token gift, transport to and from the site, etc.
6. Recruit participants—use local contacts to identify participants.
7. Make necessary arrangements (setting, equipment, food and drinks, and childcare).
8. Schedule the groups—check that the sessions are at appropriate times for participants.
9. Introduce everyone—give name badges if it is locally appropriate.
10. Explain the purpose of the focus group, how long it will take, and what feedback they will get. Explain that what participants say will be confidential.
11. Give the participants time alone together to talk, if you think that would be appropriate.
12. Sit everyone down so that everyone can see everyone else.
13. Start the discussion, starting with easy topics first, but make sure that the topics that you most want to cover are towards the beginning of the session.

14. Keep a record—tape recorder (audio tape with multi-directional microphone/MP3 recorder/video cam) and/or any systematic recording form.

15. Prepare data and analyze.

16. Report.

SAMPLING FRAME

▷ The sampling frame is developed by identifying key population groups whose opinions you are interested in hearing. This may follow a stakeholder analysis exercise, or some other method of identifying differentiated groups.

▷ This may result in the 'population' being divided by characteristics such as age, wealth, gender, ethnicity, and health status.

▷ The research team will need to decide how many "levels" of each characteristic are meaningful for the purposes of the study (e.g., perhaps four income levels, three for age) and form a group for each level of each important characteristic.

IDENTIFYING AND RECRUITING PARTICIPANTS

⊃ Take care when recruiting participants to avoid systematic bias and friendship groups. Systematic (even random) procedures may be desirable.

⊃ The researcher will need to make initial contact with prospective participants, assure them of confidentiality and then ask them several questions to ensure that they fit within one of the groups that are being recruited for.

⊃ The researcher will also need to clarify the participants' expectations and find out whether they are willing to participate in the focus group discussion.

⊃ In reality, the identification and recruitment function may need to be delegated to local NGOs or research assistants. If this is the case, it is important that they follow guidelines agreed upon by the research team.

DESIGNING THE INTERVIEW GUIDE

- ➲ The purpose of the interview guide is to provide an overall direction for the discussion. It is not the equivalent of a survey instrument and is not to be followed in detail or even necessarily in order.

- ➲ The guide provides the moderator with topics and issues that are, to the extent possible, to be covered at some point during the group discussion. The guide is loosely structured and does not suggest potential responses (Sherraden, 2001).

- ➲ The guide should proceed logically from one topic to another, and from the general to the specific. It is often useful to have broad questions at the start, to enable the moderator to get the feel of the group, and to contextualize later and more specific responses. Questions that are more important to the research agenda should be presented early in the session, if possible (ibid.).

- ➲ Questions should be unstructured, unbiased, non-threatening, and very simple.

- ➲ Specification should almost always be left to the participants, unless the discussion is decidedly 'off track' at which time the moderator should gently redirect it.

- ➲ The guide should not be overly detailed or have too many questions. A good focus group interview guide consists of 20 questions or less.

- ➲ Pre-testing the guide with several 'mock' focus groups is essential. The aim is to structure questions so that they are clear and stimulate discussion. Several stages of revisions may be necessary before the guide is ready to be used (ibid.).

FACILITATING THE DISCUSSION AND RECORDING

- ➲ Each focus group should have a moderator and a recorder or note taker. It is ideal if the moderator is fluent in the local languages, but if absolutely necessary s/he can work through

a research assistant/ translator. It is essential that the recorder/ note taker is fluent in the local languages, as the discussion may contain nuances which will be missed otherwise.

➲ Even where local people are fluent in English or the national language, they should be encouraged to hold the discussion in their local mother-tongue.

➲ The moderator's task is to make participants feel at ease and to facilitate open communication on selected topics by asking broad, often open-ended questions, by probing for additional information when necessary, and by keeping the discussion appropriately focused (See also interviewing techniques).

➲ The moderator should generally follow the interview guide, but participants should be able to express opinions, experiences, and suggestions and should be allowed to lead the discussion in new directions as long as they are relevant to the research in general (Sherraden, 2001). As a result, the discussion may not follow the interview guide in the order suggested.

➲ The recorder (audio &/or video) should record the discussion and keep notes of comments in the local language (for later translation, as necessary) on a 'recording instrument' form.

➲ Ensure that you have the participant's permission to record the session. Make sure the equipment will pick up all voices at the venue. Much detail can be lost by attempting to simultaneously translate into English or another non-local language, and verbatim quotes may be required later for inclusion in reports.

➲ The 'recording instrument' is similar to the interview guide, except probes are removed and plenty of blank space is inserted between questions to provide room for comments. Because the recorder is unlikely to be able to write down all comments as they occur, it is important to record the session.

➲ Soon after the session, the recorder will use this tape to fill in key comments and quotations on the recording instrument.

ANALYZING THE TRANSCRIPT THROUGH GROUNDED THEORY

▷ Once the transcript is finalized, proceed with its analysis using Grounded Theory Method.

▷ The method of grounded theory requires researchers to find key topics in a set of texts in order to develop hypotheses.

▷ This inductive method is especially useful when researchers try to discover patterns of behavior or thought in a particular group of people.

▷ Grounded theory is one of the most-used methods in analyzing written materials, especially interview/FGD transcripts.

▷ In addition, the opposite approach of grounded theory is a deductive one, where researchers first shape hypotheses and test them on a set of texts.

▷ Researchers use either approach depending on the research purpose.
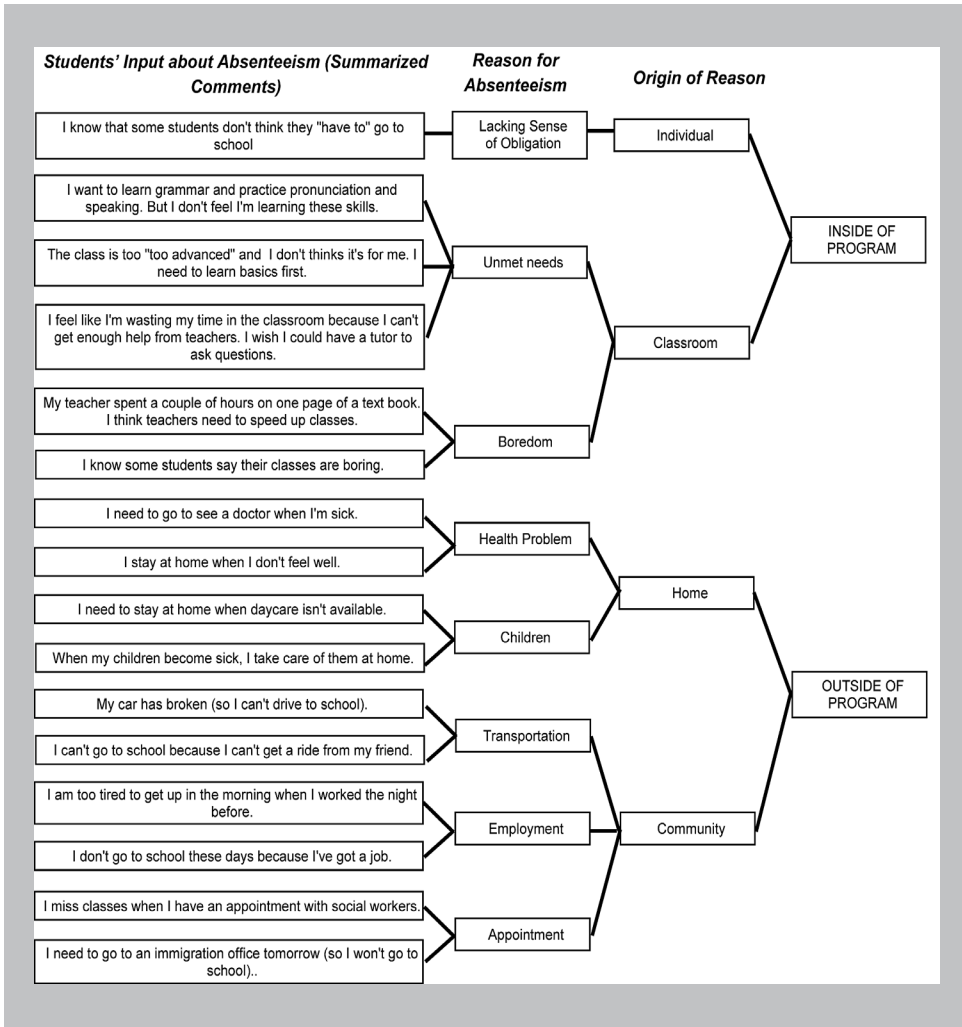
PROCESS OF GROUNDED THEORY METHOD

➲ Read through a sample of texts. Identify topics and highlight them. This marking depends on researchers' ideas and interpretations relevant to their research purposes.

➲ Categorize topics according to their underlying concepts. The opposite firgure shows such categories as lacking sense of obligation, unmet needs, boredom, health problem, childcare, transportation, employment, and appointment as in the case of investigation of adult student absenteeism.

➲ As categories of topics take shape, note them in the text.

➲ Think about how categories are related to each other and organize them into theoretical models. Categories are organized by the origins of reason such as individual, classroom, home, and community.

➲ Compare organized models with the whole texts, especially against those cases that do not fit the models. It is important

to examine negative cases because a complete model should include the full range of variations.

➲ Confirm the validity of a model by testing it on a new sample. For example, researchers can test their model by presenting it to other students that they did not previously interview.

➲ Finally, write the results in reports. Besides displaying a model, include quotes from interview transcripts to show the link between the conclusion and original interviews.

Students' Input about Absenteeism (Summarized Comments)	Reason for Absenteeism	Origin of Reason	
I know that some students don't think they "have to" go to school	Lacking Sense of Obligation	Individual	
I want to learn grammar and practice pronunciation and speaking. But I don't feel I'm learning these skills.			INSIDE OF PROGRAM
The class is too "too advanced" and I don't thinks it's for me. I need to learn basics first.	Unmet needs		
I feel like I'm wasting my time in the classroom because I can't get enough help from teachers. I wish I could have a tutor to ask questions.		Classroom	
My teacher spent a couple of hours on one page of a text book. I think teachers need to speed up classes.			
I know some students say their classes are boring.	Boredom		
I need to go to see a doctor when I'm sick.	Health Problem		
I stay at home when I don't feel well.		Home	
I need to stay at home when daycare isn't available.			
When my children become sick, I take care of them at home.	Children		
My car has broken (so I can't drive to school).			OUTSIDE OF PROGRAM
I can't go to school because I can't get a ride from my friend.	Transportation		
I am too tired to get up in the morning when I worked the night before.			
I don't go to school these days because I've got a job.	Employment	Community	
I miss classes when I have an appointment with social workers.			
I need to go to an immigration office tomorrow (so I won't go to school)..	Appointment		

GROUNDED THEORY: INTERPRETATIVE PERSPECTIVE

▷ In conclusion, this is the main point of grounded theory: "Data do not speak for themselves. You have to develop your ideas about what's going on, state those ideas clearly, and illustrate them with selected quotes from your respondents." (Bernard 2002: 473).

▷ The format of the figure of causal chain was adapted from the example in *Research Methods in Anthropology* (Bernard 2002: 472). **#**

NOTES ON PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION AS RESEARCH METHOD

Rainier V. Almazan

WHAT IS PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION

▷ A qualitative method with roots in traditional ethnographic research

▷ Gathering data while experiencing subjects' social contexts with them

▷ People become more comfortable with the researcher, allowing him or her to observe the subjects up close while they go about their daily lives.

WHAT KIND OF INFORMATION DO YOU GET?

- ⮂ The setting: physical environment
- ⮂ Gain holistic perspective on social living
- ⮂ Understand how things work—understanding how people view the world and how it differs from the researcher
- ⮂ Real view of how people behave in their natural setting
- ⮂ See guiding principles of organization, sub-groupings or culture
- ⮂ Capture social meanings shared by the group
- ⮂ To understand how it feels to be part of the group

DISADVANTAGES

- ⮂ Time consuming and expensive
- ⮂ Need highly trained observers
- ⮂ Difficulty in classifying data based on relevance or importance
- ⮂ Difficulty in documentation because it relies on memory and diligence of the researcher
- ⮂ Researchers' biases might distort data
- ⮂ If done incorrectly, might affect the group's behavior
- ⮂ Inherently subjective exercise

GETTING ACCESS

▷ Among a set of reasonable sites, choose the one easiest to enter

▷ Be prepared with written documentation about yourself and your project to back up your identity and purpose.

▷ Depend on your local social network. Develop a list of people whom you can tap as local contacts/guides.

▷ With organizations, start at the top and work down. Go to the gatekeepers first. Assure them of confidentiality, and don't offer a quid quo pro (exchange deal) that could harm your informants.

▷ Do your homework and learn about the setting before you go there. Learn the language if you can. Get comfortable with the physical setting.

DO YOU NEED PRIOR AND INFORMED CONSENT?

▷ It is not necessary to obtain formal informed consent for participant observation.

▷ When talking to people informally about the research and your role in it, it is important to emphasize that they are not required to talk to you and that there will be no repercussions if they do not.

▷ If your involvement with an individual appears to be progressing beyond participant observation to a formal interview, it is necessary to obtain informed consent before beginning an in-depth interview.

SOCIAL MEDIA FOR ADVOCACY

Ernesto Sonido, Jr.

The internet wields tremendous power to reach different groups of people in a short period of time and with minimal resources—presenting an important opportunity for strengthening our advocacy. While internet access is still a real challenge in some places, the fact remains that social media's reach has grown significantly.

This article aims to familiarize readers with social media and social technology, sharing some key ideas and insights to consider in using social media for campaigns.

SOCIAL MEDIA: SOME IDEAS

Social technology refers to any app—short for "application"—that we use now to communicate, which includes both hardware and software. **Social media** refers to a suite of internet-based applications and tools to communicate content that is created by random internet users rather than by a central person or group. This includes social networking sites and blogs. Social technology supports social media.

Let's quickly discuss several key ideas in social media.

Clay Shirky—a "cyber-utopian" or someone who believes in the revolutionary power of the internet—claims the web is the greatest revolution since the printing press. The internet makes it easy to duplicate information and spread it quickly.

Evgeny Mozorov reminds us that social media is not only used by laymen or advocates, but also by government. It is wrong to think that government does not know anything about the internet or social media. In fact, they probably know more. Countries with oppressive regimes have been able to monitor people's movements, by monitoring Facebook and Twitter and other social media platforms.[1]

Malcolm Gladwell, known for his book *The Tipping Point,* opined that *social media alone* wouldn't work. You have to have solid ties.

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[1] It also raises an important point—be careful about security. Do not give away your location and plans all too quickly—when necessary, be cryptic.

Studying the nature of revolutions, he asserts that for most revolutions, there had to be a strong link for people to join the cause.

These three gentlemen have valid points. But there is another view, according to which, the internet or cyberspace, is a great medium to create, duplicate, and share. The internet can and is used by those who can afford it—to anyone who has access to a computer. It is not the single domain of a single class or group.

This fourth view also maintains that the internet is about *conversation*—meaning you still need action. Oftentimes, what happens is the phenomenon of "click advocacy"—whereas people click "like" on Facebook, and join followers. While this is good, it is certainly not enough. You must convince people beyond the digital wall or cyberspace to actually make a real commitment to your cause.

SOCIAL MEDIA: STRENGTHS AND LIMITS

Strength of weak links by Mark Granovetter

Certain kinds of information get to be spread faster through a weak network, such as gossip, scandal, pop news—things we may call "chit chat". Twitter's trending topics, for example, demonstrate this. The idea of the strength of weak links is quite important—when you package information in a "sexy" or broadly appealing way like chit chat or humor, you will disseminate information more quickly.

Rich Dunbar's number

Rich Dunbar's theory is that a person can only maintain an average of *150 personal reciprocated relationships.* Basically, these are the strong relationships you have. Offline, strong ties are what matter.

For all its strengths, social media cannot replace on-the-ground advocacy.

The digital divide: Internet penetration rate and the social network penetration rate

What is the digital divide? It refers to the internet "haves" and "have-nots"—those who have **access** versus those who do not to information and communication technologies.

The **internet penetration rate** is the number of users connected to the internet as a proportion of the population. A smaller subset of this is the **social network penetration rate,** which is the number of users connected to the internet who are actually using social networks. Similarly, the **social media penetration rate** refers to the number of users with internet access using social media.

See the table below for the internet penetration and social media penetration estimated rates in your countries.

In the Philippines, some 29% of Filipinos are connected to the internet (internet penetration rate). Of this 29.1% of the population, an estimated 70% to 80% are on social networks (social network penetration rate). This means that a large percentage of the people who are connected online in the Philippines are connected to social networks.

The penetration rates may be low, but if you consider the sheer size of the population in those countries, then the absolute numbers may be considerable. For instance, India has a population of about 1.237 billion—12.6% of which means more than 155 million users do have internet

INTERNET PENETRATION AND SOCIAL MEDIA PENETRATION IN SELECTED COUNTRIES IN ASIA

Country	Internet penetration rate (2012)	Social media penetration rate (2013)
Bangladesh	6.3%	2%
Cambodia	4.9%	5%
India	12.6%	5%
Indonesia	15.4%	19%
Nepal	11.1%	7%
Pakistan	10.0%	4%
Philippines	36.2%	29%

Sources: *(For internet penetration rate)* ***http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_countries_by_number_of_Internet_users#cite_note-ITU-IndividualsUsingTheInternet-3*** *(For social network penetration rate). The State of Social in Asia (March 2013).* ***http://wearesocial.net/blog/2013/03/state-social-asia-march-2013/***

access—and more than seven million of these use social media. Therefore the question is—are these internet and social media users among those you want to reach?

But aside from access, **age** can also cause a digital divide. The term "digital native" was coined by Marc Prensky to mean a "person who was born during or after the general introduction of digital technologies and through interacting with digital technology from an early age, has a greater understanding of its concepts" (Wikipeda, n.d.). Many young people are considered **digital natives.** In contrast, Wikipedia (n.d.) defines digital immigrants as those "who [were] born before the existence of digital technology and adopted it to some extent later in life". These tend to be older people, who are often reluctant to adapt to change. They are overwhelmed by the advances in technology. But for those who are intimidated or afraid to get on and into the internet—it becomes easy once you overcome your initial reluctance!

Wealth can also contribute to the digital divide. There are now the so-called "digital poor" and the "digital rich"—and it is all about access and speed. Can you afford to access the internet? Can you afford high-speed internet?

Ultimately, social media is a great force, but you have to pass through a gate. That gate is the device (e.g. phone or computer), which may be costly. But after you get that device, the cost of getting information radically goes down. You still have to buy a computer or a smart phone, and you still need internet access.

SOCIAL TECHNOLOGY ABCs

Before you begin, you must answer two important questions:

1. What do you want to achieve? Examine your objectives and goals.

2. Who are you talking to? For each particular country, know the profile of internet and social media users. In the Philippines for example, these are mostly young people, aged 18 to 24.

Then, remember the ABCs of technology:

- ➲ Attract
- ➲ Build
- ➲ Communicate

You must attract people—through contests, stories, promotions, for example. But getting them interested is not enough. You must *build communities online* by talking to them; if possible, even meeting them offline at one point.

Social technology is relatively easy to use but requires some time to learn and master. Moreover, it is *participative.* It allows you to interact with your reader/viewer/visitor. Never before has there been a medium that allows you to communicate almost instantaneously. However, this is the good side; the bad side is that you cannot screen the people coming in.

TYPES OF SOCIAL TECHNOLOGY

- ➲ Receive and collect e.g. RSS feeds
- ➲ Create and recreate content e.g. blog post, you can get the same blog post and recreate it using another medium
- ➲ React and interact

CEREAL SYNDROME AND APPS

Cereal syndrome is exhibited by an overwhelming array of choices, that you don't know which one to get.

Have you heard of the story of the fox and the cat? The fox had a thousand tricks, while the cat only knew one. When a pack of dogs came, the cat simply climbed up the tree. The fox was eaten by the dogs. **Moral of the story:** you can have as much software as you want, but you must choose what you need based on practicality and you must know how to use it. Save time and space. Choose the "best" application for the situation and device; do not duplicate apps.

SURVIVAL KIT

- ➲ Gadget/devices
- ➲ Internet connection
- ➲ Power
- ➲ Load/credits (top up!) for mobile phones

EXERCISE

Create a social media plan

- ➲ Goal and objectives. What do you want to achieve? Whom do you want to reach?
- ➲ Limitations. What formats will you be using? Will you be using videos? Or just text?
- ➲ Timeframe. When do you want to achieve this? What are the deadlines for your targets?

What other platforms can be used?

- ➲ YouTube
- ➲ Foursquare
- ➲ Flickr
- ➲ Linkedin
- ➲ Ustream
- ➲ Instagram
- ➲ Google Products e.g. Google Hangout, Google +, Google Drive

Explore these platforms, see which ones are useful to you!

DEALING AND INTERACTING IN CYBERSPACE

Persons who want your attention in social media

- ➲ Family and friends
- ➲ Advocates and opinion-makers
- ➲ Marketers/spammers/identity thieves
- ➲ Politicians
- ➲ Trolls (see description below) and other predators

People in social media

We can classify people in terms of the content they post on social media sites.

- ➲ **Lurkers.** These are the people who don't do anything—they are "just there".
- ➲ **Sharers.** We all know who these are! They are the people who share everything about their lives—from the moment they wake up to the time they sleep. This includes what they ate, the problem with the bus, etc.
- ➲ **Entrepreneurs.** These are the marketers or people selling products
- ➲ **Pundits.** These are the people who have an opinion on everything and want to speak their minds, especially about current events.
- ➲ **Mentors.** Anyone who helps you is a mentor. Mentors are those who answer when you a post a question.
- ➲ **Trolls.** Trolls are those who harass or malign you online. They want to provoke and bait you. For example, if you posted something on land reform, a troll will keep on questioning your motives and disagree with you without saying anything constructive. Be careful of trolls!

People's responses on social media

Often times, people do one of six things:

Praise	**Question**
Criticize	**Condemn**
Challenge	**Give Attention**
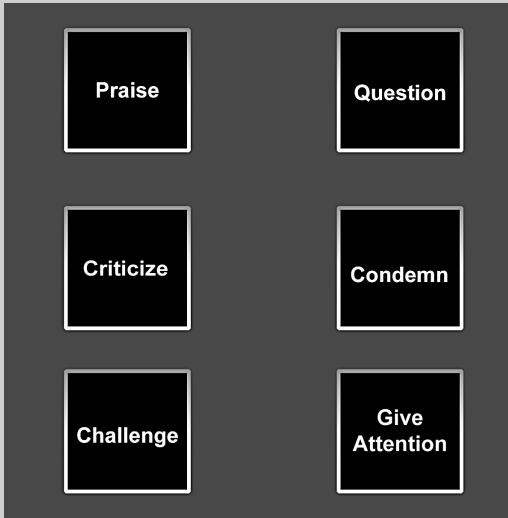
➲ **praise** (retweet, "that's a nice post/comment");

➲ **question** ("is your info correct/valid?");

➲ **criticize** ("this might be wrong", "you're not doing it correctly");

➲ **condemn** ("that's wrong"; "you're not supposed to do that");

➲ **challenge** ("prove it"); and

➲ [give] **attention** ("hi").

You have to temper your answer, depending on what was said, how it was said, and the implication of what was said.

For example, there are things you don't need to react to. A "thank you" is an appropriate response to praise. If it's a troll who wants to challenge you for no known reason, you can just ignore it. If it's criticism that's leveled at you, and it is constructive, then you can engage. *But at all times, you must keep your cool. Don't get personal even if the other side does.*

If you don't know the answer, here are several suggestions:

➲ "Sorry, I'll get back to you on that."

➲ "Thank you for your comment, can I talk to you offline about this?"

Many people are sensitive about how you answer—and you must skillfully handle questions. It's not always *what* you say, but *how* you say it that matters!

PLANNING, GOAL SETTING AND ASSESSING SOCIAL MEDIA EFFORT

Before you get started with social media, you must have a plan, with goals and assessment of social media effort.

Goals and objectives

The following are the usual goals of people with social media presence; these goals may vary depending on your purpose.

- ⮑ Sales
- ⮑ Awareness
- ⮑ Conversion and Community Building
- ⮑ Conversation
- ⮑ Reputation Building
- ⮑ Issue Resolution

For NGOs, "sales" can perhaps mean getting people to donate money to our cause. NGOs normally seek to build awareness on their issues—such as land rights. In addition, NGOs want to change the way people think about certain issues—to convert people to our advocacy, get conversations rolling, and build community. We would also like to build our reputation and credibility—gaining recognition for the work we do. Finally, if there are problems, note that issues often have a lifespan of two weeks, after which the tension tends to go to another issue. Sometimes, evaluate if it's worth responding to the issue and whether to do this online.

Who are you talking to?

Your goals and your messages will depend on *who* you are talking to. Your targets can be categorized as:

- ⮑ Primary Targets
- ⮑ Secondary Targets
- ⮑ Tertiary Targets

As in your stakeholder analysis, where there are primary, secondary, and tertiary stakeholders—you have primary, secondary, and tertiary targets. Primary targets are those you want to directly affect or reach; secondary targets are those whom you want to indirectly reach. Tertiary targets are generally institutional targets, such as the media, public persons, donors, and governments.

Monitoring tools

Here are some online tools you can use to monitor your users' behavior, your brand, etc.

- ➲ Mention—basically monitors your brand name or reputation online, anytime anywhere.
- ➲ Tweriod—for Twitter, put in your Twitter profile, and within 5 minutes gives you the time when most of your users/ followers are online. You will know when to be online, and when to post.
- ➲ Google analytics—allows you to check how many people visit your site; this can be embedded in your blog although it needs to be activated in some sites.

The Cs of social media

- ➲ Consumption
- ➲ Content
- ➲ Connection
- ➲ Conversation
- ➲ Conversion
- ➲ Community

People use social media to consume information. They are also interested in content and connections. In that sense, it is not enough you write a good story—you must get connected. People use Facebook and Twitter a lot to connect with many people. You must start a *conversation,* and especially for campaigners—we aim for *conversion.*

You must find a purpose and identify your community. Otherwise, social technology does not mean anything. The sweet spot would be to put it all together, using even the simplest of social technologies to communicate to a community.

One fashion company in the UK has almost zero advertising. Instead, it invested in social media—particularly in building an online community. It did not use that online community to advertise to, but rather it interacted with that community, and in the process developed a loyal following.

Note that connecting is not only done online, but *offline* as well. We have to transcend the digital sphere and move to the offline sphere and connect to the community. For ultimately, social media is about building *community.* #

FACEBOOK

Facebook is the world's most popular social networking website. Since its launch in 2004, it has grown to be one of the most recognized information channels on the internet today. Almost everybody, if not everybody, has heard of it. On Facebook, registered users can add people as friends and send them messages, and update their personal profiles to notify friends about themselves.

Signing up for an account

It is quite easy! Go to **www.facebook.com**, click on the "sign up" button, which will take you to the sign-up form. Enter your name, birthday, gender, and email address, and then pick a password. After you complete the sign up form and submit it, you will receive an email to the address you provided. Just click the confirmation link to complete the sign-up process.

Remember to:

➲ Select a password that cannot be easily be deduced. Don't use your birthday, the number set 000000 or 12345, or your wife's or girlfriend's name!

➲ Customize your account. You can make it private. You can set it so that you receive notifications when you are tagged in posts. You also have the means to approve or disapprove any related information you were tagged in. You can also classify, organize, and even block contacts.

Facebook has many applications that may be useful to advocates, such as Pages, Groups, Events, and Causes.

Facebook Pages and Groups

What is the difference between a Page and a Group in Facebook?

Facebook **Pages** were essentially designed to be the official profiles for entities such as celebrities, brands or businesses, while Facebook **Groups** are for small group communication and for people to share their common interests and express their opinions. Groups allow people to come together around a common cause, issue or activity to organize, express objectives, discuss issues, post photos, and share related content.

Pages by default are open to the public, while Groups can be public, by-invitation only, or secret/private.

A Page could be any of the following:

- ➲ Local business or place
- ➲ Company, organization or institution
- ➲ Brand or product
- ➲ Artist, band or public figure
- ➲ Entertainment
- ➲ Cause or community

Just think of an FB Page as a website/webpage and the FB Group as a forum or group chats.

Create your Page

1. Go to facebook.com/pages and click "Create Page" on the upper right hand corner.
2. Fill out required information.
3. Add a photo.
4. Suggest your page to friends.
5. Import contacts.
6. Start writing content.
7. Get a vanity URL (personalized address on Facebook)
8. Use tools that are available.
9. Assign other users to act as administrators of the page.

Create a Group

1. From your home page, go to the Groups section on the left side menu and click Create Group.
2. A pop-up box will appear, where you'll be able to add a group name. Add members and select the privacy settings for your group. Click "Create" when you're done.
3. Once the group is created, you'll be taken to the group's page. To get started, click at the top right of the page and select Edit Group Settings. From here you can add a group description, set a group email address, add a group picture and manage members.

Facebook Events

Another useful tool in Facebook is Events. You can use this to announce and invite people to your activities.

Create an Event

1. Click Events in the left menu of your homepage.

2. Click "Create Event" on the top right.

3. Fill in the event name, details, location, time and then choose your privacy settings. Please note that you must include an event name and time.

4. Click "Invite Friends" to add friends to the guest list. Check the names of the people you want to invite and then click "Save".

5. Click "Create".

You'll be taken to your event's page where you can share posts, upload photos, invite more guests and edit event details.

Facebook Causes

Facebook's Causes helps people mobilize their networks to expand their selected cause, such as a foot march or a particular organization. Causes have enormous potential to help in fundraising, awareness-raising, and recruiting supporters. **#**

TWITTER

Twitter is a free social networking and micro-blogging service that enables its users to send and read messages known as **tweets.** Tweets are text-based posts of up to 140 characters displayed on the author's profile page and delivered to subscribers who are known as **followers.**

Senders can restrict delivery to those in their circle of friends or, by default, allow open access.

Similar to Facebook you just have to sign up for Twitter. Just go to **Twitter.com** to register. Caveats and reminders regarding signing up for Facebook are similar to those for Twitter. Remember that when signing up for Twitter, you have the option to keep your Twitter account public (default mode) or protected.

What does this mean?

Protected Twitter accounts require the approval of each person who would want to view that Twitter account.

What is the difference between public and protected tweets?

When you sign up for Twitter, you have the option to keep your tweets public (the default account setting) or protect your tweets. Accounts with protected tweets require manual approval of each and every person who may view that account's tweets.

Also when you protect your tweets, the following happens:

- ⮕ People will have to request to follow you; each follow request will need approval.
- ⮕ Your tweets will only be visible to users you've approved.
- ⮕ Other users will not be able to retweet your tweets. Learn more.
- ⮕ Protected tweets will not appear on Twitter search or Google search.
- ⮕ Replies you send to people who aren't following you will not be seen by those users (because you have not given them permission to see your tweets).

You cannot share permanent links to your tweets with anyone other than your approved followers.

> **Note:** links, even those shared via DM, are neither protected nor public. Anyone with the link will be able to view the content.

You can change your Twitter feed from public to protected. Any tweets posted in private or protected mode will remain as is even if you change your feed to public.

Start tweeting!

BLOGGING

What is a blog?

Blogs are websites that contain posts—usually arranged from most recent to oldest, that can be a combination of text, images, sounds, and/or video. A blog can be public or private. It can be hosted on a blog farm for free, or it can be self-hosted.

There is almost no limit to what can be done on a blog, and so, blogs have a great potential to be a news/information source and quick response tool.

How to set up a blog and become a blogger

Setting up a blog is easy and normally takes less than 10 minutes.

1. Sit down and decide why you are setting up a blog. What are your goals and objectives? What is your mission? How do you want to deliver it?

2. Go to **www.wordpress.com** or to **www.blogger.com** to set up an account—these are two of the easiest-to-use blog sites.

3. Think of a name for your blog. Make sure the name reflects your intentions. Also avoid using a long title for your blog.

4. Make sure you check the account and privacy settings in order to customize who can read or even comment on your blog.

- If your blog is a closed blog—meaning only a select number people can access it—make sure that in the settings, only members can read the posts. You can also opt to make the blog unsearchable on the internet. Next, invite the members of your blog to register. You will need their emails for this.
- If your blog is open to the public, it is recommended that all comments be *moderated* and all commenters should register, to ensure you have control over what happens on your blog.

5. You can further customize the look of your blog by selecting a theme and/ or other apps.

6. Now you can start creating content for your blog. Always remember *that you are responsible for whatever appears on your blog.*

Some options

You can also get a domain name for your blog. This will allow you to create a name for your blog without the WordPress or Blogger name, similar to self-hosted blogs. You can buy the domain name and redirect it to your WordPress or Blogger blog. The domain name would cost around $10 to $35 per year, depending on whether you get a **.**com, **.**ph or **.**net domain name. Also you can get as many domain names as you can and redirect them to your blog.

Or you can opt to self-host your blog. This means renting server space. If you do this, then a domain name is essential. This will be the address and name of your blog. People can go to your blog with this domain name. **#**

MONITORING LAND
USING AN INDIGENOUS PEOPLES LENS AND EXPERIENCE

Dave de Vera, PAFID

PATTERNS OF SUBSISTENCE OF INDIGENOUS COMMUNITIES IN ASIA

➲ Most indigenous peoples (IPs) in Asia are **sedentary communities**—meaning they have defined territories. They can be huge or small, but they are *territories* all the same.

> A lowland farmer may survive with 7 hectares (ha) of land. But an IP community might need 10,000 ha. It is not their fault that they consider that their domain. They live in, and are part of, an ecosystem.

➲ **Pastoralists/nomadic communities** have no domain; rather they have a *range.* This makes the problem more challenging. They travel from country to country, without respecting boundaries. In India, for example, there are huge pastoralist communities.

➲ There are also **seafarers** in Asia, such as the Bajau Laut, who consider the ocean as their ancestral domain/territory.

LAND GOVERNANCE OF INDIGENOUS PEOPLES' AREAS

All indigenous communities consider landownership and land governance as **communal:**

➲ They have clearly defined common-use zones.

➲ They also have restricted or limited-use zones.

However, *individual or clan ownership is recognized within the territory.* The whole tribe will still respect inheritance from family to family, but will limit or will not allow transfer from an indigenous community to a non-indigenous community.

The concept of communal ownership is what drives land governance of IPs in Asia.

THREATS TO INDIGENOUS LANDS IN THE REGION

" *Indigenous peoples face multiple obstacles to maintaining secure rights to their lands, including: racism, social prejudices and entrenched forms of discrimination; inappropriate, assimilationist social policies towards indigenous peoples; lack of legal recognition of indigenous rights in national constitutions, laws and land tenure regimes; inflexible or deficient land administration services; and the lack of resources, capacity, political connections or awareness in indigenous communities to take advantage of existing legal opportunities.* "
M. Colchester

> ### How a protected area can do harm to IPs: the Agtas of Talaytay, Philippines
>
> Proclaiming the cutting and harvesting of forest products illegal in the Talaytay River Watershed Forest Reserve was the outcome policy of a P62-million project funded by the European Union. However, it seems no baseline study was done recognizing that the Agtas have inhabited the land. The Agta people's only existence is hunting and gathering—but they have become "criminals" since their land was declared a reserve.

Development aggression
▷ The intrusion of unregulated development projects and other interests continue to limit the access to and control by indigenous cultural communities (ICCs) of upland resources.
▷ Most of these initiatives bring alien value-systems with regard to the use of natural resources.

▷ Examples:

- ➲ **Mining operations.** In the Philippines, where every part of the country has mining operations, this is a big problem.

- ➲ **Oil palm plantations.** In Indonesia, lands devoted to palm oil cultivation are estimated at 9 million and growing, displacing IPs from their lands. **Conversion of tribal lands into special economic zones.** Vast tracts of land are being converted into industrial zones, **abetted by governments' neoliberal policies.**

- ➲ **Natural forest reserves, protected areas, and conservation projects.** These initiatives may seem positive or intrinsically good, but in reality they impose new governance structures over the community, destroy the relationship of the people with their own environment, and remove their governance rights.

  - ⊙ Such conservation projects include Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in Developing Countries (REDD+), and other reforestation programs.

  - ⊙ Greenwashing refers to the phenomenon of showcasing a program or product's eco-friendly characteristics but concealing its less than positive effects. Conservation projects may exhibit greenwashing.

The lack of recognition of indigenous peoples

- ➲ In Asia, many governments do not even recognize the existence of IPs, refusing to accept the reality that there are different peoples.

- ➲ They are subject to sub-standard living conditions: "Indigenous Peoples' human development indicators are lower and poverty indicators are higher than those of the rest of society" (Stavenhagen Report 2005). Unrecognized, they are not considered part of society.

- ➲ Indigenous peoples cannot secure their land rights.

- ➲ Assimilationist policies inappropriately assume that by applying dominant models or standards to IPs—such as giving them houses with tin roofs or making them literate according to the Western or academic model—IPs are being done a service.

Land, territories and resources

We have a unique historical collective connection with, and ownership of, a territory over which we maintain complex and diverse customary systems of land and resource use.

We have lived in our territores prior to the arrival of other, now dominant people, and before the formation of modern nation states. Some of us, however, may reside in new lands as a result of forced displacement or other circumstances.

Our livelihoods strongly depend on natural resources and as such we have a close spiritual relationship with, and rich traditional knowledge of, our environment.

Our indigenous systems and practices are not static but flexible and dynamic; and our land and resource use systems show a high degree of adaptivity.

We are experiencing continuing non-recognition of our rights over territory and of our customary land ownership and use systems leading to dispossession and exploitation of our land and resources.

The imposition of land and forest laws leads, to loss of our traditional lands to state forests, protected areas, commercial plantations and other uses outside our control.

As a result, we are experiencing increasing economic marginalization and poverty.

> Taken from the statement "Indigenous Peoples in Asia: Common Experiences and Issues" from the Workshop on the Concept of Indigenous Peoples in Asia, held in Chiang Mai, Thailand on 1–3 March 2006.

This statement provides the IP lens to understanding the problem in Asia, including what outcomes and impacts to monitor. It is very important for IPs to maintain control, access to, and governance of the land; and at the end, the impact they desire is the alleviation of their poverty. Remember this —this is how indigenous peoples themselves see the land problem.

> **66** *The functioning of indigenous collective
> land tenure systems is directly affected by the
> extent to which they are given legal recognition,
> the extent to which indigenous knowledge is
> respected and the extent to which customary law
> is allowed to operate.* **99**

M. Colchester

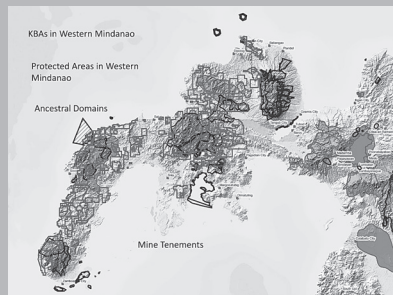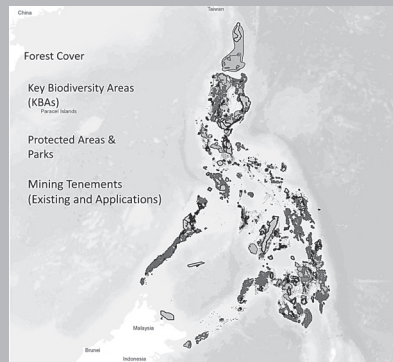# MONITORING FRAMEWORK:
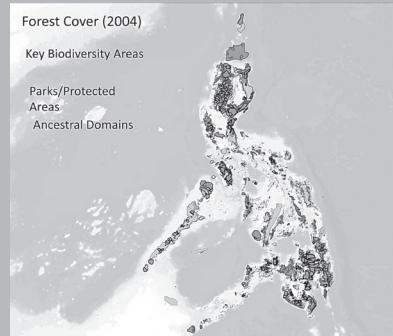## INPUTS, OUTCOMES, AND IMPACTS

How do we begin?

1. Determine coverage of traditional territories and ancestral domains

➲ This is important, although challenging. If we really want to monitor impacts on IP lands, we must understand where these are, and how big these are.

➲ Use units like hectares and acres consistently—do not mix.

➲ Indonesia has fairly advanced work, with good baseline data on indigenous peoples—because maps are used.

2. Determine coverage of conflicting claims and threats:

➲ These can usually be found where there are:

 ⊙ Mining operations/applications

 ⊙ Parks, protected areas

 ⊙ Other large-scale operations

 ⊙ Land conversions

➲ If we know where ancestral territories are (including their size and in which provinces they are situated) then we should know also the coverage of the conflicting claims, and how big is the area with overlapping claims.

" *You cannot monitor impacts unless you know what is happening with the other threats to indigenous lands.* "

The Philippines' forest cover in 2004 includes conservation zones, declared parks, and protected areas. The plan of the government is to declare all of the amber-colored areas as national parks.

Through mapping, we can know exactly which ancestral domains are overlapping with parks and mining areas. Furthermore, at the provincial level, you can see the parks and ancestral domains, and the mining tenements all over the area. One can surmise this community will encounter problems in governance. For example, can the communities still govern? Who is the boss—the park superintendent or the chieftain? What will be followed—traditional governance or multi-stakeholder arrangements? There are mining tenements all over the area.

Forest Cover (2004)

Key Biodiversity Areas

Parks/Protected Areas
Ancestral Domains

Forest Cover

Key Biodiversity Areas (KBAs)

Protected Areas & Parks

Mining Tenements (Existing and Applications)

KBAs in Western Mindanao

Protected Areas in Western Mindanao

Ancestral Domains

Mine Tenements

" *We not only monitor the existence of a
policy, but its **implementation.** While the existence
of laws and policies is not enough, in any event, you
have something to start with.* "

MONITORING INPUTS

Policies (ratified/signed/adopted)

International Covenants, Treaties, Agreements

➲ Monitor how many international covenants your country has ratified.

➲ A word of warning—Cambodia has ratified many agreements, and yet has not produced a law that truly recognizes traditional forest ownership.

➲ But these help—because they provide the community enough ammunition to pressure government.

➲ Important international instruments include:

⊙ ILO 169 International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention No. 169

⊙ United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP)

⊙ Convention on Biological Diversity Sec.8j

➲ Important international instruments include:

⊙ Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries, and Forests in the Context of National Food Security

⊙ International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD)

National policies

- ➲ Monitor the existence, as well as the efficient implementation of IP land rights policy.
- ➲ Not all countries have national policies on IPs' landownership, and will therefore have to focus advocacy efforts on the drafting and passage of such laws and policies.
- ➲ National policies relating to indigenous peoples' land rights:
  - ⊙ Indigenous Peoples Rights Act (Philippines)
  - ⊙ Land Law of 2001, Art. 26 (Cambodia)
  - ⊙ Constitutional Guarantees—Fifth and Sixth Schedules (India)
  - ⊙ Provision for Free Prior Informed Consent (FPIC)
  - ⊙ Law 32/2009 & Law 27/2007 (protection and management of the environment, coasts and islands; Indonesia)
- ➲ If FPIC is required in your country, then at least something positive is being measured.

Budgets

- ➲ For policies to be implemented, government needs to allocate resources.
- ➲ Look at the total amount of resources the government has allocated to implement land initiatives.
- ➲ Indicators include:
  - ⊙ Budget for indigenous peoples as a percentage (%) of the total national budget
  - ⊙ Resources allotted to IPs compared to the population of IPs

  $$= \frac{\text{Budget for IPs}}{\text{Total number of IPs}}$$

  - ⊙ Percentage of the budget for indigenous peoples allocated to actual operations
- ➲ To illustrate, in the Philippines, IPs comprise an estimated 14% of the total population. However, the budget is only P46 million—P0.03 per indigenous person. Worse, of this amount, 80% is allotted for salaries of government personnel, and only 20% for operations.

MONITORING "OUTCOMES"

Access to land[1]

▷ The ability to utilize and benefit from natural resources within territories

" This is our territory. We are part of this. We should be able to benefit from this, without external controls. We have our own traditional controls. "

▷ Capacity to sustain cultural practices

" If indigenous peoples have access to land, they should be able to continue what they are doing. "

▷ Conduct and exercise of particular cultural practices

➲ Traditional farming/agricultural methodologies (swidden, *jhumka,* etc.)

Indigenous communities of the Garo Hills in India

Are they still able to sustain and practice their *jhumka* farms? This is supposed to be an autonomous zone, but the national government still dictates land use. The area devoted to *jhum* cultivation is limited, and many tea plantations are now being forced upon the community.

➲ Practice of and maintenance of burial sites

Many governments centralize burial sites or declare burial sites as illegal or tourist spots

➲ Control of sacred forests

Sacred forests can be taken over by government entities, such as the forest bureau, as was the experience of the Tamangs in Nepal.

➲ Control of ritual/sacred sites

Many communities' sacred sites have been declared tourist sites, UNESCO world heritage sites, national parks.

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[1]   From the Asia Indigenous Peoples Pact

❝ *Community members have become part of tourist sites, even dancing in front of people in a 'cultural' spot.* ❞

> Mt. Kimangkil in Bukidnon, Philippines is a sacred site to the Higanunon. Their oral history speaks of their appointment as the caretakers of the mountain. The dense forest canopy has been preserved mainly due to the traditional resource management arrangements and belief that it is the home of the Diwata. This is a powerful reminder of how indigenous peoples want to exercise their authority over the land.

Land tenure
Governance of Ancestral Domains, Territories

▷ Capacity /authority to facilitate or mediate conflict resolution

    ➲ If you govern, you should be able to resolve. How can you govern without the right to settle disputes? IPs want this capacity intact—that they are the authority.

▷ Capacity to enforce entry and to egress from the territory

    ➲ Can they prevent mining companies from coming in? Can they restrict oil palm plantations to a certain point?

▷ Ability to enforce collective arrangements in land use

    ➲ Closed or No-Go zones

    ➲ Multiple use and open access areas

    ➲ Harvest/hunting limits

    ➲ Indigenous Conservation zones

This map done in 1994 shows a community in the Philippines that already had its own system of governance in place. They had their *sagradong lugar* (sacred zones) i.e., no-go zones. Also, the *pangasuhan* (hunting area) meant no other activity was possible except hunting, and that was only for two months a year. The community was able to maintain this in 1994. This is the baseline. If one were to return now, what will be in their domain? Is their governance system, including zoning no-go and hunting areas, still respected today by local government?
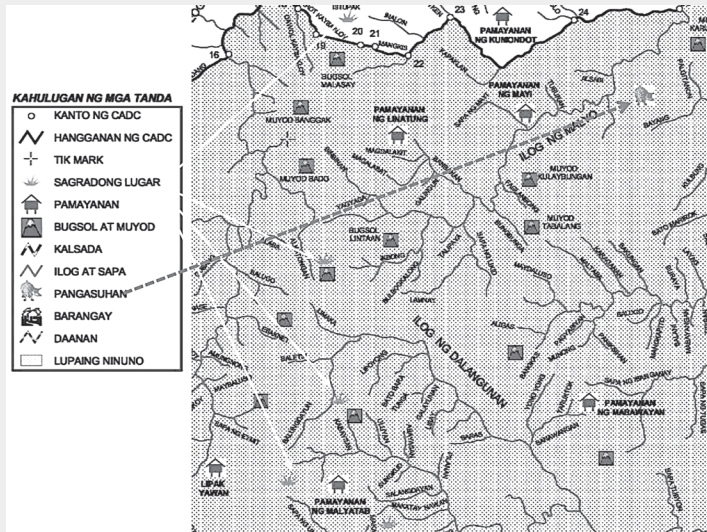
Indigenous peoples govern according to a collective land use management plan. They should have the ability and the authority to enforce collective arrangements in land use, such as no-go zones. Even for IPs, no-go zones cannot be touched, respecting the collective decision. Can they still say an area is a multiple-use zone, where timber for houses can be collected, and plants can be harvested for medicines? Can they still impose hunting and harvest limits, such as when elders say pigs can only be hunted from September to November and rattan harvested only from April to June?

   If IPs are still able to do these—that is the substance of governance.

Measuring outcome indicators

The following table is an example of measuring outcomes for indigenous peoples, taking the case of the Philippines, where there are many conflicts among indigenous peoples. The government respects communities' governance to handle conflict resolution, as evidenced in the agreements they sign. In monitoring, the baseline is of utmost importance, and indicators must be objectively verifiable.

Outcome	Indicator	Baseline	Means of verification
Land tenure	Increased ability to resolve internal conflicts	Number of conflicting areas 15 communities trying to kill each other	# of traditional agreements signed and adopted, conflicts resolved.

MONITORING IMPACTS

❝ *We want to secure our existence.* ❞

Food security

They don't want to buy McDonald's or get relief goods. They want sustained food security they control. That is the most important impact.

Poverty alleviation

All of these changes have impoverished them. They no longer have control over their lands.

Self-determination (including self-governance)

Self-determination is the most important impact for an indigenous community. Self-governance is only part and parcel of self-determination, which does not only mean "governance" in the standard sense—but also the right to decide on their future with no interference. They may listen, allow you to talk to them, but at the end of the day, they want respect for their right to determine their own future, from their own point of view.

PARTICIPATORY RESEARCH TOOLS AND METHODS

The following are strategies for gathering information about the concerns of indigenous communities:

- ➲ Brainstorming sessions
- ➲ Examination of current land tenure documents (maps, field reports, community activity reports, petitions, reports, etc.)
- ➲ Interviews
- ➲ Focus Group Discussions
- ➲ Talks with key informants
- ➲ Surveys
- ➲ Community mapping

Do your work thoroughly. You have to understand, conduct "deep" research using available materials.

Community mapping: Participatory 3D models

- ➲ Community mapping critical—*when you talk about indigenous peoples' lands, you are concerned with spatial information.*
- ➲ With participatory 3-D mapping, local people can visualize and measure pressure or stress, and extent of resource utilization in their particular resource management areas.
- ➲ It establishes a baseline.
- ➲ Participatory 3D mapping does not require computers; manual computations will suffice. However, maps can be digitized. With just a 3D model, you can already make computations when it is to scale.
- ➲ In monitoring, mapping helps us easily see and understand relationships.
- ➲ Having 3-D data has enormous potential in understanding indigenous peoples in relation to tenure, governance, and access to land.

Establishing a baseline of the land tenure situation of the Garo community in Meghalaya

In Meghalaya, part of the domain was totally overrun by migrants and is now grassland. The Garo community here pulled out of a huge donor project that tried to change their farming systems. The map did not show the *junkha* of the people; the community insisted that the baseline should include their farms. PAFID worked with the community, and from one model, 67 other communities have finished drawing up their own maps. Finally, Meghalaya accepted the existence of traditional farms in the domain.

LAND, LAND POLITICS AND LAND REFORM:
A GENDER AND WOMEN'S RIGHTS PERSPECTIVE
Julia Chitrakar

This thought piece strongly advocates for maintaining a strong women's rights perspective in our advocacy on land. This means recognizing the role of women in agriculture, and their right to land. It also provides thoughtful questions to consider as we challenge patriarchy towards a more gender-sensitive land reform.

AN OVERVIEW OF THE POLITICS OF LAND IN THE 21ST CENTURY

Land is still the most crucial resource or wealth, whereby having access to land means having a quality livelihood. In contrast, being **landless** means being poor or marginalized.

"Land grabbing" has become a burning issue—with land grabbing activities done by private companies, governments, and multinational companies across the world. In fact, land grabbing is a new war being waged against poor families, poor communities, and poor countries. At the same time, a huge resistance is building against such land grabbing, with the development of a new land movement.

At the same time, "land reform" is not neutral. We must ask—*who* benefits from it? Is land reform for capitalist development? Does it merely serve the interests of powerful elites, dominant groups, and male farmers? How can we do just and progressive land reform? And what do we mean by "just and progressive"?

PATRIARCHAL VS. GENDER-SENSITIVE LAND REFORM

Patriarchy refers to institutional discriminations against women on the basis of sex, which is a sad reality in today's world. Patriarchal values and practices are unjust, oppressive and inhumane. Oppressive or "negatively discriminatory relationship" between man and woman is problematic—whether such takes place in a family, in a neighborhood or community, whether through a STATE policy or in the name of "tradition or culture."

Experience shows that land reform can be carried out in two ways—either in a patriarchal style, or in a gender-sensitive manner. Patriarchal land reform will benefit only the men, while gender-sensitive land reform gives justice to women while benefiting men at the same time.

We are all here to strategize, plan and achieve gender-sensitive land reform in our respective societies. However, the road is strewn with challenges...

PRESENT CONTEXT— THE PROBLEMATIC PARTS

- ➲ Women contribute hugely to agricultural production; however, women are not even regarded as "farmers" in some Asian societies.
- ➲ Women are deprived of true or genuine land ownership—either there is very little or there is none at all.
- ➲ Most land policies are "gender-blind" or "gender-insensitive" (see opposite page **"GENDER BLINDNESS AND GENDER SENSITIVITY: SOME DEFINITIONS"**).
- ➲ The State policy-makers' mindset has been "typically" patriarchal—even "revolutionary" or "progressive" parties have been found to be "gender-insensitive."
- ➲ Not all land rights movements are gender-sensitive.

Gender blindness and gender sensitivity: Some definitions

⮡ **Gender-blind**

Gender blindness is the failure to recognize that gender is an essential determinant of social outcomes impacting on projects and policies. A gender blind approach assumes that a policy or programme does not have unequal (even if unintended) outcomes on women and men.

⮡ **Gender-sensitivity**

Gender sensitivity encompasses the ability to acknowledge and highlight existing gender differences, issues and inequalities and incorporate these into strategies and actions.

Source

"Gender-blind" and "Gender-sensitivity". n.d.
Gender equality—glossary. European Commission.
Retrieved from: **http://ec.europa.eu/justice/
gender-equality/glossary/index_en.htm.**

BASIC PRINCIPLES

⮡ Women engaged in agriculture need to be recognized as full human beings, as producers, as farmers, and also as farm managers.

⮡ The political slogan "Land to the tillers" must include all women tillers and female farmers.

⮡ If both men and women in the family are engaged in agriculture, there must be joint ownership over land.

⮡ If only the women are engaged in farming, they must have sole ownership over the land.

⮡ If the policy prevents this, there should be policy reform; if given cultural values prevent equality, there is need for civic education campaign in favor of women's land rights.

⮡ Gender-sensitive or women's rights-friendly land reform contributes to the overall upliftment of the whole society.

BUILDING THE LAND RIGHTS MOVEMENT IN A GENDER-SENSITIVE WAY

- ➲ Ensure that the movement is aimed not only at "land reform" but also a "gender-sensitive" land reform.
- ➲ Ensure that each and every layer or structure of land movement organization is gender-inclusive; that at least half of the leaders at each level, from community to national level, are women
- ➲ Ensure that women representatives are there at each negotiation level with policy makers.
- ➲ Organize civic and popular education campaigns in favor of women rights-friendly land reform.
- ➲ Educate the concerned families, communities, peoples' organizations, government officials and political parties on how society can develop progressively with gender-sensitive land reform.

SOME CONSIDERATIONS FOR GENDER SENSITIVITY IN OUR WORK

- ➲ Are we or our land rights movements politically committed to gender-sensitive land reform?
- ➲ Does our context analysis framework include gender indicators?
- ➲ Do the people's organizations and civil society networks we belong to include women [50%] at each level?
- ➲ Are we investing in women's leadership development at each level? What is the quality of women's leadership?
- ➲ Do we have a gender-sensitive monitoring framework?

MAJOR CHALLENGES TO WOMEN'S ACCESS TO AND CONTROL OF LAND

Land ownership

Either there is very little ownership or there is no ownership at all. Even when there is some ownership, in the form of land titles, it is not genuine or true ownership.

Women may hold land certificates merely for tax evasion purposes—as a result of men not wanting to pay more taxes to the government. In some countries like Nepal, women have become nominal land owners to circumvent land ceilings. Some owners from rich families with large tracts of land transferred their titles to their wives and other relatives.

In Nepal, women own only about 10% of the land. The landholders are not the actual farmers, and are mostly from the middle and upper classes. The women who are the farmers themselves have no land ownership.

Customary rights of indigenous peoples, including indigenous women's land rights

Policy makers and decision makers should recognise indigenous women's issues on land rights and improve their understanding of indigenous cultures and values.

Policy gaps and poor implementation

With regard to land policies, programs are gender-blind. Even when there are positive provisions in relation to land rights, including land rights for women, law enforcement remains weak. Most governments are signatories of international commitments, but such commitments go unfulfilled.

Patriarchal structure

In South Asian as well as Southeast Asian countries, the patriarchal structure of societies is arguably the biggest challenge to advancing women's land rights. Patriarchal values and attitudes, not only among men, but also women—permeating through society and bureaucracies—are dominant. Changing mindsets is an enormous challenge.

Women should be recognised as farmers, and as human beings—rather than as second-class citizens. Women are always good daughters and good sisters, not claiming their rights.

MAJOR CHALLENGES TO WOMEN'S ACCESS TO AND CONTROL OF LAND (con't.)

Lack of capacity of organizations trying to address the issue

Capacity building is needed for farmers, including women farmers, particularly in terms of legal literacy, policy advocacy, and leadership. Civil society organizations and people's organizations alike are working to advance farmers' rights, in a gender-sensitive manner. But these organisations also need to develop the leadership capacity of women, for women to occupy leadership and decision-making positions within their organisations and in the bureaucracy. In countries like Nepal, there is not a single woman in the land bureaucracy or in the land administration, making it more difficult to promote women's land rights.

Research

There is a need to conduct more studies and research work on women's land rights in various countries, to be able to truly understand exactly what takes place where women's rights are concerned. But specific local contexts must be taken into consideration, since situations are different depending on the region. For example, in Nepal, there are different tenure systems for different regions.

Documentation needs to be improved, but more importantly, the lessons should be shared among countries, highlighting the positive stories.

Source

Based on the summary of Ms. Julia Chitrakar, with inputs from workshop discussions. Taken from *Asian Regional Workshop on Women and Land Rights: Workshop Proceedings*. (2011). Asian NGO Coalition from Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (ANGOC) and Association for Land Reform and Development (ALRD).

MONITORING LAND REFORM WITH A GENDER LENS

Antonio Quizon and Catherine Liamzon

There are generally two ways we can improve the gender sensitivity in our land rights monitoring and advocacy.

First, we can ensure gender-disaggregated data in existing monitoring framework. This means that to the extent possible, we should look for gender-disaggregated data under the land reform monitoring indicators. For example, in looking at land disputes, we would like to know what percentage of women were killed, harassed, or detained. In our indicators on land ownership, it would be useful to find out how many women are landowners, tenants, and sharecroppers. Equally important, in our own field research, we should produce gender-disaggregated data.

Second, we can review or add to existing indicators.

For monitoring **inputs,** we can look at:

➲ International agreements that are ratified and signed in support of women's land rights, such as the Convention to End All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).

➲ Existing policies that may enable or impede women's land rights, such as land laws, civil laws, inheritance laws.

Land access for women is not only in land law, but also in inheritance law, civil law—culture is involved. Look into other discriminatory laws as well. Moreover, we can also study programs and government resources (i.e. budget).

Monitoring **processes,** including the participation of women in the change process, would focus on women's representation, their role in land rights institutions at different levels, and their role in the land administration system.

In terms of monitoring **outputs** and **outcomes,** we can examine:

➲ Formal entitlements for women, such as land titles;

➲ Actual land access and the exercise of women's rights to land.

Land titles are outputs. But we are especially concerned with outcomes. At the end of the day, we would like to know if, given the policies and resources (inputs) and land titles (outputs), do the women now actually enjoy their rights to the land? Do they effectively own the land? We return to the question of enforcement and implementation of the law. How do we measure such outcomes? #

WRITING MORE EFFECTIVELY

Catherine Liamzon

> It is in your best interest to communicate effectively to achieve desired results. Writing is a skill that can be easily improved. Below are some useful tips to help make our reports more lucid and readable.

- ➲ Plain and simple language is good. Use it.
- ➲ Be concise. Stick to the relevant. Know how to summarize. Rather than the complete history of land reform in your country, a concise summary will serve your purpose even better.
- ➲ Avoid extraneous words. Avoid jargon. Avoid bureaucratic language or verbiage, which the Merriam–Webster dictionary defines as: "a profusion of words usually of little or obscure content".
- ➲ Use the active voice instead of passive. Always think: Who did what? The subject should be performing the action.
- ➲ Use active verbs such as: yield, clarify, assert, define, summarize, attribute, suggest, imply, estimate, depict, specify, support, evaluate, propose, and measure. These tend to be clearer than the overused "deals with"and "shows".
- ➲ Use spell check and grammar check. Make sure that your writing is always checked.

Area for improvement	Instead of	Try
Using the active voice	A rally was organized by LWA. There is poverty in the region.	LWA advocates organized a rally. Poverty exists in the region.
Using better, more meaningful active verbs	The report deals with land evictions in Cambodia.	The report describes (or summarizes, details, introduces, etc.) land evictions in Cambodia.

Area for improvement	Instead of	Try
Avoiding bureaucratic language, simplifying	It is important to note that farmers bear the brunt of poverty in the Asian region. →	Farmers bear the brunt of poverty in Asia.
Simplifying	The land reform monitoring indicators are very useful. ("Very" adds little value to the statement.) →	The land reform monitoring indicators are useful; or The land reform monitoring indicators are highly useful.

MAKING YOUR REPORT MORE ACCESSIBLE AND INTERESTING

The truth of what you want to communicate should be enough in itself—land rights for the poor are indisputably important—but the reality is, people first have to be *interested* enough in what you are saying so that they read on.

How can we get our target audiences' attention, and then retain it?

➲ Add **narratives: anecdotes** and stories. These enliven your text and enrich our reports. Here, it is useful to provide stories from the ground, for example, about how people may be affected by a certain land investment or law, or share experiences of women farmers. But use these at the right moment, and at the right place.

➲ Consider using **boxes.** Boxes are useful in calling attention to a special feature, or to give more detailed information about something mentioned in the text.

> ⮩ Add tables, graphs, and other presentation tools. These visuals help readers understand the text better. Information graphics or infographics present the relationships of complex data in creative and aesthetically appealing ways. Several free visualization tools are available online.

PITFALLS IN REGIONAL WORK:
ACHIEVING COMMON UNDERSTANDING

We recognize our contexts vary across countries, especially since Asia is a highly diverse region. At the same time, we belong to a *regional campaign,* where we voice our issues at different regional and global platforms. For this, we need to highlight shared perspectives and common voices.

We thus attempt to "standardize"—not to squash diversity, but rather to help make terms more understandable to a greater number of people. *Note that most of the comments in this section speak of writing for submission to the **regional** and **international** levels, where readers will be unfamiliar with your country context.*

At the country level, it is of course always better for you to use the terms that everyone is used to, and in your mother tongue.

BEING UNDERSTOOD AT THE REGIONAL LEVEL: CHALLENGES AND SOLUTIONS

Challenges	Solutions
Terms specific to countries and cultures (e.g. *khas, adivasis, adat, haliya, bayanihan*)	Italicize terms. Provide a glossary of terms. Ensure all words in your glossary are contained in the report.
Alphabet soup of acronyms and abbreviations	Provide a list of abbreviations in the beginning. Make sure all abbreviations mentioned are actually found in the main text. If the acronyms are foreign e.g. KPA—provide the non-English name, then its English equivalent in parentheses [e.g. KPA—Konsorsium Pembaruan Agraria (Consortium for Agrarian Reform)]
Different units of measurement (e.g. *lakhs,* crore, decimals, acres, hectares)	Be consistent with use. When easily convertible to the metric system, as in the case of *lakhs,* use the metric system. Provide explanation and conversion in a footnote. (e.g. A decimal is approximately 0.01 acre or 40.46 square meters.)
Different calendar systems (e.g. Bikram Sambat vs. Gregorian)	Use the Gregorian/Western/Christian calendar. Or put in parentheses the Gregorian date.
Different ways of writing numbers (e.g. 1.455 vs. 1,455, 5,05,000 vs. 505,000, 125,81 vs. 125.81)	Use commas to separate thousands from one another, and use decimal points (rather than decimal commas). [e.g. 100,000,000.99]

ACKNOWLEDGING SOURCES

Catherine Liamzon

> *Here we talk about citations, which any serious publication should have. We explain why citations are important, and provide a quick guide on how to cite, using the American Psychological Association (APA) style.*

Passing off someone else's work as your own is a serious offense. We must give credit where it is due, and we do this by acknowledging, through citing, all the sources we have used in our study. We also want to support our claims with solid evidence. To do this, we will sometimes need to cite from other sources. When we properly cite sources, we maintain intellectual integrity, raise our publications to a higher standard, and prevent plagiarism.

We document sources from which we have borrowed not just quotations, but also *ideas.* And just because you have cited your sources, it does not mean that you are already free to paraphrase as you please. For more information, see section on Plagiarism.

There are various systems for citing sources, the most popular being: Chicago Manual of Style; Modern Language Association (MLA) Style; the American Psychological Association (APA). APA style is the most commonly used in the social sciences. Since CSOs conduct research mostly in the tradition of the social sciences, we will use APA style for our publications. This is also to maintain consistency among different studies and papers.

HOW TO CITE—APA STYLE

When we talk about citing sources, we mean two things: in-text citations and the reference list. In-text citations will look familiar. They follow the author-year of publication format and are enclosed in parentheses: (Quizon, 2013) or (ANGOC, 2012). In other systems, footnotes are used. However, remember that providing in-text citations is not enough—these should be accompanied by a complete reference list.

Be precise. When you are citing a source from a publication with several studies written by different writers (as opposed to chapters written by the same author), treat the papers as independent. For example, the Cambodia country paper, "Overcoming a Failure of Law and Political Will" comprises a chapter in ANGOC's *Securing the Right to Land.* Cite the Cambodia paper as included in ANGOC's publication.

Moreover, follow capitalization rules. For in-text citations, capitalize proper nouns. For the reference list, only the first word of the title needs to be capitalized.

A sample reference list

Anseeuw, W., L. Alden Wily, L. Cotula, and M. Taylor. (2011). *Land rights and the rush for land: Findings of the global commercial pressures on land research project.* Rome: International Land Coalition.

Asian NGO Coalition for Agrarian Reform and Rural Development. (2010a). *Advancing the land rights advocacy agenda in Asia: The CSO land reform monitoring initiative.* Highlights of the Proceedings from the Experts' Meeting, 12–13 May 2010, Bangkok. www.angoc.org/portal

Asian NGO Coalition for Agrarian Reform and Rural Development. (2010b). *Ideas in action for land rights advocacy.* Quezon City: Author.

Bending, Tim. (2010). *Monitoring Secure Access to Land: Progress and Prospects.* Land Monitoring Handbook. Rome: International Land Coalition.

Community Self-Reliance Centre. (2012). *Land reform monitoring indicators, Nepal.* Kathmandu: Author.

NGO Forum on Cambodia. (2011). *Statistical Analysis on Land Disputes in Cambodia, 2010.* Phnom Penh: NGO Forum on Cambodia.

Sajoygyo Institute & Konsorsium Pembaruan Agraria [Consortium for Agrarian Reform]. (2011). *Land issue and policy monitoring initiative: Indonesia report.* Report submitted to ANGOC.

FINAL WORDS ON CITATIONS

After all is said and done, APA style is merely a guide. Use your best judgment; be guided by the reason why we must cite sources. The essence of citing sources is to duly acknowledge someone else's contribution—whether this is an idea or an actual quote—and to help readers track down the original source in case they are interested.

Follow the general principles, but do not go overboard in trying to conform to the APA prescriptions. CSOs have to deal with an assortment of sources such as brochures, press releases, monographs, declarations, statements, paid advertisements, memos, and minutes of meetings. It can get confusing.

APA suggests following the sample format most like your source. Make sure that the vital information—author, title of publication, year of publication—are present.

SOME EXCELLENT REFERENCES ON REFERENCES

Surely this short article cannot do the job of listing and explaining all the rules of APA. Of the many online resources providing detailed instructions on how to use APA style, we recommend Purdue Online Writing Lab (OWL) at **www.owl.english.purdue.edu**. It provides the basics, illustrated with examples.

To hark back to the original source, refer to the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 6th edition.

More information on citation is also available from Wikipedia at **http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/citation**

THE EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Catherine Liamzon

The executive summary is one of the most underestimated tools in advocacy. How many potential readers have we lost because of a poorly prepared and badly written executive summary? We may write pages upon pages of detailed reports— but if the executive summary does not engage readers and attract their interest, they will not even go beyond the first page. We aim to make a compelling executive summary that convinces our target audiences—policymakers most especially—to act on our recommendations.

WHAT IS AN EXECUTIVE SUMMARY?

The word "executive" is no accident—it is originally intended for busy executives who do not have enough time to read the full report. Simply put, it is a brief overview of a report. Upon scanning, its readers should know what the report is all about. This implies that all major points—and the supporting evidence—are mentioned.

An executive summary should summarize the key findings, and explain the importance of the findings.

WHAT SHOULD IT CONTAIN, WHAT SHOULD IT DO?

In considering the executive summary, think about the *most important points* in your report that you want readers to take home. Then write concisely.

➲ What is the **focus?** What is the **purpose?** These are two different things. Focus is the "what", while purpose is the "why" of the study. What is the report all about? Why are we monitoring land reform implementation or enhancing ownership and access to land in our countries in the first place?

- ⊃ What is the **context?**
- ⊃ What was the **methodology** of the study? What tools, framework, and indicators were used? What is the geographical scope of the study—did you look at the entire country or only selected provinces or villages?
- ⊃ What are the **findings** and **conclusions?** The study findings must be tight and related to the objectives of the study. What is the basis for the conclusions?
- ⊃ What are the **recommendations?** What are the specific actions that you want specific people to take?

HOW LONG SHOULD IT BE?

It depends. Some people think that 10% of the length of the full report is a good estimate. We prefer one page—or a maximum of two. This means about two to five paragraphs. We know it's difficult, *but it can be done!*

PRACTICAL TIPS

- ⊃ Include only the essentials or the heart of the report: brief introduction and context, purpose, conclusions, and recommendations. An executive summary should summarize the *key findings,* and explain the *importance* of the findings. Don't throw in too much detail.
  - ⊙ Do not spend too much time discussing the history of agrarian reform in your country. The executive summary is not the introduction to your paper—again, it is a summary.
  - ⊙ For example, you don't have to mention the sources for the study, or that the study cited sources, anymore. "The end of the report cites major references …" does not belong to the executive summary.

PRACTICAL TIPS (con't.)

➲ Everything in the executive summary must be in the original report. The executive summary must "match" the contents of the original report; do not suddenly add new information in the summary.

➲ In preparing the executive summary, a good guideline is to follow the "flow" of your report.

- ⊙ A useful tip found online: "Write the executive summary after you have completed the report and decided on your recommendations. Look at first and last sentences of paragraphs to begin to outline your summary. Go through and find key words and use those words to organize a draft of your summary; look for words that enumerate (first, next, finally); words that express causation (therefore, consequently); words that signal essentials (basically, central, leading, principal, major) and contrast (however, similarly, more than, less likely)."[1]

- ⊙ But avoid simply copy-pasting from the main text.

➲ Your executive summary should be stand-alone—it must communicate independently of the original report. Test this by asking someone unfamiliar with the report to read it and see if it makes sense.

➲ Edit, edit, and edit! Check for spelling and grammar. Proofread. Make sure your statements are as precise and sharp as possible. Avoid vagueness, extraneous words, or redundancies. You have a page or two to make a good impression—invest your energy in writing your executive summary well and then polishing it.

- ⊙ Avoid "agrarian reform has still not progressed". Be more specific. After all, this is a monitoring initiative, and we are using *indicators* to be able to measure progress.

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[1] Farmer School of Business, Miami University. (2002). Guidelines for writing an executive summary. Retrieved from **http://www.astia.org/resources/How_to_write_an_execsummary.pdf**

- ⊙ Instead of "…suggest the following recommendations", use "The findings suggest" or "The study recommends".
- ⊙ Instead of "deals with"—use stronger words like "analyzes" or "discusses"

⮑ Define your terms and try to avoid using too many abbreviations. Spell out acronyms.

⮑ Be precise and specific, especially with recommendations.

⮑ Don't merely describe the study—dive right into the **analytical** part. And in discussing the analysis, make sure you mention the parameters and indicators used.

⮑ Be clear about your purpose and focus. What is the focus of the study: the set of indicators or the topic of land reform itself? Be upfront and state this.

- ⊙ Purpose: are you stating the objectives of the CSO monitoring initiative (which is to enhance CSOs' capacities to support advocacy through the development of a land reform monitoring framework)? Or rather, the objectives of the monitoring reports per se (which is to strengthen our recommendations through solid evidence)?
- ⊙ Who is the subject? The subject is the "study"—not the country. "The Philippines developed a framework…" - it is not the Government of the Philippines that conducted the study. Use instead: "This study…"

⮑ Avoid our NGO and monitoring "jargon". Don't assume that readers will know what you mean if they do not work within the NGO/CSO community or the development sector.

- ⊙ For example, phrases like "input indicators" or "effect indicators". We prefer "this study focuses on changes in policies" or "outcomes".
- ⊙ "Strengthening mechanisms" as a recommendation— what exactly do you mean? Be more specific about which mechanisms and how these are strengthened.

SOURCES

Many of the examples here are based on the exercises during the training program. We truly learn from our mistakes! Antonio Quizon's comments on participants' sample executive summaries proved a useful resource for some of the tips.

Major reference

Farmer School of Business, Miami University. (2002). Guidelines for Writing an Executive Summary. Retrieved from **http://www.astia. org/resources/How_to_write_an_execsummary.pdf**

Here is an example of an edited executive summary. Note the common pitfalls in writing an executive summary.

Too much detail. Just summarize the main point, and only mention the most important points.

See example:
Only a fifth (21%) of the land is cultivable. The average landholding is less than a hectare, and one-third (32.1%) of households are landless. Ownership is highly skewed, and also biased against women.

Nepal is a land scarce country. Only about 21% out of the total area of the country (147,181 sq km) is cultivable. Out of agricultural land (2,498,000 ha in 2001, mountain (6.8%), hills (40.4%) and Terai (52.9%) is available for farming where 7.3%, 44.3% and 48.4% people, live in these ecological belts, respectively. An average land holding size is 0.96 ha and 32.1% of households are landless (CBS, 2002: 45). Out of the total land holdings, 1.4% landowners own 14% of arable land. Of the total cultivable land, about 9% is under tenancy system.

The country has a fairly new democracy, which is in the process of land reform. There is ongoing struggle of landless, poor and marginalized people, who have land, based livelihoods but are deprived to access and control over the land and other basic resources. Community Self Reliance Center (CSRC) is facilitating the Land

and agrarian rights movement across the country organized through Land Rights Forum (NLRF), which is active in 53 out of 75 districts of Nepal.

As civil society organizations (CSOs) continue to implement various land rights programs, a new initiative has been the development of CSO land reform monitoring indicators. CSRC has analyzed the status, scope, issues, and challenges relevant to the monitoring indicators for land reform. The process of developing CSO monitoring indicators revealed the information and data gaps in various components of land reform policies and implementations. Government land reform policy framework includes all the stakeholders. The role of CSOs is to coordinate with other stakeholders for policy development and implementation. Nepali people from five decades (1961–2011) are been in Nepal in the issue of land reform. Especially in the last two decades. Only 21% of total area of the country is cultivable. This inequality was 0.544 in 2001 (CBS, 2006). About 47% of land-owning households have claim to only 15% of the total agricultural land with an average size of less than 0.5 ha, while the top 5% occupy more than 37% of land. The distribution of land is very unequal. For example, 47 percent of land-owning households own only 15 percent of the total agricultural land with an average size of less than 0.5 ha, while the top 5 percent occupies more than 37% of land. Inequality in land distribution as measured by Gini Coefficient was 0.544 in 2001 (CBS, 2006). About 29% households do not own any land (UNDP, 2004). About 80% of the indigenous population is marginal landowners, owning only less than 1 acre, or small cultivators (owning 1–2

Question: Is this the "objective" of the study? Or is this the "perspective" used for the study?

Not relevant.

What are these? Are these some findings? If so, the key points should just be summarized.

acres). Most Dalits are landless (around 44% in Terai, 22% in Hill). The gender dimension of land distribution is even more critical: men own 92% of the land holdings (Adhikari, 2008).

"The study shows that the.." [Add before "Number of holdings"]

● Number of holdings more than doubled in the last 40 years, mainly because of population growth and continuous dependence of people on land. Cultivated land area increased very marginally, especially in the last two decades. The average land holding has been consistently declining, and it reached 0.8 ha (per family) in 2001, and further declined to 0.6 ha in 2009 (CBS, 2009). Land fragmentation is another problem in the country. There are about 3.3 parcels in each land holding, and average size of a parcel was 0.24 ha in 2001. Such a small size of a parcel is also not conducive for the use of modern inputs, especially in building the infrastructure like irrigation facilities

Summarize findings and implications or significance.

Not relevant.

In Nepal the following acts are for land reform process,

➲ Land Act, 1964,
➲ Land (Measurement and Inspection) Act, 1963
➲ Agriculture (New Arrangements) Act, 1963
➲ Land Administration Act, 1963
➲ Land Revenue Act, 1978

PRESENTING YOUR RESULTS

Catherine Liamzon

Getting the data is half the battle. The other half is effectively communicating it with your audience. One weakness of many CSO publications is that though we may have data, we cannot communicate them *as well as we should*—our messages do not come across clearly.

VISUALIZATION TOOLS

We generally tell great stories or narratives, but we can further enhance the information by using visualization tools like **tables, graphs,** and **charts.** This allows us to highlight key features of our data. But remember that these are not only visualization tools; they are also **analytical tools**—by presenting data differently, we may be able to see new patterns or trends.

Our land reform monitoring initiative could use more creativity and strategy in displaying our results or findings.

> **Tables** are a simple and neat way of presenting data. Instead of merely mentioning data elements, you can neatly put them in a table.

NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS IN NEPAL, BY SIZE GROUP

Ranking	Ownership (in ha)	Number of households	Number of households as percentage of total (%)
Landless	0–0.1	287,100	10.13
Marginal	0.1–0.3	670,000	23.64
Small	0.3–0.5	648,000	22.86
Medium	0.5–3	1,131,560	39.93
Rich	3–10	93,700	3.31
Richest	More than 10	3,800	0.13

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, 2006

Charts and graphs are useful tools of analysis. They also help display your information. Microsoft Excel supports the creation of several types of charts. There are many kinds of charts, but for our purposes, we've identified the most useful.

> **Column charts** or **bar graphs** are ideal for showing data in columns and rows. These are useful for comparing items.

NUMBER OF CASES RECEIVED BY KPA BASED ON CONLICT TYPE UNTIL 2000
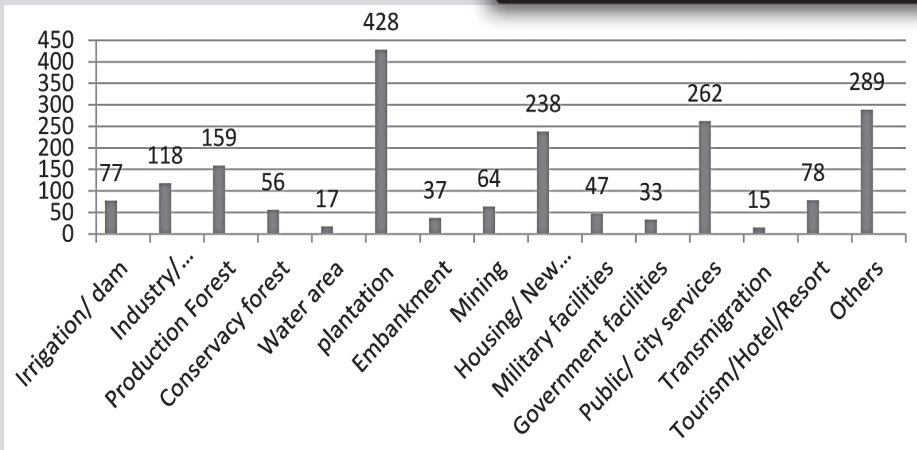
Source: Sajogyo Institute & Consortium for Agrarian Reform. 2011. Land Issue and Policy Monitoring Initiative: Indonesia Report.

> **Vertical bar** or **column graphs** are particularly useful in showing changes over a period of time.

TOTAL AREA OF LAND DISTRIBUTED IN THE PHILIPPINES, BY ADMINISTRATION
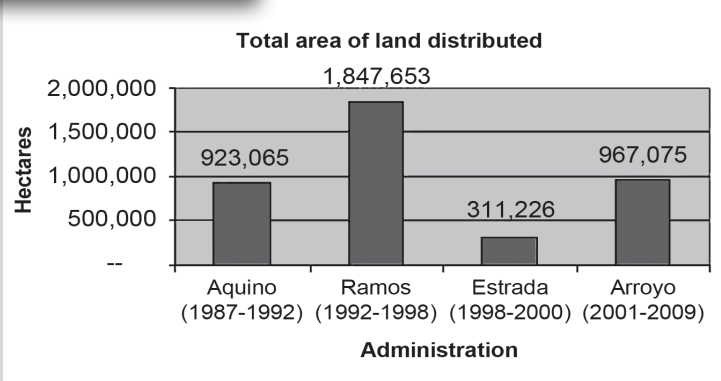
Source: PhilDHRRA. 2010. Country Land Monitoring Report: Philippines.
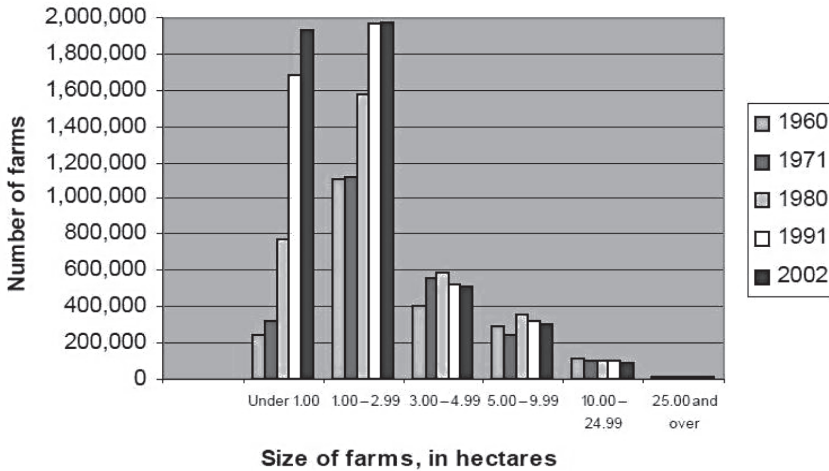
There are more complicated column charts.

The **clustered column** helps compare values across categories.

NUMBER OF FARMS BASED ON FARM SIZE IN THE PHILIPPINES (1960–2002)

Source: PhilDHRRA. 2010. Country Land Monitoring Report: Philippines.

A **stacked column** compares individual items in their relation to the whole, across categories. This is useful for multiple data series. The **100% stacked column** is a variation of the stacked column, and is useful when the total is the same for each category, and you want to show how much each part contributes.
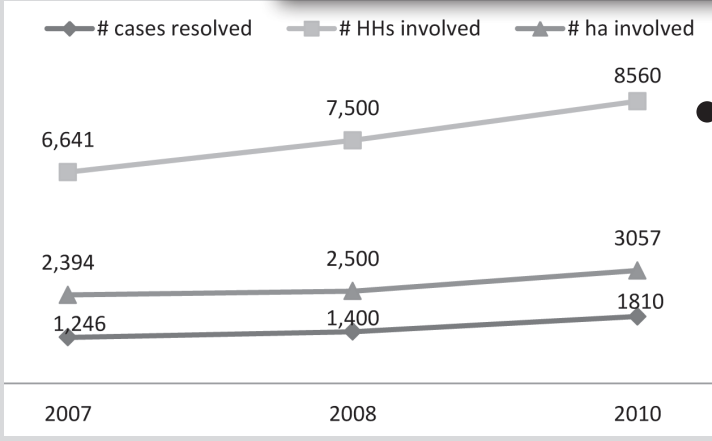
ARF ALLOTMENT AND OBLIGATION (2000–2007)
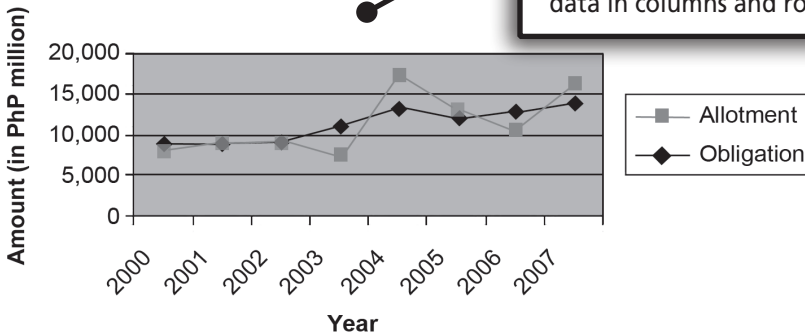
Line charts or **line graphs** are appropriate if you have data in columns and rows.

Source: PhilDHRRA. 2010. Country Land Monitoring Report: Philippines.

Plot the category data evenly along the horizontal axis and the value data evenly along the vertical axis.

Line charts are commonly used to display trends in data at equal intervals, normally over time.

LAND DISPUTES RESOLVED BY CADASTRAL COMMISSION

- ◆ # cases resolved
- ■ # HHs involved
- ▲ # ha involved

8560

7,500

6,641

3057

2,394   2,500

1,810

1,246   1,400

2007   2008   2010

Source: STAR Kampuchea. 2010. Land Monitoring Report: Cambodia.

See the examples on the Philippines' Agrarian Reform Fund (ARF) Allotment and Obligation, and Land Disputes Resolved by Cambodia's Cadastral Commission. Both line graphs present different variables (allotment and obligation; cases resolved, households involved, and hectares involved) over a certain period.

Pie charts are good for showing how a whole is divided into several parts or "slices".

DISTRIBUTION OF LAND OWNERSHIP BY LAND TITLES IN CAMBODIA

Owned by men 5%

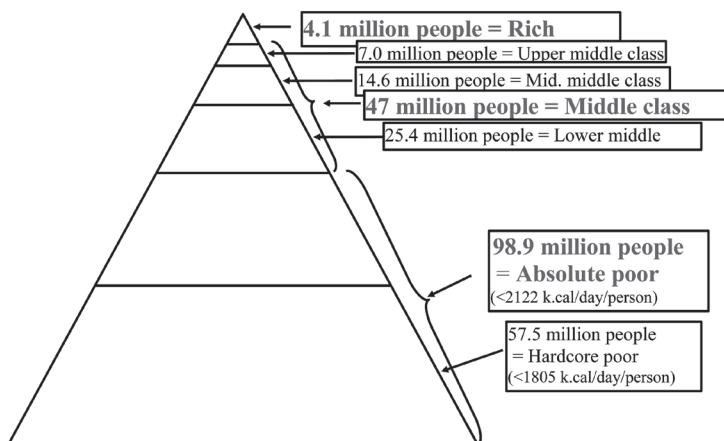Owned by monasteries 5%

Owned by women 20%

Owned by couple 70%
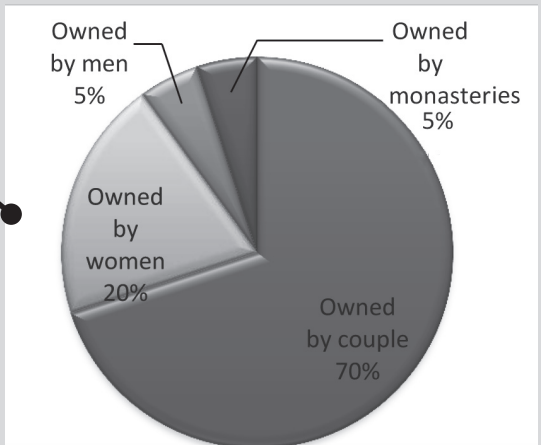
Source: Based on data from the Royal Government of Cambodia, 2010. Cited in STAR Kampuchea. 2010. Land Monitoring Report: Cambodia.

Use pie charts when you have data in percentages. Do not use them when you have too many parts or categories. Since pie charts are useful for highlighting one or two parts, they do not work well when the parts are fairly equal in size. In other words, it is not very useful to show a pie of eight roughly equal slices.

Pyramids present hierarchical data. They are useful for demonstrating relations of inequality.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CLASS IN BANGLADESH

4.1 million people = Rich
7.0 million people = Upper middle class
14.6 million people = Mid. middle class
47 million people = Middle class
25.4 million people = Lower middle

98.9 million people = Absolute poor
(<2122 k.cal/day/person)

57.5 million people = Hardcore poor
(<1805 k.cal/day/person)

Source: Barkat, A. 2010. Political economy of women's empowerment and land rights: issues to ponder upon. In ANGOC and ALRD. 2011. Asian regional workshop on women and land rights: workshop proceedings. 25-26 October 2010. Dhaka. (p. 52) Quezon City: ANGOC and ALRD.

Lastly, **maps** are highly useful to demonstrate patterns, especially since land always has a geographic dimension.

MINING CONCESSIONS IN CAMBODIA

Source: OpenDevelopment Cambodia. 2011. **http://www. opendevelopmentcambodia.net/ kml-maps/concessions_for_ mining.pdf**

For instance, in the map, we can see clearly where the mining concessions are in Cambodia.

At the simplest level, we can use maps to show the location of what we are monitoring—where land disputes are occurring, or where economic land concessions are concentrated, for example. We can use the maps to show the geographic features of our country to better establish the context. For instance, we can show that our country is comprised of different islands, or is completely landlocked. To understand Nepal and its different tenure systems, development regions and agro-ecological regions, a map is the best tool.

DON'T FORGET

- ➲ Choose the appropriate visualization tool.
- ➲ Graphs should always have immediate visual impact. They must aid the understanding of the reader, not further confuse.
- ➲ Cite the source/s of your data
- ➲ Always give your graph or chart a caption.
- ➲ Check if your units of measurement are correct. Choose appropriate scale (appropriate high and low values) for your graph.
- ➲ Make sure to use a legend, which is a box that identifies patterns (e.g., stripes or dots) or colors representing your data categories.

Many tutorials on making different kinds of graphs are available online.

Practice makes perfect. We encourage you to try and experiment. Consult researchers and academics (including your steering committee) regarding how to best present your data. Also, you can "test" your graphs by asking people (especially from your target audience) what message your graph conveys.

Strike a *balance* when choosing to work with graphs. Don't overdo it. Do not use graphs for the sake of using graphs, or just because they look sophisticated. Check if people understand what you are trying to say. Don't let the graphs distract the reader from your real message.

The Help section of your Microsoft Office program **(Hit F1)** contains useful information on creating charts. Just search for it.

LEARN MORE

The best explanations can be found in Microsoft online help and in the help section of your word processor. **http://office.microsoft. com/en-us/excel-help/available-chart-types-HA001233737. aspx?CTT=5&origin=HA010099739**

Digital Research Tools Wiki has a section dedicated to Data Visualization: **http://www.roehampton.ac.uk/lskills/TLTP3/WN/Numeracy Diagrms.html**
https://digitalresearchtools.pbworks.com/w/page/ 17801661/Data%20Visualization

If you want to learn more about the fascinating art and science of visualization, do visit Many Eyes, an experimental site brought to us by the IBM Research and the IBM Cognos software group.

By exploring the site, you can learn more about the myriad ways data can be visualized. The best feature of the site is that you can actually upload your data set, visualize it, and receive feedback from others. Visit: **http://www.many-eyes.com**

LAND PORTAL

Filipo Brasesco

> *The Land Portal* **(landportal.info)** *is a resource to improve land reform monitoring effectiveness. It is a tool anyone can use to find as well as share land-related information.*

The Land Portal is a **hub for open data** that enables land practitioners worldwide to access highly reliable information on land, with just few clicks. It also promotes space for **stakeholders' dialogue** within the land community. It is a project partnership open to all stakeholders that want to share their knowledge with their peers.

The Land Portal is a community-driven Portal. It is open to everybody. We try to strengthen the connections between information and users—opening up data and providing free access to knowledge. The **collaborative architecture** of the Land Portal is its greatest strength because it allows the Portal to aggregate and draw upon the resources, expertise, and perspectives of participating organizations, encouraging crowdsourcing.

International organizations, governments, CSOs, and research centers are part of this partnership. In this regard, we try to integrate official documents and figures with first-hand grassroots knowledge to provide the widest range of data and perspectives on land.

Ultimately, the Land Portal is about **Connectivity, Communication and Content.**

The Land Portal is a gathering point for a community of people and organizations concerned with land issues. The Portal now has **70 partner organizations** committed to improving the flow, availability, validation and harmonization of data. This network guarantees a steady stream of new content and resources added every day. You can take advantage of this network by disseminating news and information about your activities, and by knowing what others are doing in your region.

You can also easily monitor trends in land governance and other land-related issues by **connecting with a community of experts and organizations** to discuss with peers working on similar land issues worldwide.

Recent figures show that the activity of the website grew steadily in 2012—rising to an average 10,000 visits/month. Over 1,000 users are now populating the Land Portal with content at global, regional and country levels. Through the Land Portal, you have the opportunity to **get more visibility** and better advocate for your campaigns and activities. Users also receive monthly updates through the newsletter, which is currently delivered in English, French, and Spanish.

Discussion and interaction with peers

One of our goals is to monitor land governance and land rights by **gathering the land community to debate** on key issues. In the recent past, many discussions were promoted successfully through the Land Portal. For example, we've facilitated the monitoring of best practices to secure women's land rights through an online discussion. This discussion received around 50 inputs from experts and organizations, and results were presented to the FAO–IFAD–ILC side event at the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) in February 2012. Another example is the monitoring of effects of land reform in Madagascar, which was facilitated on the Land Portal in 2011. Reports and documents—as well as other examples of online discussion—are available on the Portal.

Content

With more than 10,000 documents and statistics from many land-related databases—the Land Portal is a great **source of data and information** for organizations, activists and academia in constant evolution. On the Land Portal, data are aggregated by category (i.e. commercial pressure on land, gender, indigenous people, etc.) and also by country.

Currently, there are 180 country profiles that regroup available data, documents and stats by geographic area. Due to this feature, you can monitor what is happening on land issues in a given country by simply visiting a single page, without consulting several websites.

HOW YOU CAN USE THE LAND PORTAL

On the Land Portal you can:

- ⮡ Find reliable updated information on land and monitor trends in land governance and rights

    Enter key words. Have all documents integrated. Filter by group, area, resource type. This is useful if you want to monitor specific activities of the organization or data on a specific topic. You can sort all the results.

- ⮡ Disseminate news and results of your activities and aggregate your data and knowledge

    You can upload documents, create news. You have the opportunity to choose. Choose a name or appealing title, and a sub-title if you want to be more precise. Give a description of the document you are uploading, so people will know the content. It is important to properly tag your resources (e.g. documents, etc.). Whenever you upload documents, do this by category and country/region. If you want to get more accessibility, upload photo. Your organization should be in the database. Attach file, select language.

- ⮡ Facilitate new debates and join existing discussions

    The Land Portal facilitates discussions,but you'll be the moderator. Select the proper title. Tag!

    People and members can comment on your inputs, you can comment back and give a brief overview of what is going on.

DESIGNING YOUR STRATEGY
ELEMENTS OF A SUCCESSFUL ADVOCACY CAMPAIGN

Tin Geber

This is an excellent cheat sheet for remembering those critical factors that spell success for our advocacy campaigns.

AN EFFECTIVE CAMPAIGN SHOULD

A	Attract attention
I	Generate interest
D	Encourage a desire to respond
A	Prompt action

ELEMENTS

1. Goal
2. Objectives
3. Research
4. Target audience
5. Power analysis
6. Tactics
7. Timeline
8. Outcome evaluation

1. Goal

▷ The basis for your campaign
▷ As specific as possible

Proposition statement

▷ What is the problem? What do you think is the solution?
▷ A couple of concise sentences
▷ May need changes over time

2. Objectives

Make them **SMART**

Specific
Measurable
Achievable
Realistic
Time-bound

3. Research

➲ Background research
➲ Previous work
➲ Context mapping

4. Target audience

If a campaign targets everyone, it reaches no one in particular.

▷ Who can actually make the change you want to see?
▷ Audience profiling
- ➲ Demographics
- ➲ Geography
- ➲ Attitudes
- ➲ Media habits
- ➲ Culture

5. Power analysis

Define your stakeholders.

- ➲ Champions
- ➲ Blockers
- ➲ Swingers

6. Tactics

Best approaches to reach your objectives.

- ➲ Petitions
- ➲ Group mobilization
- ➲ Data visualizations
- ➲ Exposing key figures

7. Timeline

Release when need is greatest.

- ➲ Map planning and production
- ➲ Create release dates
- ➲ Grow progressively
- ➲ Relate to important events
- ➲ Be realistic

8. Outcome evaluation

Make sure your campaign was a success.

- ➲ What worked? What didn't?
- ➲ Use outcomes for campaigning
- ➲ Document your impact

LWA Focal Points

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Email: star@starkampuchea.org.kh
Website: www.starkampuchea.org.kh

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Website: www.scope.org.pk

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Partners

The International Land Coalition is a global alliance of civil society and inter-governmental organizations working together to promote secure and equitable access to and control over land for poor women and men through advocacy, dialogue and capacity building.

As the overseas development agency of the Catholic Church in Germany, MISEREOR works in partnership with all people of goodwill to promote development, fight worldwide poverty, liberate people from injustice, exercise solidarity with the poor and persecuted, and help create "One World." MISEREOR supports projects and promotes local initiatives in Africa, Asia and Latin America, irrespective of nationality, religion and gender.

Enhancing Land Reform Monitoring Effectiveness: A Toolkit for CSOs

Written primarily for land rights advocates in Asia, this publication compiles easy-to-read articles on how to effectively undertake land reform monitoring, which contributes to CSOs' evidence-based advocacy. The articles are based on lectures and presentations from an ANGOC/Land Watch Asia training program in May 2013 on land reform monitoring. The training sessions built on NGO participants' knowledge and skills on effective monitoring, focusing on research methods, policy analysis, report writing, and social media for advocacy.

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INTERNATIONAL LAND COALITION