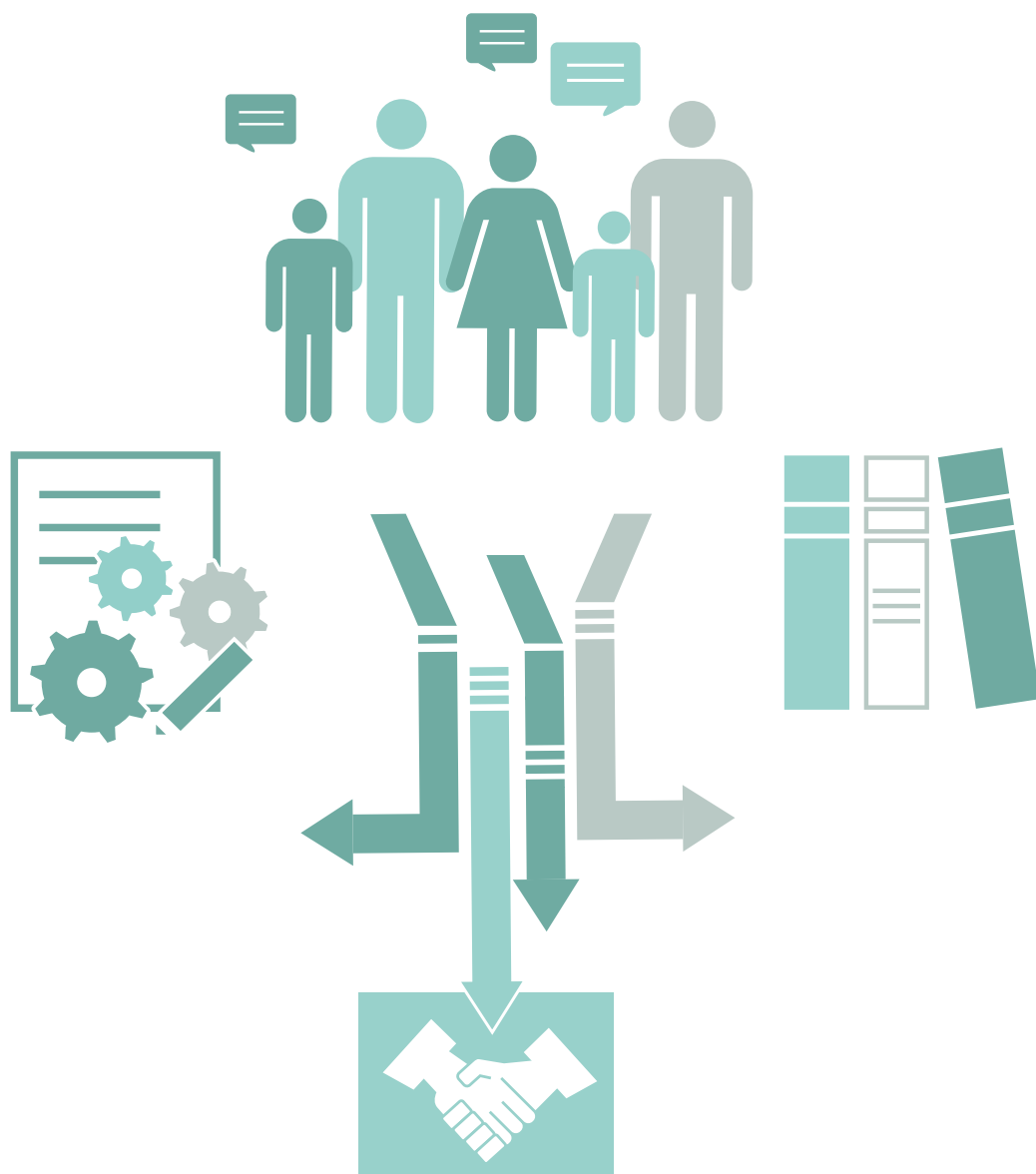


Conflict Analysis Framework: Field Guidelines and Procedures



November 2017

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Global Partnership
for the Prevention of
Armed Conflict

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Visit www.preventiveaction.org to download the full manual or the chapter(s) of interest.

Colophon

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- A Gender Learning Exchange together with the Women Peacemakers Program hosted by WANEP-Côte d'Ivoire (Abidjan 2012).
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In Permanent Marker completed the revision by proofreading and adding references.

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List of Abbreviations	
ANC	African National Congress (South Africa)
BATNA	Best Alternative To A Negotiated Agreement
CRIES	Coordinadora Regional de Investigaciones Económicas y Sociales
CSOs	Civil Society Organisations
DFID	Department for International Development (UK)
EU	European Union
GNU	Government of National Unit (South Africa)
GPPAC	Global Partnership for the Prevention of Armed Conflict
ICG	International Crisis Group
IDPs	Internally Displaced People
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organisation
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MSP	Multi-Stakeholder Process
MSP Manual	Multi-stakeholder Processes for Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding: A Manual (GPPAC 2015)
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation
NDC	National Democratic Congress (Ghana)
NP	National Party (South Africa)
NPP	New Patriotic Party (Ghana)
OAS	The Organization of American States
OCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
OSCE	Organisation for Security and Co-operation in Europe
RPP Matrix	Reflecting on Peace Practice Matrix
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNOY	United Network of Young Peacebuilders
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WANEP	West Africa Network for Peacebuilding
WWP	Women Peacemakers Program

1 Introduction to Conflict Analysis

“Conflict Analysis is a crucial tool for the design, implementation and evaluation of peacebuilding programmes”



1.1 About this manual

This document represents a framework and practical guidelines for conflict analysis that members of the GPPAC network and various other organisations can adapt and localise to fit their respective contexts and organisational needs. We call it the ‘**Conflict Analysis Field Guide**’ in brief. It was developed by members of GPPAC’s Preventive Action Working Group and partners to support Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) and practitioners with the following **objectives**:

- To strengthen CSOs’ capacity for conflict analysis as a basis for preventive action.
- To promote self-assessment and conflict sensitivity.
- To inform programming/project planning, whether it be direct intervention or advocacy to mobilise other actors.

This guide complements the GPPAC Manual on Multi-Stakeholder Processes for Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding (referred to as ‘the MSP Manual’ from here on), which focuses on how to bring together different stakeholders around conflict analysis, action planning and peacebuilding processes.

This introductory section 1 discusses some **definitions and conceptual frameworks** towards a better understanding of the topic of conflict analysis. It introduces a set of guiding principles and gender considerations that can serve as good practice standards.

Section 2 guides you through the **key considerations and practicalities** for getting started and preparing a conflict analysis exercise. This includes thinking through the purpose and scope of the analysis, preparing a desk review for your preliminary analysis, as well as considering the resources required to follow it through.

Section 3 looks at the **skills and group dynamics** when putting a **team** together or when working in partnership with other agencies. It encourages **self-reflection** on the part of the analysts, by considering how the analysts themselves have an effect on the research and analysis process.

Section 4 provides guidance on **data collection** techniques, including choices about what information to gather and whom to approach. It introduces a number of specific considerations for different phases of conflict.

Section 5 is about how to make sense of the information you have gathered, with an introductory overview of the range of tools, frameworks and processes to **sort, analyse and validate** your findings.

Section 6 presents a number of **conflict analysis tools**, including templates, guidelines and examples for their practical use. Each tool or method starts with a description, a purpose and suggestions of the circumstances in which the tool might be particularly helpful.

Find your way through the manual

Look out for these icons throughout the manual to find out more on a particular topic or tool.



There are relevant tools and guidance boxes available for this topic.



More on this topic can be found in a different section of this Field Guide.



More on this topic can be found in the MSP Manual or another key resource



Additional resources on this topic, listed in full in the Bibliography.

1.2 Understanding conflict—and peace

Conflict is not, in itself, an unhealthy phenomenon. Rather, a certain amount of conflict is part of the human condition, and is often a necessary part of movements for change, for greater justice, and for peace. We are concerned about the damaging effects of **violence**: on people, on property, and on the prospects for development. Violence also has deep effects on the long-term social fabric, including issues of trust, national identity, and tolerance for difference. Therefore, the challenge for peacebuilding and conflict prevention is how to engage actively in conflict—to achieve necessary change—without escalating into destructive behaviours.

BOX 1: SOME DEFINITIONS OF CONFLICT

- “Social Conflict is an expressed struggle between two or more interdependent parties who perceive scarce resources, incompatible goals and interference.” (Hocker and Wilmot, 1978)
- “Conflict is an escalated competition at any system level between groups whose aim is to gain advantage in the area of power, resources, interests, and needs and at least one of the groups believes that this dimension of the relationship is mutually incompatible.” (Rasmussen, 1997)
- “Conflict is present when two or more parties perceive that their interests are incompatible, express hostile attitudes, or...pursue their interests through actions that damage the other parties. These parties may be individuals, small or large groups, and countries.” (Thomas-Holder and Henry, 2007)
- “For conflict to arise the actions of one party must affect another, if they do not, differences would exist, but conflict would not.” (Katz and Lawyer, 1993)

Source Developing Capacity for Conflict Analysis and Early Response (Forum on Early Warning and Early Response (FEWER) and UNDP, 2002).

Each of the definitions in Box 1 takes a slightly different view of conflict. As noted, conflict only becomes a serious problem—and the preoccupation of peace practitioners—when conflicting parties resort to violence (or show signs of doing so) to further their interests.

Because **conflict prevention** is concerned with addressing the structural conditions and root causes that lead to violence, it is also useful to refer to the concept of **human security**, which brings together the different factors and securities that contribute to making people and communities feel safe. Increasingly, analysts are not only focusing on conflict but also ask what defines peace. For instance, the Positive Peace Report and the Global Peace Index

describe the ‘positive peace factors’ as the capacity of a society to meet the needs of citizens, reduce the number of grievances that arise and resolve disagreements without the use of violence.¹

BOX 2: THE HUMAN SECURITY FRAMEWORK

Putting people and communities at the centre of analysis, Human Security acknowledges that people everywhere define their own security needs, and that they act or react accordingly. A human security approach implies that the analysis and how it is used is people centred, comprehensive, context-specific, and preventive. It encourages analysts to consider both capacities and vulnerabilities of people and groups at different levels. Human Security is summed up in three interconnected pillars:

1. *Freedom from Fear*: physical security—absence of wars, persecution, abuse
2. *Freedom from Want*: economic and food security, livelihoods, access to resources
3. *Freedom from Indignity*: political freedoms, equal rights and justice

Source Empowerment and Protection – Stories of Human Security, ed. by Kristin Wall, Jenny Aulin, and Gabriella Vogelaar (The Hague: GPPAC, 2014).

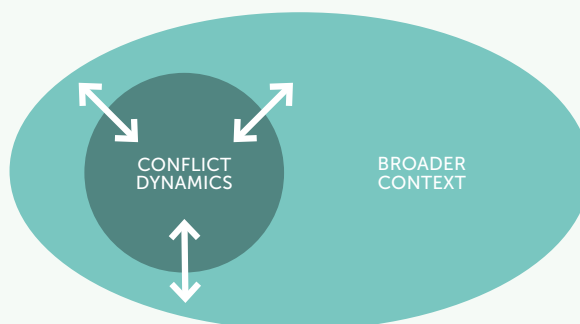
1.3 What is conflict analysis?

Conflict analysis is a crucial **tool** for the design, implementation and evaluation of peacebuilding programmes—whether for the prevention of armed conflict, attempting to bring war and violence to an end, to help societies recover in the aftermath of war, or to attain greater justice and equality. Conflict analysis is the deliberate study of the causes, actors, and dynamics of conflict. Peace practitioners engage in conflict analysis in the same way that a doctor performs a **diagnosis** on a patient before determining how to proceed with treatment. However, social and political conflicts are much more **complex** than diagnosis of a single patient, as they involve multiple actors, groups, issues and other factors. Nonetheless, conflict analysis helps organisations trying to address conflict to know how to promote positive changes in the situation to reduce the potential for violence and/or transform the conflict to make room for development and social justice.

Conflict analysis should be distinguished from context analysis—which seeks to understand the broader situation, including all economic, social, and political factors. A case in point is the issue of poverty. People often assert that the main cause of a conflict is poverty. Poverty may well be an important aspect of the broader context, but how does it generate conflict? It is necessary to examine the issues and dynamics around wealth, poverty, privilege, and access to resources to discover which economic factors contribute to the potential for violent conflict and how.

BOX 3: CONFLICT VERSUS CONTEXT ANALYSIS

The conflict exists within the context and is influenced by it, but the conflict has its own important dynamics.



1 'Positive Peace Report', Vision of Humanity, 2015

In some cases, the issue will be enormous differences in wealth based on ethnicity or race. In other words, the issue is not the absolute level of poverty, but the fact that some people gain while others lose along group lines. In another case, the problem may be associated with rampant corruption, in which certain officials make significant personal profits by misusing public funds and indirectly impeding development for all. Even here, further analysis may be important. Many societies tolerate or even encourage certain forms of favouritism, such as hiring your nephew or helping your sister to get a loan. At what point does nepotism become corruption and a cause of conflict?

In recent years, many approaches to conflict analysis have emerged, both formal and informal. Some models emphasise the **actors or stakeholders** in a conflict and seek to understand the motivations, needs, stated demands/positions, sources of power and influence and deeper interests of the various individuals, parties, and groups involved in a particular conflict. Other approaches focus on the **issues or problems**, the historical origins of the problems, the groups involved, how the issues manifest themselves, and the possible options for resolution. Another approach develops alternative future **scenarios** that describe realistic ways that the conflict might evolve, as a basis for planning interventions to avoid the worst possible futures and promote the best outcomes.

Another important dimension in conflict analysis relates to the **time or phase of conflict**. Some analyses strive to understand the long-term **structural causes** of conflict and how those might eventually result in violence and social breakdown. Other forms of analysis look for more immediate causes of **emerging crisis** through early warning systems, and often identify potential **triggers** of violence (such as elections, economic downturn, sharp increases in food or fuel costs). When the purpose of the analysis is associated with conflict prevention in particular, it will be important to explore both the deeper structural causes and more immediate ‘triggers’ of violence.



The MSP Manual has a Glossary to help you navigate some commonly used terms

Discussions of conflict analysis use a sometimes confusing and overlapping array of terms, including actors, forces, triggers, proximate and structural causes and more. Often, these are lumped under the general category of ‘factors’ of conflict. Ultimately, what matters is that the terms and their purpose in any given conflict analysis exercise are clear to users, and applied consistently. This guide provides guidelines for integrating actor and issue analysis, as well as both long-term structural and shorter-term analysis of potential triggers.

1.4 Guiding Principles for conflict analysis

The following principles inform our conflict analysis approach and methods:

- Conflict analysis/assessment is **not a neutral activity**. Depending on how it is done, it can be an intervention in itself. Analysis of the sources/causes of conflict is often a contested issue. A data collection and analysis process has potential for exacerbating conflicts. ‘Do no harm’ principles should be followed.
- Who performs data collection and analysis has a direct impact on the **reliability and credibility** of the resulting product. Local knowledge and information is paramount, but can be enriched by questions and observations from outsiders.² In any case, local culture must be respected.
- Analysis must be based on information from a full range of stakeholders in the conflict area; efforts should be made to seek information from **all perspectives**.
- When politically feasible, people living in the situation should lead the data collection and analysis process, supported by additional team members from outside when necessary. This can help ensure **cultural sensitivity**.
- In some circumstances, local people cannot or should not take a visible role in conflict analysis for political/safety reasons. At times, the understandable biases of local people will make it difficult for them to take the lead in conflict analysis; **sensitive outsiders** can conduct the process, with input from multiple local people.
- **Gender** perspectives should be integrated into the conflict analysis process throughout. In order to reflect several dimensions of the conflict and open additional ways of taking preventive action, a conflict analysis should be informed from a gender perspective.
- Conflict analysis is not an end in itself. It is only useful if it becomes the basis for further initiatives, such as programme planning and decision-making. The process should engage the question of **how to respond** to the conflict(s) analysed.
- Conflict analysis is **not a one-time task** to be completed during the programme development phase and then forgotten. Rather, the understanding of the conflict will evolve over time, and the documented analysis should be updated regularly as an integral part of programme work.
- The goal of a conflict analysis exercise is not THE perfect analysis! Rather, the analysis should be **good enough** for the purposes it will be used for—recognising that the analysis can be further developed and refined over time.



The section on ‘Key Considerations and Challenges’ in the MSP Manual goes into more detail on several of these principles.

BOX 4: SUMMARY OF CONFLICT ANALYSIS GUIDING PRINCIPLES

1. Do No Harm
2. Inclusivity
3. Local ownership
4. Insider-outsider roles and dynamics
5. Gender sensitivity
6. Purpose-oriented
7. Continuity

² In this Guide we use the terms “insiders” and “outsiders” to differentiate between people directly involved in the conflict through identity or geography, and those who are personally outside the conflict for those reasons.

In light of these principles, it is relevant to ask: **is there such a thing as ‘good enough’ conflict analysis?** Donors, peace practitioners and local organisations are all confronted with time and resource constraints. They may ask, therefore: “What is the least amount of analysis I can do and still develop credible and effective programming?” In many ways, the answer will depend on the purpose of the analysis—this is discussed further in Section 2. A broad indication is whether the organisation intends to address conflict factors directly, or whether the analysis will serve the purpose of conflict sensitivity of humanitarian assistance or development programmes in a conflict context. For instance, a dividers and connectors analysis may be sufficient for an organisation wishing to ensure that its humanitarian/development projects are conflict sensitive, whereas a more complete conflict analysis will be necessary if the aim is to implement programmes that will incorporate peacebuilding goals/objectives.



See more guidance on gender-sensitive conflict analysis in the **Gender and Conflict Analysis for Peacebuilders Toolkit** (2015) by Conciliation Resources.

1.5 Considerations for gender-sensitive analysis

As stated in the principles above, gender perspectives should be integrated into a conflict analysis process throughout—while, at the same time, remaining sensitive to local conditions and culture. This includes being aware of who was involved in planning and executing the analysis, determining potential ways to access gender-sensitive information while remaining respectful of local conditions and culture, and using gender-sensitive questions which can reveal different roles, capacities and vulnerabilities of men and women in conflict.

BOX 5: DEFINITION OF GENDER

Gender is an organising principle of social life, connected to other principles like class, race, age, ethnicity, etc. As an organising principle it ‘acts’ in all spheres of social life, in families, in communities, in organisations, and so on. As such, gender is a tool for analysis that helps us to understand (or to formulate questions) on the following levels:

- The activities as performed by women and men. Their tasks, roles, responsibilities.
- The degree in which women and men have access to and control over resources, rights and voice.
- The (expected) behaviour of women and men, their acting, speaking, clothing, etc.
- The (power) relations between women and men, women and women, men and men.
- The self image of women and men.

Source Dorine Plantenga, “Working Definition: Gender as a Concept”, in: Gesa Bent and Sharon Bhagwan-Rolls GPPAC Gender Policy (The Hague: The Global Partnership for the Prevention of Armed Conflict, December 2010).

The gender-sensitive perspective and the many tools available to support this lens of understanding conflict are relevant also from a broader human security or people-centred approach. The types of questions posed, and the sensitivities to diversity and power dynamics can also support a better understanding of other variations that exist within specific stakeholder groups – for instance related to age, social class, ethnicity (e.g. minorities) or sexual identity. Gender tools can therefore be relevant to support inclusivity in a broader sense.

The questions outlined below can help raise gender considerations for different phases and tasks of conflict analysis. In many cases, they can also apply to other variations and sub-groups that exist within stakeholder groups covered in the analysis.

Preparation:

- Have both men and women been actively involved in determining the overall purpose and ultimate uses of the conflict analysis to be produced?

Data gathering:

- Have both men and women been engaged in data gathering activities? Are they aware of the gender dimension and able to gather gender-sensitive data? If not, will training or other capacity building be provided to enable analysts to be gender-sensitive?

1. About this manual

- 1.1 About this manual
- 1.2 Understanding conflict—and peace
- 1.3 What is conflict analysis?

- 1.4 Guiding Principles for conflict analysis
- 1.5 Considerations for gender-sensitive analysis

- Have gender-sensitive indicators been developed and used during the conflict analysis? Have the views of both women and men been elicited?
- Are there practical problems in gathering data, conducting interviews and related tasks which are rooted in gender roles as practiced in the society, and have ways been found to address these problems?



The MSP manual has examples on how a gender-sensitive analysis can inform peacebuilding programmes.

Analysis:

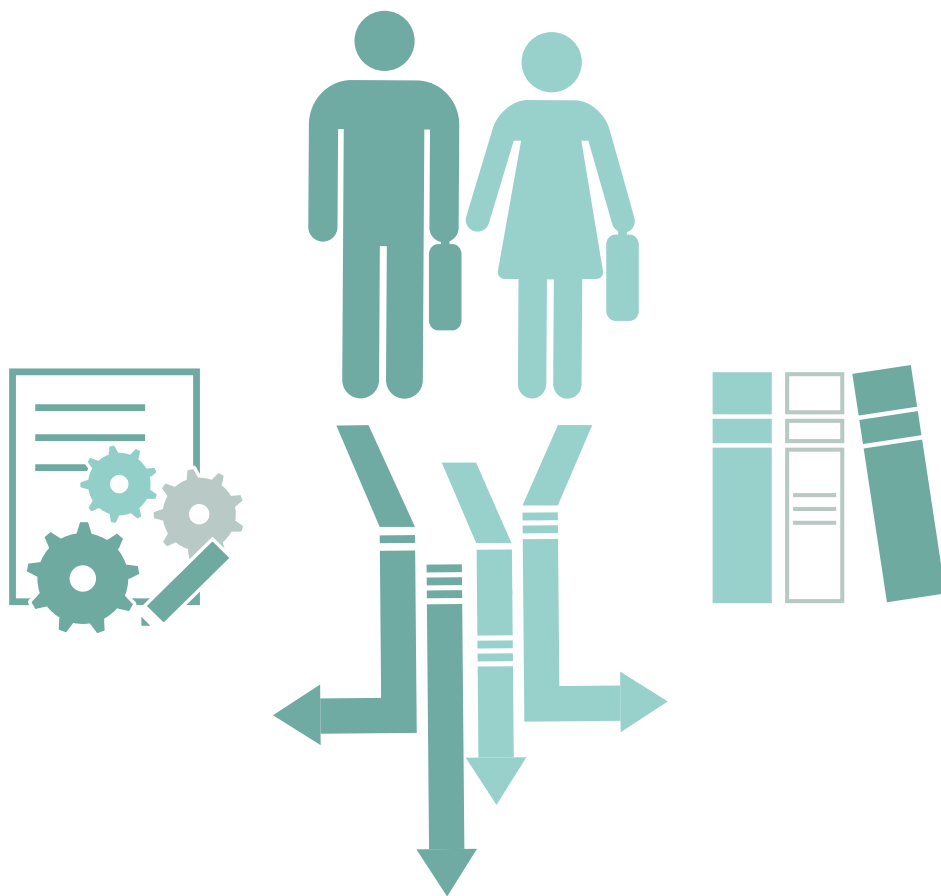
- Have both women and men participated actively in analysing the data gathered and applying the analytical tools and frameworks?
- Has the resulting conflict analysis been validated by both women and men?
- What does the conflict analysis itself reflect regarding differential impacts of the conflict on women, men, girls, boys, youth and elderly (etc.)?
- Has the analysis process revealed any gender-based differences, in terms of particular potential roles for men or women in promoting peace or addressing specific conflict factors?
- Has the analysis revealed specific dynamics of the conflict that empower or disempower women and men in certain ways based on their gender? Could these dynamics inform steps taken towards a sustainable conflict prevention or peacebuilding process?

Results:

- Are the outcomes of the gender analysis followed-up, i.e. are gender-sensitive early response options developed as part of a preventive action plan?

2 Getting Started & Preparation

“consider the purpose and scope of the analysis as well as the resources required to follow it through”



Introduction

This section guides you through the key considerations and practicalities to lay a solid foundation for the conflict analysis exercise. This includes considering the purpose and scope of the analysis as well as the resources required to follow it through. Another step in getting started is to get an overview of existing research materials to start off with a preliminary analysis.

2.1 Determine the purpose and context of the conflict analysis

People perform a conflict analysis for many different reasons and in many different circumstances. The purpose and context of the analysis have a profound influence on how it is done: who does it, where information comes from, and the sensitivities regarding any attempt to characterise a conflict, among other things. Some of the basic purposes of conflict analysis include the following:

- **Conflict analysis as a tool for conflict sensitivity.** In some cases, an organisation does not intend to address conflict factors directly—but does want to ensure that its humanitarian or development programmes are sensitive to conflict dynamics. In this case, a more limited analysis may be all that is necessary, such as dividers and connectors (see Section 6).
- **Conflict analysis as a first step towards programme development.** In this context, analysis is a diagnostic tool for understanding the problem(s), in order to design ways to address them programmatically. Such an analysis is often an internal organisational process among staff, although it can also be done in a participatory manner with key partner organisations.
- **Conflict analysis as preparation for working with stakeholders or parties to the conflict.** Once you have decided to intervene in a conflict, it is important to understand the perspectives of those directly involved—the origins of the conflict, the perspectives of the different parties, their needs and demands, and so forth. Again, this is often done as an internal process, although information is gathered as widely as possible.
- **Conflict analysis as a conflict resolution or transformation process.** This is definitely an intervention—and therefore to be approached carefully. The parties to conflict each have their own view of the causes, history, and current tensions. Often the history and origins of the conflict are themselves contested issues that must be handled sensitively. Joint analysis of the conflict is a common early step in a conflict transformation process.

Each of these purposes implies a different answer to **who** does the analysis; the **sources** of information; **how** the information is analysed, and **how** the resulting analysis is used.



For more on the difference between peacebuilding and conflict sensitivity:

Diana Chigas and Peter Woodrow, *A Distinction with a Difference: Conflict Sensitivity and Peacebuilding*, CDA Collaborative Learning Projects, 2010.



Lisa Schirch's 'Conflict Assessment, Peacebuilding Planning and Self-Assessment matrix' in the Tools Section of the MSP Manual gives an overview of how these questions can be considered together.

Example 1:

Conducting conflict analysis for programme planning in Sri Lanka

An INGO had been working on peace issues in Sri Lanka for several years. An evaluation recommended that the programme team develop a shared conflict analysis as the basis for forward planning. They hired a consultant to facilitate their analysis process. The staff themselves represented a spectrum of perspectives, so the early steps of analysis were performed internally. Once they had drafted a tentative analysis, they invited partner organisations from a range of viewpoints to participate in a workshop where they commented on the analysis and added rich layers to the understanding of the continuing conflict.

For many purposes, conflict analysis;

- » Will serve as the **basis for dialogue** among stakeholders and planning of conflict prevention actions by a range of actors.
- » Will describe a set of initial or **baseline** conditions, which will be updated periodically to track changes/shifts/trends in the conflict over time, as part of a Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) system.
- » Provides a foundational understanding of why a given conflict occurred and hence a useful tool for sensitising, raising awareness and **advocacy** work (both for behavioural and policy change).

2.2 Identify the arena or level of analysis

What are the boundaries of the conflict we are interested in? One community? A district or province? A sub-region of the country? The entire country? Do we include regional neighbours? International dimensions? Such boundary questions are partly determined by the purpose, as discussed above. Identifying the study **area/arena/location** is an important procedure for any conflict assessment process. This is because effects of conflicts tend to spread beyond the point of origin, making analysis a complex process. In some cases, conflicts assume a national or regional dimension, while, in effect, their source was at a very local level. It is also important to take into account the **conflict phase** in question—whether the conflict to be analysed is latent/frozen, emerging slowly, becoming manifest in various ways, or already resulting in violence.

Conflicts in the Karamoja area of East and Central Africa are a good example. The conflicts have persisted for many years and involve issues of land ownership and use, grazing rights and migration, and cattle rustling, among others. The conflicts implicate four countries, including Uganda, Kenya, Ethiopia and South Sudan — and identifying the appropriate area of analysis in such a region calls for an extensive understanding of the dynamics of the conflict and how they manifest themselves; otherwise there is a risk of gaining a one-sided perspective.

Intra-state conflicts can be even more complex, in terms of the **entry** point for conflict analysis. The 2007 post-election violence in Kenya presents a good case in point. Where do you begin in analysing such a conflict? Do you start in the communities most affected by the violence? Do you begin with the people identified as being the key instigators of the violence? If so, do you look for these at a local level or national level, or both? The answer may lie, at least initially, in the purpose of the analysis and the likely level of programming, which should also be informed by a **self-assessment** of the interveners. To intervene effectively at the national level, you would need to understand national political dynamics. To intervene in specific local communities, it would be more important to comprehend local tensions and their origins.

Example 2:

Understanding community tensions in Liberia

An NGO was preparing to organise dialogue and negotiation sessions between two ethnic communities that had conducted mutual massacres during the civil war in Liberia. Groups formerly living side by side were now housed in separate though nearby communities, and land use issues were intense. Before bringing elders from each group together, organisers interviewed women and men, youth, and ex-combatants from each group, seeking to understand not only the history, but also the current feelings and tensions.

2.3 Mobilise resources: time, budget and personnel

Conflict analysis requires a plan for mobilising resources—both material and human, as it represents a cost to the organisation in terms of time and funds to carry out the process. Actual costs will always depend on the situation, the composition of the analysis team, and the logistics involved.

BOX 6: POTENTIAL COST IMPLICATIONS

In terms of budgeting, the following are *potential costs* that could occur for an organisation undertaking a conflict analysis exercise:

- Travel to/from the conflict area and local transport.
- Lodging/meals for team members.
- Space for team meetings or workshops.
- Interpretation (if outsiders without local language skills are involved).
- Salaries/fees for additional team members/consultants not already on staff (if needed).
- Expenses of community members or other volunteer participants.
- If survey research/public opinion polling is included, this would represent additional expense.

The largest cost is usually in the staff time devoted to collecting information and then analysing it. At times, organisations are under extreme time pressure, such as meeting the deadline for a programme proposal to a donor, or when the context itself calls for urgent action. Many poor quality or inadequate analyses have been produced under these kinds of pressures. If, for whatever reason, the organisation is forced to produce a rushed analysis, plans should be made to deepen the analysis at a later time, perhaps after a grant is awarded, or as an integrated part of actions taken.

2.4 Examine existing analyses

Prior to any conflict analysis exercise, the conflict analysis team should obtain relevant secondary information about the conflict being assessed and about the general location, to gain an overview of the conflict situation. Such information can be obtained from relevant secondary sources, either from media archives (print and mass media); government or intergovernmental offices; research reports or other NGO analysis efforts. Some conflicts (especially long-term ones) have been studied extensively, and lots of relevant information is available, including the following types of sources:

- **Existing conflict analyses.** Some governments have performed conflict analyses and make them available. For instance, UK Government's Department For International Development (DFID) will often post the results of a Strategic Conflict Analysis, and USAID has started to make the results of their Conflict Assessment Framework available. NGOs and civil society organisations working in the area may well have developed various forms of analysis that can save time. Caution: existing analyses are quite helpful, when available, but they will almost always need to be brought up to date and validated.
- **Government or intergovernmental reports.** Some governments collect information about social issues and conflicts. In some cases, national aid coordinating ministries compile information about groups working in the peacebuilding arena, the World Bank publishes detailed analyses on country or regional basis, and UN agencies, such as the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), produce similar reports according to sector as well, particularly in large UN mission countries.
- **Journalistic or think tank reports.** It is often possible to find well-researched reports that provide a certain kind of analysis on many conflict areas around the world. For instance,

the International Crisis Group (ICG) produces reports of this kind, along with several other groups.³ Caution: ICG reports are typically cogent analyses based on extensive interviews with local actors. However, they are often limited to capital cities and the perspectives of well-informed people of influence, unless explicitly stating otherwise. ICG reports can have significant political impact, which can lead to controversy when there is disagreement over their recommendations.

Example 3:

Controversy over conflict analysis in Syria

An example of a controversial ICG report was the ‘Popular Protest in North Africa and the Middle East (VII): The Syrian’s Regime’s Slow-motion Suicide’ report of July 2011, in which the ICG concluded that despite “attempts to survive, the Syrian regime appears to be digging its own grave”.

According to some critics, the conclusions of this ICG report assumed a false choice between a military intervention in Syria and doing nothing. Furthermore, some argue that it encouraged the rejection of diplomacy by the international community.

Source Nicholas Noe, ‘When NGOs Call For Military Intervention in Syria: The Case of the International Crisis Group’, The Huffington Post, 15 September 2015.

- **Studies, articles or books.** In some cases, either academic or journalistic literature is available providing historical background and other relevant information on the economy, politics, social conditions, etc. Caution: although the information may be useful for your analysis, these are seldom conflict analyses in themselves. Academic research can be useful on certain questions, although it can also be narrowly focused at times.
- **Indexes and assessments.** There are various indexes that assess conflicts or countries according to a range of factors of conflict and fragility, much of it available on line. Caution: much of the information for these indexes is generated from available international sources or event data—it is not compiled from detailed local knowledge. It can be useful for comparative purposes, but should be used with caution to understand a specific situation.



For indexes see for instance:

‘Positive Peace Report’,
Vision of Humanity

‘Country Indicators
for Foreign Policy’,
Carleton University,
Canada

‘Uppsala Conflict
Data Program’, Uppsala
University Department
of Peace and Conflict
Research

When looking up and using secondary sources, beware of the potential **biases** that may be **embedded in the source**. In particular, to many people Wikipedia can be a place to start looking at specific topics and finding sources, even though they are aware that it is based on open-source information that anyone can edit. However, an awareness of information owners is paramount. For instance, critics point out that less than 10% of Wikipedia editors are female, which can lead to a gender gap also in content.⁴ Even a well-sourced and carefully considered article may still be biased. In any case, you should never rely on a single source of information.

³ ‘International Crisis Group’ <<http://www.crisisgroup.org>>.

⁴ Emma Paling, ‘Wikipedia’s Hostility to Women’, The Atlantic, 21 October 2015.

3 Putting a Team Together

“An analysis team is best composed of members with complementary skills and views.”



Introduction

An important part of preparing a conflict analysis process is to consider the skills and group dynamics when putting a team together or when working in partnership with other agencies. This section encourages self-reflection on the part of the analysts, by discussing how the analysts themselves have an effect on the research and analysis process.

3.1 Who gathers information? Team considerations

An analysis team is best composed of members with **complementary skills and views**. Some team members should be knowledgeable about conflict and peace programming, while others will be knowledgeable about the context, culture, politics, language, etc. Consider the possibility of a mix of outsiders and insiders from the conflict, recognising that outsiders may be people from the same community but a different ethnic group, from the same country but a different location, or from a different country. Particular attention needs to be given to the perception of bias of the team. Questions to consider include the following:

- How will the team be viewed by conflict actors in the area? Might certain individual characteristics—based on (perceived) religion, skin colour, gender, age group, nationality and language, for instance—expose the team to additional **risks** or **perceptions** of bias?
- Given the **purposes** of the analysis, what are the needed skills, experience, relationships of those collecting and analysing information? Is there any reason to deviate from the norms of a mixed-gender team?
- What is the **appropriate mix** among people who know the context well—and people who are less familiar with the area, but bring other kinds of expertise and perspectives (knowledge of peacebuilding, analytical skills, survey research expertise, etc.)? Do team members have the ability to gather data that is representative of the overall society as relevant for the analysis? Does the team have the needed language skills and local connections?
- What is the **working style** of prospective team members? Do all members: a) demonstrate skills and comfort working in potentially dangerous and politically sensitive situations in a calm, nonthreatening manner; b) employ interpersonal approaches that are transparent, trusting and that evoke trust; and c) exhibit skills for managing conflicts and tension?
- How will the composition of the team affect **access** to certain populations, such as women or minority groups, or to certain stakeholders who may be difficult to reach for a variety of reasons?

3.2 Working in partnership for conflict analysis

Increasingly, programme implementation is undertaken through a series of partnerships. International NGOs (INGOs) almost always work through local civil society and NGO partners. International donors work with a range of partnerships as well. If conflict analysis is to form the basis for strategy development and programme design, all of the organisations that will be involved must work from a **shared understanding** of the causes, issues and actors. They must therefore be involved in some significant way in the development of the conflict analysis.

Partnerships can be positive and mutually beneficial. At the same time, partnerships are a potential source of unintended negative effects. Some INGOs decide to work with a local organisation before they understand how that organisation or its members are perceived by others in the situation—or whom they represent, in political or cultural terms. Similarly, local organisations can feel overwhelmed or dominated by international organisations.

In the Guiding Principles for conflict analysis (Section 1.4) it was noted that **local knowledge and involvement** is paramount for the credibility of any conflict analysis process. At the same time, we have acknowledged that engagement and partnership with **outsiders** can also enrich

the conflict analysis. At times, an outsider is able to raise useful questions, some of which might be too sensitive to be raised by locals. In some circumstances, respondents within a conflict arena might find it more comfortable to open up to an outsider than a fellow local (bearing in mind that an outsider could be someone from a different location within the same country, a different country within the same region, or even from another continent).

What is the appropriate mix of truly local people, partner organisations from elsewhere in the same country, as well as colleagues from other countries in the region or internationally? The answer is partly determined by the **scope and boundaries** of the conflict to be analysed. If you are working with several communities in a local district, most likely local people will be able to handle most or all tasks. If the area of interest is an entire nation, including regional dynamics, then a team including nationals and others from the region may be advisable. If the necessary technical skills are not readily available among insiders (however defined), it may be necessary to engage international experts as team members, trainers or resource persons.

A second aspect of partnerships is **regional knowledge**. In some cases, conflicts that appear localised might have regional or even international dimensions. For example, the conflict over the use of Lake Turkana waters in Northern Kenya between the Pokot and Turkana communities also links to the use and control of waters in Ethiopia's Omo basin. Therefore, an analysis of this conflict might require the involvement of partners from Ethiopia, as well as some basic understanding of integrated cross-border resource management.

BOX 7: CONFLICT SENSITIVITY/DO NO HARM CONSIDERATIONS – TEAM COMPOSITION

- How will the team composition affect conflict dynamics?
- How will the analysis team be perceived, in terms of potential biases or relations with the various actors/parties?
- Will anyone be endangered by participation in a conflict analysis process?
- Will partner organisations (at whatever level) be adversely affected by involvement in conflict analysis?

4 Gathering Information

“Your sense of what you need to know may shift over time and as you start gathering information.”



Introduction

This section provides guidance on data collection techniques, including choices about what information to gather and whom to approach. It introduces a number of specific considerations for different phases of conflict.

4.1 How to determine what you need to know

Considering the purpose of the analysis, the availability of existing analyses performed by others, the level or boundaries of the analysis and any limitations imposed by time or budget, **what further information do you need?** Some/all team members will bring some understanding of the conflict already; what additional information will be helpful? How might the team be limited or even biased in its information or perspectives—and how can these be addressed through more information gathering? Are there significant gaps in the information already gathered in the preparatory phase?

Team members should discuss among themselves the quality and completeness of the information they already have. Imagine the following possible exchanges among team members:

We have a lot of information from the capital. We have talked with intellectuals, government officials, the international community and journalists, but we don't know anything about the views in the countryside or refugee camps.

We did a whole series of interviews in villages in the province, but in every case, we were only able to talk with male elders, who viewed themselves as spokespersons for the communities. How can we get the perspectives of women and youth?

Our organisation has been working in North Province, but the conflict extends into East Province. It could look really different there—we had better send a team to talk with people in the East.

Everywhere we go, we hear about land conflicts, but we have not spoken yet with the national Land Commission or the Parliamentary Committee on Land and Natural Resources.

Your sense of what you need to know may shift over time and as you start gathering information. As you look at existing analyses and start talking with people, new questions will arise, leading you to seek out specific individuals or groups to fill in the knowledge gaps—always with reference to the purpose of the analysis and remaining open to being surprised by what you hear.

It is not unusual for teams to enter a situation with one or more preconceived ideas about the nature of the conflict or about the role of a particular group. It will be important to work against such tendencies, which will be helped by maintaining a diverse team, in terms of gender, age and other important factors.

Example 4:

Focus groups to complete conflict analysis in Burundi

An organisation was researching and writing a case study in Burundi, including an analysis of the nature of conflicts there. After interviewing a wide range of people in the capital, Bujumbura, the research team decided that they needed additional information from other locations in the country. They therefore organised a series of focus group discussions in provincial towns and in camps for internally displaced people. Many of the views expressed in these settings were quite different from those articulated in the capital.

Caution: avoid information overload! You can overwhelm yourselves with enormous amounts of information—with no capacity to process it all. Start with modest and focused efforts at gathering information, and then assess what you have and what more you need, before seeking more.

4.2 Methods of data/information collection

The way you collect information will depend on what information you are trying to find and where you can find it. By far the most common method is a series of interviews with a range of people. However, this is not the only approach. In fact, no single method of data collection can generate information sufficient for understanding a particular conflict. An objective conflict analysis relies on **triangulation**, using several methods to better derive credible information and data. In other words, if you have found the same information in an analysis produced by another organisation, through several interviews, and from a government document, you might have sufficient evidence to trust that it is valid.

Which methods you choose will depend on the information needed, the time and resources available, and the skills of the analysis team. Some methods of data collection include:

- **Desk studies:** Existing analyses, academic reports, media archives, histories, programme reports, NGO reports, etc.
- **Key informant interviews** of a range of well-informed people representing different perspectives and constituencies. This is discussed in full below.
- **‘Person-on-the-street’** interviews with members of the general public (including those outside the capital city or major urban areas, if at all possible). This is similar to key informant interviews, but the people are chosen at random in public.
- **Analysis workshop.** In some circumstances, it is possible to organise a one- or two-day workshop in which the participants engage in a participatory conflict analysis process. This approach is particularly useful for generating dialogue among different kinds of people regarding the nature and causes of conflict. However, this can be risky if the groups are not prepared to talk with one another—in which case separate parallel workshops might work. *This approach requires skilled facilitation.*
- **Focus groups** with either cross-cutting groups or groups that bring a certain perspective (Internally Displaced People (IDPs), diaspora, opposition leaders, women, youth, religious leaders, etc.). Focus groups allow for interaction and discussion, often resulting in a deeper understanding, even where there is disagreement among participants. A lot has been written on how to organise and conduct focus groups. *This approach also requires skilled facilitation.*
- **Public opinion surveys.** In some circumstances, it will be important to determine the extent to which an attitude or perception is shared in the public—and the main tool for



For guidance on multi-stakeholder workshops, see the MSP Manual. Another resource is Michelle Garred and others, *Making Sense of Turbulent Contexts: Local Perspectives on Large-Scale Conflict* (World Vision, June 2015).



See, for instance, the ‘Harvard Humanitarian Initiative’ and ‘Peacebuildingdata.org’

doing that is a social science or public opinion survey. This process takes specific skills and funding, and is therefore rarely used for conflict analysis. However, it may be used to track trends and changes in a monitoring system, if the resources are available.

- **Mainstream and social media monitoring:** Monitoring the mainstream media content (such as newspapers, national radio and television) can offer valuable insights into different interpretations of the context or ongoing events, which can feed into the broader analysis. This requires an awareness of media bias and ownership. In the environment of limited media freedoms, social media monitoring is particularly useful in getting a better understanding of people's individual perceptions and responses.
- **Crowdsourcing** using mobile phone and internet technologies is emerging as a useful tool for generating information to be analysed along with other data sets. Various groups are experimenting with gathering information from cell phone users and social media. This may prove more useful for early warning of crises rather than for conflict analysis. It is also important to be aware of how the data is affected by which population groups are using and accessing these technologies.



See more on crowdsourcing in **Francesco Mancini** (ed.), *New Technology and the Prevention of Violence and Conflict* (New York: International Peace Institute, April 2013).

BOX 8: CONFLICT SENSITIVITY/DO NO HARM CONSIDERATIONS — DATA COLLECTION:

- Are people in the area quite open and willing to talk about conflict—or is this a sensitive area, for political, cultural or security reasons?
- Are people able to talk, or will they feel constrained? Why?
- Are there specific issues or topics that are taboo or that should be approached in a specific way?
- Will you endanger people just by asking them questions?
- Will you endanger yourself or your team by asking questions?

4.3 Whom should you interview?

A range of people should be interviewed to get a complete story. People from relevant **sectors** at different levels (decision makers, middle-level leaders and local grassroots leaders) of society should be interviewed, including also people representative of the agencies doing development, relief or peacebuilding work, donor agencies supporting peacebuilding, governmental and intergovernmental agency representatives.

To the extent possible, the perspectives of people from the **key parties** in conflict should be included. This should also reflect the perspectives of those who are not immediately visible along the lines of the conflict, for example perspectives of women from all key parties. In any case, whom you interview will partly be determined by the **purpose and scope** of the analysis. Those interviewed for a focus on a particular local community would be entirely different from those interviewed for a country level analysis. Interviews in preparation for work in security sector reform would be different from those for peace education in elementary school curricula.

Consideration should be given to obtaining perspectives from:

1. Individuals of all relevant ages.
2. People in positions of authority, as well as those over whom authority is exercised.
3. Both women and men, as they may have different and complementary information and perspectives.

The following categories are suggestions; you will need to determine which groups are most important in a specific conflict context.

- **Civil society:** Local civil society organisations, religious leaders, traditional elders, and NGOs/INGOs, marginalised groups, powerful groups, women's groups, other international organisations.



The section 'Considering Stakeholder Groups' in the MSP Manual includes guidance on how to approach some of these groups.

- **Peace practitioners:** People who have organised peacebuilding programmes at different points in time in the area of interest, including both official and unofficial efforts. *It is important to find out what has already been tried, and with what results.*
- **Political leaders:** Representatives of all perspectives or tendencies, including those who were involved with any negotiation processes. In some contexts, it may also be relevant to approach specific factions of political parties, such as youth wings.
- **Civil service:** Local administration, national ministry representatives (e.g. foreign ministry, ministry of economic affairs, police, army, other ministries implicated with issues in conflict).
- **Business:** Local business leaders, business associations, chamber of commerce.
- **Media:** Radio, TV and print journalists, editors and other opinion-shapers and leaders relevant in the context, such as bloggers.
- **International community:** UN agencies and officials, bilateral embassies, donors, regional and other intergovernmental organisations.
- **Academia/educators:** Academics working on issues related to the conflict, teachers at the community level.
- **Hard to reach groups:** Groups that are difficult to reach, because they are physically isolated, constantly moving, hold themselves apart, or even represent criminal elements. Even if it is not possible to talk with them directly, it will be important to gather information on their perspectives. In some cases, this can be addressed by approaching CSOs or other stakeholders that are familiar with these groups due to their work in outreach, service delivery or humanitarian work.
- **Conflict-affected groups:** Groups that have been particularly affected by the violent conflict, such as Internally Displaced People (IDPs), victims of violence and their relatives (e.g. disappeared people, victims of gender-based violence).

In many conflict zones, the population is polarised and fragmented. Some groups may hold unpopular or politically incorrect views; while others are deliberately quiet and reluctant to speak. These may represent particular challenges for data collection, but should not be ignored as they may represent important viewpoints.

The fundamental principle is that conflict analysts should invite diverse views from multiple stakeholders, with particular attention to the groups perceived to be in conflict. Areas experiencing conflict involve diverse actors, both individuals and groups. All the groups and their perceptions must be mapped so that a full picture of reality is captured. In some cases, failing to include all groups might lead to conflicts, as the conflict analyst might be blamed for favouritism or bias.

Example 5:

A cautionary tale from Colombia

A conflict analysis on the violence resulting from drug dealing, use and abuse, and social disintegration in Colombia resulted in increased violence. A reviewer of these analyses stated that violence ensued simply because the views of the drug trafficking gangs were not represented in the analysis. Engaging the drug traffickers (perceived as spoilers) would pose a challenge to any conflict analyst. In some settings, direct contact with certain groups is illegal. However, it is usually possible to find people who can speak on behalf of those groups or interpret their view.

To determine the individuals or groups from whom the data shall be collected, the analysis team could conduct an initial quick round of interviews to identify which groups and individuals should be interviewed, especially if they are new to the area. Another approach is to start with a short but diverse list and ask each interviewee whom else to talk with.

BOX 9: CONFLICT SENSITIVITY/DO NO HARM CONSIDERATIONS – TARGET GROUPS:

- Are there groups or individuals with whom you must talk?
- Are there groups or individuals that you should not approach? Why?
- What might be the consequences of including/excluding specific groups?
- Will there be potential negative effects simply from approaching people to talk about conflict? How sensitive is the topic?

4.4 Categories and techniques for data collection

Many of the formal conflict analysis frameworks concentrate on long lists of questions for conflict analysis, demonstrating a certain anxiety about missing important factors. On the other hand, people living in a conflict area are usually painfully aware of the conflict and its causes, and lists of questions or factors are not particularly useful. Nevertheless, such lists can be helpful as a check, in case you have forgotten an important area of inquiry.

The categories provided below should be considered in that light. The conflict analysis team should use these categories as a way to **develop your own set of questions for data collection**. It may also be useful to try out your questions with a few relatively safe sources, and then refine them as needed. You may also find that it is important to focus on different questions for different people or groups.

The following **categories** provide a basis for discussing specific **questions to use in interviews**:

- Positive factors for peace/resolution/transformation. These are elements that can be strengthened or built upon in peace work. Prominent individuals or groups, traditional institutions, mechanisms for conflict resolution?
- Negative factors producing conflict/tension/barriers to peace. These should lead you to the identification of key drivers of conflict—which will need to be addressed.
- Key actors/stakeholder analysis: roles, sources of power/influence, interests, positions, etc.
- Identification of long-term structural issues and short-term operational issues/triggers (latent conflicts, emergent, already manifest but not yet violent, violent).
- Effects of the conflict on different people/groups. Are there differences across groups, genders, age, geographic areas?
- Information in any of the above categories by sector, but focused on elements that contribute to conflict:
 - » Historical factors
 - » Economic factors
 - » Social/relational factors
 - » Political factors
 - » Security factors
 - » Justice/human rights factors
 - » Particular questions oriented to specific groups, such as women, youth, minority groups, religious leaders, business people, etc.
 - » Specialised questions for examining various layers/levels of conflict (local to province/state to national to regional, and so on.)
 - » Specialised questions related to issues of particular interest (land issues, ethnicity, religious tensions, youth, gender, etc.)
 - » Identification of existing peace efforts: who is doing what? What have been the results (positive and negative)? Are there significant gaps, issues not addressed, groups not involved, etc.?

4. Gathering Information

- 4.1 How to determine what you need to know
- 4.2 Methods of data/information collection
- 4.3 Whom should you interview?

- 4.4 Categories and techniques for data collection
- 4.5 Practical constraints in gender-sensitive conflict analysis
- 4.6 Considerations for different phases of conflict



See the appendix for more guidance on interview questions.

Keep It Simple: use open-ended questions. In most cases, it is not important to develop an elaborate set of questions for data collection. If people are willing and able to talk, all that is required are a few **open-ended questions** that invite people to share, such as:

What do you see as the nature of conflicts in this area (community, province, country...)?

Where did these conflicts come from? What do you see as the causes of these issues?

[Follow-up question] You suggested that [X] is an important conflict issue? What aspects of that issue lead to conflict? [For instance: You said that poverty is an issue? In your view, how does poverty contribute to conflict?]

You have mentioned a number of causes of conflict? Do any of these stand out as more important than others? Why?

Among the issues and conflict factors that you mentioned, which might be more likely to lead to violence than others? How might that happen and in what timeframe?

What is your sense of how different groups view the conflict?



Reflections on a human security methodology and analysis can be found on www.storiesofhumansecurity.net

Example 6:

Exploring human security perspectives

In preparing for the field research towards the GPPAC publication ‘Empowerment and Protection – Stories of Human Security’, local research teams in five widely different contexts prepared their interviews at community level and within their professional networks. Using open-ended questions, they sought to find responses to three key questions:

- What causes insecurity/ constitutes a threat to security (threat perceptions)
- What do people do to ensure they are protected against the perceived threats (patterns of coping with insecurities)
- Who are the preferred security providers that people rely upon in providing/ensuring their security (is it state, community, informal contacts with powerful individuals or entities, one’s own self, arms, private security companies or groups of “their own” people, based on different types of solidarities and identities)

The questions and interview techniques were adapted to the particular context and interview groups, who were given a brief on the purpose of the research and how the interview materials were going to be used.

Source Wall, Aulin and Vogelaar.

Open-ended questions give people a chance to talk about what is most important to them. They essentially invite people to share their perspective or story. On the other hand, **closed questions or leading questions** can feel like an interrogation, as they usually probe for a “yes” or “no” answer or a specific response. Note the difference between:

What is your sense of how the violence erupted in your community?
[open-ended]

Did government policies cause this problem? *[closed, yes/no answer]*

I am interested in what you said about ethnic groups living for many years in harmony. Tell me more about that... *[open-ended]*

Would you agree that the international community failed to put pressure on the government?
[leading, yes/no]

Interview questions should also seek out divergent perspectives and **variations** that may exist within some groups, and address potential gender gaps. That is, they should try to obtain the perspectives of groups within society (such as youth/elderly, women/men) which have not been specifically addressed but which may reveal an important dimension of the conflict and lead to enhanced possibilities for preventive action. An example of a probing question for revealing gender dimensions might be:

You have talked about the increase of violence within your community (relevant area). Do you know if there is also an increase of violence in families within the community?

BOX 10: CONFLICT SENSITIVITY/DO NO HARM CONSIDERATIONS — INTERVIEWS:

- People are generally quite sensitive about conflicts in their communities or countries—and the way you ask questions can have an impact.
- Open-ended questions are safer, as they leave the initiative and control with the person responding—they can take the conversation in the direction they prefer. Follow-up questions can seek clarification or additional information.

4.5 Practical constraints in gender-sensitive conflict analysis

Following the working definition of gender used in Box 5, a gender analysis will look at issues of roles, rights, interests, resources (including access to resources) and power relations. A specific gender analysis **can expose inequalities** which are deeply rooted and which affect people at very personal levels, revealing additional information on other factors addressed in a conflict analysis. Examples include issues of inheritance rights for land; the personal safety of activists campaigning for rights and equality of different gender groups; and gender-based violence, including domestic violence.

Gathering gender-specific information on a conflict can be a **challenging** exercise. Conflict parties or those traditionally in power may feel that their position is or will be threatened, and may refuse to participate in information gathering; women human rights defenders and other gender groups may share information at great risk to their safety or not at all. Another example is the issue of domestic violence, often a key conflict contributor directly out of people's homes, which can reveal relevant information on relationships in society, and which has potential to transform into a key contributor to peace. Its intimate nature and close link to family structures require knowledge and skill to approach it as a topic.

Some of the **practical constraints** specific to a gender analysis can be addressed through principles highlighted in other parts of this guide: involving women's groups at the conflict analysis stage as a preparation for working with them as stakeholders or parties to the conflict; gathering information from "outsiders" to reveal gender-specific tensions in a conflict; composing a conflict analysis team based on the skills, motivation and positioning of team members to gather gender-specific information; and applying do no harm principles in particular when dealing with groups whose roles, rights and resources are affected by conflict in relation to their gender.

There are several examples of innovative practices which can help to overcome practical constraints in a gender analysis, and which can prepare the ground for actions to address the gender dimension of a conflict with different groups involved. A gender analysis is not an easy but an essential part of the conflict analysis process, and will contribute greatly to the potential of the conflict analysis to lead to sustainable steps toward a more peaceful society.



The section on Key Considerations and Challenges in the MSP Manual provides an overview of tools and approaches for dealing with power dynamics.

BOX 11: ADDRESSING PRACTICAL CONSTRAINTS IN CONFLICT ANALYSIS ON GENDER

- When working with groups, develop gender-disaggregated surveys; gather responses separately from groups acting in different social circles while applying do-no-harm principles in approaching them
- Ask specific questions about conflict risk factors to representatives of different social groups to complement your analysis—men, women and other groups tend to highlight different risk factors based on the areas of society that they have access to (e.g. male youth unemployment; access to markets or gardens, marriage and domestic problems)
- Engage power holders at an early stage in information gathering and discussions on how to improve the situation of specific groups, e.g. local women—this can garner leadership support in the implementation of later steps (example: engaging local leaders to become women's rights and victim advocates)
- Even if you cannot gather information on gender-based violence (GBV) directly, access publicly available information, such as local/national definitions of different types of violence and official statistics, to ensure that those challenges inform the next stage

4.6 Considerations for different phases of conflict

The information needed and the types of questions to be asked may vary, based on the phase of conflict in which the analysis process takes place.

The following are suggested lines of inquiry for the major phases. While this guidance is oriented primarily towards conflict prevention, the same tools can be used to analyse conflicts that are already in a period of open violence. In particular, this may be relevant in crisis situations where efforts are geared at stemming the violence and preventing further escalation.

Early Intervention for Conflict Prevention

- What are the deeper, long-term structural and cultural causes of conflict? For example, these may be issues of political, social or economic exclusion based on ethnicity or religion that are present in society, but have not yet emerged in visible conflicts or violence.
- What issues, if left unaddressed, could lead eventually to violent conflict? Over what time period? Examples: sharp economic disparities; neglect of whole regions or groups/unequal distribution of government support for development; rampant corruption; lack of government services in education, health, transport; problematic governance structures/processes in terms of participation, decision making, representation.
- What policies or groups are attempting to address these issues? How? To what effect?

Emerging Crises/Urgent Conflict Prevention

- What immediate issues or events could trigger widespread political violence? Examples: poorly organised or contested elections; sudden increases in costs for basic goods; sharp economic downturn/unemployment; poorly implemented demobilisation.
- What are the warning signs for any of the above examples or any other identified triggers? What forces are attempting to manage these issues?
- Is there an increase in violence against women, or any other silent warning signs?

Period of Open Violence

- What are the underlying causes of conflict? Why did these factors lead to violence? Were any unsuccessful efforts made to avoid descent into war?
- How has the conflict shifted during the period of violence? Have new issues emerged?
- What efforts are being made to stop fighting? Are official negotiations planned or underway? If so, are there barriers to progress? What support is being provided for the negotiation process, and with what success? What issues are on/off the table?
- Are there opportunities for Track 2/unofficial dialogue or negotiation? Is anyone doing this already, and, if so, to what effect? What other initiatives would support movement towards peace?

Cyclical Violence or Low Intensity Conflict

- In some situations, rather than a single significant period of violence, the conflict comes in waves or cycles. The violent conflict in central Nigeria is an example, in which contending groups engage in riots and mutual attacks periodically, with periods of relative calm in between.
- What are the underlying causes of cyclical violence? Why do these issues emerge when they do, and what allows for relative calm during other periods? Are certain members of society targeted by violence more often than others?
- Who is doing what to address the underlying causes and immediate triggers? To what effect?
- What can be done to prevent the recurrent cycles of violence, in terms of both short-term and long-term strategies?

Post-Violence/Post-War/Post-Peace Agreement

- What were the underlying causes of the war/violence? How did these factors change during the war? What new factors emerged?
- Of the causes identified, which ones (if any) were addressed in any peace agreement? What is the important “unfinished business” or what are the persistent issues, which, if unaddressed, could threaten a relapse into violence?
- In post-conflict peacebuilding funding and programming, what drivers of conflict are being addressed and how? Are these efforts successful or effective? What issues are being ignored or actively avoided?
- What is the strategy for recovery? To what extent is it necessary—and are people willing—to address issues of trauma from the war or violence? Is there a need for some form of transitional justice or other forms of healing? Are their cultural factors, perceptions or gender roles that hinder peoples’ ability to address issues of recovery and healing?

5 Choosing the Methods and Tools

“When considering your methodological choices and tools, remember that conflict analysis is not an end in itself.”



Introduction

In many cases, gathering information is not the problem; the main challenge is making sense or giving meaning to the information collected. When engaging in conflict analysis to inform preventive action or peacebuilding work, analysis is a vital component of the process. Data analysis contributes to the credibility of the information and also shapes the response mechanisms expected.

This section will present approaches and tools for working with information you have gathered using the previous sections of this guide. We will address preliminary ways to sort through information, and present an overview of tools or 'lenses' for analysing the information to produce a conflict analysis. Important considerations at this stage are how to choose among analytical tools, ways to validate an analysis, and uses of conflict analyses.

5.1 Preliminary sorting processes

If you have performed any or all of the steps for gathering information described in the previous sections of this guide, you will have a large amount of information, in addition to your own knowledge that you bring to the analysis process. The next challenge is to sort through the information to make sense of it. There are several **ways to sort information**:

- By actors, issues, causes/origins of conflict, and dynamics among any of the categories.
- By major sectorial categories, for example: political, social, economic, security, justice.
- By groupings of related issues or topics.
- By different levels of analysis: local communities, province/state/sub-national region, national, regional, international.

In order to sort by any of these categories, one possible first step is to put single pieces of information or *headlines* on cards or pieces of paper that can be moved around. Try sorting a couple of different ways, and see which categories are most appropriate for your situation.

5.2 Overview of analytical tools

In this guide we present eight different tools for analysing conflicts—and there are many other tools and larger frameworks available. **How do you choose among them**, as in most situations, you cannot afford to apply them all? First, return to the discussion in Section 2 regarding the purpose for the analysis. Then look at the array of tools presented in this section, Overview of Analytical Tools, which provides a brief summary of each approach. Each tool addresses a different way of looking at the conflict. Some of the tools and frameworks provided simply analyse the information. Others help make the bridge from analysis to programme choice and design. The tools can be used in sequence or combination, depending on the core purpose of the process. There are many other tools for conflict analysis.



The bibliography provides an additional annotated list of helpful resources.

Actor-Oriented Analysis

- **Stakeholder Analysis: Positions, Interests, Issues and Power**

This tool examines each important group or individual in the conflict, identifying their stated positions, interests, needs, issues and sources of power. This is a way to understand the role that each party plays in the conflict. It is especially important to do this kind of exercise before working directly with any of the groups involved.

- **Mapping Relationships Among Actors**

This tool is a way to show the relationships among the different groups and individuals involved in a graphic way. It helps to understand all of the different actors and how they interact with each other.

Issue-Related and Causal Analysis

- **The Conflict Tree**

This exercise is a very simple way to explore the causes and effects of key conflict factors. The roots represent the underlying causes, while the branches represent the effects or results of the conflict. It is a good way to start thinking about conflict systems.

- **Dividers & Connectors Analysis**

This is a method for understanding the conflict context, by identifying factors that bring people together (connectors) and factors that push people apart (dividers). This is one tool for examining conflict sensitivity and can be used for ensuring that humanitarian and development programming is sensitive to conflict factors.

- **Threat Analysis: Immediate to Long-Term Threats/Vulnerabilities**

This process helps us to sort through the various conflict factors to identify which ones represent urgent threats of violence, and which ones might eventually lead to violence, but not soon.

- **Levels of Potential Change**

This process examines the different levels and layers of conflict: deeper structural and cultural factors, formal and informal institutions; social norms; inter-group relations; personal attitudes, behaviour, perceptions, prejudice.

Integrative Tools

- **Scenario Development**

Scenario development suggests two or three possible stories about the future of the conflict area, as a tool for discussing ways to influence which of the potential futures comes true, based on interactions among actors and issues.

- **Systems Mapping of Conflict**

This process treats conflict as a system of causes and effects, often resulting in vicious circles. It helps to uncover the dynamics and interactions among conflict factors and actors, and produces a conflict map that can be used in strategy development and programme planning.

BOX 12: DECIDING FOR A CONFLICT ANALYSIS METHOD OR TOOL

When considering your methodological choices and tools, remember that conflict analysis is not an end in itself. It is only worth the time and effort if it is used:

- In making choices about what to do, where, with whom and why.
- In designing programmes or projects, through setting goals, intermediate objectives, activities—and indicating the expected changes from the activities, immediate outcomes and longer-term impacts.
- In determining whether and how to work with the various parties to a conflict.

5.3 Processes for validation and refinement of the analysis

Before we look at the conflict analysis tools in more detail, we should discuss an important topic: **how to make sure that your analysis is correct**. Even if you have a balanced analysis team and have done a good job collecting information from many perspectives, inevitably the resulting analysis will not be entirely accurate or may include some biases. There is no need to blame anyone for this; it is natural that some people will emphasise some things and not others. What is important to one person may not be important to another. In fact, **the interpretation of the conflict and its causes may be a major part of the tensions and disagreements among groups**. Luckily, you can include contrasting views and perspectives in your analysis.

If you are going to use the conflict analysis as the basis for making choices about the general direction of programming, for detailed programme/project planning, or to design an intervention process with the parties in conflict, you need to be sure that your analysis is correct—within reason. No map, narrative, or list of important factors is the same as reality—nor should it be. But some maps are more accurate than others. You need to make sure that the analysis is **good enough** for your purposes.

Also, analysis should not be a one-off activity, but should be **continued** throughout a programme or any other initiative. You must keep updating and refining the analysis, which will provide more opportunities for increasing the accuracy. Meanwhile, if you have produced an initial analysis, using any of the tools presented in this guide, you should find some way to check whether it is accurate. There are various ways to do this, suggested in Box 13.

Basic Principle: Regardless of the method of validation chosen, it is extremely important that you and other members of your organisation (or the analysis team) remain open, respectful and non-defensive in relation to feedback offered. **Do not attempt to defend the analysis!** Find ways to accommodate different perspectives.

BOX 13: SOME WAYS OF OBTAINING VALIDATION:

1. Hold a short workshop in which the participants represent all of the important perspectives—if the levels of tension and political situation allow. Present the analysis and ask for feedback, suggestions, corrections, additions, etc.
2. Hold separate meetings with small groups of people representing different viewpoints. Thus, you might hold one meeting with civil society and another with government, or one meeting with tribe A and another with tribe B, or with women, men, youth, elders, depending on the nature of the conflict and the parties involved. As in the option above, present the analysis and ask for feedback, suggestions, corrections, additions, etc. This approach may be particularly appropriate in highly polarised societies.
3. Meet with a series of individuals who represent different perspectives, presenting your analysis and asking for feedback.

Following any of these approaches, you should determine how to change your analysis (narrative, maps, diagrams, charts, tables) to take into account the feedback you have received. However, keep in mind that in most cases you are looking for a *good enough analysis*, not the perfect depiction of the situation. Ideally, you will also be refining and updating the analysis on a continual basis.

5.4 Presentation and tone

In most cases, the analysis will be a written document, unless the situation is so insecure that written text would pose a danger. Assuming that some form of written document will be produced, what should it be like? Is this an analysis for internal organisational use only, or for wider circulation? Here are some considerations to bear in mind:

- **Purpose.** The presentation of the analysis should take into account the audience/user group(s) and how the report will be used. For example, if it is for the purpose of early warning, the report content will include recommendations for early action to specific actors, and the form should strive towards something that can be read and acted upon in a timely manner. A conflict analysis is of most use if it is part of an ongoing exercise, so the way it is presented should be easy to review and update.
- **Descriptive, not judging.** A conflict analysis may have to accommodate sharply different perceptions about the situation, and must find a way to present those views as objectively as possible, without taking a stand or judging views that you may find difficult or that challenge your own values. “Naming and shaming” documents are not conducive to conflict resolution.

- **Plain language.** Text should be written in simple, plain language, avoiding jargon, obscure acronyms or academic terms or concepts.
- **Mix of graphics and text.** Different people gain understanding from visual presentations or from written descriptions and explanations. Usually a combination is helpful. Graphics need to be explained and key concepts should be depicted graphically, if possible.
- **Clear message.** Avoid information overload in your presentation, determine which key messages you should prioritise and structure your findings in such a way that the reader will come away with the key messages in mind.

BOX 14: STRUCTURING AN ARGUMENT IN CONFLICT ANALYSIS REPORTS

When converting our conflict analysis data into reports for a particular use, it can be helpful to learn from practices in media engagement, where a shortage of space and attention span mean that structure of an argument is key. Here are the basics of an Op-Ed (opinion piece), deconstructed into its main components.

- 1. Main argument:** identify and highlight your main argument in the first or second paragraph of your report.
>> Example: *If the US policy of “awakening councils” from Iraq will be mimicked in the borders of Afghanistan and Pakistan—they will fail.*
- 2. First supporting statement:** present facts/findings that back up your main argument.
>> *First, the credibility of the council concept is dubious at best.*
- 3. Second supporting statement:** present facts/findings that back up your main argument.
>> *Second, tribal dynamics in the Afghanistan-Pakistan border regions are hardly conducive for councils.*
- 4. Third supporting statement:** present facts/findings that back up your main argument.
>> *Third, and most importantly, something more substantial and sustainable than short-term council-queuing is needed to quell the violence in the South Asian hinterlands.*
- 5. Specific recommendation/solutions:**
>> *New political and economic strategies, then, are needed to curb growing instability...*
- 6. Strong ending:** if possible wrap up the beginning/main argument or theme introduced at the beginning.
>> *Hopefully the only awakening that counsels Obama’s watch is the wisdom of wariness vis-à-vis America’s military modus operandi and a willingness to wage a softer form of US power.*

Source Michael Shank, Media Training Manual (GPPAC, 2009). Examples excerpted from Michael Shank and Shukria Dellawar, ‘Waking up to Afghanistan’s Realities,’ The Guardian, 3 December 2008.

6 Tools and Templates

“The tools can be picked up at any stage of a process to support analysis, sorting information, prioritising and planning actions.”



Introduction

This section will present a series of methods for analysing the information gathered. Each tool or method starts with a description, a purpose and suggestions of the circumstances in which the tool might be particularly helpful. We encourage experimentation and getting experience with each of the tools. Over time, you will gain a better idea of which method of analysis is appropriate in which situations.

6.1 Stakeholder Analysis: Positions, Interests, Issues and Power

What is it? A relatively simple tool for developing a conflict profile of each major stakeholder, and some minor ones.⁵

Stakeholder analysis involves listing the primary (directly involved), secondary (interested), and tertiary (affected) parties, and then identifying, for each one, their stated (public) positions or demands, the interests that lie behind those demands, and the basic needs that might be involved. The process continues to identify the key issues in the conflict, the sources of power and influence of the party, and finally an estimate of the willingness of the party to negotiate. Note: To obtain gender balanced and holistic information, consider using the tool with separate groups of women, men and youth. This might reveal new points of entry for action.

Purpose:

- To understand each party and their relation to the conflict.
- To develop a deeper understanding of the motivations and logic of each group.
- To identify the power dynamics among the parties.

When to use it:

- In a preliminary way, before working directly with the parties, but then updated or elaborated as you gain information from working with them.
- In preparation for a negotiation process, as these factors will influence how the parties act at the negotiating table and away from it.
- Later in a negotiation, to provide information that might help break a deadlock.

Variations in use:

- Some variations leave out “needs” as too basic.
- Some variations of the table add a column as to the importance of each issue for the different parties (sometimes an issue is of primary importance for one party, but less important for another—which gives room to negotiate).

How to Do It

1. Brainstorm a list of the parties to the conflict, starting with primary groups or individuals and then moving on to secondary and tertiary groups, keeping in mind the benefits of grouping women, men and youth as separate categories.
2. Mark the list, showing which groups/individuals are primary parties and which ones are secondary and tertiary. **Primary** parties are the main individuals or groups involved and without which the conflict or dispute cannot be resolved, while the **secondary** parties may have some influence or interest but are not directly involved; **tertiary** parties are not actively involved but affected by the conflict or dispute in terms of geographic location, outcome or process. Example: In a dispute over land, the tribal elders and the people who have been using the land or claiming ownership might be primary parties, while the

⁵ Adapted from various training manuals by CDR Associates, Boulder, Colorado.

District Officer or other neighbours might be secondary parties. People with land close to the disputed area or related to the other parties through family or tribal relations might be affected as tertiary parties.

3. Place the groups on the stakeholder analysis table, with the primary parties at the top. (Note: if you are working in a group or workshop, you might draw the table on a whiteboard or blackboard or with flip chart paper. If only one or two people are doing this, it is fine to work with regular paper.)
4. Take the groups one by one and fill in the additional columns, using the following definitions of the categories: (See also the accompanying example.)
5. As you fill out the chart, you may discover that you need to seek additional information on some groups. That is fine. You do not have to do it all at once.

Issues/Problems: What are the specific issues involved with the conflict? Are the parties/ stakeholders concerned with identity, land titles; wage rates; threats from armed groups; justice, territorial boundaries; recognition/status; voting rights; participation in decision-making or some other issue? How do they express the issue? What are different and common impacts of the issues on women, men and youth (across the conflict parties)? The next three categories (positions, interests and interests) will be *about specific issues or problems*.

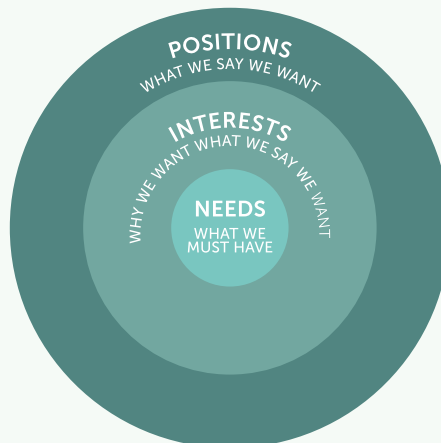
Positions: The stated demand(s) or public declaration by the party or stakeholder. A labour group might say, “We demand a 10% increase in the hourly wage!” A nomadic tribal group might state, “This has been our grazing land for thousands of years. You have no right to take it for settled farming.” Clarify if women, men and youth have different positions for or within a party and where commonalities and differences (also across parties) exist.

Interests: The preferred way to get one’s needs met – or concerns and fears that drive a position. The labour group cited above might have an interest in making sure that wages keep up with inflation, or they might be afraid that they will not be able to support their families. The tribal group has an interest in protecting open grazing rights. Keep in mind that differences will exist within these groups. In the case of the tribal group for example, youth might worry that they will not be able to separate from the group and form their own herd, while women want to travel shorter distances between usable wells.

Needs: Basic human needs that are required to live and prosper. These include material/ physical, social and cultural elements. When basic needs are threatened, people often react forcefully. The labour group is concerned with the wellbeing of their families, related not only to making sure they have housing and food, but also social status, their sense of justice and dignity, and other ‘intangible’ factors. The nomadic group might be fearful that settled farming will deprive them of their traditional livelihood and culture, which, in the extreme case, might be associated with actual survival. Again, within these groups there will also be differences that create divisions within, and overlap between groups; especially when examining the different views of women, men and youth.

BOX 15: POSITION, INTEREST OR NEED? – THE ONION

In the stakeholder mapping exercise, it is common that users get confused about the difference between positions, interests and needs. A useful additional tool to help distinguish these categories is 'The Onion' image, which illustrates the multi-layered communication and positioning of different stakeholders.



Another way of explaining positions, interests and needs is the story of two men quarrelling in a library. One wants the window open and the other wants it closed. They bicker back and forth about how much to leave it open: a crack, halfway, three quarters of the way. No solution satisfies them both. Enter the librarian. She asks why he wants the window open: To get fresh air. She asks the other why he wants it closed: To avoid the draft. After thinking a minute, she opens wide a window in the next room, bringing in fresh air without a draft.

- Their **position** is whether they want the window open or closed.
- Their **interest** is their preference for fresh air or their fear of catching a cold.
- Their **needs** are what motivates these preferences (physical well-being, staying healthy).

*Adapted from source Simon Fisher, *Working With Conflict: Skills and Strategies for Action* (Zed Books, 2000); Roger Fisher and William Ury, *Getting to Yes* (New York: Penguin Books, 1991).*

Means of Influence/Power: Groups derive power and influence from different sources. Some are influential because they control resources (money, land, key commodities, jobs, access to financing/loans, access to media, oratory). Others gain power through political position, either elected, appointed, or dictatorial. Some politicians are powerful because they represent a large and active constituency. Others enjoy the support of a military force or faction. Certain people are influential because they have close relationships with powerful people. Some groups/individuals have the ability to promote a positive agenda, while others exert negative power by delaying or destroying. Positions of power tend to be distributed unequally between men, women (including female leaders) and youth, however, conflict can also affect power dynamics which makes their potential power worth exploring in an analysis.

Willingness to Negotiate: Some parties may be quite reluctant to come to the bargaining table to settle a dispute or resolve a larger conflict, while others are ready to talk. Other affected parties may be important to involve, but face challenges in joining the negotiations. These challenges could be due to timing, location, negotiation skills needed to engage and be heard in an official setting—issues which women and youth in particular often face. It may be important to not only identify the degree of willingness, but also to explore why they might be either willing or unwilling, possibly related to the associated costs, financial or otherwise.

Negotiation theorists talk about the “Best Alternative To A Negotiated Agreement” (BATNA), which looks at what the party could do if they do not negotiate. A labour group might feel that they are in a weak position at the moment—so they might opt to strike first to show their strength, and only later agree to talk. A nomadic group might look back over thirty years of conflict over grazing rights and settled agriculture, and feel that they have never gotten a fair deal—and therefore distrust any negotiation process. They might prefer to cause disruption as a way to build negotiating power before agreeing to talk.

Another consideration that may be considered in relation to the Willingness to Negotiate category, or as an additional category is the **Status of Negotiation**. Especially in a very dynamic conflict setting, it is important to keep track of the status of negotiation at the moment of your stakeholder analysis. This will help you track changes when you fill in your analysis sheet a second, third time etc. It may also result in changes in the above categories with completely new information. For example, overlooked actors can change into important ones (e.g. from vulnerable groups to recruitment communities) and will then need to be included among the people/parties to the conflict.

The following page provides a template and a practical example on how to map the stakeholders according to the categories outlined in this section.

TEMPLATE STAKEHOLDER ANALYSIS: Positions, Interests, Issues and Power⁶

In each of the categories below, identify wherever possible the involvement of women, men and youth. Larger templates are available for download on www.preventiveaction.org

PEOPLE/PARTIES	ISSUES/PROBLEMS	POSITIONS	INTERESTS	NEEDS	MEANS OF INFLUENCE/ POWER	WILLINGNESS TO NEGOTIATE
Primary, secondary and tertiary individuals or groups The roles that individuals or groups play in the conflict, directly and indirectly	Matters in contention, substantive problems that must be addressed (on which parties will have positions, interests & needs.)	Stated demands; what people say they want	Preferred way to get needs met and underlying motivations, desires, concerns and fears that drive the position	Basic human physical, social, requirements for life that underlie interests	Sources of power and influence over other parties; negotiation leverage	Readiness to talk and reach an agreement. BATNA Cost/ benefit calculus Status of Negotiation

EXAMPLE STAKEHOLDER ANALYSIS: NOMAD-FARMER DISPUTE in South Sudan

Note: each of the stakeholder groups in this example can be further analysed in terms of variations and more specific interests that exist within that group, notably from a gender and generational point of view. See the example given in Section 6.3 below.

PEOPLE/PARTIES	ISSUES/PROBLEMS	POSITIONS	INTERESTS	NEEDS	MEANS OF INFLUENCE/ POWER	WILLINGNESS TO NEGOTIATE
Settled farmers	Overuse of water points Destruction of crops Threats/harassment from nomads passing through Political marginalisation	No passage for nomadic groups and herds	Preserve land Protect crops from damage Greater access to decision making	Ability to survive, feed families, maintain way of life and culture	Control of land Ability to block passage of herds/people Alliance with opposition party	Distrust of government (bad past experiences) Would talk if process perceived as fair
Pastoral nomad groups	Poaching of animals Blocked passage Drought Shrinking available pasturage and decreasing quality (overgrazing)	Free movement of people and herds as a guaranteed right	Maintenance of traditional rights of passage and routes Access to pasturage and water sources en route	Ability to survive, feed families, maintain way of life and culture	Alliance with governing party Access to arms Organised militias allowed by government	Prefer to depend on alliance with government to force their position Will talk if pushed by government
Provincial administration	Ensure production by both nomadic and farmer groups Sort out passage issues	All groups must comply with laws	Keep the peace, avoid confrontations and violence Maintain control and political power	Keep positions, power and control as means to provide for families and other dependents	Control of military and police forces Political influence and patronage	Prefer to bring nomads and farmers to negotiation, rather than use of force

6.2 Stakeholder Mapping

What is it? A technique for graphically showing the relationships among the parties in conflict.

Stakeholder mapping is a technique used to represent the conflict graphically, placing the parties in relation to the problem and in relation to each other. If people with different viewpoints map their situation together, they may learn about each other's experiences and perceptions. People intending to work with the parties to attempt some form of conflict resolution may also map the parties in order to understand the situation before taking action.⁷

Purpose:

- To understand the situation better.
- To see more clearly the relationships between parties.
- To clarify where the power lies.
- To check the balance of one's own activity or contacts.
- To see where allies or potential allies are.
- To identify openings for intervention or action.
- To evaluate what has been done already.

When to use it:

- Early in a process, along with other analytical tools;
- Later, to identify possible entry points for action or to help the process of strategy-building.

Variations in use:

- Geographical maps showing the areas and parties involved
- Mapping of issues
- Mapping of power alignments
- Mapping of needs and fears

How to Do It

1. Decide what you want to map, when, and from what point of view.

If you try to map the whole history of a regional political conflict, the result may be so time consuming, so large, and so complex that it is not really helpful.

It is often very useful to map the same situation from a variety of viewpoints, as this is how the parties to it actually do experience it. Trying to reconcile these different viewpoints is the reality of working on the conflict. It is good discipline to ask whether those who hold this view would actually accept your description of their relationships with the other parties.

2. Don't forget to place yourself and your organisation on the map. Putting yourself on the map is a good reminder that you are part of the situation, not above it, even when you analyse it. You and your organisation are perceived in certain ways by others. You may have contacts and relationships that offer opportunities and openings for work with the parties involved in the conflict.

3. Mapping is dynamic—it reflects a changing situation, and points toward action.

This kind of analysis should offer new possibilities. What can be done? Who can best do it? When is the best moment? What groundwork needs to be laid beforehand, what structures built afterward? These are some of the questions you should ask as you are doing the mapping.

⁷ Much in this subsection was adapted from Simon Fisher, *Working With Conflict: Skills and Strategies for Action* (Zed Books, 2000).

4. In addition to the objective aspects, it is useful to map *perceptions, needs, or fears*.

Identifying needs and fears can give you a greater insight into what motivates the different parties. It may help you to better understand some of the misunderstandings and misperceptions between parties. It can also be useful in helping you to understand the actions of parties toward whom you feel least sympathetic. Again, it is important to ask whether the parties would agree with the needs, fears, or perceptions you ascribe to them.

5. Mapping gender relations of parties and other important subgroups.

In many circumstances, it will be important to look at several ways to disaggregate parties—that is, consider subgroups, based on gender, age, location, or even political allegiances. In particular, the gender relations of parties to a conflict can tell you a lot about who is involved in certain aspects/phases/geographical areas of the conflict, and why. This can bring insights into how to approach parties on the basis of their particular issues, power or specific perceptions, needs and fears.

Gender relations can create bridges between conflict parties that would not appear on the map otherwise, and would therefore be missed. For example, two tribes can have a relationship of conflict or discord but women in both tribes are affected by the conflict in similar ways (feeling unsafe, not being able to gather food for the family because of threats/attacks of the other tribe), and may be open to discuss potential improvements of the situation. When this gender relationship is indicated in the map in addition to the conflict relationship, it can reveal entry points for discussion.

MAPPING CONVENTIONS

KEY: In mapping, we use particular conventions. You may want to invent your own.



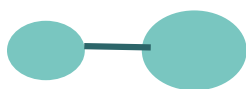
Circles indicate parties to the situation. Larger = more power with regard to the issue.



Wavy lines indicate discord or conflict.



Double line/cross hatch indicates a broken connection.



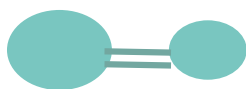
Straight lines indicate links, fairly close relationships



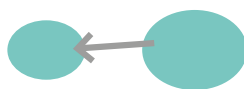
Dotted lines indicate informal or intermittent links.



A Rectangle indicates an issue/topic or something other than people.



Double lines indicate an alliance

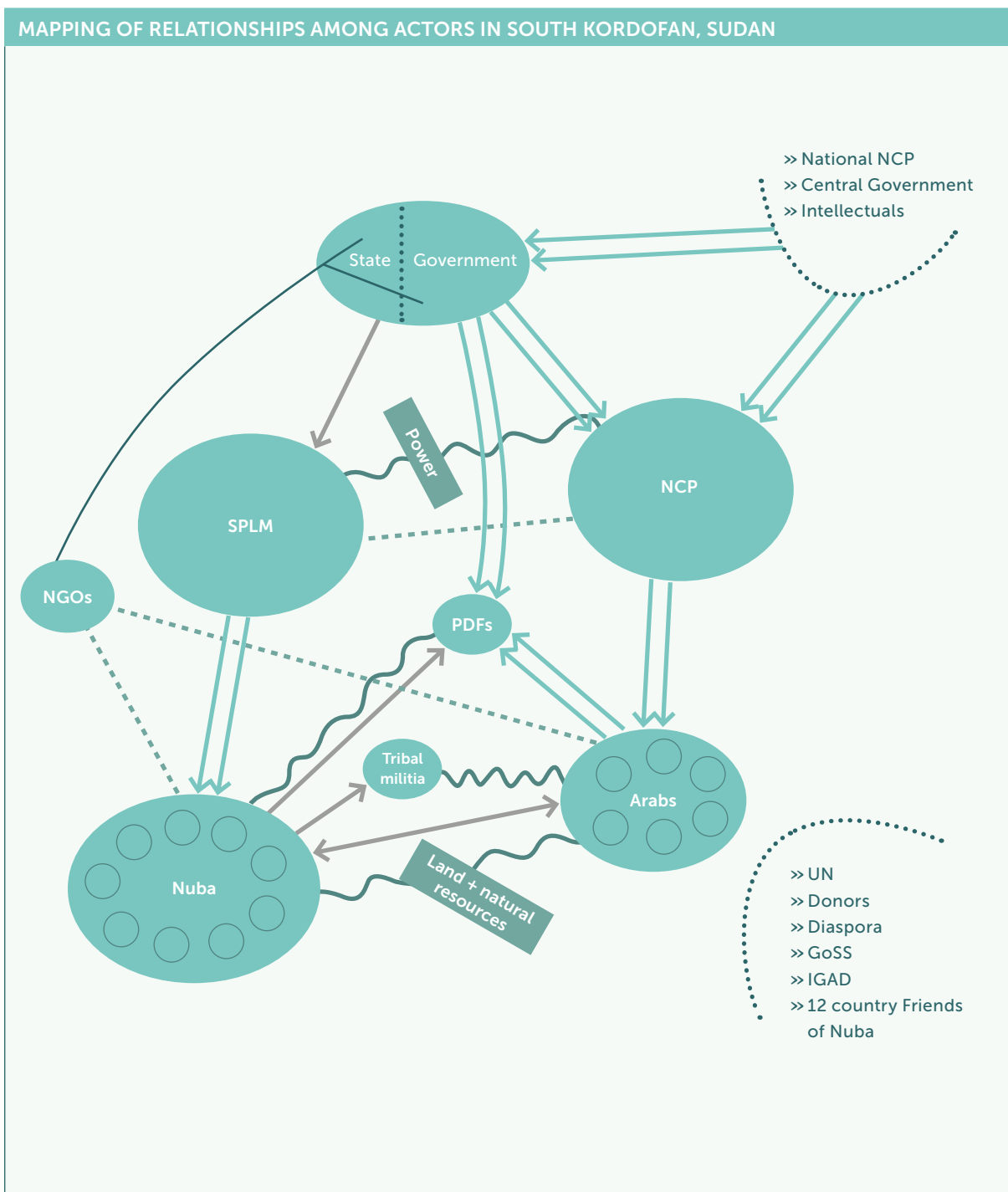


Arrows indicate the main direction of influence or activity.



A Dotted Area or "Shadow" shows external parties that have influence, but not directly involved.

Stakeholder Mapping - Example



6.3 The Conflict Tree

What is it? This is an exercise for analysing the causes and effects of a given conflict. It can serve as an initial step in preparation for later steps of analysis, such as systems mapping. The Conflict Tree works with one or more core problems, and then identifies the root causes, and the effects of the problem. Effects are the current (or past) manifestations of the conflict: what do we see, how are people affected, what patterns of problem behaviour is showing up? Causes are usually long-term structural issues, underlying factors that result in a range of problems and conflicts. They do shift slowly over time, but usually require sustained efforts to induce change.⁸

Purpose:

- To explore one or more conflict-related problems to see how they work.
- To distinguish between underlying causes and effects, which can help in strategizing (that is, working on effects rarely produces permanent change).
- To provide the basis for discussion within groups about what they can or should work on in conflict resolution.
- To enable groups in conflict to discuss causes and effects.

When to use it:

- This can be a first step in conflict analysis, especially if you have only identified an initial presenting problem.
- Use this when you need a simple tool to provide the basis for discussion within a programme team or among stakeholders.
- This exercise is best done by a group in a workshop setting.

How to Do It

1. Hold a preliminary conversation with a group of workshop participants to determine what they see as the main conflict problems. These could be brainstormed on a flipchart or board, and then discussed to decide which of the items identified are Core Problems. Try to limit it to no more than two or three.
2. Draw a simple picture of a tree, including roots, trunk and branches—on a large sheet of paper, chalkboard, flipchart, or anywhere else convenient. Write one of the Core Problems on the trunk.
3. Give each person several cards or small sheets of paper (about 4 x 6 inches or 10 x 15 cm) or large post-it notes and ask them to write a word or two (or a symbol or picture) on the cards, indicating a key factor in the conflict, as they see it.
4. Invite people to attach their cards to the tree (using masking tape, if needed): on the roots, if they think it is a root cause; on the branches if they see it as an effect; or on the trunk, if they think it is an aspect of the Core Problem.
5. Once the cards have been placed, facilitate a discussion regarding the placement of the cards. Are they in the right places? If someone disagrees that something is a cause or an effect, ask why, and why the person who places it there thought it should go there. Try to reach agreement about placement of the cards.
6. Once you have completed a tree on one of the Core Problems, move on to the others, if there are any. (You could have only one Core Problem.) Repeat the steps above with cards, placement, and discussion.
7. If you have completed several trees, facilitate a discussion regarding how the trees interact. Do effects in one tree reinforce causes in the same tree or become causes in another tree? Do we see similar causes in several trees? Are there patterns that emerge? What positive factors should be added to complete the picture?
8. Following this discussion, you can use the trees as the basis for discussing potential points of intervention in the conflict. Given who we are and our mandate, what we do best, and our capacities, where can we make a difference? Is it to alleviate the effects (symptoms)

⁸ Much in this subsection is owed, again, to Simon Fisher.

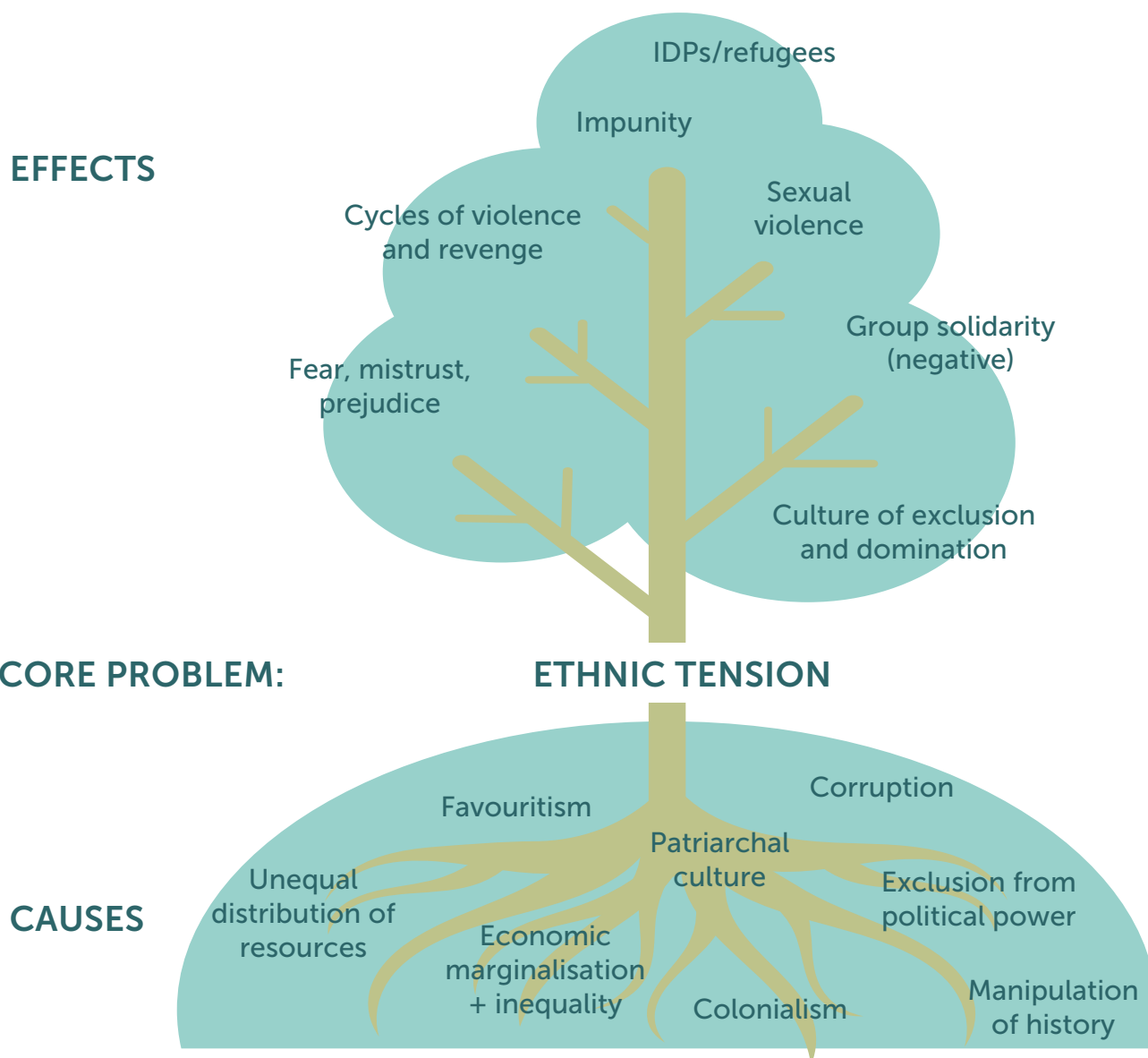
6. Tools and Templates

- 6.1 Stakeholder Analysis: Positions, Interests, Issues and Power
- 6.2 Stakeholder Mapping
- 6.3 The Conflict Tree
- 6.4 Dividers and Connectors Analysis

- 6.5 Immediate to Long-Term Threat Analysis
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- 6.8 Mapping of Conflict Using Systems Thinking

or addressing root causes? How can we best get at the Core Problem? What have we done so far, with what results? Is there another approach that might be more effective? Can we build on positive factors?

EXAMPLE: Conflict Dynamics in Burundi



6.4 Dividers and Connectors Analysis

What is it? A method for understanding the conflict context, by identifying factors that bring people together (connectors) and factors that push people apart (dividers).⁹

Dividers and Connectors analysis is the first step in the broader Do No Harm framework, which is a process for ensuring that humanitarian, development and peacebuilding initiatives at a minimum do not make conflict worse and, at best, help to address conflict dynamics. That is, it is a **basic tool for conflict sensitivity**. Understanding what divides people is critical to understanding how interventions can feed into or lessen these forces. Understanding what connects people despite conflict helps organisations understand how interventions reinforce or undermine those factors that can mitigate conflict or become positive forces for peacebuilding in society.

Purpose:

- To identify the factors supporting peace and those undermining it.
- To develop sufficient understanding of the conflict context to avoid making the situation worse through programs and interventions.
- To ensure that local capacities are harnessed in promoting peace.

When to use it:

- Before programme design, to identify possible negative impacts and avoid them.
- In the course of programme implementation, to ensure that key operational decisions (who to hire, which groups to partner with, how to distribute resources, how to relate to various parties to the conflict, etc.) are made with full knowledge of their potential impacts.
- In continual reflection and evaluations, examining whether the programme is having inadvertent negative impacts or not.

How to Do It

Situations of conflict are characterised by two driving forces (sometimes referred to as ‘realities’): Dividers and Connectors. There are elements in societies that *divide* people from each other and serve as *sources of tension*. There are also always *existing* elements which *connect* people and can serve as *local capacities for peace*. Outside interventions interact with both Dividers and Connectors. Components of an intervention can have a negative impact, exacerbating and worsening dividers and undermining or delegitimising connectors. An intervention can likewise have a positive impact, strengthening connectors and serving to lessen dividers. The ‘Three-Box’ analysis tool illustrates this link between dividers, connectors and key actors:

FORCES FOR PEACE →	PEACE	← FORCES AGAINST PEACE/ FOR CONFLICT	KEY ACTORS
What are the forces in the situation that exist now that can be built upon to promote movement towards peace? What currently connects people across conflict lines? How do people cooperate? Who exercises leadership for peace and how?		What are factors are working against peace or for conflict? What factors, issues or elements are causing conflict and/ or dividing people, and how?	Which individuals or groups in the situation are in a position to strongly influence the conflict—either positively or negatively? Who can decide for/against peace?

Source Reflecting on Peace Practice, CDA Collaborative Learning Projects (Cambridge, MA: CDA, 2013), p. 6.

⁹ Adapted from Mary B. Anderson, *Do No Harm: How Aid Can Support Peace—or War* (Lynne Rienner Publishers, 1999).

Key Questions

The following questions can be used to unlock dividers and connectors in a variety of ways. These represent the overall framework of a dividers and connectors analysis, and inform the specific steps that follow.

1. What are the dividing factors in this situation? What are the connecting factors?
2. What are the current threats to peace and stability? What are the current supports?
3. What are the most dangerous factors in this situation? How dangerous is this Divider?
4. What can cause tension to rise in this situation?
5. What brings people together in this situation?
6. Where do people meet? What do people do together?
7. How strong is this Connector?
8. Does this Connector have potential?
9. Are there dividers or connectors associated with gender roles or organised groups of men, women or youth? Are certain groups suffering more than others in the situation—and what are the effects of this on dividers/connectors?

Generally, Dividers and Connectors analysis is done with a team or group of workshop participants. It can be done as an individual exercise, but will have less validity.

Step I: Brainstorming Dividers and Connectors

Using key questions or other appropriate questions, generate two lists of Dividers and Connectors. Do this through any one or a combination of the following methods.

- Brainstorm in plenary: Everybody shares ideas and the ideas are collected on a flip chart, brainstorm style.
- Buzz Groups of two or three, write down ideas and then come back to the larger group to report ideas and capture them on flip chart for discussion.
- Individual reflection: Participants write down three (or five) important Dividers (and/or Connectors) and write them on cards or pieces of paper. Come back to the large group and post the ideas.

Process note: You can also use categories to help the brainstorming process—essentially to prompt ideas that might otherwise be forgotten. The group can consider each category and the potential Dividers and Connectors in each of them. The group might also generate other categories to capture experience and jog memories.

POSSIBLE CATEGORIES TO CONSIDER:		
Systems & Institutions	Political	Geography
Attitudes & Actions	Economic	>>Village
Values & Interests	Social	>>District
Experiences	Technological	>>province
Symbols & Occasions	Legal	>>national
	Environmental	

Step II: Group Discussion

- Having generated the two lists, the group should then discuss the lists, asking the following questions:
- Are these the right Dividers (and Connectors)? How do you know these things are Dividers (Connectors)? Are these all existing factors, or things we wish for?
- Some things listed may appear too broad or vague. Try to reach greater specificity. “We have listed ‘poverty’ as a Divider—why is poverty a Divider? What aspects of poverty divide people? Or is it really about inequality — or something else?” “Is ‘religion’ a divider — or do we mean a specific behaviour?”
- In some cases, the proposed Divider/Connector might appear on both lists! Ask: What aspects of this factor might be a Divider? What aspects might be a Connector? Disaggregate further.
- How would you know if these factors changed? How would you know if they got better or worse (*indicators*)?

Step III: Prioritise

- Which are the most important or dangerous Dividers?
- Which are the most important, strongest or best potential Connectors? (Don’t invent things you wish for—these must exist now!)

(Note: Local people familiar with the situation should take the lead here.)

Step IV: Options and Opportunities.

- How can these Dividers (or Connectors) be influenced or changed? What can your team or organisation do to have a positive impact?
- Is there anything you are currently doing that might have a negative impact? Why is that negative impact happening? What can you do to change the impact?
- Can your options and opportunities be linked to the indicators you developed in Step II? How will you monitor changes?
- If your changes do not have the effect you anticipate, do you have a back-up option? How will you learn why a change has not had the impact you expect?

EXAMPLE: Local communities in Lofa County, post-war Liberia

DIVIDERS	CONNECTORS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mutual massacres across ethnic lines. • Unclear land titles/disputes over use and ownership. • Inclusion/exclusion from traditional practices of secret societies. • Unequal marriage practices: Muslim men marry Christian women, but Christian men can’t marry Muslim women. • Disrespect for cultural differences. • Patron-client systems of favouritism/exclusion. • Persistent ex-combatants and command structures. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • History of peaceful, mutually beneficial relations, intermarriage, living side-by-side. • Generous permission for land use over many decades across ethnicity. • Shared desire to leave the war behind. • Problem solving by elder councils, women and youth leaders. • Common rituals and celebrations. • Friendships across ethnic lines, mutual assistance and protection during massacres • Willingness to integrate ex-combatants in the community

6.5 Immediate to Long-Term Threat Analysis

What is it? An exercise for identifying potential causes of violence in the immediate future and over time. This tool may be particularly useful in conflict prevention planning, as implementing organisations determine a range of strategies for addressing urgent threats (operational prevention) as well as long-term structural prevention work.

Purpose:

- To sort a variety of factors into short-, medium- and long-term issues.
- To allow planning for conflict prevention work.
- To present information graphically, allowing for discussion of priorities and timing of actions.

When to use it:

- When deciding whether and how to intervene in an emerging conflict situation, where some violent incidents have already occurred.
- When considering how to orient development efforts towards conflict prevention, particularly how to address long-term structural problems that are likely to result in violence over several years.

Variations in use:

- Combine with the “Levels and Layers Exercise” as an axis down the left side—and then show the issues in the time dimension across the chart to the right.
- Include positive factors—things that provide countervailing forces for peace.

How to Do It

This exercise is best done after other analysis processes, as a further step.

1. Based on the analyses already done, identify the issues or problems that will potentially lead to violence over time. Create cards or pieces of paper (or post-it notes with one issue/problem on each).
2. Create a chart or timeline like the one on the next page, and place the issues on the chart according to how soon it might result in violence. Be sure to include any incidents of violence that have already occurred, showing what the issue was that sparked violence.
3. As you are considering plans for conflict prevention, keep the chart on the wall as a reference point, when discussing priorities and timing.

Immediate to Long-Term Threat Analysis - Template

RECENT PAST	CURRENT	YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3	YEAR 4	YEAR 5+
Previous Violent Incidents	Urgent Threats of Violence	Issues/factors that could lead to violence in 1 - 4 years Potential positive trends/factors				Issues/factors that could lead to violence (or peace) in 5+ years

6. Tools and Templates

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Immediate to Long-Term Threat Analysis - Example

RECENT PAST	CURRENT	YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3	YEAR 4	YEAR 5+
Previous Violent Incidents	Urgent Threats of Violence	Issues/factors that could lead to violence in 1 - 4 years Potential positive trends/factors				Issues/factors that could lead to violence (or peace) in 5+ years
Violent election campaign 2 yrs ago	Election coming in 12 months	Peaceful transfer of power				
			Oil development: environmental issues and displacement		Oil development: question of sharing of revenues	
Assasination attempt on President last year		Increasing tension between modern state and traditional chiefly structures				Arid zones no longer viable due to climate change
	Drought + food shortages in X + Y provinces					
Ethnic riots in provincial towns: 4 incidents in 5 yrs.		Refugees and ex-combatants return to villages → land conflicts				Ethnic groups excluded from political power + economic opportunities seek equity
	Positive factor: Inter-religious dialogue process					
Armed group from neighbouring country active in remote areas			Positive factor: regional arms control efforts			

6.6 Levels of Potential Change

What is it? Analysis of the levels of conflict, including deeper structural and cultural factors, formal and informal institutions; social norms; inter-group relations; as well as personal attitudes, behaviour, perceptions, prejudice—as a preliminary step to considering change strategies.¹⁰

Purpose:

To identify conflict factors at multiple levels, before deciding where and how to intervene to promote change.

To differentiate conflict factors that are more and less difficult to change.

To provide the basis for setting change-oriented goals and devising strategies.

When to use it:

- As a diagnostic tool early in a programme planning process, along with other analytical tools.
- After you have used other analytical tools, as a further way to sort through information.
- As a preliminary exercise before program strategy tools, such as the RPP Matrix.

Note: This exercise is best done following other analytical processes, such as the Conflict Tree or Dividers and Connectors Analysis, or the three-box analysis of factors, which is part of a systems mapping of conflict (see next section). It is also most useful to do this as a team or in a workshop group.

How to Do It

1. Draw a large table similar to the one on the next page, listing only the titles of the categories in the left hand column (with explanations given verbally).
2. In the full group and drawing on information generated or organised using other tools, identify current conditions in the categories of the table.
3. Identify changes needed, starting with individual reflection, in pairs or small groups. Each individual or group should identify one or two **high priority changes** needed. Write these on cards to be posted. At the same time, identify possible approaches/methods for attaining the changes.
4. Discuss the placement of the cards/items. Do we have things in the right places? Are there more items in one category than another? Are there overlaps and duplications? Can some items be grouped together?
5. Discuss the potential approaches. Given who we are and our mandate, skills and resources, which issues are we realistically able to address? Use a colour or symbol to mark those items.
6. Are there items that we think are high priority, but that we do not (currently) have the capacity to address? Use a different colour/symbol to mark those items. Are other groups working on this —or is it an important gap? Who might be able/willing to work on it, and how might we influence them to take the initiative?
7. What are the implications of this discussion for our programme strategy or preventive action plan?

¹⁰ Similar to material in John Paul Lederach, Reina Neufeldt and Hal Culbertson, *Reflective Peacebuilding: A Planning, Monitoring, and Learning Tool Kit* (Mindanao: Kroc Institute for International Peace Studies, 2007) and RPP materials (see Bibliography)..

Table for looking at Levels of Potential Change - Template

FACTORS AT DIFFERENT LEVELS	CHANGES NEEDED	POTENTIAL APPROACH(ES)
Individual/Personal Factors: What attitudes, behaviours, perceptions, and skills do people have that feed into conflicts or reduce them? What evidence do we have?		
Individual Relationships: What are the patterns of individual interaction across group lines? Where do people interact/not? Are there friendships among individuals in different groups? How strong are such relationships? How do leaders at various levels of society relate to larger groups of citizens? What are the points of interaction?		
Group Relationships & Social Norms: How do different groups in society relate to each other? Are there deep divisions—and, if so, along what lines? Are there links or tensions at the leadership level? What social norms support conflict or mitigate it? How are people organised or mobilised? What is the degree of polarisation/alienation across groups? What elements of social cohesion exist?		
Institutions (formal and informal): How do schools/ universities, police, armed forces, justice system, transport, government administration, banks/finance and other institutions function—and how do they influence conflict? What are the informal mechanisms at the community level, such as local dispute resolution processes? How does leadership function within institutions?		
Deep Social, Political and Economic Structures and Culture: How does the economy work? Who gains and who loses? What are the social structures of inclusion/tolerance, exclusion/prejudice? How does governance work—on paper and in practice? What cultural beliefs and practices aggravate or diminish conflict?		

Levels of Potential Change in [Fictional Country] - Example

FACTORS AT DIFFERENT LEVELS	CHANGES NEEDED	POTENTIAL APPROACH(ES)
Individual/Personal Factors: What attitudes, behaviours, perceptions, and skills do people have that feed into conflicts or reduce them? What evidence do we have?	<div>Problematic attitudes of citizens towards police</div>	<div>Police-community dialogue processes</div>
Individual Relationships: What are the patterns of individual interaction across group lines? Where do people interact/not? Are there friendships among individuals in different groups? How strong are such relationships? How do leaders at various levels of society relate to larger groups of citizens? What are the points of interaction?		
Group Relationships & Social Norms: How do different groups in society relate to each other? Are there deep divisions—and, if so, along what lines? Are there links or tensions at the leadership level? What social norms support conflict or mitigate it? How are people organised or mobilised? What is the degree of polarisation/alienation across groups?	<div>Reconcile hostile groups, deal with past atrocities</div>	<div>Intergroup dialogue + mediation of specific claims/redress.</div>
Institutions (formal and informal): How do schools/universities, police, armed forces, justice system, transport, government administration, banks/finance and other institutions function—and how do they influence conflict? What are the informal mechanisms at the community level, such as local dispute resolution processes? How does leadership function within institutions?	<div>Too much influence of military on politics and policies</div>	<div>Establish new norms of behaviour.</div> <div>Grievance procedures, community policing</div> <div>Revised/enforced military code of conduct.</div>
Deep Social, Political and Economic Structures and Culture: How does the economy work? Who gains and who loses? What are the social structures of inclusion/tolerance, exclusion/prejudice? How does governance work—on paper and in practice? What cultural beliefs and practices aggravate or diminish conflict?	<div>Zazu minority group systematically excluded from social/political/economic life.</div>	<div>Enforcement of anti-discrimination laws and constitutional provisions for representation.</div>



There is a fair amount of literature and fully developed techniques of scenario building. This is a simplified version. See the Bibliography for further references.

6.7 Scenarios - Alternative Future Stories

What is it? Classic scenario building is a quite elaborate set of steps for future planning. This exercise is a simplified version, that helps to identify how a conflict situation might evolve, based on your understanding of the key drivers. The scenarios can then serve as the basis for planning actions or programmes that account of these possible futures.

Purpose:

- To project current conflict dynamics into the future, to think about what might happen.
- To permit planning for both positive and negative outcomes.
- To provide an opportunity to think about how to encourage movement in positive directions and avoid the worst outcomes.

When to use it:

- As a step in programme planning.
- As a way to engage groups that are doubtful about the need to address conflicts.

How to Do It

1. Review the Key Driving Factors of the conflict, as identified in previous exercises (such as systems mapping). Post these clearly on a flip chart or black/white board.
2. Divide the participants into several small groups. Assign a set of factors to each group, and ask them to imagine how those factors might evolve and change over the next five years. “If we consider factors associated with exclusion and marginalisation, how might those change over the next five years? What might happen?” Or: “We identified issues regarding corruption and mismanagement of resources as a key driver; how might that develop over the next five years?” (Note: these should only be plausible ideas, not wild imaginings.) If possible, each group should come up with at least two, perhaps three alternative future stories about the key factor(s).
3. Ask each group to report back to the plenary, to tell their alternative stories. Then discuss how the different stories and factors might fit together. Do the possible futures for several factors add up to a reasonable scenario? Can we see two or three overall future directions?
4. Give people some time to think about the emerging future stories, to let them sink in. Take a break, go for lunch, or set the stories aside until the next day.
5. Come back to the stories; again divide into small groups based on the two or three major future stories or scenarios. Ask each small group to address these questions:
 - » What excites us or worries us about this story?
 - » What could we do to either make sure that this story comes about, or prevent it? What are people doing already with what success? What additional efforts might be needed?
 - » Given who we are, what is realistic that we could do? What should we advocate that others do?

Report back to the larger group and engage in a discussion about the programming and advocacy implications of the exercise.

Example of Scenario Work: The Mont Fleur Scenarios in South Africa

Scenario thinking as a way of approaching the future is increasingly being used as a tool for strategising in private and public sector organisations.

The Mont Fleur scenario exercise, undertaken in South Africa during 1991–92, was innovative and important because, in the midst of a deep conflict, it brought people together from across organisations to think creatively about the future of their country.¹¹

The purpose of Mont Fleur was “not to present definitive truths, but to stimulate debate on how to shape the next 10 years.” The project brought together a diverse group of 22 prominent South Africans—politicians, activists, academics, and businessmen and women, from across the ideological spectrum—to develop and disseminate a set of stories about what might happen in their country over 1992–2002.

Summary of the Scenarios

The scenario team met three times in a series of three-day workshops at the Mont Fleur conference centre outside Cape Town. The team foresaw four possible outcomes depending on the answers to three crucial questions.

- Will negotiations result in a settlement? If not, a non-representative government will emerge.
- Will the transition be rapid and decisive? If not, there will be an incapacitated government.
- Will the democratic government’s policies be sustainable? If not, collapse is inevitable; if the new government adopts sustainable policies, South Africa can achieve inclusive democracy and growth.

After considering many possible stories, the participants agreed on four scenarios that they believed to be plausible and relevant:

- *Ostrich*, in which a negotiated settlement to the crisis in South Africa is not achieved, and the country’s government continues to be non-representative.
- *Lame Duck*, in which a settlement is achieved but the transition to a new dispensation is slow and indecisive.
- *Icarus*, in which transition is rapid but the new government unwisely pursues unsustainable, populist economic policies.
- *Flight of the Flamingos*, in which the government’s policies are sustainable and the country takes a path of inclusive growth and democracy.

The group developed each of these stories into a brief logical narrative.

A fourteen-page report was distributed as an insert in a national newspaper, and they produced a 30-minute video that combined cartoons with presentations by team members. The team then presented and discussed the scenarios with more than fifty groups, including political parties, companies, academics, trade unions, and civic organisations. At the end of 1992, its goals achieved, the project was wrapped up and the team dissolved.

Results from the Project

The Mont Fleur project produced several different types of results: substantive messages, informal networks and understandings, and changed ways of thinking. The primary public output of the project was the group of scenarios, each of which had a message that was important to South Africans in 1992:

- The message of *Ostrich* was that a non-negotiated resolution of the crisis would not be sustainable. This was important because elements of the National Party (NP) government and the business community wished to believe that a deal with their allies, instead of

¹¹ Excerpted from Adam Kahane, “The Mont Fleur Scenarios, What Will South Africa Be like in the Year 2002?”, *Global Business Network*, Deeper News, 7.1 (1996).

a negotiation with their opponents, could be sufficient. After hearing about the team's work, NP leader F.W. de Klerk was quoted as saying, "I am not an Ostrich."

- **Lame Duck's** message was that a weak coalition government would not be able to deliver and therefore could not last. This was important because the nature, composition, and rules governing the Government of National Unity (GNU) were a central issue in the pre-election negotiations. The NP wanted the GNU to operate subject to vetoes and other restrictions, and the ANC wanted unfettered winner takes all rules. *Lame Duck* explored the boundary in a GNU between compromise and incapacitation.
- **Icarus** warned of the dangers of a new government implementing populist economic policy. This message—coming from a team that included several of the left's most influential economists—was very challenging to the left, which had assumed that government money could be used to eradicate poverty quickly. The business community, which was worried about *Icarus* policies, found the team's articulation reassuring. The fiscal conservatism of the GNU was one of the important surprises of the post-election period.
- The simple message of **Flight of the Flamingos** was that the team believed in the potential for a positive outcome. In a country in the midst of turbulence and uncertainty, a credible and optimistic story makes a strong impact. One participant said recently that the main result of the project was that: "We mapped out in very broad terms the outline of a successful outcome, which is now being filled in. We captured the way forward of those committed to finding a way forward."



See for instance the Conflict Tree (6.4) and the Dividers and Connectors (6.5); for systems maps, factors identified are/ can be both causes and effects.

The second result of Mont Fleur was the creation of informal networks and understandings among the participants—an influential group from across the political spectrum—through the time they spent together. These connections were standard for this forum period, and cumulatively provided the basis for the subsequent critical, formal agreements.

The third result—the least tangible yet most fundamental—was the change in the language and thought of the team members and those with whom they discussed their work. The Mont Fleur team gave vivid, concise names to important phenomena that were not widely known, and previously could be neither discussed nor addressed. At least one political party reconsidered its approach to the constitutional negotiations in light of the scenarios.



For a more detailed guidance to use a systems approach see the Resource Manual 'Designing Strategic Initiatives to Impact Conflict Systems: Systems Approaches to Peacebuilding' (CDA Collaborative Learning Projects, 2016).

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6.3	The Conflict Tree
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6.5	Immediate to Long-Term Threat Analysis
6.6	Levels of Potential Change
6.7	Scenarios – Alternative Future Stories
6.8	Mapping of Conflict Using Systems Thinking

6.8 Mapping of Conflict Using Systems Thinking

What is it? A method for analysing conflicts as **systems**, showing the dynamic interactions and connections among factors and actors in causal loops and arranged in conflict systems maps.

Increasingly, peace practitioners treat conflicts as **complex human systems**, rather than static lists of issues, factors and actors. Factors and actors do not stand alone; they interact in dynamic ways that are also constantly changing. Systems mapping allows us to show the connections—and how one factor is a cause of another, and is also the result of other factors. The resulting conflict map is a useful tool for developing intervention strategies.

Purpose:

- To understand and display graphically the connections and interactions among conflict factors and actors.
- To provide a powerful tool for identifying alternative ways to intervene to change a conflict system through points of leverage.
- To generate a way to trace potential effects—intended and unintended—of conflict intervention strategies.

When to use it:

- As an additional step, after you have performed several other analytical exercises.
- As a precursor to strategy building.
- As a tool for considering possible positive or negative effects of a conflict prevention or resolution programme.
-

Variations in use:

- It is possible to use the mapping process at different levels of conflict: at the community, province/state, national and regional levels.
- One can also analyse a particular sector or issue, or the influences on a particular constituency, such as youth or women.

Further explanation and resources:

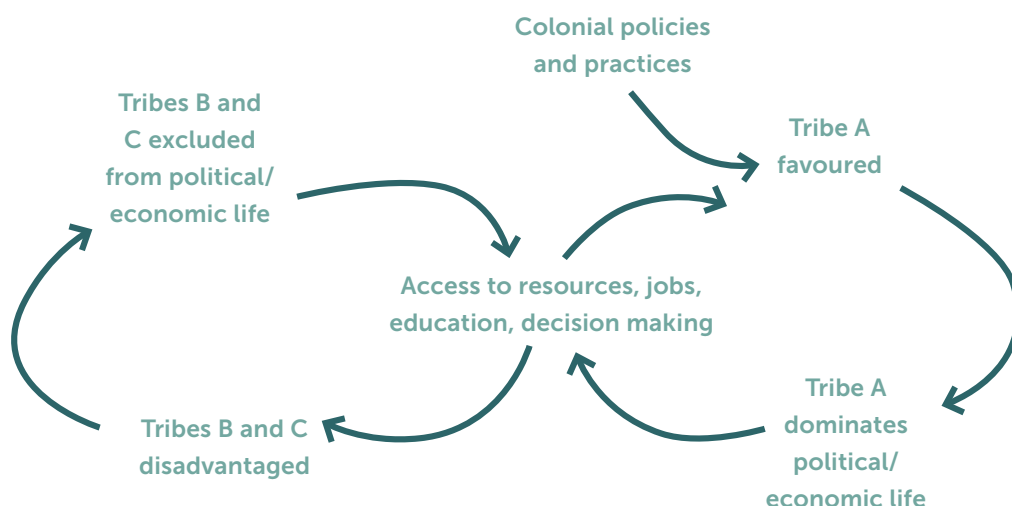
Although systems maps represent a powerful tool for strategizing and programme design, the process of producing systems maps can appear intimidating—although some people do grasp it intuitively. Experience shows that systems thinking is best introduced in a training workshop or through direct mentoring. Therefore, for this particular tool, rather than provide step-by-step instructions, we will provide several examples of systems maps, with narrative explanations. In terms of how to produce such systems maps, see the list of resources in the Bibliography, or contact groups who support the application of systems thinking in peacebuilding.

Systems mapping can build on the other conflict analysis tools presented in this guide. Most of the other tools are useful for identifying key actors and factors of conflict—which is also the raw material for systems mapping.

Working with Key Driving Factors of Conflict: Systems mapping starts with identifying the *key driving factors* of the conflict. What are the major factors, both negative and positive, in the conflict? If you have a long list, work to determine which of the factors listed can be considered *key drivers*, using the following definition:

A driving factor is a dynamic or element, without which the conflict would not exist, or would be completely different.

Conflict systems mapping then works with the key drivers and other contributing factors to depict how they all interact to cause, and perpetuate, a conflict system. Here is a relatively simple example that shows a systemic dynamic regarding favouritism and exclusion, with ‘Access to resources, jobs, education, decision making’ being the key driving factor:



A narrative explanation of this dynamic might sound like this:

It all started with the colonial power, which manipulated ethnicity to set up one tribe as dominant over the others and gave them privileges and power as a way to control the country. At independence, the dominant tribe took over the government and commercial enterprises, and they have been in charge ever since. They have systematically excluded other groups from economic and political power. The systems map shows how the colonialists favoured one tribe that came to dominate the economic and political arenas and, as a logical result, gained control over key resources (jobs, education, policy making...). At the same time, other tribes (B and C) were relatively disadvantaged, and have remained marginalised, without access to resources.

This diagram is a simple example—although it captures an important dynamic and represents what is called an ‘archetype,’ essentially a typical pattern that is found frequently in many conflicts, particularly in post-colonial societies. This classic archetype is often called ‘success to the successful’ and embodies the common concept of ‘the rich get richer.’ The examples presented below represent more complete analyses of complex conflict systems—at a community and national level.

Full Examples of Systems Maps

The following pages present systems analysis of conflicts in Ghana, with accompanying explanatory narrative. In this case, two conflict systems are described—one a pervasive dynamic of polarisation and politicisation, the other a series of disputes over chieftaincy succession, of which several have resulted in violence. These conflict maps can be used to identify points of entry or leverage points to create change in the system.

Example: Systems mapping of key conflicts and causes in Ghana

Chieftaincy disputes, land and other natural resource disputes, ethnic disputes, religious disputes, and socio-cultural disputes are cited by local observers as the most frequent types of conflicts in Ghana. Each of these is exacerbated by the dominant political climate and culture. Nationally, politicians typically focus on gaining and maintaining power, rather than governing, policy development, service delivery, or equitable economic development. Thus, the political culture is dominated by a high stakes struggle between the two major political parties, the NDC and NPP. Once parties assume power, they tend to break developmental promises made to Ghanaians, leading to very poor service delivery and policy making. For instance, the country can still not provide enough portable water to its citizens or sufficient electricity to homes and businesses, to name just two.

Underlying these conflict types are a series of structural causes of conflict, including economic inequalities. At the macro level, southern Ghana has more resources and controls development and investment allocations and realises relative prosperity, while northern Ghana continues in relative deprivation. At the local level, access to land and other resources is controlled by chiefs, who often make decisions based on a system of patronage and loyalties, which in many cases has become tied to the main political parties. As a result, certain groups benefit from favourable treatment, while others are excluded and grow restive at their persistent inability to make gains. In the mineral rich areas of southern Ghana, mining companies and, more recently, oil industries have caused displacement, ecological damage and human rights abuses, a situation of growing concern. In addition, local chiefs and CSOs raise questions about whether the communities are receiving a fair share of revenues from the natural resource exploitation.

Most local people interviewed emphasise politicisation and polarisation along party lines as the principal drivers of conflicts in the country, a dynamic that distorts and magnifies all other conflicts. Without this pervasive political culture, the underlying structural factors would be less likely to result in violence. For instance, it is a known fact in Ghana that the NDC is aligned with the Adani group and NPP is aligned with the Abudu group, the two contending parties in the well-known Dagbon chieftaincy crisis.

Therefore, the issue of politicisation stands out as the most important conflict driver. In terms of the potential for precipitating widespread violence, chieftaincy disputes are of almost equal concern, recognising that political factors magnify the problem, as noted.

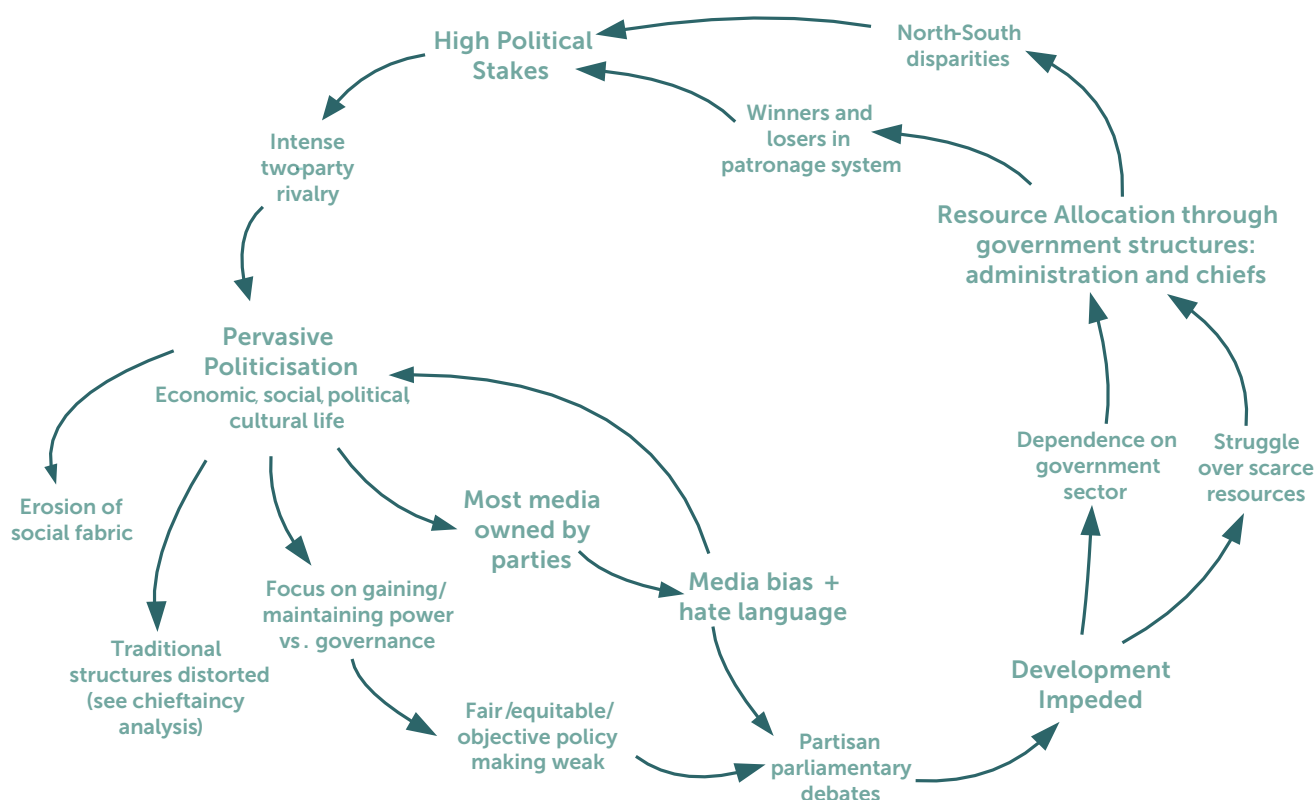
1. Systems Mapping of Politicisation and Polarisation:

Chieftaincy disputes, which in many cases predate the high stakes national politics, are often used by the political elite as leverage for gaining power. Until human needs, especially subsistence, identity, participation and protection are addressed, both chiefs and their subjects will remain vulnerable pawns on the political chess board—and politics will continue to be viewed as a potential means for satisfying those needs.

Figure 1 presents a systems analysis of the issue of polarisation and politicisation of public life in Ghana. An explanation of the diagram starts at the right-hand side with the two factors of 'dependence on government sector' and 'struggle over scarce resources.' In essence, the private/commercial sector does not provide adequate sources of income and employment, so the government sector predominates. Thus, the preferred route to wealth is through appointment to a secure government job. At the same time, structural factors of poverty and inadequate development result in a scarcity of resources, and a high-stakes struggle for power and control over the public sector as the perceived sole source of benefits, and through which resources are allocated—at both the national and local levels. The disparities between North and South and the dynamic of winners and losers in the patronage system throughout the country flow from these factors.

Figure 1: **Polarisation & politicisation of public life in Ghana**

The high stakes associated with holding government power prompt the major political parties, the New Patriotic Party (NPP) and the National Democratic Congress (NDC), to engage in an intense rivalry for power and control over political patronage to benefit their adherents. This fundamental dynamic produces the driving factor of ‘pervasive politicisation of economic, social, political and cultural life’. As a result, this pervasive politicisation generates a number of destructive dynamics, including erosion of social fabric, a distortion of traditional structures (especially chieftaincies), a focus on gaining or maintaining power rather than governing, and political control of most media outlets. While each of these could be explored in further depth (and the chieftaincy issue is analysed further below), the main effect is the focus on power, with the media serving to amplify the more destructive consequences.



The continued struggle for power affects the process of governing, which leads, in turn, to weak capacity for engaging in fair, equitable or objective policymaking. Most parliamentary debates in Ghana are characterised by sharp partisan behaviour, including personal attacks and accusations of bad faith, exacerbated by contentious commentary and hate language in the loyalist media. Relative neglect of governance impedes the development process, perpetuating dependence on the governance sector and the scarcities that fuel the struggle for power and political rivalries. While strong rivalries and even mutual accusations are to be expected in the rough and tumble of the democratic process, a concern for conflict prevention must ask whether such dynamics have potential for leading to widespread political violence. Local observers judge that politicisation is not a problem in itself—but when coupled with other important factors, the potential for violence emerges.

2. Systems Mapping of Chieftaincy Issues:

The other key conflict area concerns traditional rulers, especially where succession is contested. Figure 2 below (Chieftaincy Disputes in Ghana) shows the dynamics regarding chieftaincy, which intersect with the key drivers of politicisation described above. In addition to the effects of politicisation/polarisation described in Figure 1, additional effects appear, including the politicisation of the role of chiefs (tending to side with one political faction/ party over another); distorted media coverage of disputes regarding chieftaincy issues;

When chieftaincy succession disputes occur, they are normally handled by the House of Chiefs on a regional basis, using traditional dispute resolution procedures. However, such mechanisms are often unsuited for handling high-profile paramount chieftaincy disputes (such as the Dagbon crisis). The House of Chiefs is reportedly often unable to convene sessions of the Judicial Committee due to lack of basic resources for transport and housing. This leads to long delays in resolution, prompting contending groups to resort to the judicial system, often resulting in verdicts rejected by one side or the other. Official documents from early in the new century identify nineteen major chieftaincy conflicts since 1980, of which only four had been settled, six contained and nine remained unresolved at that time.

An Administrative Brief of the Chieftaincy Secretariat in May 2001 showed 171 cases before the Regional Houses of Chiefs nation-wide, and 44 cases on appeal to the National House of Chiefs.

Figure 2: Chieftaincy disputes in Ghana



APPENDIX:

Interview Questions

The ability to ask well-crafted and intelligent questions is a valuable skill. Asking the right questions elicits useful responses, helps gather critical feedback and information, and often prompts people to think profoundly. When our colleagues, partners and community stakeholders think more deeply than before, new ideas, new answers and new possibilities emerge. We all use many different types of questions in our day-to-day life and in our work. To begin with, conflict analysis team members should be able to distinguish between categories of questions, some of which should be used during a data gathering conversation and others should be avoided.¹²

AVOID:

- **Closed questions** are limited by default because they invite yes/no answers and do not encourage the speaker to provide more details. Example: “Do you think the colonial administration deliberately promoted conflict?” Avoid defining answers. Example: “Do you think that was democratic or authoritarian?”
- **Leading questions** attempt to guide the respondent’s answer. These should be avoided altogether in a listening conversation. Example: “Would you agree that the economic development projects carried out by our partners have been helpful in strengthening your community?”
- **Multiple-choice questions** are often used in written surveys and are not usually appropriate in an interview for conflict analysis.

USE:

- **Open questions** start with *what, how, when, where, who* and invite the speaker to describe things. Examples: “What did your community do to handle conflicts in the period before the war?” (descriptive); “How do you feel about efforts to promote dialogue among groups in tension?” (exploring attitudes/feelings); “How could land issues be handled more effectively?” (application/suggestion)
- **Icebreaking questions** can be helpful, depending on the context, in starting the conversation with a small talk to build rapport. Examples: “How has the harvest been this year?” “How long has your family lived in this community?”
- **Probing/follow-up questions** seek to draw out additional information and details. Examples: “That’s really interesting, can you tell me more?” “Could you describe a situation when you felt engaged in the decision-making process?”
- **Theoretical/hypothetical questions** can help the person to offer additional opinions, conclusions and recommendations by offering a new scenario in which to apply their experience. Usually these questions start with the words: *Imagine... Suppose... Predict... If..., then... How might... What are some possible consequences...?* Example: “If there were a more inclusive decision making process, what might the effect be on the main conflict issues?”; “If you were to advise a local government administrator about how to minimise this conflict, what would you tell them?”; “What are some possible consequences if land and resources issues are not dealt with more effectively?”

¹² This appendix was adapted from *Listening Manual*, CDA Collaborative Learning Projects (CDA, draft 2010).

The question types listed below provide some ideas on how to move a conversation beyond simple descriptions to higher and cumulative levels of analysis.

EVALUATIVE/ JUDGMENTAL	<p>You might begin a conversation by noting:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “You have seen various efforts to resolve these conflict issues...” <p>Questions to follow this opening may be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What do you think have been the impacts of those efforts? • How do you judge the impacts/outcomes of these efforts? • What do you see as the pluses and minuses of these many efforts for your society/ community? • How do you feel about these many efforts? • In your opinion, what is the appropriate and useful for outsiders to do in this country? What is the right role for foreigners? • How would you interpret the recent changes in the community consultation process?
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The next two types of Questions—Evidence and Clarification—are useful for following up an opening such as this. There is some similarity between these two types of questions. However, there is an essential difference that matters as you try to hear—really hear—and understand and assess the implications of the ideas that are offered: evidence questions are used to find out why someone thinks the impacts are as they have said, asking them to tie their judgments and opinions to some facts/experiences, that is the evidence that underlies their opinion, whereas clarification questions are used to be sure the listener really understands what the person means.

EVIDENCE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> → What do you see happening here? → Would you say more about that? → What is your experience that makes you see this way? → Why do you think that is positive? Negative? How? For whom? For how long? → What factors do you think led to that? → How did that make you feel?
CLARIFICATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> → Could you explain what you mean? → Am I right that what you are saying is...? → Let me be sure I understand you right—do you mean....?
ANALYTICAL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> → Why did x result when y happened? → Why did that person think that x was good/bad when another person thought it was bad? → Why do you think y happened? Why did it happen then? → Why do you think those factors led to that outcome?
APPLICATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> → When y happens in your situation, what impact does it have on you, your family and your community? → What can be done to improve the situation? → What can be done to make the positive impacts from these actions have lasting effect?
ABSTRACT / HYPOTHETICAL	<p>Abstract questions are getting at how people understand connections among things; how they understand causation.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> → What advice would you give to someone like you in another country (or in another community) who was going to deal with similar issues? → If you were to start over again, how might you act differently in relation to assistance in order to get better outcomes? → In general, if x happened, would y also happen? (if followed this with “Why” – this would be an analytical question)

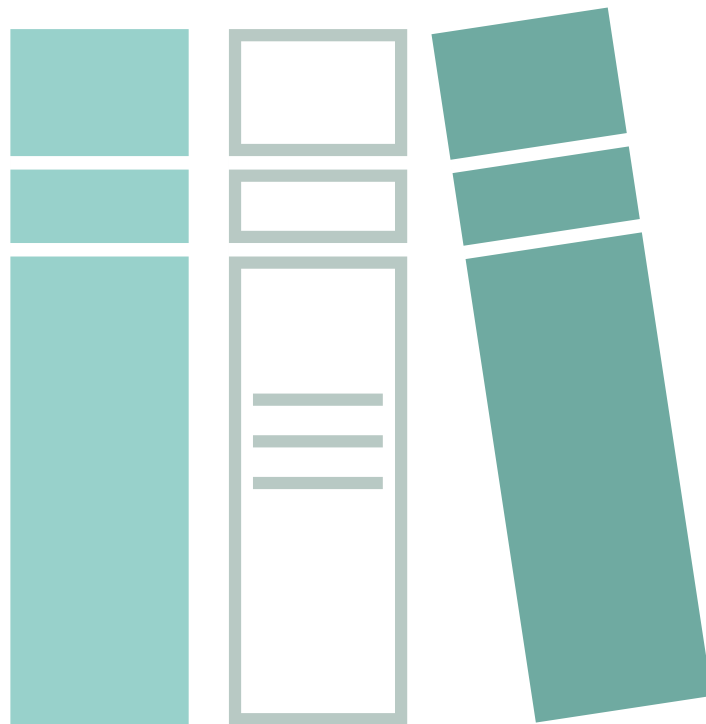
Ideas for Practicing Good Questioning Skills

- Brainstorm with your colleagues how you would phrase questions to get beyond the specific issues to broader problems, larger impacts, effectiveness of peace efforts and the expectations people have. You may decide to record suggested questions on a board or

flipchart. Remember these should not be seen as a questionnaire or interview protocol, but simply to serve as a reminder of the type of questions the team wants to focus on.

- Use role plays! Practice forming and asking questions appropriate to the local context. Practice listening skills through these role plays. You may want to use “fishbowls” with some participants: doing role plays in front of the group to use as an example for feedback and discussion.

Bibliography





Key resources missing in this overview? Let us know and we will list them along with other more recent publications on www.preventiveaction.org!

This bibliography is annotated and organised per topic to enable users to navigate the vast amount of resource materials available for good practice in conflict prevention.

General Conflict Analysis Resources & Guides

Evaluating Peacebuilding Activities in Settings of Conflict and Fragility: Improving Learning for Results, DAC Guidelines and Reference Series (Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2012)

A guide for the evaluation of peacebuilding programming. Annex A, page 77, contains an annotated listing of many major frameworks for conflict analysis, including NGO and donor frameworks.

Fisher, Simon, Jawed Ludin, Steve Williams, Dekha Ibrahim Abdi, Richard Smith, and Sue Williams, *Working with Conflict: Skills and Strategies for Action* (London: Zed Books Ltd, 2000)

Includes multiple field-tested tools for conflict analysis. Has been translated into Spanish, French, Indonesian, Russian, Dari, Arabic, and Khmer, although obtaining copies may be difficult in some cases.

Garred, Michelle, Siobhan O'Reilly-Calthrop, Tim Midgley, Betty Bigombe, and Matthew J.O. Scott, *Making Sense of Turbulent Contexts: Local Perspectives on Large-Scale Conflict* (World Vision, June 2015)

Provides step-by-step guidance on participatory multi-stakeholder processes for macro-level conflict analysis, using a variety of integrated tools.

Lederach, John Paul, Reina Neufeldt, and Hal Culbertson, *Reflective Peacebuilding: A Planning, Monitoring, and Learning Tool Kit* (Mindanao: Kroc Institute for International Peace Studies, 2007)

Good overview of conflict programming.

Lederach, John Paul, and Janice Moomaw Jenner, eds., *A Handbook of International Peacebuilding: Into the Eye of the Storm* (Jossey-Bass, 2002)

A series of articles on the roles of intervenors in conflict, including tools for analysis.

Leonhardt, Manuela, *Conflict Analysis for Project Planning and Management – A Practical Guideline*, August 2001. Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) GmbH

Description of conflict analysis tool developed for GTZ.

Mayers, J., *Stakeholder Power Analysis*, *Power Tool Series* (London: International Institute for Environment and Development)

Stakeholder analysis tool.

Oliva, Fabio and Lorraine Charbonnier, *Conflict Analysis Handbook – A field and headquarter guide to conflict assessments* (Turin: United Nations Staff College, 2016)


An extensive compendium of conflict assessment tools with guidance on their practical implementation, with an overview of the evolution and current practice of conflict analysis and challenges in relation to conflict trends.

http://www.unssc.org/sites/unssc.org/files/unssc_conflict_analysis_fabio_oliva_lorraine_charbonnier.pdf

Reflecting on Peace Practice, CDA Collaborative Learning Projects
(Cambridge, MA: CDA, 2013)

 Training manuals based on CDA's practitioner-oriented research.
See website: www.cdacollaborative.org

Schirch, Lisa, *Conflict Assessment and Peacebuilding Planning: Toward a Participatory Approach to Human Security*, First Edition (Boulder, CO: Kumarian Press, 2013)

 Presents a wide range of lenses and tools for analysing conflict connecting the conflict assessment process with self-assessment and programme planning.

Slotin, Jenna, Vanessa Wyeth, and Paul Romita, *Power, Politics, and Change: How International Actors Assess Local Context* (New York: International Peace Institute, 2010)

 Analyses the assumptions and motivations underpinning the use of various assessment frameworks and tools developed by bilateral and multilateral actors to assess governance, conflict and fragility.

Conflict Sensitivity/Do No Harm

Anderson, Mary B., *Do No Harm: How Aid Can Support Peace—or War*
(Lynne Rienner Publishers, 1999)

 The original text laying out the concept of conflict sensitivity.


Chigas, Diana, and Peter Woodrow, *A Distinction with a Difference: Conflict Sensitivity and Peacebuilding*, CDA Collaborative Learning Projects (Cambridge, MA: CDA, 2010)

 Article explaining the differences between conflict sensitivity and peacebuilding.

'Conflict Sensitivity Consortium' The Practice of Conflict Sensitivity – Concept to Impact Project,
www.conflictsensitivity.org, 2012

 A range of resources and links on conflict sensitivity, including a Resource Pack

'Do No Harm Program', CDA Collaborative Learning Projects

 Resource for conflict-sensitive programming, including dividers and connectors analysis. CDA website has multiple articles, guides and case studies.

Wallace, Marshall, *From Principle to Practice: A User's Guide to Do No Harm*, 2015

 Comprehensive and step-by-step practical guidance to applying Do No Harm frameworks and tools.

Scenario Building

Draft Puget Sound Future Scenarios (Puget Sound Nearshore, May 2008)

 Guidance resource on how to do scenario planning

'JRC Scenario Building', European Commission Joint Research Centre

 Resource on how to do scenario planning


Kahane, Adam, 'The Mont Fleur Scenarios, What Will South Africa Be like in the Year 2002?', *Global Business Network*, Deeper News, 7 (1996)

Kahane, Adam, *Solving Tough Problems: An Open Way of Talking, Listening, and Creating New Realities*, 2nd edn (Berrett-Koehler Publishers, 2007)


 Primary resource for scenario planning.

Systems Thinking

Designing Strategic Initiatives to Impact Conflict Systems: Systems Approaches to Peacebuilding. A Resource Manual. Cambridge, MA (CDA Collaborative Learning Projects, 2016)

 Focuses on systems approaches to conflict analysis and to the development of peace programme strategies. Tools and concepts explored are intended to be used in conjunction with those in the *Reflecting on Peace Practice Basics – Resource Manual*.

'Kumu Systems Mapping Tool'

 Kumu is software designed specifically for mapping relationships in complex systems. Certain kinds of use are free or can be arranged through the website.


Meadows, Donella H., *Thinking in Systems: A Primer* (White River Junction, Vermont: Chelsea Green Publishing, 2008)

 Excellent and understandable introduction to systems thinking.


Reflecting on Peace Practice, – Participant Training Manual. CDA Collaborative Learning Projects (Cambridge, MA: CDA, 2013)

 Training manuals based on CDA's practitioner-oriented research.


Ricigliano, Robert, *Making Peace Last: A Toolbox for Sustainable Peacebuilding* (Routledge, 2012)

 Discussion of how systems thinking can be useful to peace practitioners in straightforward and practical ways

Senge, Peter, Art Kleiner, Charlotte Roberts, Richard Ross, and Bryan Smith, *The Fifth Discipline Fieldbook: Strategies and Tools for Building a Learning Organization* (New York: Crown Business, 1994)


 Accessible and practical application of systems thinking concepts.
(See also, *The Fifth Discipline*, for a general introduction to systems thinking; the Fieldbook has more practical guidance.)

Stroh, David Peter, *Systems Thinking For Social Change: A Practical Guide to Solving Complex Problems, Avoiding Unintended Consequences, and Achieving Lasting Results* (White River Junction, Vermont: Chelsea Green Publishing, 2015)

 A useful and straightforward guide to systems thinking, including reference to conflict analysis processes in Burundi.

Resources on Gender-sensitive Conflict Analysis

Anderlini, Sanam Naraghi, *Mainstreaming Gender in Conflict Analysis: Issues and Recommendations, Social Development Papers, Paper No. 33* (The World Bank, 2006)

 Pages 19ff of the document provide gender-specific indicators for conflict analysis of different sectors and categories.

Gender and Conflict Analysis Toolkit for Peacebuilders (Conciliation Resources, 2015)

 Practical guidance with exercises for peacebuilding practitioners on how to use and integrate gender in conflict analysis for inclusive peace processes.

Goetz, Anne Marie and Anne-Kristin Treiber, *Gender and Conflict Analysis – Policy Briefing Paper* (UN Women, 2012)

 Overview of gender dimensions to structural causes of conflict, and gender-differentiated indicators.


Moser, Annalise, *Solomon Islands Gendered Conflict Early Warning Project* (UNIFEM, January 2006)

Moser, Annalise, ‘*The Peace and Conflict Gender Analysis: UNIFEM’s Research in the Solomon Islands*’, *Gender & Development*, 15 (2007), 231–39

 This resource includes a list of indicators developed for a project and when or at what stage they become relevant. It also provides an example of a successful project including lessons learned.

Plantega, Dorine, ‘*Gender, Identity, and Diversity: Learning from Insights Gained in Transformative Gender Training*’, *Gender & Development*, 12 (2004), 40–46

Schmeidl, Susanne, Eugenia Piza-Lopez, and Schweizerische Friedensstiftung, *Gender and Conflict Early Warning: A Framework for Action* (International Alert London, 2002)

 Provides a list of examples of gendered indicators for early warning, as well as a list of gender-specific root causes, proximate indicators and intervening factors/accelerators.

Toolkit Gender Analysis of Conflict (Saferworld & Uganda Land Alliance, 2015)

 Toolkit for integrating gender perspectives in conflict analysis processes to uncover how gender norms can drive conflict and insecurity. Includes principles, checklists and tools.

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Fisher, Roger, and William Ury, *Getting to Yes* (New York: Penguin Books, 1991)

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Katz, Neil H., and John W. Lawyer, *Conflict Resolution: Building Bridges. The Practicing Administrator’s Leadership Series. Roadmaps to Success.* (Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc., 1993)

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(The Global Partnership for the Prevention of Armed Conflict, 2009)

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