



OPTIONS FOR GLOBAL REPORTING ON GLTN/GLII LAND INDICATORS IN THE CONTEXT OF THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

SECURING LAND AND PROPERTY RIGHTS FOR ALL

OPTIONS FOR GLOBAL REPORTING ON GLTN/GLII LAND INDICATORS IN THE CONTEXT OF THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

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This GLTN study is based on research coordinated by the World Bank on the feasibility of a range of existing instruments (like opinion polls, surveys, and census) and available administrative data for measuring a range of potential land indicators in a way that is globally comparable. The first component, consisting of an assessment of perceptions studies, opinion polls and census was undertaken by Thea Hilhorst of the World Bank, taking forward earlier work on global land indicators (Harris Selod of the World Bank, Remy Sietchiping of UN-Habitat and Jenny Witriol of the Millennium challenge corporation). Secondly, an in-country pilot study on using administrative data for land governance monitoring (proof-of-concept) was designed by Klaus Deininger and Thea Hilhorst of the World Bank. It was implemented by country level experts and LGAF country coordinators (Foley Eleazar, Victor Endo; Brian Garcia, David Labadze, Thierry Ngoga, Denys Nizalov, Bastiaan Reydon, Luis Triveno, Dang Hung Vo, Cuong Vu and Luc Yniesta) with financial support from GLTN. Thirdly, an assessment of over 70 household surveys was undertaken by the World Bank Living Standards Measurement Survey (LSMS) team (Gero Carletto, Talip Kilic, Darcey Johnson and Ilona Seff) and DECAR (Daniel Ali, Klaus Deininger and Thea Hilhorst) with key support from Mercedes Stickler (USAID) and Jennifer Witriol (MCC) in the development of survey instruments and review of outputs. This range of research results was presented at the GLTN Expert Group Meeting on the feasibility of global land and SDG indicator measurement on March 22nd 2014 in Washington. All findings were presented and discussed also at the 2014 World Bank Land and Poverty Conference. A preliminary report of the feasibility of measuring globally comparable land indicators was prepared by Thea Hilhorst of the World Bank, shared with the bi and multilateral GLTN cluster and reviewed by the GLTN Secretariat. Although this study is based on the findings of the preliminary report, the final version and conclusions were prepared by the GLTN secretariat.



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FOREWORD

INTRODUCTION

Over the past decade, the land community has seen a shift in knowledge and understanding of tenure security. This has been marked by an increase in land policy reform in Africa; the growth of a pro-poor, people-centred, civil society; a focus on land governance strengthened by the Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure, Forests and Fisheries; the new wave of private investments focusing on land as the engine for agricultural growth and economic development, and the increasing focus by the global donor community on land as a driver of economic change and poverty reduction in the global south. At the centre of this is monitoring land tenure security. This report allows land professionals to say, for the first time, that global- and country-level monitoring is feasible and achievable.

The United Nations report entitled *The Future We Want*¹ recognizes these changes. This document, an outcome of Rio +20, calls for capacity-building, extension training programmes and scientific studies and initiatives aimed at deepening understanding of and raising awareness of the economic, social and environmental benefits of sustainable land management policies and practices with respect to tenure security. Also, the United Nations High-Level Panel of Eminent Persons on the Post-2015 Development Agenda proposed a target on “secure rights to land, property, and other assets” as a building block for people to lift themselves out of poverty. In 2013, the G8 committed to supporting greater transparency in land transactions, including the responsible governance of tenure of land and increased capacity in developing countries, and to releasing data for improved governance through sharing expertise and being transparent about data collection, standards and publishing processes.

These global developments, combined with the increasing demand for pro-poor land reforms, including for measuring tenure security at country level, created the need for a core set of land indicators that have national application and are globally relevant and comparable. This quest led to collaboration in 2012 between UN-Habitat, the Millennium Challenge Corporation and the World Bank, facilitated by the Global Land Tool Network, to develop a set of core land indicators to measure tenure security globally and at country level. This process saw the start of the Global Land Indicators Initiative, a platform used by the international land community to make proposals for globally comparable, technically sound and feasible targets and indicators, including for consideration for Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). It comprises land indicator specialists from bilateral, multilateral, civil society and professional bodies. In 2014, this initiative had grown to over 35 institutions.

The Expert Group Meeting held in The Hague, The Netherlands, in 2013 and attended by Global Land Tool Network (GLTN)/GLII partners identified four key land indicators. This was followed immediately by the GLTN Partners Meeting, where the GLTN bilateral/multi-lateral cluster identified the need for determining the feasibility of the proposed core land indicators for the SDGs, and made this part of the clusters’ work programme. The World Bank, which leads this cluster, agreed to carry out this study. The results were discussed in a meeting prior to the World Bank Annual Land and Poverty Conference in March 2014, and this Feasibility Study was discussed at GLTN/GLII meetings in The Hague, in October 2014, and in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, in November 2014.

1 <http://www.uncsd2012.org/content/documents/727The%20Future%20We%20Want%2019%20June%201230pm.pdf>

FOREWORD

Continued

The Feasibility Study is designed to provide a business case with respect to the feasibility of data collection for global land indicators. It gives a concrete analysis of the possibility of having land indicators in the post-2015 framework that are relevant, disaggregated by gender and include outcome indicators going beyond the legal framework. This report demonstrates that it is feasible to collect the data required using available methodologies and data sources, and that countries are able to produce these data regularly and at a reasonable cost.

The World Bank has, through this study, increased the body of knowledge and gives the land community the answer to the key question: “Is the measurement of tenure security feasible?” Yes, it is feasible to measure the four proposed indicators for the SDGs using existing methodology at minimal cost to countries. Given

the speed of change associated with the Sustainable Development Goal process over the last year, the World Bank study has been enhanced by the coordinating team to ensure currency. This is a living document as the SDGs are not yet finalized, so it will remain a draft to be discussed by GLTN/GLII partners and stakeholders. It will be used for a range of purposes, including making recommendations to the United Nations Statistical Division on the land indicators for the Sustainable Development Goals.

I would like to thank the GLTN bilateral/multilateral cluster partners who supported this and made it happen. Many thanks especially to Thea Hilhorst and Klaus Deininger who led on this and undertook the difficult task of pulling the ideas together, and in so doing have taken the global land indicator community another step closer to our joint goal.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

INTRODUCTION

Recent years have seen much progress in policy-makers' awareness of the importance of land governance for achieving goals like poverty eradication, sustainable development, food security and equity. Land governance change takes place at the country-level and stakeholders are building on an unprecedented global consensus for action on the ground. Aspirational indicators, benchmarking and better data help to identify strengths, weaknesses and opportunities for innovating land governance and to build engagement. This helps to better focus and speed up change towards improving tenure security.

This report explores the feasibility of reporting on an agreed list of globally comparable core or headline land indicators that are useful for global and country-level policy makers, thus helping to mobilize and sustain policy support for good land governance. It concludes that it is feasible to collect data on the proposed indicators and report on them globally using available methodologies and data sources. At the country level, reports on global indicators can stimulate performance-driven policy making. For decisions on policy and implementation, these should be combined and enriched with country-level monitoring and multi-stakeholder policy dialogue. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) framework is an example of the policy influence of global indicators. In the ongoing SDG discussion on goals and targets, the importance of land tenure and land use is mentioned for several goals, showing that land is a cross-cutting issue. For the SDGs, criteria that core indicators must meet include: they must have universality and international consensus on measurement; they must be constructed from well-established public and private data sources; and they must have the engagement of international organizations working in collaboration. National statistical agencies should take on the responsibility for annual, high-quality and cost effective national and global reporting. The assessment of whether an

indicator can be included in the SDG framework will be done by the experts advising the United Nations agencies, in consultation with national statistical agencies. An international organization(s) also needs to accept the responsibility for global reporting.

Objective.

As part of the Global Land Indicators Initiative (GLTN/GLII), the GLTN bilateral and multilateral cluster requested this feasibility study on assessing the data acquisition possibilities for core or headline land indicators. This included assessment of existing and possible global data collection methods and their harmonization to improve the availability and quality of data for policy implementation at the country level, and for comparison across countries. The World Bank, which leads this cluster, was requested to undertake the work, which consisted of reviewing existing data collection methods for global databases and reporting on global opinion polls, surveys like demographic and health surveys (DHS) and expert surveys on all or most countries using the same questionnaire, census, household surveys, and administrative data analysis. This was done in terms of the need to harmonize and standardize instruments. An inventory was made of land modules in household surveys to assess comprehensiveness and comparability. A "proof of concept" was developed by using administrative data for global reporting on key land indicators and was undertaken in nine countries

The four GLTN/GLII indicators.

The core themes for which land indicators are currently under development are land tenure security, taking into account the continuum of land rights; legal and institutional indicators and the perception of tenure security; mechanisms for conflict management and dispute resolution; and land administration and land-use management.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Continued

Additional World Bank indicators cover seven domains: plot characteristics and the mode of acquisition; formal and informal rights; investments in the land; lease market participation; sales market participation; perceived tenure security and land dispute history; and knowledge and perception questions.

An analysis of several studies ² shows that the selection of core land indicators depends on data availability, because frequent routine reporting is a requirement. Reporting has to be cost-effective, based on data that are already available or can become available quickly on a routine basis. Before deciding on a core indicator, an assessment is needed of what data are available and in how many countries. Other questions are: How best can global data collection efforts be used to strengthen national data collection? What are the possibilities for improving data availability - such as improving the quality of surveys, censuses through adding land questions and increasing their frequency? Can the capacity of monitoring and research organizations and statistical agencies be increased in order to improve data availability in the medium term? What administrative data are available now and how can inherent limitations and biases within this data be dealt with?

Legal and institutional indicator.

Global reporting for legal and institutional indicators using global expert opinion polls is the easiest data acquisition method and can be conducted at marginal costs per country if the land questions are added to already existing surveys. Investment is needed only for preparing the questions and building the indicator, which would require consultation, design, testing and review. However, to be useful at the country level, these legal and institutional framework inventories need to

be complemented with a review of implementation practices, which could be undertaken by country level land governance multi-stakeholder platforms. The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)'s rural land index, the World Bank governance CPIA and LGAF provide data collection methods that are useful for collection of data on legal and institutional assessments.

Measurement of legal and formal institutional indicators is feasible according to the criteria set for SDG indicators: namely frequency - annually, universally, can be replicated, and at relatively low cost. This can be done, particularly when collaborating with international institutions that already conduct these types of surveys on an annual basis, that have the required methodology and networks in place, and that have the capacity to undertake this work.

Perception of tenure security.

An established methodology exists for indicators on perception of tenure security. This methodology combines questions on actual investments with different time horizons, cases of conflict and perceptions of risks of conflict and expropriation. The costs for such a module will be low if added to an already scheduled survey. Questions on perceptions of tenure security can be integrated in established global opinion surveys (like Gallup), assuming that the questions are carefully tested and sample size per country is sufficient to capture meaningful changes or can serve as an "early warning". The costs depend on the number of land questions in the survey. Gallup accepts adding questions to their world poll and costs are calculated per minute of questioning (about USD 500,000 / minute/ round), excluding costs for testing and analysis. Annual reporting is possible. Following agreements on harmonization and standardization, a "perception module" currently under development by the World Bank could be integrated into household and project surveys that are already planned. The demographic and

² Australian and New Zealand Environment and Conservation Council State of the Environment Reporting Task Force - Core Environmental Indicators for Reporting on the State of the Environment, March 2000. Available at: <http://www.scew.gov.au/system/files/resources/378b7018-8f2a-8174-3928-2056b44bf9b0/files/anzecc-gl-core-environmental-indicators-reporting-soe-200003.pdf>; United Nations ICEF - Making a difference: Indicators to improve Children's environmental Health: towards a core set of indicators. Available at: <http://www.who.int/phe/children/en/cehindicchap3.pdf>



health surveys, for example, could be used, although they are not applicable for every country. These surveys tend to be undertaken every three to five years. The average cost of a household survey in Africa is USD 2 million.

Measurement of perception of tenure security is feasible and the use of Gallup polls will give global data at minimal cost per country. Perception questions and methods for collection can then be improved over time using more affordable methods.

Legally recognized and documented.

Options for monitoring of the indicator “claims to land that are legally recognized and documented” vary between countries. It depends on what tenure rights and documentation exist, particularly on the availability and accessibility of administrative data, such as in a registry, cadastre, tax records, records held by municipalities, courts etc. Information from censuses and household surveys data can also be used, depending on the quality and frequency. The tenure typology varies across countries with respect to the “bundle of rights” along the continuum of rights. Stakeholders could prepare an inventory of the tenure typology, with examples of the evidence used, and make these “standard” for coding in censuses and surveys. This would ensure that the continuum of rights is captured and comparable.

The collection of administrative data for the monitoring of legally recognized claims to land that are documented is feasible. It is estimated that 60 to 70 per cent of all countries have nearly complete records and maps, and 40 per cent of these have all the information digitized but not necessarily disaggregated by gender. This data can be improved over time.

Dispute resolution and land administration.

Options for monitoring land disputes, land conflicts and land administration hinge on the availability of administrative data and records of dispute resolution

and management. This data is available through courts, tax registries, land registries and cadastral data. A lot of work still has to be done to test the feasibility of data collection on these indicators once the final indicators are agreed.

SDG criteria and what it may mean:

Reporting on core land indicators in the context of the SDG framework will have greater policy impact. However, it will be more demanding with respect to coverage (global reporting), frequency (on an annual basis), methodology and standardization. General criteria for SDG indicators could include international consensus on measurement methods to facilitate comparison across countries; construction of data from well-established public and private data sources; and be managed by national statistical agencies and a designated international organization/s. The last will be responsible for annual, high-quality global reporting, with due consideration for cost-effectiveness, lean reporting processes and national monitoring methods. If the SDG indicators criteria are at this level it will make it much more difficult to report on the GLTN/GLII land indicators as outlined above.

Build national capacity for the future.

Data availability methods and strategies for annual reporting on all the proposed indicators will have to be built over time. Whereas methods for data collection on land disputes and land administration need to be developed and refined, methods for data collection on tenure security and perception of tenure security is already available and data can be collected and reported annually. Key for the future is improving reporting capacity at national level. This will mean improving procedures for data collection and record sharing, standard setting and disaggregation (gender, spatial) in annual reporting. All of this is technically feasible and not expensive, but requires a decision to overcome the institutional fragmentation on data.

01

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

Improving land policy requires a vision of where to go, the roadmap to get there, mechanisms to monitor progress and assess impact, and multi-stakeholder fora that discuss the findings and make recommendations. Monitoring is an important element of land policy implementation and is required at all levels - from local to global - to track progress and identify problems in a timely manner. Monitoring needs to be combined with evaluation and research.

This report discusses a particular type of monitoring, namely global, comparable core or headline land indicators. Having an agreed list of key core land indicators for policy makers can mobilize policy attention and support broad policy directions both globally and at country level. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are an example of the power of core indicators. Core land indicators have to be limited in number, comparable across countries, and regularly reported on. The selection of core global indicators is influenced by data availability. The discussion on core land indicators has already triggered awareness for better harmonization of “land data” collection, through household surveys and the census, to improve comparability and the quality of data sets.

Monitoring core indicators will be useful for improving land policy only when discussed and scrutinized in multi-stakeholder fora that produce land policy recommendations. Investments in improving land policy monitoring efforts have to be accompanied by the broad dissemination of findings and the strengthening of platforms for multi-stakeholder policy dialogue, such as land observatories, land alliances, platforms set up in the context of the Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Forests and Fisheries (VGGT) etc.

This report is the product of the initiative of the Global Land Tool Network (GLTN) bilateral and multilateral cluster to assess the feasibility of robust measurement and global reporting for the four core land indicators

identified by the GLTN Expert Group Meeting held in November 2013. The work consisted of a review of existing data collection methods used for global reporting, such as censuses, household surveys, global opinions polls, and expert opinion surveys with special attention to the land components. This included the IFAD rural land index, property issues in the world Bank's Ease of Doing Business report, Women, Business and the Law, Land Governance Assessment Framework (LGAF), land questions in Gallup, land modules in household surveys, land in FAO's world agricultural census and the UN-Habitat's Tenure Security in Cities³. A special inventory was made of land modules in about 70 household surveys, which were made available by cluster members (FAO, MCC, World Bank) and other international organizations (IFPRI, USAID). A second activity was to pilot test the available administrative data for global reporting on key land indicators in nine countries (Brazil, Cambodia, Georgia, Peru, Philippines, Rwanda, Uganda, Ukraine and Vietnam), linked to LGAF's work. All findings were discussed in a GLTN workshop preceding the annual World Bank Land and Poverty Conference in 2014, and in sessions at the conference itself. This report will show that sufficiently robust data collection is feasible for the four core land indicators identified by GLTN partners as key for land tenure security.

This report starts with an introduction to GLTN/GLII's proposed core land indicators for global comparison. Then the methodology issues for global indicators are discussed, in particular for the Sustainable Development Goals framework of indicators. Data collection instruments are reviewed to assess whether they can supply global coverage or could be used for global reporting. Finally, the GLTN/GLII indicators are discussed in terms of the feasibility of being able to collect the data, whether the data is available, and if it is possible to link global indicators to country- and local-level monitoring and policy dialogue.

³ http://www.gltn.net/downloads/GLTN%20Documents/monitoring_security_of_tenure_in_cities.pdf

POTENTIAL OF CORE GLOBAL INDICATORS

POTENTIAL OF CORE GLOBAL INDICATORS

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are good examples of the power of global core indicators and what they can and cannot do. The MDGs are few in number and convey messages that matter to citizens and resonate with policy makers. A global core indicator, however, is “reductionist” and the intention is not to present the full picture or to guide actual policy decision making at the country level, let alone the local level. The MDGs have shown that core indicators can mobilize political and societal support for key goals or changes. Another example of the policy power of global indicators and global comparison is the World Bank’s Doing Business survey.

Global core land indicators can be complemented with country specific indicators of strategic policy relevance to land. Local organizations and communities can also develop their own indicators to monitor locally relevant issues. Such locally derived indicators can be used as a way of building capacity in communities and decision-making bodies, enabling them to play a more active role in assessing the state of land governance and recommending subsequent remedial actions. The combination of global and national reporting on results, together with participatory monitoring results discussed in multi-stakeholder fora, will catalyse actions at national and global level towards increased tenure security. Different ministries and other stakeholders can support the land sector better by using such results, and by establishing a feedback to programme implementation. The MDGs had one land-related indicator: target 11, improvement of lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers by 2020. UN-Habitat worked on developing tools to measure this indicator.

The land community has been searching for some time for a set of core land indicators that are comparable across countries over a number of years. However, selecting a few core indicators has been a challenge, given the importance of a comprehensive approach and the inclusion of all existing rights along the continuum of rights. Recent initiatives by civil society include the development of scorecards by Land Watch Asia and the International Land Coalition. Another instrument has been the World Bank’s Land Governance Assessment Framework (LGAF). This instrument aims for global reach by building on what is internationally recognized as best practice for land governance. It uses participatory benchmarking of land governance at country level, and a systematic approach to scoring that ensures comparability across countries and over time. LGAF is composed of 27 indicators, over 100 dimensions, covering 5 areas. These areas are: recognition and respect for existing rights; land-use planning, management and taxation; management of public land; public provision of land information; and dispute resolution and conflict management. LGAF does not aim for annual monitoring because change is not that fast. An LGAF follow-up activity is the support of regular multi-stakeholder dialogues. This is being developed and tested to initiate routine monitoring of a limited set of key land policy performance indicators at country level, which address priorities, are actionable, and use existing administrative data.

The search for core global land indicators had renewed interest following the endorsement of the Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Forests and Fisheries (VGGT) (2012) and the Framework and Guidelines of the African Union, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa and the African Development Bank (2009). The possible inclusion

of land indicators in the Sustainable Development Goals (follow up to the MDGs⁴) has provided additional momentum and urgency to this ongoing discussion. Possible goals, targets, indicators and data collection options are being discussed. An SDG target and indicator(s) on land could increase global commitment and continuity to the “land agenda”, where progress would not be affected by changing political alliances and priorities. Annual SDG reports could generate the momentum to address challenges at country level. With this as background, the GLTN/GLII network began work on core indicators⁵ in 2013. It organized three Expert Group Meetings, produced a “long list” of core indicators, including four potential SDG indicators, and is supporting the SDG land indicator advocacy.⁶

4 In 2015, the Sustainable Development Goals will be negotiated, as will goals for climate change and finance for development.

5 See <http://www.gltn.net/index.php/projects/global-land-indicator-initiative>

6 There is global demand for an index on the legal and institutional framework on land tenure security (or insecurity) and, as a proxy, the IFAD index is used by MCC, or the property security index by the heritage foundation. http://www.cepii.fr/CEPII/en/bdd_modele/bdd.asp-institutional_profiles.

KEY THEMATIC TOPICS
FOR CORE LAND
INDICATORS IN GLTN

KEY THEMATIC TOPICS FOR CORE LAND INDICATORS IN GLTNS

GLTN's key principles for monitoring systems are that they capture the continuum of land rights, cover urban and rural areas, are gender sensitive, focus on poverty reduction, the engagement of all stakeholders in the process is fundamental, and the method should bring together data from a range of sources.

Expert Group Meetings organized by GLTN/GLII proposed three areas for global core indicators: land tenure security, conflict and dispute resolution; and land administration.⁷

In November 2013, the following list of core indicators was proposed (the "long list"). The indicators in italics are also proposed for the SDG process.

⁷ The discussion on land use was not completed, with the key issue being the relation between tenure and land use. Land use is discussed by other constituencies, such as on soils, forests, etc.

Table 1: Long-list of core land and SDG indicators

GLTN FOCUS AREA	EGM INPUT APRIL 2013	EGM November 2013 – ("long-list")
Land tenure security	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Proportion of households and firms/population and/or parcels/area which have formal land rights 2. Perception of tenure security 3. Land tenure protection in legislation 4. Legal protection for land rights of women (Inheritance and women's legal rights and <i>de facto</i> rights to own and/or access land) 5. Degree to which private property rights (commercial) are respected entities 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Secure rights to land and property: Percentage of men, women, communities and businesses with recognized evidence of tenure. 2. Perceived tenure security: Percentage of men, women and businesses that perceive their land rights are recognized and protected. 3. Legal recognition of a continuum of land rights: Level to which legal framework recognizes and protects legitimate land rights and uses, either through customary or statutory tenure regimes. 4. Equal rights of women: Level to which women and men have equal rights to own, inherit and bequeath land resources. 5. Land area mapped: Percentage of land area mapped on legally recognized tenure maps.
Land disputes	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. Land conflicts registered as a percentage of the population rural/urban 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. Efficiency of land dispute resolution: Time to resolve a land/property dispute. 7. Effectiveness of land dispute resolution: Percentage reported land disputes that have been resolved.
Land administration		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Percentage revenue from land taxation: Property and land taxes as a percentage of GDP. 9. Land administration efficiency: Time to conduct a land/property transaction. (Doing Business)
Land use	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. Percentage of arable land lost or degraded each year 8. Greenhouse gas emissions 	Not discussed

3.1 LAND TENURE SECURITY

3.1.1 CONTINUUM OF RIGHTS

The continuum of land rights approach is at the centre of GLTN's work on land tools, including the land indicators. It is an acknowledgement that individuals, groups and communities can hold land and property under a range of tenure regimes, each providing a different set of rights⁸ and responsibilities, with systems for recognition and enforcement based on customary/ community, administrative or legal institutions. A continuum of land rights is important for rural societies where customary forms of tenure dominate, even when not formally recognized.⁹ The continuum of land rights is crucial for rural areas and for urban and peri-urban settings, as demonstrated in recent milestone research by UN-Habitat.¹⁰ The International Federation of Surveyors' (FIG, 2014) statement¹¹ demonstrates a crucial paradigm shift from titling as the only mode of tenure security to the recognition of a range of rights - that is there is a growing acceptance by the land community that individual titling alone cannot deliver tenure security to the majority of people in developing countries. Rather, there is need for a fit-for-purpose approach to land administration (Sietchiping et al, 2012; Zevenbergen, 2012; FIG, 2014).

8 The "bundle of rights" is a way to further describe the set of rights, that is the right to sell, lease, encumber, use, enjoy, exclude, and to make will. Rights do not refer only to ownership, but also to leaseholders, sharecroppers and types of user rights. This distinction is important particularly for rights over natural resources, access to and control over management and exploitation, such as forest, grazing and fisheries. Here, a distinction has to be made between open-access regimes and common property, between the common-pool resource itself and the property regime that governs it, and between resource systems and resource units (see Ostrom, 1999). Access to and control over land and property are important concepts with respect to gender issues.

9 A related concept is legal pluralism, which refers to the juxtaposition of statutory, religious and customary tenure systems (Benda Beckman, 2003).

10 GLTN/UH habitat 2008 Secure Land rights for All

11 <http://www.fig.net/pub/figpub/pub60/Figpub60.pdf>

The tenure typology associated with a continuum of land rights can be used to identify and assess different tenure types. The typology can be used at the national level or further refined at sub-national/city level use, depending on in-country diversity. The typology would start with an overall land tenure classification – whether on the basis of the legal regime(s) governing such tenure arrangements - the manner in which these rights are held - or the quantum of such rights. There are three ways of classifying land tenure regimes. The first is in terms of the legal regime governing tenure, i.e. whether that regime is statutory or customary. The second is in terms of the manner in which such land is held, i.e. whether as private, public or community property. The third is in terms of the quantum of rights held, i.e. whether as freehold, leasehold or common hold. Tenure classification would be followed by a detailed analysis for each type of tenure along the following parameters: their legal recognition (if any), the degree of documentation and/ or recording, transferability and enforceability.

A regularly updated typology along the continuum of rights is important to guide data collection, such as in surveys and censuses, to ensure that the full range of options is captured. Censuses are means of assessing the prevalence of various types of tenure. Surveys that contain well-designed land modules could be used to estimate the importance of and assess perceptions of tenure security.

3.1.2 PERCEPTION OF LAND TENURE SECURITY

A landholders' perception of her/his tenure security influences management and investment decisions. This affects land use. Perceived tenure security is not automatically aligned with the formal/legal status of the holding. Perception can work in two ways: a person could over- or underestimate the security of tenure from a legal point of view. For example, rights that are fully recognized locally through customary tenure systems can be lost when formally recorded as state land and subsequently assigned to an investor. Where customary rights systems are still functioning and there is no outside pressure on land, landholders' rights are generally "sufficiently" secure to continue investing in the land. Rights can also be underestimated due to an insufficient awareness of formal rights or knowledge on how to enforce these rights.

Measurement of tenure security is often done through a combination of methods. These include assessing the type of investments in land or property undertaken, differentiated by a time horizon for benefits to accrue (within 12 months, 5 years or longer). For example, the effect of perceived tenure insecurity is probably lower when using fertilizers than when planting trees, or investing in irrigation infrastructure, or in the construction of a building. A second set of questions used when measuring perception of tenure security explores the fear of expropriation/eviction by individuals or the state, and/ or fear of conflict over the land with rights being contested by individuals or the state.

3.2 MECHANISMS FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION AND DISPUTES

Land conflict cannot be avoided as it concerns a precious resource, but efficient systems for dealing quickly and effectively with disputes are an essential part of a land governance system. A well-functioning system for land administration and up-to-date, reliable and accessible land information is key for conflict prevention and resolving disputes. Ongoing conflicts are a source of instability. They can degenerate into violence and can hamper willingness to invest in land. An increase in the number of land disputes may indicate gaps in the mediation capacity of the legal and regulatory arrangements, growing competition, or weak capacities for conflict resolution. A decline in disputes may indicate that improvements are starting to have an effect. Any change should be a trigger for follow-up analyses to identify possible factors and thus policy implications.

3.3 LAND ADMINISTRATION

Land information systems should provide relevant, accurate and affordable land-related information to the public. Land administration services should be accessible, affordable and sustainable for holders of land rights. The ability to effectively and efficiently administer data captured in cadastral and land registration records, maps, tax slips etc., and make this information available, is a core element of land governance. Land registries are the responsibility of government agencies.

Land administration is linked also to taxation, particularly by local governments. Local governments are increasingly interested in promoting tenure security to improve their tax bases. Registry data is a key administrative data set for collecting land data.

METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES FOR SELECTING AND MONITORING GLOBALLY COMPARABLE CORE INDICATORS

4 METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES FOR SELECTING AND MONITORING GLOBALLY COMPARABLE CORE INDICATORS

This section will provide some more background on methodological issues with respect to the choice of methods for data collection on the land indicators and criteria for selection, and data requirements given that there is a wide array of data sources that could potentially be used to collect data on the proposed land indicators.

4.1 CRITERIA FOR SELECTING GLOBAL CORE INDICATORS

Core or headline indicators should measure vital outcomes and resonate with the goals of land policy makers and other influential actors outside the land sector, such as ministries of finance and citizens. Core land indicators should provide a “synthesized” view of progress and bottlenecks, and indicate where action is needed. Indicators turn data into relevant information on a regular basis and in a form that all those involved can understand and accept.

The choice of core land indicators requires a careful selection process as only a few can be selected. They should not be changed too often, as their influence increases when they are tracked over time and show trends. A core indicator list has to be short and strategic for maximum impact. It needs to be aspirational while tracking good performance. The indicators have to be “actionable”, which means they should reward governments for good performance. They should require annual measurement to encourage annual improvements.

The selection of core land indicators depends crucially on data availability. Frequent routine reporting is a requirement for policy influence. Reporting has to be cost-effective and affordable. It needs to be based on data that are already available or can become available quickly on a routine basis. Before deciding on a core global indicator, an assessment is needed of what data are available and in how many countries. Other questions are: How best can global data collection efforts be used? What are the possibilities for improving data availability, such as improving the quality of surveys, censuses and increasing the frequency? Can the capacity of monitoring and research organizations and statistical agencies be increased in order to improve data availability in the medium term? What administrative data are available and how can inherent limitations and biases be dealt with; for example, will formal types of tenure be better represented?

4.2 METHODOLOGICAL REQUIREMENTS FOR CORE INDICATORS AND FOR THE SDGs

Indicator measurement needs to be accurate. It must be able to be unambiguously derived from the underlying justifications for the development of the indicator. It needs to be consistent; a change in the indicator should be unequivocally attributed to an improvement or a deterioration of the dimension being assessed. This requires standardizing definitions, procedures and methods for data collection. Finally, the data collection and reporting process should be cost-effective, affordable and relatively easy to sustain. This means that existing data should be used as much as possible, with due regard to its limitations. Ideally, reporting should be integrated into routine monitoring.

The Sustainable Development Goals are a special type of global indicator with specific methodological requirements. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) framework will consist of goals for 2030, targets and indicators.¹² Similar to the MDG goals, the SDG goals are expected to be limited in number (probably less than the 17 proposed by Open Working Group's thirteenth session). They will have to be universally applicable and actionable in every country, which is different from the MDGs. The goals will address strategically important systemic issues, possibly set normative standards, be inspirational, aspirational and easy to communicate. Goals will need more specific targets and be more operational and again, there should not too many. The United Nations Sustainable Development Solutions Network (UNSDSN), a network linked to the SDG process, has suggested about three targets per goal. The wording of a target has to be "smart" specific, measurable, attainable, relevant and time bound. It has to be more technical, include quantitative measures where possible, while being consistent with already existing international targets.

Although the aim of the SDGs is to have universal goals and targets that are quantified at the global level to maximize leverage, it is also recognized that country level specificity is needed. There seems to be broad acceptance that differentiation in targets should be possible and decided by countries. The reasons for this are:

- I. Where starting points differ too much across countries, a single target will not be meaningful;
- II. Some targets are relevant only to a subset of countries;
- III. For some targets, there is no global consensus on the quantitative level.

¹² The section on approaches to SDG indicator selection and their measurement is based mainly on material prepared by the United Nations Sustainable Development Solutions Network (UNSDSN at <http://unsdsn.org/>).

Discussions are ongoing on the balance between global/ universal reporting and country level specificity, while maximizing global policy relevance. In addition, UNSDSN is proposing to have one set of core targets (tier 1) that are universal, and one set of "tier 2" targets representing a menu of options for countries to choose from.¹³ The approach chosen will be decided in the coming months of 2015. Differentiation will be useful for land indicators as there may be some that are important at the continent level, but which may not be universal.¹⁴

Indicators are the third tier of the SDG framework. According to the Sustainable Development Solutions Network, multiple indicators can be used for the same target. No maximum number is set.¹⁵ The purpose of indicators is twofold. They are a management tool to help countries develop implementation and monitoring strategies to achieve the SDGs. They encourage accountability through a report card, to measure progress towards achieving a target of the SDGs. Data requirements for accountability are more rigorous. However, it is also recognized that there is a trade-off between measurement for accountability and measurement for guiding interventions.

Criteria proposed by UNSDSN for the selection of robust SDG indicators:

- I. They are clear, straightforward and simple to compile and interpret;
- II. They are in line with international standards, recommendations and best practices, underpinned by consensus on their measurement to facilitate international comparison;

¹³ The African Union is proposing African development goals

¹⁴ Target 1b. Increase by X percent the share of women and men, communities, and businesses with secure rights to land, property, and other assets *[Nationally determined target] Discussion: This is a target with limited relevance in the United States given that equal legal access to land, property and other assets are well enshrined in both law and practice. (Norris et al., 2014).

¹⁵ An initial list had around a 100 indicators.

- III. They are broadly consistent with systems of national accounts, environmental-economic accounting and other systems-based information;
- IV. They are constructed from well-established public and private data sources and consistent enough to enable measurement over time;
- V. They lend themselves to disaggregation by individual characteristics such as gender, but also income, age, spatial distribution etc.;
- VI. They track a universal agenda, with many indicators applicable to both developed and developing countries; and
- VII. They are managed by one or more designated international organizations that will be responsible for annual, high-quality national reporting of the indicator. Data collection and reporting systems should be cost-effective, with a lean reporting process and in line with national monitoring methods.

The ability to report on an annual basis is strongly emphasized by UNSDSN as essential for SDGs policy impact. It is acknowledged that this will require financing to improve the statistical infrastructure and capacity of each country. This is critical so that high-quality data can be collected in a timely manner. Measurement instruments should be in place such as vital statistics, censuses, surveys, national accounts, complete and accessible administrative records, remote-sensing data. The issue of data collection for global reporting is part of the SDG discussion and is included in the goals and targets (OWG 13). This is a result of lessons learned from the MDG process. Despite great improvements in data gathering, MDG data came with too great a time lag, if at all, and was not always of good quality. Moreover, global MDG reporting efforts did not contribute enough to strengthening country-level monitoring capacity. The

aim of the SDG reporting system is that data collection will serve national interests and generate country-level demand for results, and thus interest to sustain monitoring.

4.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR CORE LAND INDICATORS

According to the UNSDSN, core land indicators that can be considered for inclusion in the SDG framework should meet the following criteria with respect to measurement and data base:

- I. **Frequency:** measurable change within 12 months (actionable) and data availability on an annual basis;
- II. **Country coverage:** a global core indicator has to be universally relevant and all (most) countries need to be able to report on the indicator and arrive at country comparisons;
- III. **Replicable and objective:** difference in measurement between years should result from changes in performance and not from changes in measurement methodology or the interpretation of data;
- IV. **Scope for disaggregation of data:** the ability to disaggregate by gender and other populations, as well as other categories (poverty) and spatial distribution;
- V. **Cost-effective:** the data collection and reporting system should be continuous and able to function without external financing, at least in the medium term. Upfront investments may be required for building up the system with due consideration for national monitoring methods and lean reporting processes;

EXISTING DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS FOR GLOBAL REPORTING ON CORE LAND INDICATORS

This section introduces four data collection instruments that can be used for global reporting on core indicators, such as for the SDG:

- I. Opinion-based surveys (expert opinion and global opinion polls);
- II. Censuses;
- III. Survey instruments; and
- IV. Aggregation of indicators using administrative data.

For each option, an example will be given of its use, opportunities for piggy-backing on existing approaches, and the drawbacks for reporting on core indicators.

5.1 EXPERT OPINION POLLS FOR LEGAL AND INSTITUTIONAL ASSESSMENTS

Expert opinion polls are used for monitoring change in the legal and institutional framework and there are three approaches:

- I. Annual surveys by experts of international organizations (e.g. IFAD rural land index, World Bank governance CPIA);
- II. Annual survey using a roster of country-level experts, who assess legal and institutional “time and motion” indicators for a given case study in a formal setting; and
- III. Multi-annual participatory country assessment using a standardized scorecard based on international experience, Public Expenditure and Accountability Framework (PEFA for public finance, LGAF for land governance) by international experts (PEFA) or panels of national experts (LGAF).

5.1.1 ANNUAL SURVEYS BY EXPERTS OF INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

This is where professional staff scores a set of indicators. Examples are IFAD’s access to land indicator, and the World Bank’s Country Policy and Institutional Assessment.¹⁶ IFAD produces the Access to Rural Land indicator for over a 100 countries on an annual basis. It is part of the Performance Based Allocation System, which is primarily prepared by IFAD for internal decision making on fund allocation. The indicator assesses the extent to which the institutional, legal and market framework provides secure land tenure and equitable access to land in rural areas, using a scorecard and guided by a questionnaire and guideposts. The indicator score is from 1 to 5; it is made up of five sub-components and assesses the extent to which:

- I. The law guarantees secure tenure for land rights of the poor;
- II. The law guarantees secure land rights for women and other vulnerable groups;
- III. Land is titled and registered;
- IV. Land markets function; and
- V. Government policies contribute to the sustainable management of common property resources.¹⁷

The scoring approach used by IFAD is comparable to the LGAF, with the latter having refined the ranking by using more quantitative thresholds to ensure consistency in scoring over years and across countries. Ranking is done by national experts using a public deliberation process.

¹⁶ Country Policy and Institutional Assessment (CPIA) is a diagnostic tool that is intended to capture the quality of a country’s policies and institutional arrangements. CPIA rates countries against a set of 16 criteria grouped into four clusters: (a) economic management; (b) structural policies; (c) policies for social inclusion and equity; and (d) public sector management and institutions. Property rights are included and the rating is done by World Bank staff.

¹⁷ <http://www.ifad.org/gbdocs/gc/27/e/GC-27-L-6.pdf>;

<http://www.gaportal.org/resources/detail/ifad-land-tenure-indicators>.

TABLE 2: IFAD MATRIX FOR THE INDICATOR “ACCESS TO LAND”

	ISSUE/ SCORE	5	4	3	2
A	Access to land for rural households	The law guarantees secure, equal and enforceable land rights to all	Generally secure	A majority of rural poor households have some access but this access	No access or insecure access
B	Access to land for women, indigenous populations and other vulnerable groups	The law guarantees secure, equal and enforceable land rights to poor men and women	Generally secure	Frequently, vulnerable groups do not enjoy the same access as other poor groups	No access or insecure access
C	Land tenure	Secure and enforceable land rights. The majority of land holdings are titled or registered	Land titling or registration is common	Owned land is sometimes registered; leased and rented land is mainly unregistered or leases are out of date	Property rights are not formally recognized by laws (or the laws are not applied) or are subject to easy termination or diminution
D	Formal land markets	Function effectively	Function to some degree. Are used by some poor rural men and women	Functioning to some degree but largely inaccessible to the rural poor	Not accessible to the rural poor. Informal markets are either absent or limited in scope
E	Regulation for the allocation and management of common property resources	Clear and equitable	Concrete efforts to improve the regulation are currently made by the government	Vague, unclear and largely unimplemented	No regulation; open access to common property resources

The IFAD results depend upon assessments made by the operational staff of the institutions concerned, and staff capacity and informed judgment are vital to their quality. The objectivity of the assessments is based upon the clarity and transparency of the system, the common guidelines given to the staff concerned (including on

the use of relevant statistical data and other materials linking assessments to the work of authoritative third parties), and the functioning of mechanisms to review and compare conclusions with a view to improving the consistency of application of common criteria.

The LGAF is made up of 80 dimensions, where a group of experts decide which of the corresponding statements best represents the land governance context in their jurisdiction. These dimensions or indicator scores are performance measures that can be discussed by policy makers and development partners. The LGAF, although aimed at a more robust system for scoring, ensures that the criteria used to rank specific dimensions are sufficiently consistent across countries. Application of

the LGAF so far has demonstrated that it is a feasible and meaningful way to provide a comprehensive diagnostic tool and framework for land policy analysis at the country level and identifies areas for improvement. The results serve as a basis for policy options and priorities at country level, while at the same time allowing identification of best practice across countries. It is difficult to link country and global-level indicators and LGAF has successfully created this bridge.

TABLE 3: EXAMPLE LGAF FRAMEWORK

Land governance dimensions/ score	A	B	C	D
Individuals' rural land tenure rights are legally recognized and protected in practice (same for urban)	Existing legal framework recognizes and protects rights held by more than 90% of the rural population	Existing legal framework recognizes and protects rights held by 70% - 90% of the rural population	Existing legal framework recognizes and protects rights held by 50% -70% of the rural population	Existing legal framework recognizes and protects rights held by less than 50% of the rural population
Customary tenure rights are legally recognized and protected in practice	There is legal recognition and effective protection of all customary rights	There is legal recognition of all customary rights but these are only partly protected in practice	There is partly recognition and effective protection of customary rights	Customary rights are not legally recognized and not protected in practice
Individual land in rural areas is recorded and mapped (same for urban)	More than 90% of individual land in rural areas is formally recorded and mapped	Between 70% and 90% of individual land in rural areas is formally recorded and mapped	Between 50% and 70% of individual land in rural areas is formally recorded and mapped	Less than 50% of individual land in rural areas is formally recorded and mapped
The number of illegal lease transactions is low	Existing legal restrictions on land leases if any, are clearly identified, widely accepted and fully complied with	Existing legal restrictions on land leases, if any, are clearly identified, justified and accepted by all parts of society, but not fully understood by land users, so that compliance is partial	Existing legal restrictions on land leases are clearly identified but not fully justified or accepted by land users, so that compliance is partial	Existing legal restrictions on land leases are routinely neglected
Women's property rights in lands as accrued by relevant laws are recorded	More than 90% of the cases are effectively recorded	Between 75% to 90% of the cases are effectively recorded	Between 50% to 75% of the cases are effectively recorded	Less than 50% of the cases are effectively recorded

The LGAF is a low-cost tool estimated at USD 40,000 per country. Despite the data limitations in most countries, it provides a broad view of the land sector. It can be used for longer-term monitoring at regional or global level. It establishes a basis for dialogue and coordination among development partners.

What does this mean for GLTN/GLII indicators?

Two of the November GLTN/GLII 2013 indicators refer to the legal and institutional framework and concern gender equity and the continuum of land rights. This includes whether the national legal framework provides women and men equal rights to land resource, the definition and breadth of recognized and documented tenure - such as the recognition of customary regimes - and whether the national legal framework protects legitimate land rights and uses derived through a plurality of tenure regimes. The GLII indicators in this respect are phrased as follows:

- **Legal recognition of a continuum of land rights:** Level to which the legal framework recognizes and protects legitimate land rights and uses, either through customary or statutory tenure regimes.
- **Equal right of women:** Level to which women and men have equal rights to own, inherit and bequeath land resources.

The latest OWG report (19 July 2014) includes under **Proposed goal 1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere, Target 1.4** “by 2030 ensure that all men and women, particularly the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology, and financial services including microfinance.” **Proposed goal 5. Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls,** 5.a states, “undertake reforms to give

women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance, and natural resources in accordance with national laws.”

According to this feasibility study, the measurement of legal and formal institutional indicators is feasible as outlined by the SDG criteria for indicators (frequency - annually, universally - can be replicated, and at relatively low cost). The collection of this data is possible by the collaboration of international institutions on conducting surveys on an annual basis, by having the methodology and networks required, and the capacity to undertake this work.

When these indicators are added on to established systems for annual surveys, this data collection will be at marginal cost per country. Investments are needed mainly for building the indicator through consultation, design, testing and review, which can be completed in one year. The assessment can be enriched and used to assess actual implementation by building on the results through the organization of national panel discussions at country-level land governance multi-stakeholder platforms.

5.2 EXPERT OPINION SURVEYS WITH ROSTER OF COUNTRY EXPERTS: ‘EASE OF DOING BUSINESS’ METHODOLOGY

The “Ease of Doing Business” survey (DB) is another example of expert opinion-based surveys and is managed by a division of the research department of the World Bank. DB has shown the power of global comparison and its impact on reform in country. DB uses a roster of over 10,000 experts as respondents, with each topic being assigned to a small group of selected experts (between 3 and 12 per country). DB is only about the formal system and tends to focus on the capital city. In some countries, other cities are

also included. The methodology of DB is based on an assessment of the formal legal and institutional framework and procedures for a detailed case study. The indicator on transfer of land, for example, defines the type of property that is being transferred, its value, its location and who is transferring it.¹⁸

DB is in the process of developing and testing a module on the quality of land administration systems, such as transparency, coverage and disputes, for which data were collected in 2014 for 189 countries with questionnaires sent to 1,600 respondents. Preliminary results were reported in October 2014 and roll out is planned for 2015. This database can provide useful data for core indicators on the (formal) land administration system. Another variation on this approach is the World Bank's "Women, Business and the Law".

The DB uses expert opinion-based surveys, a methodology suited for situations where a single dimension captures key information and quality of services in a uniform manner. In the case of land indicators, if information can be reliably gathered and policy changes implemented, such expert polls could be useful. They could measure

change in descriptive aspects of the legal framework, institutions for enforcement and standardized transactions and procedures. As DB illustrates, this can be done quickly in a way that combines high visibility, good country coverage, and is updated on an annual basis. However, a DB-type approach is not suited to complex, multi-dimensional issues around property rights as there is a risk of oversimplification. There is also the possibility of "gaming the reporting system" by countries. This could result in the rating on the formal institutional framework being out of step with actual practice. There are examples of countries scoring very well in DB with respect to the policy environment, but with limited actual impact for the private sector due to the lack of policy implementation.¹⁹

The World Bank's "Doing Business" and "Women, Business and the Law", have systems, networks and infrastructure in place that can be used for annual reporting on progress with the formal legislative and institutional framework. Exploring possibilities for piggy-backing on these surveys is for data collection on the legal and institutional framework indicator can be one option that has marginal costs per country.

¹⁸ **Doing Business Assumptions** about the parties: The parties (buyer and seller) are limited liability companies; are located in the peri-urban area of the economy's largest business city; are 100 per cent domestically and privately owned; have 50 employees each, all of whom are nationals and perform general commercial activities. **Assumptions about the property:** it has a value of 50 times the income per capita; the sale price equals the value; it is fully owned by the seller; it has no mortgages attached and has been under the same ownership for the past 10 years; it is registered in the land registry or cadastre, or both, and is free of title disputes; it is located in a peri-urban commercial zone and no rezoning is required. It consists of land and a building; the land area is 557.4 metre² (6,000 ft²); a two-story warehouse of 929 metres² (10,000 ft²) is located on the land. The warehouse is 10 years old, is in good condition and complies with all safety standards, building codes and other legal requirements. It has no heating system. The property of land and building will be transferred in its entirety; Will not be subject to renovations or additional building following the purchase. It has no trees, natural water sources, natural reserves or historical monuments of any kind; it will not be used for special purposes, and no special permits, such as for residential use, industrial plants, waste storage or certain types of agricultural activities, are required; it has no occupants, and no other party holds a legal interest in it.

¹⁹ Indermit S. Gill, Ivailo Izvorski, Willem van Eeghen, Donato De Rosa (2013). Diversified development: making the most of natural resources in Eurasia.

Women, Business and the Law examines laws and regulations that affect women's ability to earn an income, either by starting and running their own businesses or by getting jobs. A total of 750 lawyers, judges, civil society representatives and public officials in 143 countries are part of the survey. Customary law is not taken into account unless it has been codified and it is assumed that the women live in the main town.

WITH RESPECT TO USING PROPERTY, THE QUESTIONS ASKED ARE:

23. What is the default marital property regime?
24. Who legally administers marital property?
25. If it is the husband who administers the property, does he need his wife's consent to undertake major transactions, such as selling or pledging the property as collateral?
26. Are there any special provisions governing transactions concerning the marital home, such as selling or pledging as collateral?
27. Does the law provide for valuation of non-monetary contributions?
- 28a. Do unmarried men and unmarried women have equal ownership rights to property?
- 28b. Do married men and married women have equal ownership rights to property?
29. Do sons and daughters have equal inheritance rights to property from their parents?
30. Do female and male surviving spouses have equal inheritance rights over property?

The "Ease of Doing Business" index is limited in scope. It captures registering property, i.e. the full sequence of procedures necessary for a business (the buyer) to purchase a property from another business (the seller); and to transfer the property title to the buyer's name, so that the buyer can use the property for expanding its business, use the property as collateral in taking new loans or, if necessary, to sell the property to another business. However, it does not account for securing the property against theft and looting, macroeconomic conditions or assessing the strength of the land administration institutions. It only deals with land vested in limited companies that is registered and free from any disputes and encumbrances, and is land which

includes buildings and is in urban or peri-urban areas. It has no application for private individual or group rights, land held outside the land registry, land which is under dispute – a frequent occurrence in urban areas - rural land, land occupied by informal settlements, public lands or agricultural lands.²⁰ It focuses on a very small sample of land in most developing countries and the findings from it cannot be extrapolated without careful contextualization. It also has limited use for analysing land held under the continuum of land rights, as it is only applicable to registered land and not the whole range of rights to land. As the East of Doing Business index focuses on the commercial classes, it has little use for analysing land which the poor occupy.

²⁰ <http://www.doingbusiness.org/methodology/registering-property>

What does this mean for GLTN/GLII indicators?

For land administration, the indicator selected by GLII partners is the **percentage revenue from land taxation**: property and land taxes as a percent of GDP. This indicator is relevant for policy makers, and in particular a ministry of finance and municipalities. It could draw in additional actors in the pursuit of improving tenure security. This indicator will be country specific, depending on tax legislation and the importance of these revenues for local government revenues. Data exists for overall percentage of tax for gross domestic product (<http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/GC.TAX.TOTL.GD.ZS/countries>), but there is no complete data set for property tax.

No, or incomplete, updating of the records when transactions take place is a point of concern as it results in an outdated land administration system. A potential indicator to measure this is the percentage of transactions recorded per year relative to their land value. The results can be compared with research data on total transactions (or benchmarked). This data is provided by registries. The inability to provide such data indicates that there are sustainability issues. The “Doing Business” module that is being prepared will be able to provide data on the land administration system for recording transactions, but the actual data for measurement has to be obtained through the registries. A possible source of data on registries is the cadastral template (<http://www.cadastraltemplate.org/>) and the upcoming module on registries in the World Bank’s “Doing Business”.

5.3 GLOBAL OPINION SURVEYS

Global opinion polls involve a survey of public opinion on a specific issue for a particular sample of people, with respondents being identified by gender, age and race/region. Opinion polls can provide a representative

view of opinions (including perceptions) on land policy, knowledge of key legal provisions and the functioning of institutions. Examples of a global poll are Gallup - a global performance management consulting company. Afrobarometer - an independent, nonpartisan research project that measures the social, political, and economic atmosphere in Africa. Afrobarometer surveys are conducted in more than 30 African countries and are repeated on a regular cycle. Because the instrument asks a standard set of questions, countries can be systematically compared. Trends in public attitudes are tracked over time. Results are shared with decision makers, policy advocates, civic educators, journalists, researchers, donors and investors, as well as Africans who wish to become more informed and active citizens. The Global Financial Inclusion, or Findex, database²¹ is piggy-backing on Gallup to construct its indicators on the basis of a limited set of questions asked through the Gallup World Poll. It shows its potential for quickly getting consistent information on a limited set of variables for a large number of countries (see Box 1 below). Gallup will add questions to their world poll and costs are calculated per minute of questioning (about USD 500,000 / minute/ round).²² Additional costs are the design, testing and peer review of the questionnaire, analysis of data and reporting.

Piggy-backing on global opinion polls can prove disadvantageous due to limitations in the national sample sizes. Global polls use 1,000 respondents per country and the client has no control over the sampling procedure. This makes it impossible to disaggregate by region or category of people, except for gender and age. The limited number of standardized questions reduces the possibility of building an actionable indicator that will reward countries for good performance. While Gallup offers a relatively low-cost option to generate the basis for a globally comparable indicator, global

²¹ <http://go.worldbank.org/1F2V9ZK8C0>

²² These costs can be expected to decrease as cellphone coverage and accessibility increases.

opinion polls will need to be supported by additional robust and disaggregated data to be meaningful. Some Gallup polls already include a question on land policy, but no follow-up on questions have been integrated in the questionnaire to give meaning to the policy question. For example, a question was asked in 2008

for Sudan on the importance of land for conflict and security, and whether individual land rights needed strengthening.²³ Both questions were answered as strongly positive, but because no question was asked on community land rights it would be a major error to conclude that they are not important (Deng, 2013).

23 <http://www.gallup.com/poll/108895/Sudan-65-Say-Communities-Accepting-Ethnic-Minorities.aspx>

BOX 1. PIGGYBACKING ON THE GALLUP SURVEY METHODOLOGY BY FINDEX

The aim of FINDEX is to establish a public database to track global policy and progress on improving access to financial services (save, borrow, make payments and manage risk) (Global Findex Database project). Findex is hosted by the World Bank research department.

Since 2005, the annual Gallup World Poll has surveyed most countries, using randomly selected, nationally representative samples. The target population is the entire civilian, non-institutionalized population aged 15 and above. Surveys are conducted in the major languages of each country. Respondents are classified by gender, age and region / ethnicity, and include at least 1,000 surveys of individuals with a maximum of 2,000 in larger countries. The primary sampling units, consisting of clusters of households, are stratified by population size, geography or both, and clustering is achieved through one or more stages of sampling. Respondents are randomly selected within the selected households. Face to face surveys take place in countries where telephone coverage represents less than 80 per cent of the population; elsewhere telephone interviewing is employed.

Findex uses the Gallup world poll to reliably measure financial inclusion, in a consistent manner, over a broad range of countries and over time, to provide a solid foundation of data for researchers and policymakers. A set of 18 questions were formulated on the basis of results from extensive piloting in country and peer reviewing. Actual data collection takes place over a 12-month period (January to December), with raw data being made available within two months (1 March). Three rounds are envisaged (2011, 2014 and 2017) and a team of two people is in place for data analysis and reporting. The database was publicly released via the Open Data platform.

What does this mean for the GLTN/GLII indicators?

The fourth indicator for the theme land tenure security proposed by GLII EGM is:

- Perceived tenure security: percentage of men, women and businesses that perceive their land rights are recognized and protected.

Perceptions of tenure security are being measured in household surveys in terms of fear of losing land to individuals or the state within a given period of time, and fear of conflict within a given period of time, again either with the state or individuals, combined with data on types of actual investments, and their horizon. This requires either a land module in a household survey or adding questions to more general surveys like the demographic and health survey (DHS). The frequency of data collection will be lower (3-5 years) and universal reporting is more difficult. The additional costs for such a module will be low if added to an already-scheduled survey.

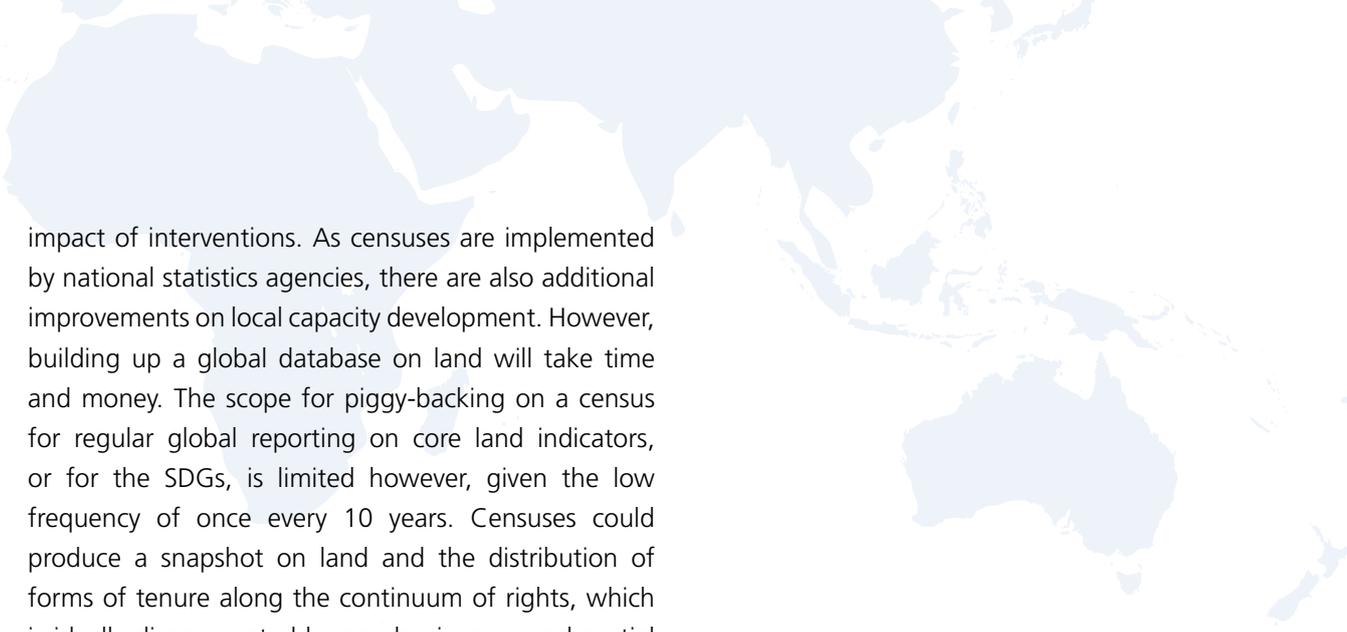
Another option for global reporting on perceptions of tenure security is to add a module to established global opinion surveys with a robust methodology, assuming that the sample size per country is sufficient to capture meaningful changes. Therefore, consultation, design, piloting and reviewing are required to build the questions and assess the relevance of the data. Annual surveying through already-established (private) global opinions that cover all countries will cost between USD 1 million and USD 2 million per survey depending on the length of the survey, with data being available within 12 months.

5.4 CENSUS DATA

A census covers the entire population but can only include a limited set of carefully selected, tested

and standardized questions. A census is undertaken by statistical agencies at the country level, often in coordination with international agencies tasked with global reporting (for example the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) on agriculture, the International Labour Organization on labour, the World Health Organization on health). It can take several years before data become available. Population censuses are large, costly operations and tend to be undertaken only every 10 years. In the United States for example, the 2010 census cost about USD 4.7 / per person (USD 14.7 billion in total). The Indian census was estimated at costing about USD 0.5 / per person and USD 370 million in total. The high total cost and financial constraints have forced many countries to deviate from the decennial schedule or to reduce census samples. Census and other survey data are very important for planning in a country. The large coverage allows for disaggregation, which has been used to generate poverty estimates at sub-national level, for example poverty maps in Vietnam. Given the importance of reliable data for public investment decisions, special initiatives are currently being set up to build and improve statistical capacity in countries. One example is the Partnership in Statistics for Development in the 21st Century (PARIS21). This aims to promote the better use and production of statistics in low- and middle-income countries, in support of evidence-based decision making, particularly with respect to development and poverty alleviation. The partnership facilitates statistical capacity development, advocates for the integration of reliable data in decision making, and co-ordinates donor support to statistics. The SDG is creating additional momentum for improving country-level statistical capacity.

Censuses already tend to include questions on land, housing and other property. Census data are therefore well suited for assessing the impact on a wide range of outcome variables and to identify economic/poverty



impact of interventions. As censuses are implemented by national statistics agencies, there are also additional improvements on local capacity development. However, building up a global database on land will take time and money. The scope for piggy-backing on a census for regular global reporting on core land indicators, or for the SDGs, is limited however, given the low frequency of once every 10 years. Censuses could produce a snapshot on land and the distribution of forms of tenure along the continuum of rights, which is ideally disaggregated by gender, income and spatial distribution.

An important census for the rural land indicator is the World Programme for the Census of Agriculture (WCA) managed by FAO. The WCA started in 1950 and should be undertaken every 10 years.²⁴ Questions on land ownership are included²⁵ and are self-reported.

FAO proposes the following categories to countries for defining land tenure types:

- **Legal ownership** or legal owner-like possession (formal land tenure arrangements): Title of ownership; land operated under hereditary tenure, perpetual lease, long-term lease, with nominal or no rent; tribal or traditional form of tenure (tribal, village, etc.).
- **Non-legal ownership** or non-legal owner-like possession (informal land tenure arrangements): Land operated for a long period of time (no legal ownership; no title; no long-term lease, no payment for rent).

²⁴ <http://www.fao.org/economic/ess/ess-wca/en/>

²⁵ Proportion of Adult Population owning Land, by Sex (ind. 12)

BOX 2: FAO: WORLD PROGRAMME FOR THE CENSUS OF AGRICULTURE

Within the framework of the decennial World Programme for the Census of Agriculture (WCA), micro-level data on land is collected.²⁶ The WCA started in 1950 and the 9th census is the 2010 round, which covers the period from 2006 to 2015 with an expected participation by 144 countries. The WCA programme assists countries by providing guidelines to generate internationally comparable figures, such as the number and size of farms, the number of livestock by type and age/sex classification, land tenure and land use, crops grown and agricultural inputs used. FAO also provides direct technical support to countries to prepare and implement their agricultural censuses.

The unit of analysis for the WCA is the agricultural holding, which is an economic unit of agricultural production under single management comprising all livestock kept and all land used wholly or partly for agricultural production purposes, without regard to title, legal form, or size. Single management may be exercised by an individual or household, jointly by two or more individuals or households, by a clan or tribe, or by a juridical person, such as a corporation, cooperative or government agency. The holding's land may consist of one or more parcels, located in one or more separate areas, or in one or more territorial or administrative divisions, providing the parcels share the same production means, such as labour, farm buildings, machinery or draught animals (FAO, 3.23). Within the agricultural census, information is collected on the sex of the holder of each holding.²⁷ Agricultural censuses in six African countries collect information regarding the person responsible for the various parcels within the holding. Many of the censuses also ask about the tenure status of the parcel, but this may or may not include the identification of the individual owner (Doss, 2013).

Land tenure data at parcel/plot²⁸ level are available for eight African countries): Burkina Faso (2006/2010), Malawi (2006/2007), Mozambique (2009/2010), Niger (2005/2007), Rwanda (2008), Seychelles (2011), Togo (2011) and Uganda (2008/2009). Sex – of the parcel/plot manager (six African countries): Burkina Faso (2006/2010), Malawi (2006/2007), Mozambique (2009/2010), Niger (2005/2007), Togo (2011) and Uganda (2008/2009).

26 World Programme for the Census of Agriculture (2010). Rome: FAO. Available: <http://www.fao.org/docrep/009/a0135e/a0135e00.htm#TOC>

27 See <http://www.fao.org/gender/agrigender/en/> See <http://www.fao.org/gender/agrigender/en/>

28 Parcel: a piece of land of one tenure type entirely surrounded by other land not operated by the holding or by parcels of the holding under a different tenure type. The holding's land may consist of one or more parcels that share the same production means, such as labour, farm buildings, machinery or draught animals. Parcels are further divided into plots. Plot: a part or whole of a field on which a specific crop or crop mixture is grown. Plots are at lower hierarchical level than parcels, although some countries do not clearly distinguish between the two.

FAO is consulting on improving the availability of sex-disaggregated data on land ownership for the next round of the World Census of Agriculture (2020). This work is coordinated with the EDGE and the United Nations Women/UNSD initiative. The United Nations-coordinated Evidence and Data for Gender Equality (EDGE) project aims to enhance the capacity of countries to collect, disseminate and use reliable statistics and indicators to assess the relative situation of women and men in gender-sensitive, policy-relevant areas. Assets is one element for which testing is ongoing in 2014 on what to ask and how. The recommendations will be integrated into regular household surveys and FAO plans to use these insights for the next round of agricultural censuses in order to obtain more gender-disaggregated information on land ownership.

Questions tested by EDGE are:-

1. Proportion of population with access to credit by sex;
2. Proportion of (adult) population who own land, by sex;

This measures assets from a gender perspective in household surveys. The approach of the United Nations High Level Panel is that the share of women and men with secure rights to land, property and other assets should be used as the starting point. This is another example of how the SDG discussion is providing momentum towards improving data availability. Ownership is defined as either economic (bundle of rights) or legal. EDGE is also testing the impact of variation in surveying methodology and respondents; the steps used by EDGE are to review the existing data collection methods on land ownership and control. This included the agricultural census and household surveys; defining standards for collecting comparable sex-disaggregated data on land ownership and control; and proposing practical guidelines on how to incorporate questions in censuses and ensuring consistency with EDGE.

The unit of data collection and the definition of ownership get special attention. For impacts on gender, it is important to include also intra-household data and collect data at the parcel level. This is still rare in censuses and the choice being discussed is between parcel modules or household member rosters (and ideally both). Other options being discussed are to also add data on the management and different management rights, as well as sole versus joint management and ownership (FAO, 2014). One proposal is to shift the unit of analysis to the parcel and not just the land holding, although this may not be realistic for a census. An alternative but less optimal approach is to include a question on land ownership in the household roster.²⁹

Whereas the data availability report 2014 gives the sources of data, range of data points, frequency and the number of countries that can use this data, the indicators on land have not been finalized.³⁰ It is not clear how this data will be generated and fitted into the metadata on land.

²⁹ Chiara Brunelli, Adriana Neciu (2014) Strengthening the availability of sex-disaggregated data on land ownership. Paper presented at the World Bank Land and Poverty Conference 2014.

³⁰ GSALLIndicatorsDataAvailability_31122014 (1)

5.5 HOUSEHOLD SURVEYS

Multi-topic household surveys provide an opportunity to tailor questions to the issue at hand and to properly assess impact by using panel designs rather than repeated cross-sectional designs. Household surveys have great potential for generating information on impact and causal relations.

The use of multi-topic household surveys has expanded greatly in recent decades and most countries now have some kind of household survey, which is administered every three to five years. Several types of surveys are globally supported, such as the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) that also includes some question on assets, and the Living Standards Measurement Survey (LSMS). Land modules are increasingly being added to multi-topic household surveys for rural areas, either in the form of a few questions or by way of a complete module.

Current developments around household surveys focus on improving quality and usefulness for country-level decision making. New directions involve integration/overlying with spatial data, with census data or with administrative data. Some weaknesses that have not yet been overcome are the invisibility of certain groupings (slums, nomadic people and homeless people) and low levels of geographic disaggregation.

Household surveys have typically complex survey sample designs rather than simple, random, stratified samples. Data could be collected in a simpler way, but only modest conclusions could be drawn. The cost of a household survey depends on the goal, which in turn determines sample size and level of representivity needed. New technologies are reducing costs (Computer-assisted personal interviewing - CAPI, phone surveys), will facilitate data collection and analysis, and may also facilitate better comparability of surveys and quality control. Multi-topic household surveys are

important for understanding causal mechanisms and impacts that exists in the relationships within tenure security, investments and productivity; tying land rights to individual empowerment and bargaining power, the development of land markets and land allocation dynamics. Analysing household and intra-household level data obtained through such surveys is the only way to monitor these issues.

What does this mean for GLTN/GLII land indicators?

Household surveys can be used for piggy-backing land indicators but probably not for SDG indicators. The time required to properly implement a household survey makes it impractical to use for reporting changes at a frequency that is less than three to five years. In addition, most household surveys data are not being updated on an annual basis. In Africa, the average cost of a household survey is estimated at USD 2.5 million by the World Bank based on 14 countries (World Bank, 2014).

One option is if an international organization works together with a national statistical agency and stakeholder platform. Together, they could standardize the list of options for coding with respect to “claims to land that are legally recognized and documented” for use by every survey and census addressing land and housing in the country. They could ensure that it is regularly reviewed and updated, and include changes in law and procedures, and the creation of new land documents. This list of legally recognized and documented tenures would be country specific and has to be designed from the tenure typology along the continuum of rights, with substantial input from a national stakeholder platform for land governance (Sietchiping et al, 2012).

The types of tenures taken into account would ideally be standardized in consultation with the statistical

agency responsible for the census and surveys. One starting point for this country-level standard list could be the FAO census or household surveys. Also, insights from research on how questions have to be asked and to whom, similar to that emerging from EDGE on gender data and Living Standards Measurement Study-Integrated Surveys on Agriculture (LSMS-ISA), needs to be included in the methodology.

DHS have large sample sizes (usually between 5,000 and 30,000 households). They are disaggregated by demographic variables, and are typically conducted about every five years to allow comparisons over time. The schedule varies amongst countries. The DHS already includes questions on owning a house, owning (agricultural) land and whether there are singly or jointly owned, but there are no questions to document perception. The main costs for adding a limited number of questions to the DHS would be with respect to analysis and reporting, the costs of which cannot be estimated. Even though DHS is not suitable for annual reporting on SDGs, it may be possible to build up a database of basic data on land and housing that covers most developing countries. About 80 countries are currently included in the DHS.

Household surveys provide important data for research on land governance. However, one of the key reasons behind the creation of GLTN/GLII was that the questionnaires being used were non-standardized and household surveys are not generally affordable at the scale required for national land policy decision making. This means that, currently the scope for using these surveys ex-post facto for comparing findings across countries remains very limited.

In preparation for this technical note, an inventory was undertaken in 2014 of current land modules that were included in over 70 household surveys globally. The questionnaires were made available by a range of

organizations that commission and implement multi-topic household surveys (FAO, IFPRI, MCC, USAID, etc.). The overall conclusion is that there is large variation in the coverage of key domains, as well as in scope and methods of data collection within the key domains.

The seven categories which should be covered in a land module/household survey) are:

1. Plot characteristics and mode of acquisition
2. Formal and informal rights
3. Investments in the land
4. Lease market participation
5. Sales market participation
6. Perceived tenure security and land dispute history
7. Knowledge and perception questions

Although these modules are still under development by the World Bank and not available to the public, the data is to be at the household, individual and parcel level (residential and farmland), and also include communal and non-parcelled land. The level of detail per domain depends on the purpose for which a range of options are currently under consideration. A light version (for a DHS or other general survey) is one option. A standard module in a household survey dealing with rural or urban dimensions of tenure security, which builds on the experience of UN-Habitat with the Urban Inequity Survey, including expanding the research on land, is another option. Standard modules, which will be developed in 2015 on CAPI software by the World Bank, and which are available free of charge accompanied by a source book providing guidance for the design of land modules in household surveys, is a third option. It is expected that by better standardizing land modules, the data quality and comparability across countries and over time will be greatly improved. This standardization is important for ensuring that piggy-backing land modules on established household surveys yields comparable results (Sietchiping et al., 2012).

5.6 ADMINISTRATIVE AND GEOSPATIAL DATA

Administrative data are the data that are produced on a routine basis by government agencies and not as a result of special monitoring efforts or surveys. Examples are registries, cadastres, records of intermediary rights and other types of administrative data that are used as proof of occupancy (tax records, records of permits, payment of utilities, permits etc.), or the range of court records.

Given the advancements made in information and communication technology – in particular the massive expansion of storage and processing capacities – it has become much easier to work with digital administrative data. Access to, and quality of, remotely sensed imagery is expanding fast. The spread of mobile phones and internet access is leading to cost-reductions in accessing data through volunteer efforts such as social media, crowd-sourcing, customer surveys, etc. Administrative data, spatial data and data from crowd sourcing are all part of what is referred to as “big data”. Open data is the movement towards making administrative data, and government records in particular, accessible to the general public for accountability and monitoring. These data sets can then be used for analysis for research and by private companies.

The land sector is particularly suited for work around “big data” because producing reliable and accessible records (textual and spatial) for landowners and other interested parties is the core mandate of land agencies. This could open avenues for country-level monitoring (national, sub-national and project) in order to improve quality and outreach of service provision, and also offers possibilities for monitoring core indicators. The routine production of data required for monitoring global core land indicators is a by-product of these institutions, to the extent that they would comply with their mandate.

Roughly, there are four situations with respect to availability of administrative land data in a country:

1. Countries with administratively available data on a routine basis for all or most of the land, even though some fields may be lacking (such as for gender); data are also accessible and can be used (with limited extra efforts) for computing indicators;
2. Most data exists but is not made available due to a lack of open data policy or is currently de facto inaccessible for routine monitoring because it is not digitized, and/or with records archived at the decentralized level. Limited data availability can also be caused by a lack of data standards and data management, and inter-agency coordination is weak, resulting in scattered records across sector ministries;
3. Countries with partial data availability but facing issues of coverage, quality or missing fields (gender);
4. Very limited data in the system, limited to certain geographic regions (urban, settlement schemes, irrigation schemes, pilots of systematic registration etc.) or with registries not being accessible, or services that do not meet the majority of users’ needs. This can be because of non-recognition of customary rights, inaccessible procedures for tenure formalization and transfers, limited availability of maps, and weak demand for land administration services.

The potential for strengthening land governance relatively quickly by investing in monitoring systems that rely on administrative data (even at a subnational level) is highest where weak reporting capacity is caused mainly by institutional proliferation and poor data management. It is estimated that two-thirds of all countries globally claim that they have most land mapped and recorded, although not always computerized yet (about 40 per cent of all countries have done so). These countries can either already report

on core indicators or will be able to do so within a brief period, if there is political will for record integration and standard setting. It will require relatively limited upfront investments, mainly in technical assistance with a focus on data standards, procedures for data collection and record sharing, ensuring the possibility for disaggregation (gender, spatial) and improving procedures for data management, analysis and frequency of reporting. Digitization is useful only when records are up to date and reliable.

In the remaining third of the countries, systems for documenting (and registering) rights are still being built up and one of the issues is the integration of “intermediate systems of tenure” along the continuum of land rights. A core indicator can be aspirational when a country improves its ratings by improving coverage. This could only be possible by expanding the range of recognized and documented rights (continuum of rights). Examples are the mapping and recording of community, village or ancestral lands, and tenure regularization. A global core indicator could provide the political incentive. This would be even more powerful if indicators were for SDG purposes. Particular beneficiaries of this would be the urban and rural poor and the protection of common lands.

Given this potential, the feasibility of using administrative data for monitoring was tested in nine countries as “proof of concept” on a pilot basis. Indicators were formulated that address GLTN/GLII thematic priorities but in a way that is more suited to administrative data.³¹ An assessment also was made of the ability to report, accessibility of data, and requirements for routine monitoring.

31 (1) Area mapped - share of mapped rights with claimants recognized; (2) women's registration - share of land registered in women's name; (3) transactions - number and prices of registered land transactions; (4) tax revenues - land tax collection by local entities; (5) expropriation: area expropriated and compensation paid; and (6) disputes - Number of land-related conflicts in the courts.

Countries were proposed by GLTN multi-lateral/bilateral cluster members and included: Brazil, Cambodia, Georgia, Peru, Philippines, Rwanda, Uganda, Ukraine and Vietnam.

All countries were able to report on one or more indicators, even where coverage of records was low, with data not always being reliable. Inconsistency in data could be demonstrated relatively easily with more in-depth analytical work. This is important for policy makers as these records are used as evidence of rights. The pilots also produced evidence that the effort of monitoring using administrative data can generate incentives for improvement. A range of aspects emerged. There are challenges in disaggregating the data for gender. Often countries did not have gender-disaggregated data (Georgia, Ukraine and the Philippines³²). The nomenclature used in court records makes it difficult to identify land-related disputes. For some countries, these issues are relatively easy to amend and improve the availability of policy relevant information. Data on expropriation exists in all countries, but is often not made publicly available, which is important from the perspective of transparency. Some countries cannot report on transactions, which may indicate sustainability challenges in regard to the land administration system.

Most countries face issues with data coordination. Data are spread out over different agencies and levels (central and municipality). Data standards required for the integration of records and maps are lacking. Weak inter-agency coordination is often the underlying cause. The integration of records is feasible from a technical perspective and would not require a long time,

32 Indian government officials realized that their records also lack a field for “gender”, which they plan to amend while ensuring privacy. Note: Japan and UK have indicated that they would not be able to supply gender-disaggregated data for title deeds.

but political will is required. Improved inter-agency coordination and record integration would have a spill-over effect in service delivery for citizens making a global indicator that addresses such issues “aspirational”. The momentum generated by the SDGs could assist. This should result in a full picture of land rights that are documented, recorded and registered and this would provide information to improve performance

of the land administration system. Such an improved database could facilitate revenue generation for municipalities and provide important information for decision makers and stakeholder dialogue. Putting in place a land information system that could regularly report on these key indicators should be mandatory in any country where land programmes are undertaken with international support.

TABLE 4: ADMINISTRATIVE DATA AVAILABILITY FOR CORE INDICATORS

COUNTRIES	1. AREA MAPPED	2. WOMEN REGISTRATION	3. TRANS-ACTION	4. TAX REVENUE	5. EXPROPRIATION	6. DISPUTES
UGANDA	Y*	Y	Y	N	Y***	N
RWANDA	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y**	Y
CAMBODIA	Y*	Y***	Y	N	Y**	Y
PHILIPPINES	Y**	Y****	N	N	Y**	N
VIETNAM	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
GEORGIA	Y*	Y****	N	N	Y	N
UKRAINE	Y*	Y****	N	N	Y**	N
PERU	Y**	Y (urban)	Y/N	N	Y**	N
BRAZIL	Y**	Y	Y	Y***	Y**	Y**

* For mapped and recorded land ** data are scattered/not available *** paper based - **** - computed by combining administration and registry data are not gender disaggregated

What does this mean for GLTN/GLII indicators?

A quantitative indicator proposed on addressing tenure security in the GLTN/GLII long list and for the SDGs is:

- **Secure rights to land and property:** Percentage of men, women, communities and businesses with recognized evidence of tenure.
- **Land area mapped:** Percentage of land area mapped on legally recognized tenure maps.

Several options for the measurement of this indicator exist depending on data availability.

Land registries with digital record data by plot and parcel have the information to compute the percentage of parcels or land area that claimants have identified compared to the total land area. Where these digital records and maps are available and complete for all claimants, and where citizens have a personal identification number, the indicator can be computed for the type of rights that are recorded (generally ownership), under the assumption that there are no privacy issues. An estimated 60 per cent to 70 per cent of all countries have nearly complete records and maps, and 40 per cent have all information digitized but not necessarily disaggregated by gender.

Using data from government registries is an option in countries with a high degree of documentation of tenure, particularly where fully digitized. In countries with reasonably good census data and a relatively high level of documentation of claims (from about 40 per cent onwards depending also on distribution), it is feasible to compute percentages on a country or sub-national (city) specific basis, through robust sampling and adjusting for bias. This may be a group of about 25 per cent of all countries

Core land indicators on land and conflict have been proposed by GLTN/GLII partners, but not for the SDGs. The indicators proposed are:

- **Efficiency of land dispute resolution:** Time to resolve a land/property dispute, and
- **Effectiveness of land dispute resolution:** Percentage of reported land disputes that have been resolved.

Although the role of a local mediation and reconciliation mechanism is often important in solving disputes quickly and reducing pressure on the court system, records are kept in few of these instances. Courts collect this data but changes will need to be made for it to be useful. The changes needed are: the nomenclature used must make it possible to identify cases related to disputes over land; and the records need to be digitized. The number of courts to be considered can also be considerable. The local relevance of these indicators depends on the use of the formal court system for land disputes, which varies across countries and between categories of people

HOW CAN GLOBAL
CORE LAND INDICATORS
CONTRIBUTE TO COUNTRY
LEVEL POLICY DIALOGUE

6.1 SDG REPORTING IN SUPPORT OF COUNTRY LEVEL MONITORING

Land is important for the Sustainable Development Goals as policies on land use and land tenure are key to the goals in several strategic areas, such as ending poverty, food security, gender equality, urban development, or sustainable natural resource use. To have “land” included in a meaningful way in SDG targets and indicators means that the land community must demonstrate that it is a universal issue that it contributes to inclusion and integration, that it forms part of a multi-sectoral approach, and that it is not operating as a silo. These are all core principles for SDG. Global core indicators on land can only address a minimum set of issues, and the SDG land indicators even less. At the country level, core land indicators alone cannot and should not guide national policy design. They have to be complemented by country-level monitoring, using data from a range of sources such as surveys, censuses, administrative research, crowdsourcing and participatory monitoring to track progress and performance and identify problems in a timely manner. It is the combination of global and national reporting on results, together with participatory monitoring and stakeholder dialogue that will help catalyse action across different ministries and stakeholders to strengthen land governance and improve tenure security for all.

Ideally, reporting should be a routine activity allowing stakeholders to focus on analysis and implications for policy dialogue. Investing in the supply side through reporting on core land indicators needs to be combined with capacity building on the demand side, such as around multi-stakeholder policy dialogues.

6.2 DATA AVAILABILITY, DATA COLLECTION METHODOLOGIES AND DATA PROVIDERS (MULTI-ACTOR) - POTENTIAL FOR SYNERGY

Reporting on core land indicators in the context of the SDG framework has more impact on policy, but is also more demanding with respect to coverage (global reporting), frequency (on an annual basis), methodology and standardization. General criteria for SDG indicators may include international consensus on measurements to facilitate comparison across countries; constructed from well-established public and private data sources; and managed by national statistical agencies and a designated international organizations that are responsible for annual, high-quality global reporting, with due consideration for cost-effectiveness, lean reporting processes and national monitoring methods. The requirements for reporting on global land indicators can be an opportunity to strengthen country-level data collection systems. The availability of high quality data will facilitate monitoring work and in-depth research, and can also be used for indicators. The reporting process could generate incentives to start addressing issues in the land sector with respect to service delivery by linking global reporting on land with country-level open data policy and country demand for accountability and transparency. Land governance could be strengthened by an information- and monitoring-driven approach for change, as land institutions are a mechanism to make reliable and regularly updated land and property information public on a routine basis. This would also improve the availability of administrative data and spatial data for monitoring. Providing reliable land information is the core mandate of land agencies and producing data on a routine basis - such as for global land indicators - should be part of their work. Moreover, if land information is linked back to internal management and performance, or to tax maps, it can help to drive change in the sector and be used for generating incentives for these institutions to expand coverage and quality.

Household surveys are an important source of data on the changing land use. Global comparability would be improved if the quality in domains is further explored and a methodology is setup for this comparability. The World Bank and partners like FAO have started designing questionnaire templates for three levels: basic for general surveys, more detailed module for multi-topic household surveys, and an elaborate module for surveys on land. It will be a few years before the effects of this work on better data availability will take effect.

The table below presents an assessment by the World Bank as part of this study of the current data collection methodologies for global reporting. Feasibility for global reporting requires the scoring of H (high) for frequency, coverage, disaggregation and replicability (objectivity), and L for the costs (low). The table shows that there is no methodology that scores across the board and an integrated approach is needed at the country level, where findings are discussed and with feedback loops to land policy.

TABLE 5: ASSESSMENT OF THE VARIOUS DATA COLLECTION METHODOLOGIES FOR GLOBAL REPORTING

	FREQUENCY	COUNTRY COVERAGE	DISAGGREGATION	COSTS	REPLICABLE	SUITED FOR ...
Expert opinion	H	H	L--	L	H	Existence legal framework, formal institutions and procedures
Global opinion surveys	M-H	H	M	M	H	General perceptions at household and individual level
Census data	L	M	H++	M	H++	Outreach & distributional aspects of land tenure
Household surveys	M	L	H	H-M	H	Economic/poverty impacts of specific interventions
Administrative data	H+	M	H+	L	H++	Service delivery coverage & effectiveness
Participatory Monitoring	H	M	L	L	M	Data scrutiny, contribute to coverage, sense making

Source: the World Bank - L=Low, M= medium, H= High

6.3 MULTI-STAKEHOLDER PLATFORMS, OBSERVATORIES

More and better data have impact only when social policy dialogue exists, data are made available routinely and regularly, and in a form that can be used by intra-governmental bodies, parliament, oversight bodies, national and local multi-stakeholder platforms, media, etc. The challenge is not to drown in the sea of data but, instead, to use it to identify meaningful information, exclusion, and to agree on a set of information that generates incentives for government agencies to expand coverage of documented land rights.

National policy dialogues and multi-stakeholder platforms are important features in global policies like the VGGT. These fora need data and other information regularly and routinely, and in a format that is accessible for their deliberations. These reports have to be analysed and compared with other findings and will form the basis for proposing policy recommendations and identifying priority actions. Building county-level capacity for deliberation amongst key stakeholders, priority setting and follow up is a core activity.

6.4 CONCLUSION

This report marks the end of one phase of exploring indicators, assessing and testing options. The unique opportunity that the SDG process offers has stimulated close collaboration in the land community and amongst GLTN partners around advocacy for land indicators. The timing is right to start discussing options for SDG global reporting with the constituencies that will influence decisions on what indicators are feasible, how they will be measured, and what investments will be required in terms of national capacity. The SDG process is not the only opportunity for global and continental reporting on land. The other processes are, for example, the VGGT and LPI. High-level discussions on global reporting are opportunities for setting the policy agenda, and to lobby for better data and improving collection and analytical capacity. Global indicators alone are insufficient for national, let alone subnational policy discussions and policy change. Alongside this, work on improving the range of monitoring systems, research and multi stakeholder policy dialogue needs to continue.

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ABOUT GLTN

THE GLOBAL LAND TOOL NETWORK

The main objective of the Global Land Tool Network (GLTN) is to contribute to poverty alleviation and the Millennium Development Goals through land reform, improved land management and security of tenure.

The Network has developed a global land partnership. Its members include international civil society organizations, international finance institutions, international research and training institutions, donors and professional bodies. It aims to take a more holistic approach to land issues and improve global land coordination in various ways. These include the establishment of a continuum of land rights, rather than a narrow focus on individual land titling, the improvement and development of pro-poor land management, as well as land tenure tools. The new approach also entails unblocking existing initiatives, helping strengthen existing land networks, assisting in the development of affordable gendered land tools useful to poverty stricken communities, and spreading knowledge on how to improve security of tenure.

The GLTN partners, in their quest to attain the goals of poverty alleviation, better land management and security of tenure through land reform, have identified and agreed on 18 key land tools to deal with poverty and land issues at the country level across all regions. The Network partners argue that the existing lack of these tools, as well as land governance problems, are the main cause of failed implementation at scale of land policies world wide.

The GLTN is a demand driven network where many individuals and groups have come together to address this global problem. For further information, and registration, visit the GLTN web site at www.gltn.net.

ABOUT THIS PUBLICATION

This Feasibility Study report explores the feasibility of reporting on an agreed list of globally comparable core or headline land indicators that are useful for global and country-level policy makers, thus helping to mobilize and sustain policy support for good land governance. It concludes that it is feasible to collect data on the proposed indicators and report on them globally using available methodologies and data sources, and that countries are able to produce these data regularly and at a reasonable cost.

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