

Indicators for Monitoring

This section offers a more detailed treatment of the proposed indicators for monitoring, focusing on land tenure and access to land, but also on inputs such as budgets and policies. More importantly, it provides working definitions for the indicators, as well as notes on rationale, possible data sources, suggested approaches, and probes.

Monitoring Land Tenure

Land tenure 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” (International Fund for Agricultural Development [IFAD], 2008).

If a person has land tenure security, it means that his or her land rights will be recognized by others and protected. Conversely, those who are insecure in their land tenure are at risk to various claims on their land rights, and at risk to eviction (Food and Agriculture Organization [FAO], 2002).

In this initiative, land tenure comprises two broad variables: land disputes and evictions.

LAND DISPUTES: INDICATORS

- Number of people killed
- Number of people detained
- Number of persons harassed
- Number of land-related cases received
- Number of land-related cases investigated
- Number of land-related cases adjudicated
- Number of cases of land grabbing
- Area (Percentage) of land grabbed
- Average time in years for land dispute resolution
- Annual loss of time due to disputes
- Annual monetary loss associated with land disputes/litigation
- Annual loss of asset due to land disputes

Land Disputes

Land disputes are disagreements over land that arise from conflicting or competing interests of different parties over the same parcel of land; land rights, boundaries, or uses are contested, according to FAO (2002). These disputes can “operate at any scale, from the international to those between individual neighbors.” (Herrera & da Passano, 2006, pp. 8-9)

The terms disputes and conflicts have different connotations. However, for simplicity’s sake, we will use land disputes interchangeably with land conflicts here, unless stated otherwise.

For the purposes of our monitoring, we would like to look at land disputes among tenants, farmers, government, landowners, private sector, and the state, to name a few – but **not** gender disputes, or intra-household or intra-family disputes over land partition and the order of succession, for example. You can expand your

monitoring to cover indigenous peoples and other marginalized sectors, but bear in mind this will entail different definitions and approaches.

We would like to develop an analysis of the underlying problems related to land. Land remains a major source of conflict in many Asian countries, where a great part of the population depends on it for their livelihoods. Often, conflicts arise from questions on ownership and rights and access to resources, amid intensifying competition for land and conflicting policies.

By examining disputes and their causes, we can sharpen our recommendations. For example, our findings may show that poor land records are the leading cause of disputes. This means we can push for improvement in land registries, such as through digitization. If our monitoring results clearly demonstrate that land conflicts arise because of conflicting policies, we can push for a national land use plan, or a harmonization or alignment of strategies. Furthermore, looking at the nature of disputes can shed more light on power relations over land or the asymmetries in conflict.

We can identify various types of conflict, especially those that need to be urgently addressed, as well as those that are latent and have the potential to escalate in the near future. We can advocate for interventions that can prevent, or at least mitigate, such conflicts.

Killings, detention and harassment

Land disputes may erupt in direct violence, with people ending up harassed or killed. Direct violence refers to “physical and moral violence that may be part of interpersonal conflicts” (Herrera & da Passano, 2006, p.13). People are also **detained**¹ or locked up in prison on account of land disputes. We learn from using a rights-based approach – in this case focusing on human

- Number of people killed*

The number of people killed from land-related causes

- Number of people detained*

The number of people detained means who were arrested, detained or imprisoned due to land-related causes

- Number of persons harassed*

The number of people persecuted, intimidated, and/or threatened with violence. For the sake of simplicity, we are looking at how many people are harassed – not how many times a person is harassed.

To the extent possible, please provide data per 100,000 population (See Box 1).

¹ FIAN suggests *arbitrary* detention – which is indeed a human right violation. However, this type of data is not readily available, and necessitates primary data gathering.

rights violations because of land – that urgent action is needed to safeguard these land rights and exact accountability from governments to prevent violations of land rights.

Gathering Data

Data on land disputes can come from official records, when complaints are lodged with official institutions; data can also be obtained from NGO records (Bending, 2010). Killings associated with land disputes are reported in varying degrees, depending on the source. Land-related harassments and detentions are more difficult to track.

The attribution problem: firmly establishing disputes as directly land-related is not always easy, nor doable. Be careful in citing land as the cause of disputes, as disputes may be complex and multi-layered. In building evidence-based advocacies, we are trying to look at land disputes that emanate from problems directly related to the land, rather than from psychological factors.²

Box 1: Absolute numbers or per 100,000 population

We are looking at land-related killings, detainments and harassment; as well as cases received, investigated and adjudicated. Looking at raw counts or absolute numbers e.g. 3,205 demonstrates the magnitude of the problem and helps compare the figures as they change over time.

On the other hand, to more easily compare countries of different sizes with respectively different characteristics, we would like to normalize the data to a denominator of 100,000. For data such as killings, 100,000 represents the smallest number that will generally not yield an answer in decimals e.g. 0.02% of the population are harassed.

Moreover, data on harassment is particularly difficult to obtain, because it often goes unreported. The political environment may also constrain data gathering, especially in situations when the military is involved. Reporting on killings, detentions and harassments may not be possible politically or legally. Consider this as well in monitoring land disputes, and be prudent.

In lieu of government official sources, which is hard to come by, the following sources are suggested (see table on the next page):

Probing

Human rights violations continue to be committed against farmers, despite the presence of dispute resolution mechanisms (Philippine Partnership for the Development of Human Resources in Rural Areas [PhilDHRRA], 2010). We can use statistical analysis to draw conclusions on how land disputes are correlated to other variables, such as corruption and transparency.

² According to Herrera and de Passano: “Land disputes can operate at any scale, from the international to those between individual neighbors. At whatever scale, the dispute is likely to owe as much to the general psychology of neighborly relations as to actual problems relating to the land” (2006).

Alternative Sources	Remarks
Human rights commissions, organizations, and special rapporteurs	Human rights commissions or organizations may not focus on land or separate land as a category, but some of them may note land as a cause of the dispute. The Asian Human Rights Commission (www.humanrights.asia) and Amnesty International are two possible sources of data. The work of special rapporteurs on human rights violations is relevant at the national level.
Media reports e.g. news articles, video coverage	Media coverage is rarely comprehensive, and tends to feature only sensational cases. Killings are reported far more often than incidents of detention and harassment.
Research papers from academic institutions	These reports will likely be methodologically sound and undergo a rigorous research process. Academic institutions are also generally respected for neutrality.
Land-focused rights-based NGOs/CSOs	<p>A few CSOs/NGOs actually monitor land-related disputes, including killings, detention and harassment.</p> <p>CSOs like NGO Forum on Cambodia also have legal officers who make field investigations (Box 2).</p> <p>In the Philippines, NGOs have monitored the land disputes between agrarian reform beneficiaries and landowners; some have focused on overlapping claims of different sectors like indigenous peoples and farmers.</p> <p>FoodFirst and Information Action Network (FIAN) is a rights-based organization working towards the realization of the right to food. They document cases of violations of the right to food; some cases are land-related.</p> <p>In Bangladesh, ALRD and HDRC have used surveys to gather data on deaths, harassments, detainments in families undergoing land litigation.</p> <p>The survey method is also used by CEPES (a Latin American CSO) to assess frequency, severity and nature of disputes.</p> <p>Groups that work at the grassroots level will give detailed albeit localized data i.e., information limited to their area of work.</p>

Land-Related Cases Received, investigated and adjudicated and Resolved

A high ratio of land-related cases highlights the heavy reliance on and competition for land. As it were, land-related cases constitute a significant part of court caseloads in many Asian countries, including all countries covered in the land reform monitoring initiative. In Indonesia, an estimated 60% - 70% of processed cases are land-related, based on data from the Supreme Justice (Sajogyo Institute [SAINS] & Konsorsium Pembaruan Agraria [KPA], 2011). Pakistan has much as 80% of cases brought to the lower-level civil courts and high courts related to land (SCOPE, 2011). Land disputes in Nepal make up some 31% of filed cases (CSRC, 2011).

What is a Case?

The most common understanding of the word “case” is that it is an incident that passes through a dispute resolution system, be it formal or informal. In a few circumstances, it could simply refer to an occurrence or incident recorded by NGOs, government, research institutions, or others. Cases to be monitored may include judicial cases, administrative cases, and those under mediation.

- Number of cases received*
The number of land-related cases filed and received in formal dispute resolution mechanisms – by the courts or adjudication boards.
- Number of cases investigated*
The number of cases that are investigated – these received a response from the government, and were examined thoroughly and systematically – in a year. It should be noted not all cases are investigated within the year they are filed.
- Number of cases adjudicated*
To the extent possible, please provide data per 100,000 population (See Box 1).

Adjudication is a formal form of conflict resolution, where evidence is presented to a judge by both sides; the judge's ruling results in a clear-cut decision favoring one side (Herrera & da Passano, 2006).

- **Average time (in years) for land dispute resolution**
This refers to the average length of time (using years as the unit of measurement) that it takes for a land dispute to be resolved.

Gathering Data

Many disputes and land-related cases are unrecorded or unreported. Bear in mind that not all countries have a specific entity working on land disputes and their resolutions. For example, different agencies may handle different categories of land e.g. forested and non-forested land.

Extrapolation

According to the Merriam-Webster English Dictionary: "to extrapolate" means:

a : to project, extend, or expand (known data or experience) into an area not known or experienced so as to arrive at a usually conjectural knowledge of the unknown area <extrapolates present trends to construct an image of the future> **b** : to predict by projecting past experience or known data <extrapolate public sentiment on one issue from known public reaction on others>

Source: Extrapolation. 2012. In Merriam-Webster.com.

An alternative to the average time for land dispute resolution is to note how many cases are still pending.

If it is difficult to obtain data on the number of land-related cases adjudicated, you may extrapolate using information on the rate of disposal (the rate at which cases are settled) and rate of pending cases.

If data on land-related cases are unavailable at the national level, you may try looking at the district/provincial/village level. Compared to the number of

cases at the national level, there will naturally be more cases at the local level. Many cases are already amicably settled at the lower level. Also, most poor people cannot afford the costs of litigation and traditionally rely on local-level arbitration or alternative dispute resolution (ADR) for the resolution of simple disputes. More complex or severe cases reach the high courts. Because issues are settled at the local level, local arbitration complements and minimizes the load of the formal court system.

Data on land disputes at the lowest level can be significant, especially if the incidence is high; however, gathering and aggregating local-level data is often time-consuming.

Again, a more doable option for CSOs/NGOs is to include localized data that covers their geographic areas of work.

Probing

Caveat: speedy dispute resolution is not intrinsically good. Expediting dispute resolution may be detrimental if it comes at the expense of due process. The formal court system often disadvantages the poor. Questions worth exploring are: *In whose favor are cases settled – in favor of the rich? or of the poor? Are dispute resolution mechanisms (formal and informal) at the lower level effective?*

Land Grabbing

Land grabbing generally refers to the phenomenon where farmlands are leased or acquired by local and foreign entities (from the private sector as well as governments) mostly for agricultural production, but also including special economic zones, real estate, and resource-extractive activities. Land

Box 2: Land Disputes in Cambodia

Since 2006, Cambodia has seen a general increasing trend in land disputes between the rich and powerful on one hand, and the poor and weak on the other. Reports of land grabbing are rife, and many Cambodians live under threat of eviction. The NGO Forum on Cambodia, together with other CSOs making up the Land Action Network for Development (LAND), has embarked on systematic monitoring of land disputes in the country. Drawing from a variety of sources including media, LAND network members, and field investigations, its database contains information on land disputes that specifically have involved at least five households: location, incident date, number of households, land size, primary land type, and resolution status.

The spatial distribution, types of disputes, types of land disputed, strategies in land acquisition, actors involved, reasons for land acquisition, land dispute resolution mechanisms, defendant and complainant claims, among others, are all subjected to statistical analysis. Moreover, the report uses geographic information systems (GIS) maps to present the number of land dispute cases and affected households according to province. Such evidence-based data help strengthen land rights advocacy in Cambodia.

Source: NGO Forum on Cambodia. (2011). Statistical analysis on land disputes in Cambodia, 2010. Phnom Penh: Author.

grabbing is fueled by the influx of investments, and usually involves large-scale land acquisitions and leases. Lands “grabbed” include privately owned land, land under government use, lands of religious and cultural minorities, to name a few.³

Although the above definition is generally the accepted one, the term “land grabbing” means different things to different groups, and is thus used variably. Nonetheless, the term implies that *land is taken without the consent or agreement of the other party*.

After pilot testing the indicators, we have come to the following results: Indonesia defines it as “seizure of land that has been cultivated and settled in by the people,” that, despite proof of ownership and payment of taxes, government and big businesses take their lands for plantations or military facilities (SAINS & KPA, 2011). Use of the term in Bangladesh is for

Box 3: Land Grabbing: A Definition

ILC: Local-level land grabs particularly by powerful local elites, within communities or among family members.

Large-scale land grabbing: “as acquisitions or concessions that are one or more of the following:

(i) in violation of human rights, particularly the equal rights of women; (ii) not based on free, prior and informed consent of the affected land-users; (iii) not based on a thorough assessment, or are in disregard of social, economic and environmental impacts, including the way they are gendered; (iv) not based on transparent contracts that specify clear and binding commitments about activities, employment and benefits sharing, and; (v) not based on effective democratic planning, independent oversight and meaningful participation.”

-Tirana Declaration, ILC Assembly of Members

Source: International Land Coalition (2011). “Tirana Declaration”

powerful people illegally occupying state-owned land (Barkat, 2011). In Cambodia, land grabs have occurred because of economic land concessions (STAR Kampuchea, 2011). India, Cambodia and the Philippines have experienced land grabbing for the expansion of special economic zones; while mining concessions in Indonesia, Cambodia, and the Philippines – are considered land grabbing and has displaced many a community in those

countries (ANGOC, 2012). Nepal’s land grabbing features the conversion of agricultural lands for real estate development amid land speculation (CSRC, 2012). Because it is possible that a country may have relatively few cases of land grabbing, but which concern vast swathes of land, we will also consider the percentage of area of land grabbed, to the extent possible.

³ For more information, please refer to ANGOC’s *Lok Niti*: “Land Grab: Changing the Terrain of Land Tenure” Volume 18/1 2012.

- Number of land grabbing cases
The number of documented cases of land grabbing
- Percentage of land-grabbed area
Area of land grabbed, as a percentage of total land. This can be easily calculated by dividing the total area of land grabbed by the total area of cultivable agricultural land.

$$\% \text{ area of land grabbed} = \frac{\text{area of land grabbed}}{\text{total area of cultivated land}}$$

Gathering Data

First things first: in undertaking monitoring, you should labor to explain specifically how you use the term land grabbing in your country.

What is a Case?

When dealing with land grabbing *specifically*, we refer to documented **incidents** of land grabbing, rather than technical cases or lawsuits that are filed in court.

Consolidated data on land grabbing and its magnitude are difficult to obtain, often patchy, primarily because of the lack of transparency on the part of governments and the private sector. Much is hearsay or anecdotal evidence. Media reports have been a popular source of data in the course of piloting. In most countries, there are no authoritative sources in the countries as regards how much land has actually been acquired or leased.

Ideally, you will have data per case on: location and size of land grabbed, source of investment (e.g. which foreign government or multinational corporation), amount of investment, year of reported incident, and data source. Table 1 (on the following page) is a suggestion on how you can present your data.

Table 2 (on the succeeding page) shows a few sources of land grabbing data, with a few tentative comments on what to expect.

Many CSOs have demonstrated excellence in case documentation, describing in mostly qualitative terms how communities are affected by land grabbing. We put forward the following considerations in preparing a case study:

- **Actors.** Who are involved? Which companies? Which governments, and which specific agencies?
- **Transparency.** Are the transactions open and transparent? Or are they conducted in stealth and secrecy?

Table 1: News reports on farmland grabbing in the Philippines

<i>Entity/Country</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Amount Involved*</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Data Source</i>
Bahrain	10,000 ha for agrofisbery	Unknown	\$300 M	2009	Campos, Othel. 31 March 2009. "RP, Bahrain sign \$300-m farm investment package". <i>Manila Standard Today</i> .
Saudi Arabia (ANI/FEAICO)	50,000 ha for crop plantations and processing plants	Mindanao	Initial capitalization of \$1 million under a 60% Filipino and 40% foreign equity ownership and profit sharing scheme	2010	farmlandgrab.org (a website managed by GRAIN) http://farmlandgrab.org/12807
Saudi Arabia	50 ha for crop plantation	Davao		2009	http://farmlandgrab.org/9798

*This would pertain to the amount of agricultural investment, or transaction cost.

Adapted from PhilDHRRA. (2010). *Systematizing access to land monitoring in the Philippines*. Monograph submitted to ANGOC.

- **Community participation.** Was the affected community consulted and listened to?
- **Geography.** Where is the land grabbing taking place? What is the area of the land under conflict? The more specific, the better. It would be helpful to show the precise area on a map.
- **Impacts.** How are the communities affected? In keeping with the land monitoring initiative, try to be as specific as possible in describing the impacts, how many people were affected, what was the impact on land tenure and food security? etc.
- **Others.** Also examine the indicators proposed in the CSO Land Reform Monitoring Framework.

Loss of Time, money, and Assets due to Land Disputes

The following indicators are suggested to deepen analysis. In general, data is not readily available, and can only be estimated.

- Annual loss of time due to disputes
Annual loss of time refers to productivity time loss, or the total time people involved in land disputes have lost due to land litigation.
- Annual monetary loss associated with land disputes
This indicator looks at indirect monetary loss, which is an estimation of how much money or gross domestic product (GDP) land disputes have cost a country in a year.
- Annual loss of asset due to land disputes

Table 2: Sources of Land Grabbing Data

Sources	Remarks
CSOs	<p>CSOs produce mostly case documentation. ANGOC's journal, <i>Lok Niti</i>, Vol 18/1, focuses on land grabbing and presents cases from different Asian countries.</p> <p>Suggested sites:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FoodFirst International Action Network (FIAN) – www.fian.org • GRAIN's farmlandgrab.org is well-maintained and regularly updated, featuring news reports about the global rush for farmland
Government	Government data, particularly with respect to land grabbing, are more “sanitized” in comparison to other sources of data. But accessibility of such data tends to be limited.
Media	Many reports on land grabbing can be found in newspapers, news magazines, online and in print. Caution must be exercised, as some of the reports are based on hearsay, without solid facts. Investigative journalists provide more substantive data on the cases.
Academe	<p>The academe can be a source of in-depth studies on land grabbing, and other research initiatives that CSOs might be interested in engaging in. Academic rigor is highly useful for CSOs in their advocacy.</p> <p>In some respects, the academe, being seen as an apolitical actor, could have more access to data than CSOs.</p>
Others: Global alliances	<p>The International Land Coalition (ILC) is a global alliance of CSOs and IGOs working on promoting access to and control of land of the rural poor. It is spearheading an initiative on Commercial Pressures on Land, gathering evidence-based data to improve understanding of this phenomenon, facilitate information sharing, and enable dialogue.</p> <p>The Land Matrix http://landportal.info/landmatrix is an online public database on land deals, and allows visualization of data. It is a collaborative effort of ILC, the Center for Agricultural Research for Development, International Institute for Environment and Development, Center for Agricultural Research for Development, Center for Development and Environment (University of Bern), German Institute of Global and Area Studies and GIZ. It aims to facilitate the collection and representation of data, and also depends on contributions from various stakeholders. It provides a regular analysis of trends.</p> <p>There are also international multi-stakeholder conferences on land grabbing that take place. These are significant opportunities to hear about what's going on in other countries and regions on land grabbing (as well as broader land and development issues).</p>

Annual loss of assets looks at a basket of assets, such as agricultural land, crops, cash, livestock, and trees, which are lost in a year's time because of involvement in land disputes. It includes direct monetary loss, pertaining to the costs directly associated with litigation and settling disputes.

Gathering Data

A simple and inexpensive method has been proposed⁴ to determine *annual loss of time* and *annual loss of money* due to land disputes, assuming the number of disputes is known. Note that these indicators can only be estimated.

Annual loss of time can be extrapolated based on: the annual number of land-related pending cases; the average number of persons involved in each case – as plaintiff, defendant, family members and witnesses; and average

⁴ Dr. Abul Barkat has done extensive research on the political economy of land litigation in Bangladesh, using a range of useful indicators.

loss of hours per year per person involved. *Annual loss of time* should be converted into hours as the unit of measurement.

The best illustration of extrapolation for this indicator comes from pilot testing the monitoring indicators, specifically from the experience in Bangladesh:

“Extrapolation can be done based on annual number of land-related pending cases (2.5 million cases), number of persons involved in each cases (as plaintiff, defendant, their family members, and witnesses; 45 persons per case), and average loss of hours per year per person involved (15 hours per year per person) – shows that the annual loss of time due to land disputes amounts to 1,687 million hours (or equivalent to 211 million work days)” (ALRD, 2011). On the other hand, *annual monetary loss* can be calculated by multiplying the annual loss of time due to land disputes (see previous paragraph) by using per capita GDP per hour (dividing by 365 days in a year and the number of work hours per day.) This will then be multiplied by the annual number of disputes to yield *annual indirect monetary loss*.

For example, the *annual loss of time* has been computed as 100 million hours. We can derive the annual money lost due to land disputes: we multiply the hours of lost time (in this case, 100 million hours) by the average hourly rate. We base this rate on the per capita GDP. If the gross domestic product per capita (per person) is \$1,200/year: i) we divide this figure by 365 days (for one calendar year). The worth of a person’s work is \$3.29 per day. ii) When we divide by an assumption of 8 working hours per day, we obtain a result of \$0.41/hour. iii) We multiply \$0.41/hour by the annual loss of time, 100 million hours. The result is \$41 million estimated as the annual monetary loss. The indicator on *annual loss of time* calls attention to the fact that time – particularly the time of the poor who are involved in land litigation – is a critical resource. Annual monetary loss indicates the indirect loss to GDP, implying the impact of land disputes on the national economy, on wasting productive hours in land litigation, among others.

You can find updated economic statistics, including on GDP per capita by looking at government economic reports, as well as from statistics from international financial institutions (IFIs) like the Asian Development Bank and the World Bank. Data for this are often available online. GDP remains a term that policy makers can easily understand. When an amount is calculated for to express the annual loss to the country’s economy in terms of GDP, it can be a powerful advocacy tool for land access.

The indicator on annual loss of asset looks at the direct burden experienced by those involved in land disputes. It is broader in the sense that it reflects

the total value of assets – not just land and money – lost. People’s standard of living decline when they are involved in land disputes.

If you are more interested in the effects of land disputes in terms of opportunity costs, on the absence of data on loss of asset, you can also look at other indicators such as: fees for medical treatment after experiencing violence; the school dropout rate of children; or the children’s inability to take the national test as a result of land disputes.⁵

This indicator is important because it recognizes that high costs associated with litigation often drive poor people to landlessness and poverty – even if the verdict is in their favor.⁶

Probing

All the aforementioned indicators on land disputes should serve as springboard for analysis on **major causes of disputes** as well as the **nature or type of disputes**.

- Are the disputes over boundaries or overlapping land titles? Are the conflicts with former landowners? Are the land disputes between grantees of economic land concessions and affected peoples?
- Who perpetrates the human rights violations: government, military, rebel groups, paramilitary, or private landowners? If the data is available, you can enumerate the categories of land disputes and the number of incidents per category, and present this information in a graph or chart.
- Where are land disputes taking place? Is there a special reason for this?
- What is the extent of corruption in land disputes?

EVICTIONS: INDICATORS

- Number of households evicted/ displaced from farms
- Number of households becoming totally homeless of eviction

Evictions

A forced eviction is 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” (UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1997).

A displacement is the forced movement of people away from their land, for various reasons: induced by development, natural disasters or conflict. For the purposes of land reform monitoring, we will only look

⁵ This was a suggestion from the Indonesia country monitoring report.

⁶ In Bangladesh, it has been found that litigation affects both parties in the same way – leading to economic loss, though this will be in varying degrees. For more information, please refer to *Political economy of land litigation*.

at development-forced displacement and resettlement⁷ (DFDR), which is displacement in the name of development. Activities for development include large-scale infrastructure (e.g. dams), economic development projects, mining, and plantations.

This is applied to communities or groups of people, rather than individuals. Since we are monitoring land tenure, we will not cover displacements due to natural hazards (e.g. floods, tsunamis, and desertification), armed conflict, generalized violence and civil strife. Internally displaced persons (IDPs) and environmental refugees are thus excluded from this list.

Evictions and displacements are similar concepts. They both have connotations of violence and coercion. Displacement is used interchangeably with “forced migration”; for the purposes of this monitoring initiative, we will use “displacement” – again, excluding natural disasters- or conflict-induced displacements – interchangeably with “evictions”.

- Number of households evicted/displaced from farms
This refers to the number of households that are either evicted or displaced from their farms in a year.
- Number of households becoming totally homeless of eviction
This indicator looks at how many evicted or displaced households are unable to find options for resettlement and are rendered completely homeless.

Gathering Data

Human rights groups such as Amnesty International provide some data on evictions.

Other CSOs focus on land grabbing and record the number of people and communities evicted or displaced, and describe how this is done (*see section on land grabbing*).

Monitoring Access to Land

Access to land 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” (IFAD, 2008).

Access to land indicators will investigate the distribution or concentration of land ownership and landlessness.

⁷ Formerly called “development-induced displacement”

Land Ownership and Landlessness

The patterns of land ownership in Asia are known to be skewed or uneven, with many landowners owning small parcels of land, while a handful of big landowners in possession of vast swathes of land. There is also a proportion of landless rural people. In monitoring land ownership and landlessness, we are specifically looking at rural/agricultural lands.

Land Ownership Distribution by Size

- Land ownership distribution by size

Refers to the distribution of land ownership grouped according to the size of the plots of land. It shows the patterns of land distribution; in the case of many Southeast and South Asian countries, the concentration of land in the hands of a few.

Landlessness

- Number of landless rural persons

This refers to the absolute number of landless people in rural areas.

- Percentage of landless rural persons among rural population

This refers to the number of landless rural persons expressed as a percentage of rural population.

Landlessness is defined as the “state of those agricultural workers not owning or renting land and without access to permanent employment” (FAO, 2003).

“Landlessness” literally means the absolute lack of land, but not all countries stick to this usage. In Bangladesh, for instance, landless households are technically those owning between 0 and 49 decimals (a decimal being a hundredth of an acre or 40.46 square meters) (Barkat, 2011). Indonesia’s landless own less than 0.2 ha (SAINS & KPA, 2011). Some countries make the distinction between “landless” – or those with absolutely no land – and the “land poor” – where parcels are so small that they cannot support household needs. In Cambodia, the “land-poor” own less than 0.5 ha (STAR Kampuchea, 2011); in Nepal, less than 0.1 ha (CSRC, 2012). Pakistan has categories for the “landless” and “nearly landless” (SCOPE, 2011). The Philippines’ CARP law states that landless beneficiaries are those owning less than 3 ha of agricultural land; but this is for land redistribution purposes. Some NGOs maintain that the landless are those with landholdings of less than 1 ha.

And then there is *effective ownership* (including effective retention), distinct from nominal ownership. Though one may be the legal owner and cultivator of the land, others may claim rights over the harvest. Ideally, monitoring

LAND OWNERSHIP AND LANDLESSNESS: INDICATORS

- Land ownership distribution by size
- Number of women owning land
- Percentage of women owning land
- Number of landless rural persons
- Percentage of landless rural persons
- Gini coefficient
- Bottom-to-top ratio

should not only look at whether people have land title. Instead it should examine whether they exercise effective land ownership or control, by fulfilling three conditions:

- Title deed (legal owner)
- Right to cultivate the land (usufructuary right)
- Right to harvest the cultivation (benefits)

Those who cannot satisfy all of the above three conditions are considered landless (ANGOC, 2010a).

Gathering Data

Usually, data on size distribution of land ownership are presented in terms of number of landholdings (e.g. 5% of the total number of landholdings are large), and in terms of their area as a size category (e.g. 40% of the total agricultural area is made up of marginal farms less than 1 ha). Data on the number of landholdings, farms, or agricultural households are more often available than their area.

The most credible source of data for this are the regular agricultural censuses conducted in most countries.

The data on distribution will be presented in a table. See the example of land ownership distribution in India.

Observe that land ownership is usually grouped according to class sizes: marginal; small; semi-medium; medium; and large. The Agricultural Census of India has complete information on the absolute number of landholdings

Number and area of individual and joint holdings as percentage of total in India (2005-2006)

	Number of holdings, as percentage of total (%)	Area of holdings, as percentage of total (%)
Marginal (below 1 ha)	64.77	20.42
Small (1-2 ha)	18.53	21.10
Semi-medium (2-4 ha)	10.93	24.15
Medium (4-10 ha)	4.93	23.27
Large (over 10 ha)	0.83	11.06

Note: Total may not tally due to rounding off

Source: Agricultural Census, 2005-2006, as cited in Association of Voluntary Agencies for Rural Development (2012). *Country land reforms monitoring report*. Report submitted to ANGOC.

by size, as well as their area. You may choose to include this data. But since we are interested specifically in the distribution, we need to look at the percentages.

In the example above, we can see the number of holdings as percentage of total. This is derived by dividing the number of marginal holdings by the total number of holdings. Similarly, the area of marginal holdings is divided by the total area of landholdings in the country.

Nepal provides another example:

Note that in other countries, classifying landholdings by size – such as “landless”, “marginal”, “small” or “large” does not exist. In that case, simply use the size category (e.g. 0.10 – 0.19 ha, 0.20 – 0.49 ha, etc.).

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 as cited in Community Self-Reliance Centre. (2012). *Land reform monitoring indicators, Nepal*. Kathmandu: Author.

We can never emphasize this enough – *never forget to accurately acknowledge your source, including its year of publication (see section on citations).*

Percentage of Category of landholders in Indonesia, 2003

Category of landholding (ha)	Percentage of total (%)
<0.10	10.9
0.10-0.19	12.4
0.20-0.49	27.9
0.50-0.99	19.7
1.00-1.99	16.1
2.00-5.00	11.4
>5.00	1.6
Total	100.00

Source: Badan Pusat Statistik (BPS) Agricultural Census, 2003, as cited in Sajogyo & KPA. (2011). *Land issue and policy monitoring initiative: Indonesia report*. Report submitted to ANGOC.

Data collection on landlessness is politically sensitive (Bending, 2010). Based on the results of pilot testing this indicator, each country uses its own definition of landlessness. For some countries, an official definition of landlessness exists, and includes the upper limits (if ever) of land ownership e.g., 0 to 0.2 ha. Data on landlessness may be found in the tables on size distribution of land ownership. If no such data on landlessness exists, you

may extrapolate based on the total number of farmers or households in agriculture versus the number of farmers or households in agriculture that possess their own parcel of land.

Probing

Recognizing that fishers, and indigenous peoples and other marginalized groups will have different, more nuanced, contexts for land ownership, we encourage you to develop sub-indicators accordingly. Ownership will have to be treated as a more flexible concept for such groups.⁸

Analysis is warranted on trends of land ownership, such as: land fragmentation, land reconcentration, and inequality. For instance, the various dimensions of inequality are almost always correlated to each one another (McKay, 2002). We encourage land rights advocates to explore how land inequality is linked to other such dimensions of inequality, such as health and nutrition, education, power, and gender.

Lastly, we mention that the average size of landholdings (weighted) is another useful indicator for access to land, especially given the generally skewed nature of land ownership. The weighted average will account for the differences in the number of landholdings per size class. This will come in handy when analyzing trends in land ownership and landlessness.

Gini Coefficient

In a region where the gap between rich and poor, not only in terms of incomes, but also assets such land, is reputedly increasing, measuring inequality is useful. The Gini coefficient for land ownership inequality is proposed as an indicator to assist analysis of land ownership trends. This indicator of inequality can paint a good picture of the state of land reform implementation. High levels of inequality in land ownership may suggest that, for example, the task of land reforms is still unfinished, or that a reversal of land reforms is taking place.

- Gini coefficient land or income inequality
Also known as the Gini index or Gini ratio, the Gini coefficient is used as an expression of inequality, and moves from a continuum of 0 to 1, with 0 describing perfect equality and 1 (or 100) denoting perfect inequality.

Gathering Data

While we encourage CSOs to use Gini coefficients in their analyses, calculating for the Gini coefficient will be more skillfully calculated by economists.

⁸ Admittedly, such measures of land concentration may not reflect access to land as experienced by groups outside formal registration systems.

Gini coefficients, are more easily available, will most likely be for incomes rather than land specifically. There are some studies on land inequality that employ the Gini coefficient, but there is far more data available on the Gini coefficient for income inequality.

FAO actually has a database of agricultural census data, including data on number, area, and tenure of holdings, and the Gini index of concentration, from several Asian countries. However, the data are old, the latest being from the agricultural census round of 1990.

Other sources of income inequality data include:

- The World Income Inequality Database (WIID) of United Nations University – World Institute for Development Economics Research (UNU-WIDER) – http://www.wider.unu.edu/research/Database/en_GB/database/
- The World Bank's "A New Data Set Measuring Income Inequality", The World Bank Economic Review, 10(3): 565-91, 1996. (Though this is a bit dated).

Tenancy Rights

Tenancy is the general term used to refer to the arrangement of farming on land that is not one's own. Tenancy rights are the missing element between ownership and landlessness. Although tenants may have the right to harvest, they do not own the land.

Sharecropping, the most common form of tenancy, is the traditional arrangement wherein the farmer gives a certain pre-arranged percentage or share of his produce to the landowner as rent. There are different sharecropping arrangements. Some have 50-50 terms; others 40-60; etc. Sharecropping is popular because it is flexible, responsive to production conditions; and requires minimum cash on the part of poor sharecroppers (Lastarria-Cornhiel & Melmed-Sanjak, 1999 in FAO, 2001).

TENANCY RIGHTS: INDICATORS

- Number of sharecroppers
- Percentage of sharecroppers with legal documentation

In some cases, the distinction is made between sharecropping and tenancy, where the use of "tenancy" is narrower, meaning the lease of land. Leaseholders, as the term suggests, pay the landowner monetary rent for the land.

- Number of sharecroppers
This refers to the number of sharecroppers – farmers giving a pre-arranged percentage or share of their produce to the landowner as rent.

- Percentage of sharecroppers with legal documents among total sharecroppers

The number of sharecroppers who possess legal documents, expressed as a percentage among the total number of sharecroppers.

$$\% \text{ of sharecroppers with legal documents} = \frac{\# \text{ of sharecroppers with legal documents}}{\text{total number of sharecroppers}}$$

Many sharecroppers in the region do not have titles, and agreements are unwritten. This leaves sharecroppers in a vulnerable position, where landlords can easily terminate their services. However, even those with legal documents are not necessarily more secure than those without – most tenants are powerless in the face of their landlords. Even if sharecroppers or tenants are theoretically protected by legal documents, the fact that their access to legal assistance is limited makes it easy for their landlords to evict them anytime.

Gathering Data

Some official data is available in some countries' agricultural censuses, land departments or ministries, large-scale studies.

Probing

Apart from sharecroppers, we can delve into the situation of other groups working on the land: agricultural laborers, contract farmers, bonded labor, and leaseholders or lessees. Other questions to consider:

- What are the sharecropping or leasehold arrangements between sharecroppers and their landlords?
- For those with legal documents, how secure is their tenure?
- Trends: Over time, is the number of sharecroppers rising? Or falling? Is the number of contract farmers growing? What do these suggest?

Budget for Agrarian Reform

For countries with agrarian reform programs, the budget indicates how serious their governments are in implementing agrarian reform to address landlessness. The budget on agrarian reform could be monitored, not only looking at the total figures, but the various budget lines – administrative expenses like salaries; land redistribution; and support services (credit, infrastructure, roads), to name some.

Laws and policies should be matched with corresponding financial allocations in the budget; otherwise they cannot be implemented.

Gathering Data

Sometimes data on agrarian reform budgets are not available at all. Some countries do not have a budget line specifically on “land reform”. In the absence of agrarian reform budgets, alternative or proxy indicators on government’s prioritization of enhancing access to land can include:

- Allocation for other land-related programs such as land use
- Agriculture budget
It has been suggested that the research and development budget for agriculture can stand in as an indicator for land reform. Oftentimes, this data is easier to access.
- Official development assistance in agriculture and agrarian reform
This looks at support provided from both multilateral and donor agencies for agrarian reform and agriculture. These international agencies usually share information about program and project costs.

IFIs do not only provide aid in the form of grants, but also loans.

Probing

Budget monitoring is a recommended direction for land rights advocates. A handful of CSOs have undertaken initiatives on budget monitoring. In the Philippines, PhilDHRRA has examined the budget of the Department of Agrarian Reform, and published its results accordingly. The Center for Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (CARRD) has also monitored the budget specifically on the delivery of agrarian justice.

Policies on Women, Indigenous Peoples and other Marginalized Groups

Because land ownership and access to land of the rural poor also depend on who you are, there are laws and policies that seek to uphold the land rights of marginalized groups, including women, indigenous peoples, and fishers.

Reviewing Policies

The gamut of legal and policy frameworks includes national constitutions, laws, and policies. Monitoring donor policies can also be reviewed. But it’s not enough to enumerate the different laws, policies and programs in place (or in process). Analyze the laws and make assessments.

In general, indicators on legal and policy frameworks focus on three areas: the recognition of customary property rights; discrimination preventing women and other marginalized groups from owning land; and legal

provisions against forced evictions (Bending, 2010). The World Bank alone, through its LGAF (see *Other Initiatives in the Additional Resources section*) has developed targeted indicators for participatory governance process, closely examining the participation of marginalized groups in formulating as well as implementing various land frameworks.

Focus on Gender

Despite their contributions to agriculture, women's rights to land are limited. Women constitute the biggest minority. Recognizing the need to push for women's land rights, our monitoring can address gender issues in two ways.

First, we should examine land policies and how they are gender-sensitive. Gender biases prevail against women. Moreover, discriminatory laws against women form one of the biggest challenges to women's access to land. Land policies encompass women's individual right to own land and property, joint land ownership/titling between husband and wife, and the right to inherit property (Bending, 2010). Does the Constitution recognize women's rights and prohibit discrimination based on gender? Are there national laws to protect women? But even where laws and programs explicitly promote women's land rights, the reality may be a far cry from gender equity, implying the need for monitoring on the ground.

Aside from the legal framework, formal institutions, and customary norms and institutions matter, too. Do the formal institutions (e.g. Ministry of Land Administration; Department of Agrarian Reform; National Land Agency) recognize women's special role in their programs?

Second, we can look for land-related gender-disaggregated data, which can be applied to any quantitative indicators. This is to recognize that men and women are not the same: their needs are different. We can look at land ownership among male- versus female-headed households, or the percentage of women owning land among landowners. Disaggregated data so far has tended towards land formalization (titling and registration) and evictions (Bending, 2010). However, the reality is that gender-disaggregated data on land are scarce.

In our own primary data gathering, CSOs can follow good practice in gender sensitivity by disaggregating data. But CSOs need to avoid falling into the trap of using indicators of formal or nominal ownership to represent women's access to land.

- **Number of women owning land**
The absolute number of women who own land and possess land titles.
- **Percentage of women owning land among landowners**
The ratio of women who own land over the total number of landowners.

$$\% \text{ of landowning women among landowners} = \frac{\text{Total no. of landowning women}}{\text{Total No. of landowners}}$$

Since there are only two groups being compared - men and women – this is the percentage of landowning women versus the percentage of landowning men.

Sources:

Bending, Tim. (2010). *Monitoring secure access to land: progress and prospects: Land monitoring handbook*. Rome: International Land Coalition.

World Bank, FAO and IFAD. 2008. *Gender in agriculture Sourcebook. Module 4: Gender issues in land policy and administration*.

Getting Organized

This section offers a more detailed treatment of the proposed indicators for monitoring, focusing on land tenure and access to land, but also on inputs such as budgets and policies. More importantly, it provides working definitions for the indicators, as well as notes on rationale, possible data sources, suggested approaches, and probes.

Getting organized takes time. In particular, building a team, convening a steering committee and creating partnerships require detailed attention. Do not underestimate the time and effort needed (FAO, 2005).

Organizational Setup

Each country is responsible for forming its own national monitoring team. Try to involve as wide a geographical area as possible. To allow for multiple perspectives, do include NGOs, farmer organisations, indigenous peoples, and the academe.

First Things First: Secretariat

A secretariat will be the focal point for monitoring. This can be the national focal point, or the national office with a point person on top of monitoring activities. Further, a secretariat responsible for seeing day-to-day management backstops the steering committee. Of course, the secretariat staff could already be the existing staffing arrangements of the host organization/convenor of the steering committee.

We find that in Asia, “face to face” communication is generally preferred. Nonetheless, we welcome the use of technology – but we emphasise that this can be done when roles are clear.

Establish a steering committee

A steering committee (SC) is integral to the success of the monitoring initiative. Your SC will provide direction, bring other perspectives, provide greater access to information, facilitate dissemination, and ensure support.

Composition. Your steering committee should comprise representatives from the following sectors:

- NGOs
- Farmers’ organizations/indigenous people’s organizations
- Research institutions/Academe

Pilots have emphasized the need to engage research institutions and the academe, to ensure that the proposed monitoring framework follows sound methodologies and academic rigor, which may provide more credibility.

You may also choose to include media, political activists, peasant leaders, women representatives, IP, and farmer activists. Regarding government participation, please see Box 1.

Criteria. Never underestimate the importance of your Steering Committee. You should carefully select them. We recommend they have solid experience in land reform monitoring, research and advocacy.

Size. For manageability, your steering committee should not exceed ten members. Choose quality over quantity. If you keep to a smaller size, each member will have more time to articulate comments during the meetings.

Do I need a Steering Committee?

There are many good reasons for having a Steering Committee. It works for most organizations. However, it is not always necessary. For example, in the case of the Association for Land Reform and Rural Development (ALRD) in Bangladesh, they have prominent academics working on land issues in their Board of Directors. A Steering Committee would merely duplicate a mechanism that they already have, in which case the SC is unnecessary.

Focal points should discuss among their national partners whether a Steering Committee will work for them.

Nonetheless – there are different modalities you can try if the SC mechanism doesn't work for you.

Convening the Steering Committee

You must organize a steering committee inception meeting – or that meeting when you level off on indicators, definition of concepts, data

Box 1: Do I include government? The Role of Governments

In asking whether they should include government in monitoring – or the extent of CSOs fear co-option.

Contexts vary from country to country. It is ultimately up to you, whether including a government representative in your SC is strategic, or otherwise.

In the Philippines, for instance, government representatives can be “champions” for advocacy (this may vary according to the government administration in power). Other countries are not as fortunate – their governments are antagonistic, and monitoring is done precisely to call attention to their failings and misdeeds.

It may be appropriate that governments are considered as sources of information, rather than members of the steering committee.

source, and methodology. This should take about one week. Remember that in all likelihood, your Steering Committee members will have very tight schedules. Plan your meetings as far ahead as possible, be aware of holidays when scheduling, and send them the relevant documents to review ahead of time. In this way, you can devote more time to discussion during the meeting.

There are concerns that given the SC's busy schedule, CSOs should collect the data first, then call the SC to verify the data gathered. The SC must understand their role – that even before data gathering begins, there is agreement and consensus on the monitoring framework. The SC is a way to gather support for the initiative.

Be prepared for some difficulties. For example, when different groups come together, like activists and academics, you can expect that achieving common agreements on the definitions and indicators related with land reform will be challenging, or there will be some people dominating the discussion. In this case, as our Indonesian colleagues have learned, a stronger effort is needed to facilitate the discussion.

Also, it may be difficult to convince SC members about the importance of this initiative. One technique employed by the Indonesia focal point is to personally visit and meet with each CSO before sending a formal invite.

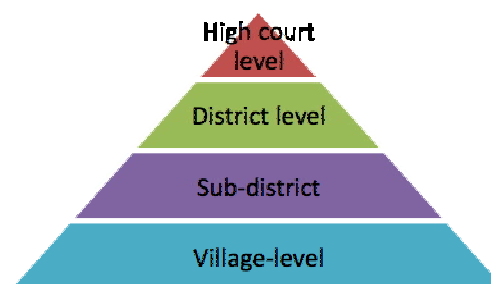
Gathering the Data

The section on **Indicators for Monitoring** is devoted to defining the indicators used and explaining how to gather data for these. Practically speaking, one or two persons should be on top of the data gathering exercise. In a nutshell, the range of possible sources is wide: government, CSOs, internet, academic journals, and media. Primary data can also be gathered through surveys, interviews, focus group discussions. Finally, we suggest mixing quantitative and qualitative data.

When monitoring, always remember to:

- *Give a definition for the indicator you are using.* There are many, and while we offer our proposed definitions, the data available in your country may be based on a different definition.
- *Cite your source.* Give credit where it is due, even if it is yours! See section below on *Writing the Report* on how to properly acknowledge your source.

Figure 1. Levels of Government in Bangladesh



- *Cite the reference year for the data.* It is always important to know when the data was produced, especially since we are tracking changes in land tenure and access to land.
- *Indicate scale/level of data availability.* The level of data matters. Data availability varies and depends on the specific indicator being asked for. For example, for the indicator on number of land dispute cases received, the data may be easily available (as government official judicial level data) at the high court level or at the district level. Below the district level, data may not be available or easily accessible – but the number will be very high. There will be more cases as you go down the pyramid (see Figure 1), down to the village level.
- *Assess your data source.* Monitoring is more than a data gathering exercise. Do not believe everything you read! You have to analyze the quality of data gathered. Do you have reservations or concerns about the data provided – such as on the methodology used? Then you must state them.
- *Explain the methodology used.* The methodology you use will determine the kind of results you yield, so it is important to explain how you derived the data.

Writing Up the Report

What's in it?

Before you begin, check *Annex A*, which contains the suggested outline for the report. Start with an overview of the report, or an introduction or context. It will set the tone for the report. Write concisely. If you mean to provide readers with an understanding of agrarian reform in your country, then it shouldn't be a ten page history of agrarian reform. Explaining the CSO monitoring initiative in your country should not be a treatise on monitoring. And so forth and so on.

The conceptual framework should present the indicators you have selected, explain the rationale, process, and scope and limitations. Your audience should be able to clearly understand the framework that you used for monitoring.

The meat of your report should be in the section on findings and analysis. Here, you describe the situation and make an assessment of land reform in your country, and try to tease out the trends, and make connections between variables and indicators – their causes, effects, implications.

Cambodia found that land disputes tend to concentrate in provinces with abundant lands, which are experiencing economic growth. In the Philippines, by closely looking at the data, PhilDHRRA discovered that

over-releases from the agrarian reform budget were made during election years.

Then you draw the conclusions and recommendations. The most important findings should be discussed in this section. Recommendations are mostly for policy.¹ Reflect on lessons. Identify specific recommendations to address the situation. Refrain from mere motherhood or generic statements. Be imaginative in exploring alternative solutions to problems.

The country reports in this publication are abridged, but they can be used as models on which to base your own writing.

Don't forget the other important parts before and after the heart of your report:

- **Table of Contents.** The TOC is fundamental, yet too often neglected by CSOs. Learning how to make is easily done on most word processors.
- **Glossary.** If you have more than three technical terms, terms that are foreign or specific to your country, e.g., *haruwa*, *lakh*, *begari*, *adat*, and *khas*, please define them in a glossary.
- **List of Abbreviations.** Since not only NGOs, but governments as well, are fond of using abbreviations, please prepare a list of one.
- **Executive Summary.** This should not exceed one page, and should contain only highlights of the report. It should be written in such a way that it engages the reader's attention.
- **References/Bibliography.** This is very important. See section on *The Art of Citation* (next page).
- **Annexes.** Any supplementary material (not integral to the monitoring effort but important all the same) should be included as an annex.

How Goes it?

Who writes the report? It was suggested that writing is a team effort, involving a maximum of three persons, with one person holding editorial or consolidating responsibilities. The team should undertake brainstorming as needed. In other cases, writing is largely a one-person job; but the writer should also consult with colleagues and the secretariat, among others for feedback.

How much time does it take to write the report? One month to write the report is recommended, but this may vary.

¹ It is important to give recommendations on the process of CSO monitoring land reform, since this initiative is still very much in progress and will appreciate feedback. Recommendations on the process can be on the indicators selected, the mechanisms proposed, or anything you feel can provide input. Kindly share these process recommendations with ANGOC and the Land Watch Asia network, whether formally (i.e., process documentation notes) or informally.

The Art of Citation

One area where CSOs need improvement is in the matter of citations. This means documenting your sources by making direct references to them either in-line or in a footnote or endnote, depending on the style (MLA, APA, Chicago, to name a few) set you use. The citation is also linked to a bibliography, which is a compilation of all the sources.

Citations are *critical*. We want to give credit where credit is due. We want to acknowledge every single source that we have used to be able to write our report. In addition, we want to raise our CSO publications to a higher standard.

The general rule is: we document sources from which we have borrowed ideas. It is not necessary to have lifted a quotation before we make a citation.

For formatting, you can choose whichever style. It's up to you to determine which works better for you – inline citations or footnotes. Remember, the trick is to be consistent! Here are among the most popular:

- Chicago Manual of Style <http://www.ccagomanualofstyle.org/>
- MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers (7th edition) 2009
- American Psychological Association (APA)

TIPS AND REMINDERS IN WRITING YOUR REPORT

- Refrain from writing in highly textual or technical language
- Write in plain and lucid English
- Cite your sources
- Use active verbs
- Be concise
- Use graphs, charts, photos, tables and maps to illustrate your point

There are many online resources detailing how to cite your sources. A good starting point is the Purdue Online Writing Lab (OWL) at <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/section/2/>.

More on citation from Wikipedia at: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Citation>.

Analyzing Data

Analytical tools are available. Analysis need not be confined to one tool; you may use a combination of approaches. For statistical analyses, there are software packages like SPSS – Statistical Package for the Social Sciences – that are relatively easy to use, and can help establish meaningful connections among your data. Geographic Information Systems (GIS) are also a very interesting way of analyzing, using spatial data. Even using simple tools for presenting data – can enable us to see patterns or relationships we otherwise would not (Box 3).

Also remember that analyzing data can be a joint activity among CSOs and other groups. You can share with them your data and discuss various points. Or this can be done for validation.

Box 3 Using Geographic Information Systems (GIS) for monitoring

Using geographic information systems (GIS) to produce maps can be a highly effective and powerful way of presenting data gathered from monitoring. Because we are dealing with land, much of the information will be tied to a location (i.e. geographical or spatial), which can be displayed on a map. By simply looking at the maps, one can quickly see how the various indicators on access to land and land tenure are spatially distributed in a country or region. GIS allows us to combine different layers of data – features or themes and overlay these. GIS is more than map-making, serving as an analytical tool, to explore the relationships between different themes. Using GIS maps makes comparison of indicators over time easier. For example, we can see a layer on secure land rights overlaid with another layer on environmental degradation.

GIS maps enhance the presentation of monitoring data and are therefore a powerful advocacy and communication tool. It can complement the data gathered – and demonstrate relationships, such as the correlation between landlessness and poverty. For example, in areas where landlessness is high, poverty incidence is also high; and it can also show where landlessness is concentrated. As another example, places where cases of land grabbing are reported could be the same places where there is a high incidence of land disputes and evictions. This is especially possible at the regional level, using the common indicators – to compare and contrast between countries.

To illustrate, Open Development Cambodia has a map online (<http://www.opendevdevelopmentcambodia.net/maps/>) that is overlaid with several themes (economic land concessions, special economic zones, mining concessions, and proposed hydropower sites). You can select which themes you would like to see.

In addition to analysis, GIS can be used to generate maps to present results of findings (see sub-section on *Presenting Results*).

A concern with GIS is that it is technical and potentially expensive, but this is not necessarily true. Many GIS tools are already free and available. Additionally, mapping can be participatory – as CSO experiences have demonstrated – and therefore empowering. This allows monitoring to be sustainable. On balance, it needs sufficient investments in staff capacity development to undertake GIS.

Validation and Learning

Presenting the Draft Report: Obtaining Feedback and Validating Results

After the report has been written, the draft should be subjected to review by all your stakeholders –steering committee and partner organisations, government, and the academe. Feedback should be documented properly, as these should be incorporated into your final report. You can validate your report once or twice, depending on the resources at your behest.

Triangulation. We are limited in terms of resources. We cannot conduct large-scale monitoring initiatives, and we are also unsure of the quality of the data we have obtained. Therefore we need to triangulate our data: “use [...] a variety of sources, methods or field team members to cross check and validate data and information to limit biases” (IFAD, n.d.). Where several data sets exist, you can use this as a means to validate and compare and contrast the results. For example, government data may be overestimates of performance, while there may be independent data from research or academic institutions.

Presentation to steering committee. Out of courtesy to your steering committee, we encourage you gather feedback from them before you consult with key partners.

Consultation with key partners. Organize a face-to-face consultation with various stakeholders to discuss and comment on the draft report. “Physical” meetings (as opposed to virtual meetings) imply the need for more resources, but this is a sure way to get feedback immediately. Hence, link with existing campaigns so that validation workshops/forums can be organized back-to-back with the campaign activities. At any rate, the CSO monitoring initiative should complement the Land Watch Asia campaign.

In Nepal, for instance, CSRC conducted a half-day workshop with alliance members, government representatives, NGO partners to share the report and discuss the monitoring mechanism, prior to preparing the final report.

Alternatively, an electronic forum or bulletin board is a cheap (it costs virtually nothing if you know how to set it up) and highly effective way of soliciting feedback from various groups, especially those in geographically disparate areas. However, this mechanism requires a certain level of technical literacy - not only on your part, but also for those you expect to participate. It also assumes that your target audiences have access to the internet.

Learning. Monitoring is an ongoing learning act. Learning is a vital component in the knowledge management loop. We must reflect on our experiences – talking together, thinking about what went right and how we can move forward (i.e., appreciative inquiry). These lessons should be shared and documented – so that others may learn, and we ourselves can improve on process – in terms of data gathering, analysis, and presentation – and inform our action.

Revising the Report

Now that you've gathered feedback, you can proceed with revising the report! This may entail gathering additional or verifying data, but just minimally. This is also the time you should edit, edit, and edit. Polish the writing, check for spelling and grammatical errors, ensure that your language is clear and unequivocal, and voila!

Disseminating Results

Finally, your report is finalized. It's time to share the results of months of monitoring land reform with various audiences, employing a range of strategies.

We want the report to be made available in various forms, depending on the audience. But before you begin, you need to understand which is most suitable to your target audience. For example, policy makers are reputed to be busy, for which you will need to provide condensed versions of your report – in the form of pamphlets, perhaps. When reaching out to CSO partners, constituents, and IGOs, you can use newsletters and books.

We encourage you to share the results with a host of organizations – from human rights organizations to government ministries and agencies, IGOs, CSOs, policy makers, the academe, and the media. You can organize forums or dialogues involving these stakeholders to present and discuss the report at the country level; this way you promote multi-sectoral dialogue while promoting your own research and advocacy.

Reaching out to the Public

Too often CSOs don't know how to raise consciousness among “ordinary” citizens. Especially in this day and age, these citizens are empowered to take a stand and respond to the issues they believe in. Mass media can be maximized to highlight land issues.

Radio and print media are the traditional means of allowing the general public to learn more about our advocacy issues. They remain strong, especially in rural areas, but gaining in popularity are the web 2.0 technologies such as

Facebook, Twitter, and blogs. Post the report – and other related content on land reform – on your websites.

ANGOC's publication *Ideas in Action for Land Rights Advocacy* (www.angoc.org) has two helpful articles. "How to use mass media for advocacy" discusses traditional media, and provides tips for taking advantage of traditional media. "Enter new media" explains the emergence of new media or social media in advocacy, and gives examples of how these web tools have been used to enhance advocacy campaigns.

Other knowledge sharing tools are also available on the internet. We recommend looking for IFAD-ENRAP, and their publications on knowledge sharing.