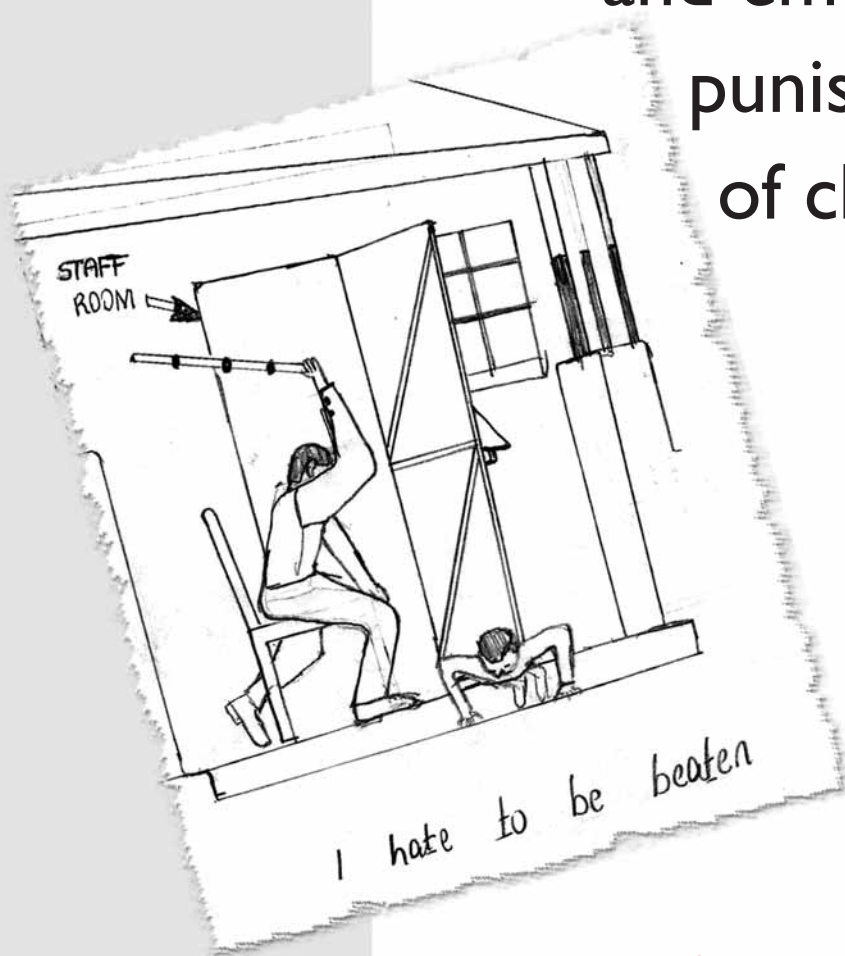


How to research the physical and emotional punishment of children



How to
research
the physical
and emotional
punishment
of children



Save the Children

Save the Children fights for children's rights. We deliver immediate and lasting improvements to children's lives worldwide.

Save the Children works for:

- a world which respects and values each child
- a world which listens to children and learns
- a world where all children have hope and opportunity

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Project manager: Dominique Pierre Plateau

Authors: Judith Ennew, and Dominique Pierre Plateau

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Southeast, East Asia and Pacific Region
15th floor, Maneeya Centre South Building
518/5 Ploenchit Road, Bangkok 10 330, Thailand
Tel: ++ 662 684 1046-7, Fax: ++ 662 684 1048

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22nd floor, Ocean Tower II
75/42 Sukhumvit 19, Bangkok 10 110, Thailand

To order copies of this Resource Handbook, please write to:
International Save the Children Alliance
Southeast, East Asia and Pacific Region
15th Floor, Maneeya Centre South Building
518/5 Ploenchit Road, Bangkok 10330, Thailand
Tel: ++662 684 1046/7, Fax: ++662 684 1048

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Nothing is a clearer statement of the position that children occupy in society, a clearer badge of the status of childhood, than the fact that children alone of all people in society can be hit with impunity. There is probably no more significant or symbolic step that can be taken to advance both status and protection of children than to outlaw the practice of physical punishment. Much child abuse, we know, is physical punishment gone awfully wrong.

Michael Freeman, 1996, 'Children are unbeatable', in *Children and Society* 13 (2), 13-141.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CRC	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child
CSEC	Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children
CWA	Child Workers in Asia
ECPAT	ECPAT International
NGO	Non governmental organisation
PAR	Participatory action research
PARC	Participatory action research with children
PRA	Participatory rural assessment
RWG-CL	Regional Working Group in Child Labour
SEAP	Southeast, East Asia and the Pacific
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences™
TOR	Terms of Reference
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UN Study	United Nations Secretary General's Global Study on Violence against Children
WHO	World Health Organisation

NOTES ON TERMINOLOGY

In general, the term 'physical and emotional punishment' is used in this text in preference to 'corporal punishment', which brings with it certain misunderstandings in many societies in the region. Occasionally, using 'physical and emotional punishment' would have resulted in clumsy wording, in which case, the phrase is shortened to 'physical punishment', although 'and emotional' is usually implied.

The 'region' referred to in this Handbook as 'Southeast, East Asia and the Pacific' overlaps with the regional descriptors of other organisations, for example UNICEF's East Asia and Pacific Region. Except where a specific organisation is referred to, the term 'Southeast, East Asia and the Pacific' is used inclusively throughout the text, for consistency.

PREFACE

Challenging violent punishment of children: Research that will inform and fuel advocacy

Respect for human dignity is the foundation of human rights. The Preamble to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights begins: 'Whereas recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world...' Article 1 goes on to assert: 'All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights'. Children are human beings – simply smaller and more fragile than adults, which is why the Universal Declaration also recognises that childhood is entitled to special care and assistance.

The particular task of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) has been to emphasise that children too are holders of human rights. The CRC is also the first international human rights instrument to address prevention of violence directly: states are required to protect children from 'all forms of physical or mental violence' when in the care of parents and others.

Hitting and deliberately humiliating people breaches their fundamental right to respect for their human dignity and physical integrity. Throughout the world, the scale and extent of violent and humiliating punishment of children by their parents, other carers and teachers is becoming more visible.

The Committee on the Rights of the Child, the internationally-elected Treaty Body that monitors progress towards implementation of the CRC, has for more than a decade consistently interpreted the Convention as requiring prohibition of all corporal punishment of children, including in the family. In examining reports from the 191 States parties which have ratified the Convention, the Committee has paid particular attention to this issue, recognising that social and legal acceptance of violent punishment of children symbolises their low status and the lack of recognition of them as rights holders in most societies.

The Committee held two days of General Discussion on violence against children, in 2000 and 2001, and in the recommendations arising from them highlighted the need to prohibit and eliminate all violence, through a combination of law reform and public education. Following the 2001 General Discussion, on violence against children in the family and schools, the Committee concluded: 'In conceptualising violence, the critical starting point and frame of reference must be the experience of children themselves. Therefore children and young people must be meaningfully involved in promoting and strategising action on violence against children.'

The important purpose of this Handbook is to encourage sensitive and ethical research on punishment of children, wherever possible directly involving children themselves. It provides an invaluable and practical resource kit for both programme managers and researchers. The aim is to reveal children's experiences and their views. The imperative for prohibiting and eliminating all corporal punishment and other humiliating treatment of children is human rights. The human rights standards are clear, but persuading states to honour their obligations and take the necessary actions – law reform, awareness-raising and public education – is not easy.

Challenging violent punishment of children remains a controversial issue, generally approached by politicians and governments with reluctance. This is why dissemination of studies of the reality of children's experiences can be so important, to inform and fuel effective advocacy.

Peter Newell

Joint Coordinator

Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children

London, August 2004

www.endcorporalpunishment.org

FOREWORD

Children in Southeast, East Asia and the Pacific, like their peers worldwide, consistently identify physical and emotional punishment as one of their priority concerns (See for example, UNICEF, 2001). Yet information about violence in the region remains scarce, anecdotal and limited in scope, while even less is known about emotional abuse. To a certain extent this lack of information can be seen as the logical outcome of adult inability to recognise this as a problem – especially when agents of the state are perpetrators of violence (Sandvik-Nylund, 2003).

This Resource Handbook continues the efforts of members of the International Save the Children Alliance in Southeast, East Asia and the Pacific to research the physical and emotional punishment of children, using processes and methods that are scientifically satisfactory, so that data can be used by project and programme staff to develop campaigns and actions based on reliable information. Finding out about the incidence of physical and emotional punishment, and the exact forms they take, is critical in supporting programme planning, advocacy and interventions, and requires methods that encourage children to share their ideas and experiences.

These efforts are rooted in Save the Children's commitment to rights-based programming. The power that adults exercise over children is supported by culturally acceptable practices legitimised by states. It is seldom acknowledged that violence perpetrated against children, including corporal punishment, violates the basic principles of dignity, physical integrity and fundamental freedoms in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and related treaties, and their expression in the 1989 UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, as well as United Nations rules and guidelines on juvenile justice.

Most countries in Southeast, East Asia and the Pacific have some legislation to protect children against violence and abuse, yet existing norms are compatible with international children's rights standards only to varying degrees. Provisions for child protection are also found in other legislation, for instance criminal, educational, labour and social welfare laws. However, enforcement of child protection is

affected by several factors, which include the absence of clear definitions of types of violence and maltreatment in the relevant laws, contradictions between laws even within the same legal framework, and the lack of implementation guidelines and children-friendly procedures.

This Resource Handbook responds to priority needs for research identified in two regional workshops, *Towards a strategy to address corporal punishment of children in Southeast, East Asia and Pacific* (International Save the Children Alliance SEAP Region, October 2003) and *National challenges, resource and information needs in addressing corporal punishment of children in Southeast, East Asia and the Pacific* (International Save the Children Alliance SEAP Region, April 2004). These were organised as part of a regional capacity-building process that aims to strengthen Save the Children interventions to combat the physical and emotional punishment of children in countries in the region and to support governments and relevant organisations to address physical and emotional punishment as severe violations of children's rights.

Children present a special challenge for research, especially on sensitive issues that reflect adult power. Insensitive research can, in itself, be abusive and compound the harm done by physical and emotional punishment. Another challenge is that children develop their own concepts, languages and cultures, away from the influence of adults and partly as resistance to adult power. Often this subculture is difficult for adult researchers to access or interpret. Since 1992, Save the Children has been in the forefront of finding rights-based, scientific ways of research with children, including their increasing participation in research processes. This Resource Handbook is based on some of the resulting landmark publications, such as *Children in focus: A manual for participatory research with children* (Boyden and Ennew 1997) and *Handbook for action-oriented research on the worst forms of child labour including trafficking in children* (RWG-CL, 2003), as well as on the publications resulting from UNICEF-sponsored processes based on these publications in Tanzania, Kenya, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Indonesia (See for example Ahmed et al, 1997, 1998, 1999, Robinson, 2000, and Čehajić et al, 2003) and the Save the Children toolkit on supporting children's meaningful and ethical

participation in research produced for the United Nations Secretary general's Global Study on Violence against Children (Laws and Mann, 2004).

We should like to thank all participants in the regional workshops in 2003 and 2004: Batkhisig Adibish Ahmina, Irshad Ali, Jonathan Blagbrough, Eva Maria C. Cayanan, Syvongsay Changpitikoun, Yi Chi-Hyun, Gao Cuiling, Do Hai Dang, Michael Ekstrom, Khat Ty Ekvisoth, Pilgim Bliss Gayo-Guasa, Sonya Hogan, Josefa Horno Goicoechea, Tran Ban Hung, Kelly Leung, Kim Mi-Sook, Peter Newell, Mali Nilsson, Le Quang Nguyen, Britta Östrom, Chawee Paenghom, Li Ping, Elizabeth Protacio de Castro, Sandra Renew, Wanchai Roujanavong, Edelweiss Silan, Elisabet Sündstrom, Khounkham Thammalangsy, Thitikorn Trayaporn, Junita Upadhyay, Billy Wong Wai-yuk, Teresita G. Yap, Shi Yu, Zhou Ye and Zhu Yun.

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In particular we are indebted to those who supplied materials illustrating current work on physical punishment in the region from Save the Children Fiji (Irshad Ali), Save the Children Sweden Southeast Asia in Hanoi (Tran Ban Hung), Hong Kong Committee on Children's Rights (Billy Wong Wai-yuk), Against Child Abuse (Kelly Leung), NGOCRC in Cambodia, Save the Children Norway, Cambodia and Lao PDR (Khat Ty Ekvisoth, Syvongsay Changpitikoun and Khounkham Thammalangsy), Save the Children New Zealand (Sonya Hogan), Save the Children UK, West Bengal Office, and UNICEF EAPRO. We should also like to acknowledge the inspiration of the work of Chaiwat Satha Anand in giving a specific Asian direction to the principles of peaceful conflict resolution in this manual and related reports (International Save the Children Alliance SEAP Region, 2003, 2004). We are especially grateful to children and young people who gave permission for their drawings and words to be used in the text.

We hope that this Resource Handbook will be effective in helping to meet the specific requirements of research on the physical and emotional punishment of children in Southeast, East Asia and the Pacific and elsewhere, and support Save the Children's commitment to the elimination of such practices worldwide.

As we begin the International Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-Violence for the Children of the World (2001-2010), it is our wish that this Resource Handbook will contribute, in its own way, to promoting a culture of peace and non-violence, in which every human being is respected without any kind of discrimination or prejudice. In the words of Uton Muchtar Rafei, South-East Asia Regional Director of the World Health Organisation, 'Because violence is so pervasive, it is often accepted as an inevitable part of the human condition. But this need not be so. Violence can and must be prevented' (WHO, 2003).

*Judith Ennew
Dominique Pierre Plateau
Bangkok, August 2004*

Save the Children Sweden Southeast Asia provided the funds for producing and printing this publication.

INTRODUCTION

WHAT, WHY AND FOR WHOM IS THIS RESOURCE HANDBOOK

What is this book?

This Handbook is a state-of-the-art resource about research with children on the difficult and sensitive topic of physical (including emotional) punishment. The specific context is Asian societies, within the immediate context of Save the Children programming in the region, inspired by the United Nations Study on Violence against Children (UN Study) and the UN Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non Violence for the Children of the World (2001-2010: UN Resolution 53/25). It provides an easy to use, rights-based, reference to research with children on a topic of immediate concern to them. It answers key questions about researching the physical and emotional punishment of children, including ethical and scientific concerns. It provides clear information on how to plan, design and carry out research, together with examples of the various tools and methods involved, largely drawn from the Southeast, East Asia and Pacific region.

Why has it been published?

The basis of the Save the Children position is children's rights, which includes the right to participate in programmes based on adequate, scientific and ethical research. This Handbook answers a pressing need for information about rights-based research on the physical and emotional punishment of children, with clear instructions about how to use methods and processes to produce results that can be reliably used for planning, programming and advocacy.

After more than two decades of academic child research and the promotion of participatory research processes, much research about children still relies on using formal, structured surveys and questionnaires with little reference to qualitative data either in designing surveys or in analysing the results. The result is numerical information

that bears little relationship to the contexts in which it was collected. The methods are inadequate because they reinforce adult power and preconceptions as well as failing to take children's own ideas and language into account. In many cases, the research participants are not children at all, but adults such as teachers, parents and psychologists. Children are seldom asked about their own lives, much less consulted about the way the research results are used. In addition, research about physical and emotional punishment, like most research about disadvantaged children, tends to rely on small samples, rarely compared with control groups, and fails to look at changes over time or to consider differences between groups and places. Thus the data are not very useful for planning either campaigns or programmes.

Save the Children has been promoting the abolition of the physical punishment of children since 2000. In September 2001, the Committee on the Rights of the Child, highlighting the problem of violence against children, motivated the February 2002 decision of the UN General Assembly to commission a Global Study on Violence against Children (UN Docs: CRC/C/DOD/1 of 19 September 2001; A/RES/138 of 15 February 2002). The study is expected to become a landmark 'study of record' and a major reference on the scope, impact and responses to violence against children. Save the Children is among key international non governmental organisations to collaborate with the United Nations specialised agencies¹ in the preparation and implementation of the Study. In 2002, two regional Save the Children workshops (Dakha, Bangladesh and Sao Paulo, Brazil) pioneered a strategy to address the physical punishment of children in several regions. In February 2003, at the International Save the Children Alliance workshop (Cairo, Egypt), physical punishment was adopted as one of Save the Children's thematic areas of contribution to the UN Study. The workshop report, and a subsequent Framework document that sets out the actions to be taken to end the physical punishment of children, call for children-centred, participatory research to establish a data base for programming and advocacy, as well as legal reviews as the basis for lobbying for legislative reforms and documentation of good practice and lessons learned through interventions (International Save the Children Alliance, 2003a and b). In 2004, Save the Children published a 'toolkit' for participatory research with children in relation to the UN Study (Laws and Mann, 2004).

¹ In this case, UNICEF, World Health Organisation, Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights.

Within the Southeast, East Asia and Pacific region, two workshops, in October 2003 and April 2004, attended by Alliance members and partners from across the region, identified capacity building in child research as a priority need at regional and national levels, and specifically requested a research manual to support capacity-building activities (International Save the Children Alliance SEAP region, 2003, 2004). Thus, this Resource Handbook aims to provide clear and adequate guidance to support Save the Children's work on corporal punishment.

Who is it for?

First and foremost, the Resource Handbook is a guide for programme managers who plan or commission research on the punishment of children, as well as for researchers who carry it out. The 'you' used in this Handbook refers to this collective group, because managers and researchers are engaged in the same process, although they may be responsible at different levels for different parts of the process of improving knowledge about the physical and emotional punishment of children. Both groups should be able to use this Handbook to understand better their collective tasks and separate responsibilities, forming a team that also includes other stakeholders.

Programme managers

Programme managers of Save the Children members, partners and other organisations, working on child protection, child abuse and exploitation, education, juvenile justice and parenting education, may not carry out research, but they do need to know what it entails and what to expect of the outcomes. Their work includes developing, commissioning and overseeing research, and sometimes capacity building for research. They also bear the ultimate responsibility for ensuring that ethical principles are adhered to in research design, procedures and analysis, as well as dissemination and use of results. The Resource Handbook will help them understand:

- Research with children;
- Physical and emotional punishment of children;

- Non violence in society and the concept of a culture of peace;
- The international legal context;
- Legal research;
- Ethical issues;
- How to plan and manage research.

It is important for programme managers to ensure that the decision to adopt participatory research on the physical and emotional punishment of children is taken and understood by all stakeholders, within their own organisation and also with partners. Yet they should be aware of the institutional and personal challenges. The Handbook does not just provide a knowledge about tools and skills for conducting research, it also questions underlying values and assumptions about children, and childhood as well as about discipline and punishment, which in Asia involve deeply-held beliefs about status, power and obedience. It follows that physical punishment is not just an additional programme topic, but rather a mainstream issue that should be incorporated into the entire strategic planning process and change the attitudes and behaviour of everyone involved – programme and support staff, volunteers and programme participants, including children. This is not always an easy process (Box 1).

Box 1: Resistance to work on corporal punishment in Lao PDR

From Lao PDR it was reported that resistance was encountered when a workshop on corporal punishment was held. It proved difficult to get Save the Children staff to attend, because most believed that hitting children is an acceptable form of discipline. At the workshop, most of the morning was spent establishing what level of beating is nationally acceptable. Lao presenters stressed that it is difficult – even impossible – to advocate the abolition of corporal punishment with government partners if Save the Children staff themselves have not assimilated this policy. Nevertheless, they reported that, by the end of 2003, the abolition of corporal punishment had been incorporated into policies and programmes. Rights-based programming approaches had helped. Up to that point, staff had been talking in broad terms about four basic rights (survival, development, protection and participation) rather than focusing on specific issues, such as corporal punishment. To address the obstacles, the Save the Children Norway office in Lao PDR is documenting and reviewing national CRC training, which is currently a broad-based macro-level activity, which needs to be re-developed into training packages that address specific rights issues, such as corporal punishment.

Source: International Save the Children Alliance SEAP Region, 2004.

This Handbook is intended to be referred to throughout research processes, and provides a framework for research based on twelve logical, systematic steps (Part III). A manager's tasks and responsibilities within these steps may include:

- Reading and using the Resource Handbook, disseminating its contents widely throughout the organisation;
- Commissioning a translation, where necessary;
- Providing capacity-building opportunities for other managers, researchers and stakeholders;
- Developing research proposals, including realistic objectives, timeframes and budgets (Tool Kit 7);
- Making sure that research is adequately supported with financial and other resources, including for dissemination of results;
- Identifying and recruiting researchers, and appointing a research coordinator;
- Supporting researchers in developing a research protocol (instruction manual);
- Liaising with researchers' organisations to secure written support of managers where necessary;
- Ensuring that financial, material and administrative support for the research is adequate;
- Liaising with authorities, obtaining research permission and dealing with practical problems of access to research field sites;
- Taking an interest in the research process, without micro-management;
- Trusting the coordinator and researchers;
- Planning follow up and dissemination of results;
- Being prepared to respond to the results of research by making changes in strategic direction, programme work and organisational functioning.

Programme managers have ultimate responsibility for the proper ethical conduct of research. They must take steps to ensure that no one who has direct contact with children will cause them any harm, which means not only checking on researchers' references during recruitment, but also monitoring behaviour during data collection and providing children with children-friendly, confidential complaints procedures, wherever possible.

Although programme staff may not collect data themselves, they frequently have responsibility for how results are disseminated and used. This applies particularly to making sure that details of people (adults and children), communities, schools and other institutions remain confidential, and cannot be identified in the texts of reports except where this cannot be avoided (for example, where there is only one remand centre in the country). If children's drawings or paintings about corporal punishment are collected through a competition, to use for advocacy (which is a common strategy among programme staff) the same rules of informed consent and artistic rights apply as would do for adults and as in collecting children's drawings during research (Tool Kit 3).

In addition, and of particular importance, images of children should not be recognisable, particularly if the overall message of the picture is one of victimisation. This applies particularly to photographs of punishment, which should almost never be made public. For example, a photograph of a child's buttocks, showing an injury caused by abuse or physical punishment, is pornography and may be used and reproduced as such by adults who get sexual gratification from children or images of children (pedophiles).

Researchers

Researchers on the physical and emotional punishment of children may be staff of research institutes or academic departments, external consultants, Save the Children researchers, or people who are new to social research. They may have very different educational and disciplinary backgrounds. Their experiences may vary from large-scale statistical surveys to small, face-to-face research projects using the 'participatory' techniques of Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and Participatory Action Research (PAR).

Nevertheless, they are likely to share certain preconceptions and doubts. This Resource Handbook aims to challenge preconceptions and remove or clarify doubts. In the first place it replaces the traditional model of research leader and research assistants with the model of a team of varied researchers, all of whom design and carry out the research, with a coordinator as 'first among equals', who liaises with

programme managers. In the second place, the Handbook challenges the idea that research consists of either 'hard' numerical data from questionnaire surveys or 'soft' data from 'participatory methods', replacing this with a systematic approach that allows all data to be scientifically collected and analysed to provide reliable, verifiable data, on which programme planning can confidently be based.

For researchers, the Handbook provides a twelve-step approach to research on the topic of the punishment of children, from developing research questions to collecting and analysing data and writing reports. It also provides:

- A toolkit of methods;
- Guidance on research planning and logistics;
- Essential information and guidance on ethical issues;
- Basic information about punishment of children, promoting non violence in society and the concept of a culture of peace;
- Information about the international legal context;
- Bibliographical and other references on corporal punishment and research;
- A dictionary of research terms.

The structure, and how to use it

The Research Handbook is divided into four parts:

- Questions
Part I answers some frequently-asked questions about research, physical punishment and the ethics of research with children on a sensitive topic. This will be particularly useful for programme managers who are unsure about research in general, as well as for all those who are either unsure about what is meant by 'physical punishment' or unaccustomed to research with children.
- Research
The first two chapters of Part II deal with some basic issues in research, children's rights in research and what is meant by terms such as 'action research', 'participatory research' and 'children-focused'. The principles and practices of ethical

research are also outlined. The third chapter examines what these issues entail with respect to research on the physical punishment of children. Taken together, these chapters outline the perspective taken by the Handbook as a whole and will be useful for any reader intending to embark on research on the physical and emotional punishment of children.

- Twelve steps

Part III, the core of the Handbook, is a detailed 'how to' explanation of the twelve steps required for scientific research on the physical and emotional punishment of children, from conception to dissemination of results. Programme managers and researchers need to follow these steps together, taking joint responsibility for some tasks and bearing separate responsibility for others, but all aiming to understand the process as a whole.

- Tool Kit

The Tool Kit contains both examples of research methods and tools and essential background information, including the international legal background and bibliographies of references to research as well as to research on the physical and emotional punishment of children. This Part of the Handbook is a set of resources that support research processes based on the twelve steps, and will be useful for both programme managers and researchers at various stages in the research process.

Just as there is no single reader envisaged, so there is no one way to use this book. It is not envisaged that anyone should read it from start to finish, for it is intended as a resource that can be kept at hand throughout more than one research process, and consulted as a reference when needed.

PART I

FREQUENTLY-ASKED QUESTIONS

FREQUENTLY-ASKED QUESTIONS

What is social research?

‘Social research’ means any process of finding out about social life and can have many different aims, varying from satisfying curiosity to testing ideas, planning actions and evaluating outcomes. Social research is increasingly used as the basis of programme and policy development.

Social research is carried out in order to collect information (data) for many different purposes. Programme managers need information to find out about different groups of people, their situations, their problems and the causes of those problems, their ideas, how well programmes work and their impact. The information is used for designing and evaluating programmes as well as in advocacy and awareness raising.

Are questionnaires more scientific than participatory approaches?

No research method is superior to any other. More than one method should always be used in order to cross-check results and compare data from different methods and social groups. Questionnaires are poor methods of research if they are used on their own, or at the beginning of research, and they are not good methods to use with children at any time.

Information may be both qualitative (words and images) or quantitative (numbers and statistics). These two types of information are mutually supporting, and equally important. It is impossible to collect quantitative data without first having definitions of what the numbers mean. For example, to count the number of children who are physically punished it is first necessary to describe (define in words) a child, and the types of punishment used on children (perhaps in drawings and

photographs as well as words). Descriptions are the basis of numbers, which means that qualitative data must be collected first. No research method is necessarily either qualitative or quantitative. The quality of research depends on how well methods are used and analysed rather than on whether numbers or descriptions are used.

Why do we need 12 steps?

Children have the right to expect that all research about their lives, including their opinions and experiences, uses appropriate methods and is of a high standard. Programme managers need valid, replicable research results for planning and monitoring interventions. The twelve steps in this Handbook are a means of ensuring that every research project on the physical punishment of children is systematic, carried out using the same processes, so that research is of the highest possible standard, producing valid results that are a sound basis for programming decisions.

In addition, if data are collected using replicable research tools, which researchers can use in the same way in different places and at different times, it is possible to produce valid numerical ('quantitative') data from 'participatory approaches' using methods such as drawing and role play.

This Resource Handbook explains a variety of research methods and their use, as well as how to design research on physical punishment of children. By following the Handbook step by step, basic descriptive and numerical data can be gathered and analysed. Information from the methods described in the Tool Kit can be used to design action programmes, provided the research steps have been followed systematically.

Why is physical punishment a problem?

Physical punishment is a severe form of violence against children that violates their rights as human beings to respect, dignity, equal protection of the law and protection from all forms of violence (Box 2).

Although physical punishment is not always recognised as violence, and often thought of as a necessary part of child-rearing and education, it is a form of child abuse that causes widespread physical and emotional harm.

Physical punishment gives children the message that violence is an appropriate form of conflict resolution, it teaches that it is acceptable for powerful people to be violent towards the weak.

Box 2: Save the Children position on corporal/physical punishment and other forms of humiliating or degrading punishment

The International Save the Children Alliance works towards eliminating all forms of control and punishment of children, which breach their fundamental human rights.

We are committed to work towards eliminating, through education, legal reform and other measures, all forms of control and punishment of children, in the family, schools and other settings, which breach children's fundamental rights to respect for their physical integrity and human dignity.

In addition, children all over the world spontaneously identify violent punishment as one of the main problems in their lives.

But surely children have to be disciplined?

Children need to be raised so that they understand and follow social rules. But it is not necessary to hit or otherwise abuse them in order to teach them. Evidence shows that girls and boys respond better to positive approaches, including negotiation and systems of rewards, rather than punishment. Children also state a preference for having their mistakes and offences explained to them, as well as for punishments that are appropriate to the offence, do not cause physical or psychological harm, and do not reflect adult power.

Corporal punishment transmits the implicit message that force is appropriate for controlling the weak, and thus helps to continue violent means of conflict resolution in both domestic and public life:

When we treat children in ways that take away their dignity we teach them how to take away another's dignity (Leo, 2003, 6);

When children get angry the first thing they are likely to do is hit the other person. Often they are encouraged to hit other children by their own parents so that they do not grow up to be weak. 'My mother said if someone hits me I should hit them right back or else I will be taken advantage of' (Chakraborty, 2003, 20).

The alternative message is that non-violence is a choice founded on absolute respect for human beings:

To chose to speak rather than leave things unsaid;
To chose to speak rather than resorting to violent confrontation;
To chose to speak rather than submit to violent confrontation;
To chose non-violent words that 'call for dialogue' (Verdiani, 2002, 39).

Isn't the idea of promoting alternatives to physical punishment a Western imposition? What about traditional Asian values?

Asian societies depend on age-related status hierarchies and the idea that the young should serve and obey older people. Although physical punishment is widespread in Asia, there is no necessary connection between traditional belief systems and violence against children. On the contrary, two core values of Asian societies are maintaining social harmony and learning to use mental powers to discipline the body. Traditional models can be used to develop alternative forms of child rearing that do not include violence.

What does 'physical punishment of children' actually mean?

Save the Children has a definition of physical punishment (Box 3).

Box 3: Save the Children definition of corporal/physical punishment and other forms of humiliating or degrading punishment

We identify two categories of punishments that can occur separately or together:

- Corporal or physical punishment and the threat of it includes hitting the child with the hand or with an object (such as a cane, belt, whip, shoes); kicking, shaking, or throwing the child, pinching or pulling the hair; forcing the child to stay in uncomfortable or undignified positions, or to take excessive physical exercise; burning or scarring the child;
- Humiliating or degrading punishment takes various forms such as psychological punishment, verbal abuse, ridicule, isolation, or ignoring the child.

What is the difference between corporal punishment and physical punishment?

'Corps', which is the basis of 'corporal', means 'body', so 'physical punishment' means 'corporal punishment' and the Save the Children definition uses both terms. In Asia this can cause problems in translation, and 'corporal punishment' is often associated only with the police, the armed forces and punishments for criminals. This Resource Handbook uses the term 'physical punishment' most of the time in preference to 'corporal punishment'.

What does 'physical punishment' include?

Although there has not been much research on physical punishment, children tend to say that violent words can be as painful as a beating, and that physical punishment can take many forms, not just being slapped or hit with a stick. In this Handbook, 'physical punishment' includes:

Punishment or penalty for an offence, or imagined offence, and/or acts carried out for the purpose of discipline, training or control, inflicted on a child's body, by an adult (or adults) – or by another

child who has been given (or assumed) authority or responsibility for punishment or discipline. This includes:

- Direct assaults in the form of blows to any part of a child's body, such as beating, hitting, slapping or lashing, with or without the use of an instrument such as a cane, stick or belt;
- Other direct assaults on a child's body, such as pinching, pulling ears or hair, twisting joints, cutting and shaving hair, cutting or piercing skin, carrying or dragging a child against his or her will;
- Indirect assaults on a child's body, through using adult power, authority or threats to force a child to perform physically painful or damaging acts, such as holding a weight or weights for an extended period, kneeling on stones, standing or sitting in a contorted position;
- Deliberate neglect of a child's physical needs, where this is intended as punishment;
- Use of external substances, such as burning or freezing materials, water, smoke (including from smoldering peppers), excrement or urine, to inflict pain, fear, harm, disgust or loss of dignity;
- Use of hazardous tasks as punishment or for the purpose of discipline, including those that are beyond a child's strength or bring him or her into contact with dangerous or unhygienic substances; such tasks include sweeping or digging in the hot sun, using bleach or insecticides, unprotected cleaning of toilets;
- Confinement, including being shut in a confined space, tied up, or forced to remain in one place for an extended period of time;
- Any other act perpetrated on a child's body, for the purpose of punishment or discipline, which children themselves define as corporal punishment in the context of their own language and culture; identified through scientific participatory research with children;
- Witnessing any form of violent conflict resolution;
- Threats of physical punishment.

This definition is independent of whether the intention, implicit or explicit, is a 'benevolent' desire to improve a child's morals or behaviour, or designed to cause harm. It is the acts themselves that define physical punishment. While many such acts may have damaging psychological or emotional effects on children, this is not part of this definition, although verbally violent threat of physical

punishment is included. Emotional punishments (such as verbal assaults and denigration intended to reduce a child's esteem or dignity) are not specifically included in this definition, even though it is acknowledged that these, too, should be eliminated and may be prevented by non violent forms of conflict resolution and child rearing.

Is physical punishment the same as child abuse?

Corporal punishment is one form of child abuse, it is not a separate phenomenon. However, some programmers in some Asian countries have found it easier to refer to 'child abuse' than to 'corporal punishment' or physical punishment.

Why do we need research on the physical and emotional punishment of children?

The short answer is so that we can improve campaigning and programming. Information about the physical punishment of children is scarce, even in developed countries. In Southeast, East Asia and the Pacific there is evidence of violence against children in homes, schools, at the workplace, on the streets, in orphanages, detention centers and prisons, by parents, teachers, other children, community members, employers, the general public and people who have authority over children.

This violence is widespread and, to a large extent, condoned by society and permitted by legislation. Reliable, comprehensive information is required in order to raise awareness of the problem, change behaviour and reform legislation.

Is it ethical to ask children about painful experiences?

It is not ethical to ask children direct questions about painful experiences, using poorly-designed research tools (particularly questionnaires and interviews) and without their informed consent.

Children should not feel obliged to answer questions from adults just because adults are more powerful. They need to know why research is taking place, what they will be asked and how. They should be aware that they can refuse to answer questions without any negative consequences. They should also know how information will be used and be sure that whatever they tell researchers will be confidential.

Indirect data-collection methods allow children the option of withholding information, or provide them with the possibility of responding in ways that do not dredge up painful experiences and cause further harm. Such methods include drawings, role plays and the use of puppets – all ways in which children can externalise experiences without reliving them. The pain ‘happens’ to the puppet or character in the drama, it is not happening to the child.

In addition, some methods of promoting positive thoughts in children at the end of a data collection session can be a routine part of the research process (Tool Kit 4).

What happens if a child is distressed by a research method?

Researchers should stop the method immediately and comfort the child if possible. However, if a child weeps about a past painful experience this may not be harmful. It may be healing if this is the first time a child has been able to talk about a painful experience, be listened to and be believed.

Nevertheless, all research on sensitive issues should ideally include details of where to refer a child or adult who becomes overwhelmingly distressed.

What happens if research reveals a serious case of abuse?

This is a dilemma that applies particularly to research with children, and brings with it the possibility that researchers may have to breach confidentiality in order to rescue a child from an abusive situation.

Nevertheless, researchers should not normally take individual or impulsive action. Confidentiality need not be breached if a researcher asks a child what action he or she would like to be taken, and outlines the options available. If the abused child has been part of a group of children involved in research, the entire group could be given advice about where to go for help.

Each case should be dealt with on its merits.

How can we make sure that information remains confidential?

Researchers should ensure that all data are kept in a safe place where they cannot be accessed by people outside the research team.

Data on individuals or identifiable groups should not be discussed outside the research team.

All research team members should sign an undertaking that they will keep information confidential (including managers, translators and people who transcribe audio recordings).

How do we plan research?

How does this link with children's rights programming?

Children's rights programming should be based on good quality information, obtained using rights-based methods, which means that ethical principles should be observed, appropriate methods must be found for children to provide their opinions and children should be progressively involved in research processes – from devising research questions to disseminating results.

What is the process?

The twelve steps approach has been shown to be a realistic way of designing and carrying out research on a variety of topics and in a variety of social and cultural contexts (Part III).

What training is needed?

Programme managers may like to provide capacity-building opportunities throughout the research process for both stakeholders and researchers. Researchers with specific kinds of skills can often provide training. Workshops in which researchers and others can learn through concrete experience are usually arranged for:

- Development of research questions (Step 1);
- Protocol development (Steps 4-6);
- Analysis of data from the first stage of data collection (Step 8);
- Final analysis (Step 10);
- Report writing (Step 11).

How long will it take?

From Step 1 to Step 12 seldom takes less than a year, although this depends on the scale of the project. Research planners should understand that Steps 1-6 and 10-11 will take far longer than data collection (Steps 7-9, Toolkit 7).

Who should we recruit to do this research?

Recruit researchers who understand and have a commitment to children's rights, who may be staff of Save the Children members or partners, and who are willing to work as a team to design and carry out all stages of the research.

In the twelve steps process there are no lead researchers and no research assistants, but research team members may have a variety of backgrounds, educational levels, experiences and skills. They should complement each other rather than be a team with identical members (Step 2).

What will it cost?

This depends on national levels of fees and other costs. Programme managers should not only budget for payments for researchers but also allocate sufficient resources for administrative support, space for team members to work together (including secure storage for data and computer access), transport, accommodation (if data are to be collected away from the home base), reproduction of protocols and other research materials, data inputting for numerical information, and printing and distributing reports (Tool Kit 7).

PART II

RESEARCH BASICS

Definitions

Data – Information (collected by a researcher).

Data collection – Gathering information through surveys, interviews, experiments, library records, or other methods.

Qualitative data – Information in the form of words and images.

Quantitative data – Information in the form of numbers and statistics.

CHAPTER I

RESEARCH

In this chapter you can read about

The principles of action-oriented, participatory research
Children's right to be properly researched

Definitions

Action-oriented research – Research that leads to action (similar to applied research). Such research is carried out by or on behalf of organisations as the first step of planning and implementing projects.

Ownership – When people understand and take part in processes of collecting data they have confidence in the results and see them as something they own or possess; they feel that the research was theirs and that they are taking decisions on the basis of the results.

Participatory research – Research done by people in order to understand (and challenge) the problems they are facing. For example, children research their own situation to bring about change.

Participant – Person (child or adult) who takes part in participatory research. In conventional research they would be referred to as 'informants' or 'respondents'.

Triangulation – The systematic comparison of data from different research tools and groups of participants in order to increase the validity of research analysis. An essential part of valid research.

Stakeholders – People who have an interest or role ('stake') in an activity, event or organisation. In research with children, stakeholders can include teachers, parents and other relatives, social workers and other professionals, community leaders, NGOs and their staff and volunteers, and children themselves.

The first stage in any research is understanding what it will be used for and the basic principles of data collection. These determine the type of research and the process of data collection. Information about the physical and emotional punishment of children will be collected by Save the Children members and partner organisations in order to

take actions that will lead to the abolition of this violence. This means that the research will be 'action-oriented'. The research itself will also be rights-based, which means that children will participate in the research. This chapter examines what these ideas and principles mean in practice.

Action-oriented research

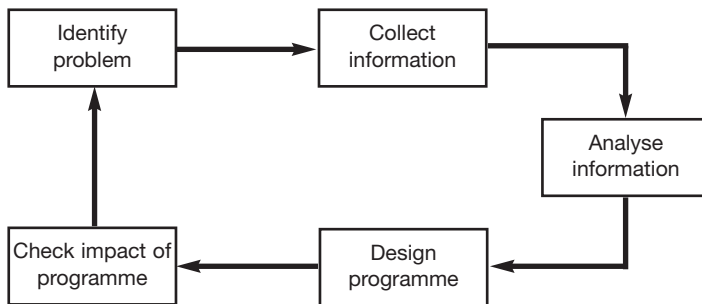
Despite the scarcity of data for Southeast, East Asia and the Pacific, a review of the available research indicates that violence against children in their own homes is a severe problem, committed not only by mothers and fathers but also by step-parents, grandparents, siblings, guardians, caregivers and neighbours, being linked to the traditional subordinate status of children in many countries. In schools, non formal and informal learning environments, teachers and other school staff commit violent acts upon children, incompatible with their human rights, in the name of discipline. Bullying is an emerging problem in many countries in the region; girls and children from ethnic minorities seem to be the most frequent targets. Institutional violence, which includes punishment in orphanages and other residential settings, and in the justice system (police stations, detention centers, prisons, immigration centres and remand centres) may take extreme forms such as torture. Street children in urban centres are vulnerable to violence from gangs, police, each other and the general public. Violence against children in the workplace is little recorded, except in the case of child domestic workers, but is also believed to be widespread (Sandvik-Nylund, 2003).

Accurate information is needed in order to identify the most urgent problems and the most successful ways to intervene, and to check the impact of projects and programmes. The word 'research' is often associated with academic research, which sets out to prove or disprove a theory. Action-oriented research is different. It collects information needed to design practical solutions to practical problems. It is a continuous process of collecting information, analysing what it means, designing programmes based on it and collecting further information in order to check the results.

Action-oriented research is conducted exclusively for the purpose of designing successful action programmes based on research results. Researchers do not normally take action during the course of research; they provide information to those who do. Actions can be started before the conclusion of the research process, as soon as information is sufficiently convincing.

Thus, action-oriented research is a continuous process, based on the need to take action to improve people's lives (Diagram 1). This distinguishes it from other research, which usually takes place to provide information or data to add to existing knowledge.

Diagram 1: The action-oriented research process



Action-oriented research is generally structured by

A set of questions ('research questions')

Drawn up by people (or organisations),

Who need to know the answers in order to start or improve projects and programmes.

A participatory and children-centred approach is the only way to obtain reliable information from children themselves.

Box 4: Results of action-oriented research can be used to:

- Ratify international agreements and systematically monitor progress in their implementation;
- Change national laws and policies in line with international agreements;
- Strengthen law enforcement and make it more children-sensitive;
- Raise public awareness about the harm done by the physical punishment of children;
- Change attitudes towards discipline, in order to influence and improve behaviours and practices;
- Prevent the physical punishment of children;
- Disseminate information about non violent discipline;
- Promote a culture of peaceful conflict resolution;
- Provide education that is free from fear;
- Identify children at special risk, taking into account the special situation of girls and children with disabilities, in order to protect them;
- Remove children from abusive situations;
- Rehabilitate and re-integrate abused children.

Children's rights in research

Rights-based programming should be based on information from rights-based research. In the case of children, rights-based programming has to take into consideration some of the differences between children and adults, which affect not only their rights in general but also their rights in research processes (Theis, 2004).

Children are not 'objects of concern' but subjects of human rights, as made clear in all United Nations human rights documents, including the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC – see International Legal Background in Tool Kit). This has practical implications for research. A child who is beaten also has a family, has health and education needs and experiences, is a user (or potential user) of services such as housing, water and sanitation. Research therefore needs to take the whole lives of children into account and not merely concentrate on a single aspect, such as whether or not they are physically punished.

All Asian countries are parties to the CRC, which means that research with children should cover the age range 0 to 18 years. The rights in the CRC also mean that all decisions taken by adults on behalf of children should be taken in their best interests and with their

opinions progressively taken into account as they develop the ability to express themselves. Research must use methods that help children to express their ideas and make sure that they do not suffer any harm as the result of being research participants (Box 5).

Box 5: The right to be properly researched	
Article	What it means for research
Article 3 3 'States Parties shall ensure that the institutions, services and facilities responsible for the care or protection of children shall conform with the standards established by competent authorities, particularly in the areas of safety, health, the numbers and suitability of their staff, as well as competent supervision'.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research must conform to the highest possible scientific standards; • Researchers must be carefully recruited and supervised.
Article 12 1. 'States Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child'.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children's perspectives and opinions must be integral to research.
Article 13 1. 'The child shall have the right to freedom of expression; this right shall include freedom to seek, receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either orally, in writing or in print, in the form of art, or through any other media of the child's choice'.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Methods need to be found, and used, to help children to express their perspectives and opinions freely in research.
Article 36 'protects children against 'all...forms of exploitation prejudicial to any aspects of the child's welfare'.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children must not be harmed or exploited through taking part in research.

Action-oriented research promotes children's participation in research because it:

- Supports children's rights to express themselves, to be heard and to have their opinions respected;

- Develops children's ability to understand their situation;
- Develops children's ability to protect themselves, for example from abuse;
- Gives adults greater respect for children and their rights;
- Decreases power inequalities between children and adults;
- Helps adults understand children better;
- Improves the quality of research results;
- Changes the power relationships between children and researchers;
- Helps develop better policies and programmes for children.

Participatory research

Participation is one of the fundamental rights of human beings and is increasingly important in programming and project work at community level for most organisations. The principle of participation is that people are involved in decision making and the management of their own lives.

Participatory research means that all the people and organisations that will be affected by the information collected (and implementation of recommendations based on research) are fully involved in the research process. The collective name of these people and organisations is 'stakeholders' because they have a stake (interest) in research and its outcome. Stakeholders in action-oriented research on the physical punishment of children, include children, parents, communities, government agencies, donors, intergovernmental organisations (such as UNICEF, UNESCO and WHO), non governmental organisations (NGOs) and media.

The principle of participatory research is that the people whose lives are being studied should be involved in defining the research questions and also take an active part in both collecting and analysing the data. Participation is a process in which 'ownership of the problem' is increasingly shared between researchers and researched. In the first instance, researchers are likely to own the research problem and design the research, using methods that enable stakeholders to express themselves. Working directly with stakeholders (including children), and gradually handing over responsibility to them for

setting the research agenda, will change the role of researchers to 'facilitators', and turn the research process into a joint project.

The strength of using participatory approaches lies in the fact that researchers will be able to gain access to children and bring their problems to public notice. It is unlikely that satisfactory assessments of vulnerable groups of children could be made using any other approach. This takes time, but is cost-effective in the long run because better programmes result from participatory research. However, programme managers need to be prepared to convince donors that the greater funds and time required for participatory research amount to a wise investment.

Cross-checking: 'Triangulation'

A number of approaches can be used to identify problems and draw up research questions. But the information from different methods of data collection must be cross-checked. This is a process that scientific terminology calls 'triangulation'. It is a feature of all reliable research, from identifying the problem, to drawing up research questions, to research design and analysis. In this Resource Handbook, triangulation is often referred to by the simpler term 'cross-checking'. This avoids the mistaken belief that triangulation has something to do with triangles, which it does not, or that three methods must be used in the research design. Good research needs many more.

Whatever the level or stage in research, the main approach to cross-checking consists of comparing and contrasting. In other words, researchers need to examine the extent to which information gathered by different methods (and with different researchers or participants) is the same, or different, and explaining why this is so. Comparing different research studies on the same topic can produce new understanding because different research methods complement each other. Together they can achieve more than separately (Box 6).

In the early stages of research, cross-checking between different reports and sets of existing data means taking into account the different methods, definitions and assumptions used. If there is insufficient information available, another way of cross-checking is to

hold meetings of stakeholders from different government departments, NGOs and target communities (children and adults, men and women), and people with a range of professional backgrounds and experience, such as in health, psychology, law, or education.

Box 6: Cross-checking (triangulation) in practice

Three slum communities located in different geographical areas ... were selected for this study. The criteria for the selection process included socio-economic conditions, religion, gender and immigrant groups. In each area, a local NGO was asked to assist in the study by providing space for research to be conducted as well as staff and resource support.

Each local NGO had one, or several, non formal education centres, community centres or working groups where children, and in some cases parents and other community members, could meet and learn. In each of these centres a randomly selected group of over 50 children, aged 5 to 17 years, participated in various group and individual activities. Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were utilised: art, open-ended/semi-structured interviews, debates, large group discussions and focus group discussions were all used to obtain information on violence from the perspective of children and other community members.

Source: Chakraborty, 2003.

Main ideas in Chapter 1

- Action-oriented research is conducted explicitly for the purpose of developing programmes based on research results;
- When the results of action-oriented research are sufficiently convincing, action plans can be designed, even if the research process is not complete;
- Participatory research is the most effective foundation of action-oriented research, because participants have ownership of the results and actions taken;
- Triangulation, or cross-checking data from different sources, is essential for research to be reliable and valid.

RESEARCH WITH CHILDREN

In this chapter you can read about

Children and childhood

Ethical principles in research with children

The challenges of participatory research with children

Appropriate research methods to use with children

How to begin making contact with children in participatory research

Definitions

Child – Human being less than 18 years of age.

Childhood – Variable and culturally-defined life stage, before adult roles and responsibilities.

Children-centred – Children-centred research concentrates on understanding children's views, opinions, experiences and perspectives. Children-centred programmes focus on children and their best interests. Children-centred statistics are statistics in which the data are presented (for example in tables) so that they focus on children, rather than adults, households, institutions or services.

Ethics – Moral principles or rules of conduct.

Informed consent – Agreement to voluntary participation by a participant in research, based on the person fully understanding the goals, methods, benefits and risks of the study. Informed consent is given on the understanding that the participant can change his or her mind about taking part in the study at any time.

Children are immature human beings, defined in international law as being less than 18 years of age. Childhood is a stage in the life cycle before full adult roles and responsibilities are assumed. It is recognised everywhere as a time when children need special care and protection, together with preparation for adult life. Nevertheless, every culture has different words for various stages in childhood, and expectations about what children can and should do at each stage. These must be investigated and taken into account in research design.

To a large extent, research with children is the same as research with adults (Box 7). Children are capable and knowledgeable, and they are no more likely to lie or exaggerate than adult participants.

Box 7: Children in research compared to adults	
Children:	But children also:
Have less power than adults; Are more vulnerable; Know less about consequences; May feel unable to say 'no'; Are less able to defend their own interests; May be less able to use words.	Have valid perspectives; Have valid knowledge; Are good informants; Are no more unreliable than adults.
<i>Source: Boyden and Ennew, 1997.</i>	

Children-centred

Research, programmes and statistics are sometimes called 'children-centred'. Research described as 'children-centred' (or 'children-focused') concentrates on children's views in order to design, implement and evaluate programmes, using methods that help children to share their own ideas, thoughts and memories. But, in line with the CRC and all human rights philosophy, which regards family as the proper environment for child rearing, children's-rights programming also 'considers children in the broader context of family, community and national and international policies' (Theis, 2004, 7).

Children-centred research and programming do not mean working only with children and ignoring adults. They mean putting children into

the picture. All communities consist of adults and children, men and women. Most early social science research focused on men, and left women and children in the shadows. By focusing on women, feminist research since the 1960s has shown that they have different perspectives to men that are equally valid. Research that focuses on children's experiences and perspectives completes the community picture.

Adults do not always know what children are doing and thinking, and they are likely to hide, deny or misrepresent children's experiences of punishment. Asking parents and teachers will not usually provide good information about children's thoughts and activities. Researchers should think back to their own childhoods – did their parents always know what they were doing or thinking? Would they have told their parents if they asked? Did parents sometimes annoy them by giving other adults incorrect information about their likes, dislikes and other feelings? Did their parents or teachers punish them without asking the reasons why they had done something wrong? Or without explaining the reason for the punishment?

'Children-led' research

Allied to the principle of children's participation in research, and the need to be children-centred, a recent phenomenon in the region has been claims that, when children participate in various ways, research is 'child-led'. However, unless children initiate research, separately from adults, and take a leadership role with respect to research design, analysis and dissemination of results, the process cannot be said to be 'child-led'. The ultimate aim of children's participation in research is that leadership should come from children. The fact that children are consulted by adults at various points in the research process, while praiseworthy, does not mean that the research is child-led; research questions, aims and outcomes remain adult-led.

Rights-based research: Ethics and methods

Thus, children's rights have two practical consequences for child research:

- Children must be protected during research by an ethical strategy,
- Research methods must be found that enable children to describe their experiences and express their views.

Children have less power, less information about the world outside their community and less knowledge about the long term consequences of their actions. They may feel unable to say 'No, I do not want to take part in this research' and they do not usually have the same confidence with words as adults. Research methods must be found that help children to express themselves – methods that reduce children's relative lack of power and any problems they have with words.

Adults normally have power over children, which is reflected in the freedom they have to hit and otherwise abuse them. But it is also

Box 8: Child-led or adult-led?

The group from China used their experiences in Anhui and Yunnan provinces to outline the logistics for research to involve children in research on physical punishment in five stages – planning, training, implementation, analysis and evaluation:

- Planning and preparation: Identify research goal, objectives, scope, scale, target group, partners providing support, resources needed and research methods (for example role plays or questionnaires), equipment required (for example, cameras, recorders); work out informed consent issues (through partners, to build consensus), work out confidentiality issues, especially for outside researchers;
- Organise a training workshop for young facilitators. Discuss information and views on community background and key issues; Identify best ways for the young people to do the research themselves;
- Implementation: Young people collect information from other children and report findings in follow up meetings. Provide technical and other support to them to help overcome obstacles;
- Analysis of research results: – Young facilitators report back to sub-meetings and workshops and present data. Findings analysed together with the young people to identify the issues that need to be addressed;
- Evaluation of research itself: Problems that arise from the research that need to be addressed/followed up with strategies are addressed.

Source: International Save the Children Alliance SEAP Region, 2004.

important to remember other power relationships that may affect the relationships between researchers and children (and their communities). These include differences of gender, race, ethnicity, education, wealth, class and caste. All power relationships have implications for research with all human beings – whatever their age. Children are often punished by older children – older siblings for example, or school monitors.

Eight ethical rules

Maintaining a code of ethics during any research process is essential. Researchers are responsible for making sure that research will do no harm to children, that participation in research is voluntary and that children agree to any subsequent action programmes as well as to the dissemination of research materials and results. There are eight essential ethical rules. All research should have a written ethical strategy in the protocol, based on these rules, which researchers agree to abide by at all times. Programme managers and researchers should note that although adhering to these rules may be time-consuming and may not always be easy, it must be done in order to protect children and ensure that their rights are not violated. Practical examples of how this can be done are provided in the Tool Kit (Tool Kit 2).

Rule 1: All research participation must be voluntary

‘Voluntary participation’ means that informed consent to taking part in research using any method must be obtained from research participants. Informed consent means that a participant has consented to taking part in research after being informed of and understanding:

- Research aims;
- Research methods and processes;
- Research topics;
- What the data will be used for;
- That it is possible to withdraw from the research at any time.

‘Informed consent’ might be better thought of as ‘informed refusal’.

No participant should be enticed, persuaded or intimidated into giving consent. When a child says 'No, I do not want to take part in this research', adults must respect this decision.

Because of the special position of children in society it is necessary to seek the permission of a parent, or guardian as well as the individual consent of a child. But the consent of an adult alone is not sufficient. Researchers must ask children themselves and not rely on a parent or teacher to say that consent has been granted. The implication is that children-friendly explanations must be devised, suitable for children of different ages and educational backgrounds. Although this may take time it is not only important for ethical reasons but will result in materials that can be used later to disseminate information about the results of research to a wide range of children (Tool Kit 2).

It is also not sufficient only to inform children and adults about the research. Researchers are obliged to make sure that research participants understand before they agree to take part. When working with children it helps to ask them to repeat back, in their own words, what they have been informed about the research, so that misunderstandings can be corrected.

Rule 2: Protect research participants from harm

Researchers are responsible for protecting all research participants from any emotional or physical harm that might result from the research, and to protect their rights and interests. This means judging whether the potential risks to the participants are worth taking; the risk that a child will be further punished for talking to a researcher, for example. Obviously, this rule is particularly important in research with children about physical punishment. Research that seems to put children at risk must stop immediately.

Harm can also arise from research methods that cause children to remember distressing experiences or feelings. It is not always possible to guess in advance what might be emotionally or psychologically hurtful to someone else – least of all a child. Arrangements for contacting counsellors or other means of emotional support should

be part of the research plan, as well as access to advice and support if researchers feel they must remove a child from a family for his or her own safety.

Programme managers and researchers also have to ensure that children are safe from possible abuse by researchers. They need to check references and police records when recruiting, and monitor researchers' field activities. Researchers should work in pairs, preferably a woman with a man, with sexually exploited children, who must never be alone with a male researcher.

Rule 3: Ensure the safety of researchers

Research on physical punishment of children, may put researchers at risk, especially when investigating behaviour that breaks the law. Child abusers may take violent exception to questions about their activities. However, in general, research on the physical punishment of children will not result in danger for researchers unless they are examining punishment in connection with sexual exploitation or trafficking, for example.

Nevertheless, data collection often takes place far from home, where researchers are strangers who may raise suspicions by asking sensitive questions. To be on the safe side, programme managers and researchers should discuss and try to deal with any potential risks, including health risks. Some basic ground rules are that individual researchers should:

- Make sure that their colleagues, friends and family members know where they are and what they are doing each day;
- Think about the safest form of transport;
- Ensure that clothing is appropriate;
- Take into account any specific health risks in the research area;
- Avoid carrying valuables;
- Carry documentation for establishing identity and credibility as a researcher;
- Always obtain permission and support from local authorities and inform community leaders and local organisations that the research is taking place and what it will involve.

Rule 4: Respect cultural traditions, knowledge and customs

Researchers must always respect and adhere to local codes of dress and behaviour. They should learn how people greet, thank, eat and ask questions as well as status rules such as who speaks first or sits first. Local customs, food and dress should not be criticised. Researchers should not act as if they are teachers or instructors, and they must not give children information about things they do not know and are not yet ready to know.

Rule 5: Create as much equality as possible

The power inequalities between researchers and participants (both adult and children) should be decreased as far as possible:

- Use children-centred research methods (Tool Kit 3);
- Use words that research participants understand;
- Develop research approaches that are sensitive to children's ways of behaving and thinking;
- Allow sufficient time, especially for building trust.

Rule 6: Avoid raising unrealistic expectations

Researchers must be clear and honest about the research and what will be done with the information gathered, always keeping promises made to children, adults and communities and not making promises that cannot be fulfilled, especially about future action programmes. It is best not to give money to research participants, since this can raise expectations and lead to tensions in a community. It may also result in researchers being told what the participants think they want to hear. On the other hand, working children who spend time with researchers may lose income as a result. Adults and children who travel some distance to take part in a focus group discussion should be offered refreshments; a hungry child will not be able to participate well in a research method. Any compensation to participants (whether money or food) should be agreed between researchers as part of the research plan. Payments, refreshments and gifts must be recorded in researchers' daily diaries, especially on any occasions when they spontaneously provide money or refreshments.

Rule 7: Respect privacy

Always ask children's permission to use their stories and pictures; the permission of adults, parents, teachers and project staff is not sufficient. Respect children's decisions if they refuse to be interviewed or photographed. Ask children and adults if they can spare the time to participate in research. Do not violate a participant's privacy by asking insensitive questions or by probing for information when it is clear that a child or adult would prefer not to answer.

Rule 8: Ensure confidentiality and anonymity

Protect the identity of participants by changing their names and, if necessary, the name of their community, in research reports and other publications. Researchers have a duty to anticipate ways in which the confidentiality of participants could be put at risk. When in doubt, they should discuss the issue with the children or adults involved. As far as possible, share research results with participants before making them public and seek their consent to plans for distributing publications or communication information. This is especially important with respect to videos or photographs, in which it is difficult to hide the identity of participants.

Organisations that use research information in awareness-raising campaigns and advocacy sometimes exaggerate facts in order to attract more publicity. Get feedback from participants on publications, advertisements, newspaper reports and television and radio broadcasts before sharing their personal or community stories. In addition:

- Acknowledge children's authorship and ownership of the research product (drawings or essays for example), if this is their wish;
- Do not identify individual children or groups of children unless they have given their permission and it is certain that they will be protected from future exploitation;
- Do not use negative or degrading images of children either in pictures or in words;
- Analyse the facts, do not exaggerate or use unnecessarily emotional language.

Special ethical challenges of research on the physical punishment of children

It is not always easy to make contact with children to find out about physical punishment. Parents and teachers may refuse access to children, and it is particularly difficult to reach children in institutional care (such as orphanages) and detention facilities. Children may be under the control of teachers or may be too busy to talk to researchers. Research can be dangerous for these children. They may be afraid to talk because they risk being punished by parents or teachers. There are also risks for researchers themselves if they appear to be challenging deeply-felt beliefs, or parental authority.

A particular problem of research on physical punishment is that those most vulnerable to its incidence and effects are younger and smaller children, who may not be able to express their opinions or talk about their experiences and are seldom outside the supervision of their caretakers. This may mean that the only data that can be collected will be from adults or older children recalling past experiences, or anecdotal accounts from neighbours or other observers, or clinic and hospital records of non accidental injuries.

Some children, who are especially vulnerable to physical punishment, particularly trafficked, migrating, street children, scavengers, beggars and sexually exploited children, are very mobile and it may be possible to contact them fleetingly, occasionally or once only. Information on these groups, like the children themselves, may also be hidden.

Although it is always best to get information directly from children, this may prove to be too sensitive. It may be easier and safer to interview young adults about their experiences of discipline in their childhoods. They may be less afraid to share information, but it can still be distressing for them to talk about and relive their experiences. Both children and adults may become emotionally upset when talking about their experiences of violence. When this happens, researchers may not be able to deal with the situation or become frustrated because they cannot do anything immediate to help the situation. Within a research team, these problems should be discussed and researchers should develop ways in which they can support each other, as well as having contacts with appropriate sources of counselling and other support.

There is no agreement among researchers about whether and how to interview children who are being abused. Each research team must resolve this ethical dilemma. To avoid causing further emotional harm to children by questioning them about painful experiences, some researchers prefer to work with what are sometimes called 'proxy (substitute) informants', whose experiences provide insight into the children's lives. With respect to physical punishment these might include not only young adults, but also older people in general, school inspectors, medical staff and psychologists. Even if children are involved in the research, these 'proxy informants' should still be included whenever possible, because their opinions and experiences are valuable sources of information.

Some adults who work with children may not want to attract the attention of outsiders, or may be forbidden through the terms of their employment to have contact with researchers. Staff in orphanages and detention centres, and police are cases in point. Personal contacts, built up over time, can make it possible to meet people who would not normally talk to researchers, for example staff of reform schools for juvenile delinquents. Often it is most effective to use community members or inmates (children or adults) to collect data for the research team. But this means taking time to train them to use research tools properly. Children who are familiar with the research population and area can keep a lower profile than adult outsiders, but researchers are responsible for making sure that children are not sent into dangerous situations and do not take personal risks in order to get information.

When it is impossible to gain access to child participants openly, researchers may be tempted to collect data secretly. But secret research is unethical. The researcher collects data by cheating the research participants, the abuser or both. Data collected in this way are also not reliable. For example, a male researcher who pretends to be a client in order to put questions to a child prostitute will not only be acting unethically, he will also get unreliable answers. In addition, if someone who wishes to discredit the research accuses a researcher of 'sexual abuse' it is very difficult to prove that he did not have sexual relations with a child. Secret research is dangerous for everyone and should be avoided.

Suitable methods for research with children

Research methods must allow children to express their own views, experiences and perceptions and help children to do this in a variety of ways. Children (and adults) have different abilities and experiences. Verbal methods (interviews and discussions) may not work with younger children. Drawings and other visual methods, such as diagrams, photographs, drawings, as well as role plays, recall, ranking and focus group discussions can be helpful alternatives, but it is important to be sure that methods are understood and do not offend cultural rules. It is vital that all participants work voluntarily with researchers and feel free to say 'No'. Research methods are described in more detail in the Tool Kit, where it will be explained that secondary data collection, keeping a research diary and continuous observation are the non-participatory basis for all research. Some research with both children and adults may also include interviews, surveys and questionnaires, but these should not be used until the later stages of research.

Some other social research methods are called 'participatory', but methods can be both participatory and non-participatory depending on how they are used. Questionnaires are often described as 'non-participatory', while collecting children's drawings is often described as a fundamentally participatory method. Yet a questionnaire can be participatory if children are involved in its design, and especially if they use it to do their own research. On the other hand, drawings or role plays can discourage children, if they have to follow adult instructions without understanding why this method is being used, and be completely non-participatory if children are not given the opportunity to explain what they have drawn and cannot be confident that researchers will not use the information, or drawings, in ways that might embarrass them or put them in danger.

The words used by children give important insights into their view of the world. Children have their own ways of talking, as do the members of communities in which they live. Researchers should use words that people understand and use in everyday speech, and be careful to avoid scientific terminology. The term 'child abuse', for example is relatively new in international organisations, so researchers should explore what children and other community

members think is unacceptable behaviour towards children, and the words they use for this behaviour in everyday life. Using this approach, researchers in The Philippines found that children described many kinds of physical abuse, often related to what adults regarded as good methods of discipline (Box 9). As already pointed out, using the term 'corporal punishment' can cause misunderstandings in Asian countries.

Box 9: Children's definitions of corporal punishment: The words they use in the Philippines

The children said the most abusive acts were inflicted when parents were disciplining them. These acts were actually disciplinary measures used by the parents but were perceived by the children as abuse. Among their examples:

1. Spanking (*pagpalo sa anak*). The children added that spanking is abusive when one faints because of the pain (*hinimatay sa sakit*); when they are spanked without reason (*pag pinalo nang walang kasalanan*); when they could die from the spanking (*maaring ikamatay*); when the beatings are too much (*sobra ang pagpalo*); and when spanking hurts the child (*nasasaktan ang bata*).
2. Being beaten up or mauled (*pagbugbog sa bata*). The children offered explicit descriptions of what they consider as pagbugbog: When a parent uses a stick of wood, belt, bat or broom to beat the child (*kapag gumamit ng dos por dos, sinturon, batuta, o wa; lis tingting*); incessant beatings (*hindi paghinto ng palo*); slaps on the face (*sampal*); punching (*suntok*); and being burned with a flat iron (*pinapaso ng plantsa*).
3. Being scolded or punished when a child did nothing wrong (*napapagalitan/napaparushanan nang walang kasalanan*). There were situations when the parents hurt the children without the latter knowing or understanding what they did wrong.
4. Humiliating the child in public (*ipinapahiya ang bata sa publiko*). Parents should not scold or berate their children in public. You must not scold a child in front of other people, this should be done at home (*hindi dapat ipahiya sa harap ng ibang tao, dapat sa bahay lang*). Some children disagreed and said they would prefer to be scolded, even in public, than be beaten up.
5. Being shouted and cursed at (*sinisigawan at minumura ng putang ina*). Some of the children said their parents shouted obscenities at them. The children said this hurt them most especially when they were berated for small mistakes.

De la Cruz et al, 2001, 82-83.

Challenges for both programme managers and researchers

An action-oriented, participatory research approach reduces the central role of researchers, who hand over increasing control to children and other research participants, involving them in defining the research agenda, choosing research questions, selecting and designing tools, collecting and analysing data, disseminating results and designing action plans and new research. At first this can be difficult for researchers to accept.

Research takes place in a world where important decisions are made by those with the most power (governments, elites, donors, international agencies). Those with the least power are usually separated from decision making. Research on physical punishment of children deals with some of the most powerless members of society and may challenge existing power relations within, and ideas about, the family. It may also produce data that do not easily fit into existing planning frameworks of government, donor agencies and your own organisation.

Research with children requires flexibility and more time than research with adults. Because children are rarely treated as equals by adults, they need time get used to a new kind of relationship with researchers. They have to learn to participate. In the same way, adults have to learn to treat children with respect and equality. In research in Java with children in prostitution, adult researchers initially only felt able to give young sex workers who participated in the research the task of entering information onto a computer. The girls enjoyed this, but their later comments on draft research methods made adults think again, and acknowledge and use the girls' competence and ideas.

Establishing trusting relationships with children

Much is written in research handbooks about establishing mutual understanding and trust (sometimes called 'rapport') as a precondition for good research, without explaining what this means and how to do it. Children and adults are unlikely to tell much about their lives, especially about the details of discipline in the family, to a stranger in answer to direct questions. This is one of the many reasons why questionnaires should never be used in the early days of a research process:

Trust is built
between people,
over time.

The main requirements are for researchers to be reliable and clear, to share at least some facts about their own lives, and never to tell lies or make promises they do not keep.

Box 10: Practical guidelines for research with children	
Do	Do not
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce yourself; • Create trust; • Use simple language; • Be patient; • Make sure you have adequate privacy when collecting data; • Be sensitive to a child's emotions; • Ask child for permission to do the research and use their time, drawings and opinions; • Keep children's views and answers to questions confidential; • Be flexible and creative; • Listen to and respect children's views; • Record exactly what children say; • Sit with children at the same level; • Be self-critical, reflect on your behaviour towards children; • Show interest and respect for children's opinions, knowledge and skills; • Let them do things for themselves, in their own way; • Be humble – respect children as partners; • Use methods that allow children to express their views, knowledge and skills. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Begin by asking direct questions, especially do not use questionnaires at the start of research; • Lecture children; • Rush research methods; • Criticise children's appearance, behaviour or activities; • Interrupt children when they are talking; • Dominate children; • Overwhelm a single child with several adult researchers; • Embarrass children, or laugh at them; • Reinterpret what children say; • Use a patronising voice or manner with children; • Stand or sit higher while children stand or sit lower; • Make negative comments to or about children; • Praise, or otherwise favour, some children and not others; • Compare some children unfavourably with others; • Behave differently with boys or girls, children with more schooling or from ethnic groups.
<p><i>Source: Adapted from Boyden and Ennew, 1997.</i></p>	

Time

Establishing trust takes time, sometimes weeks or months, before families or teachers will allow a researcher to talk to children in private. Research plans must allow sufficient time for researchers to build relationships with children, parents and communities. Repeated meetings and visits help to build trusting relationships with children and their teachers. Researchers need to show that they are not going to do any harm. It helps to have identity cards from the organisation(s) sponsoring the research, letters of introduction and copies of brief, written descriptions of the research that can be given to potential participants. Individuals need to explain who they are as people – children in particular like to look at researchers' family photographs. It is neither fair nor reasonable to expect people to give information about their lives to researchers who refuse to provide any personal information about themselves.

Intermediaries or go-betweens

Intermediaries and go-betweens, who introduce researchers to children, can help establish a relationship. A child is more likely to trust researchers who are accompanied by someone the child already knows and is confident about trusting. Nevertheless, researchers should be aware that some intermediaries may have personal interests, can make introductions to some people but exclude others, and may influence what children feel able to say.

Shared activities

Some researchers have established friendly relationships with children through social activities, such as going to the cinema, to a musical performance, or on a picnic. They only start to discuss the research after they have established a trusting relationship with the children. However, there is a risk that the child will feel in the researcher's debt and be unable to refuse a request to take part in the research, which breaches the essential ethical rule about voluntary participation. Researchers must identify themselves as researchers from the beginning, even if it takes some time before they can begin to gather information other than by observation.

Personal characteristics

Barriers will be reduced by using researchers who are likely to be the least threatening, perhaps by being similar to the participants in age, gender, socio-economic status, ethnicity, or language. Nevertheless, in some situations children may trust an older researcher, and some young men find it easier to talk about personal matters to a woman. Recruit at least some experienced researchers who know how to deal with difficult and sensitive research situations. Make sure they understand how to deal with ethical problems, and what to do if a child or adult becomes distressed. Check that they do not have reputations or criminal records for abusing or exploiting children, and monitor their interactions with research participants.

Place

Meet research participants in a private, safe and non-threatening place, preferably of their own choosing. It is best to ask a child to suggest a suitable place. In any case, researchers should avoid being completely alone with children because this could lead later to accusations of abuse.

Sequence of research activities

Leave the most sensitive questions until the end of an interview, discussion or sequence of research methods. Leave the most inaccessible participants until the end of the research. By that time the researchers have built up understanding of the general situation and the broader context. Where possible, meet the same research participants several times and leave the most difficult topics until the final meetings. Allow participants the right not to reply to questions that make them feel uncomfortable.

Words

People do not use scientific labels for themselves, or even refer to themselves as 'community members' and certainly not as 'abusive parents'. The words they use to describe themselves and what they

do are likely to be specific to their local area or type of work. Researchers need to listen to the way research participants talk and how they use language, if they are to avoid mutual misunderstandings and invalid research results. Methods used early in the research process should aim to find out how children and adults refer to themselves, to their activities, to discipline, abuse and punishment.

Respect

Research participants are human beings with rights – which means that researchers must treat them with respect at all times. Researchers must never use disparaging or critical terms when talking to or about research participants – even in private. Trust cannot be built if researchers use labels and acronyms to refer to participants. Indonesian researchers found that children in prostitution resented being referred to by the acronym AYLA (which is equivalent to the equally disrespectful use of ‘CSEC’ to refer to children when it actually stands for ‘Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children’), and street children all over the world dislike being referred to by local terms that associate them with dirt, violence or drug use.

Main ideas in Chapter 2

- A child is a human being less than 18 years of age, but there are cultural variations in what is expected of children at different ages;
- Children’s rights in research include protection through an ethical strategy;
- Informed consent must be obtained from all research participants;
- Children also have the right to have their opinions and experiences taken into account in research;
- Researchers are obliged to find methods through which children can express their opinions and experiences;
- Children’s views are as valid as adult views;
- Children must always be allowed to speak for themselves; they know best about their own lives;
- Trusting relationships between children and researchers are crucial and develop over time.

RESEARCH ON THE PHYSICAL AND EMOTIONAL PUNISHMENT OF CHILDREN

In this chapter you can read about

Research on the physical and emotional punishment of children

Research approaches

Meeting the challenges of the physical and emotional punishment of children

The twelve steps of action-oriented, participatory research

Definitions

PAR (PARC) – Participatory Action Research (Participatory Action Research with Children).

PRA – Participatory Rural Assessment.

Protocol – Instruction booklet for data collection, including all research tools, ethical procedures and other details of research design.

Rapid assessment – A process of data collection that uses a variety of tools (observation, key informant interviews, group discussions, and visual methods) to get a quick overview of a population or a research topic.

Situation analysis – Overview of a theme or topic using secondary data.

A bibliography of references for background information about research on the physical and emotional punishment of children is in the Tool Kit.

Until recently, research on children has generally been of little value in designing effective programmes to help eliminate the physical punishment of children. Far too often, information about the physical punishment of children is based on anecdotes and assumptions, rather than on well-designed research. Reliable, locally-relevant information must be collected to use in designing, implementing and monitoring effective programmes and campaigns.

The physical and emotional punishment of children

Research on the physical and emotional punishment of children should take into account the entire context in which it takes place, which means studying everything children do in families, communities, institutions, the justice system, at work and in schools.

Although both adults and children may see physical punishment as a necessary part of proper child-rearing, there is evidence about the harmful effects. It is true that parents and teachers are not likely to be the most reliable informants, and it is not possible to get direct information from very young children and babies, although medical records for 'non accidental injury' and 'failure to thrive' can provide indicative evidence of prevalence and trends. Asking children themselves, using appropriate research techniques, has produced the most revealing data, including asking children who may be below the ages usually involved in research (Box 11).

Box 11: Research on the physical punishment of children aged five to seven years

Terry Dobbs used a cartoon character to stimulate discussions on physical punishment ('smacking') with children aged five to seven years in Dunedin, New Zealand, first obtaining informed consent from children (as well as parents and teachers) using children-friendly forms. Terry's conclusion was that:

One of the most powerful findings from this study was of the young children's ... considerable understanding and insight into their own and other people's behaviour and feelings. They were able to express themselves clearly and articulately. The perceived incompetence of young children by traditional age/stage theorists has meant that children's views have not been sought on matters that affect them.

Source: Dobbs, 2002, 65.

Both statistical and anecdotal evidence show that corporal punishment is practised in almost every society. Throughout the world, millions of children are being physically and emotionally punished by those who are charged with their care (see for example Save the Children, 2000). Studies conducted in different countries reveal the severe harm that can be inflicted on children by physical punishment.

Children may suffer injuries that need medical attention, or leave permanent damage or can even cause their death (Box 12).

Box 12: Physical punishment of children in Asia

Based on the perceptions of Child Protection Teams in UNICEF Country Offices in [East Asia and the Pacific] violence against children occurring in homes and families is a major concern (Sandvik-Nylund, 2003, 18).

Many youth are victims of fatal and non-fatal abuse and neglect including severe and frequent physical abuse (being beaten, kicked or tied up by parents, peers and gangs...) ... Harsh punishment in the form of hitting, punching, kicking or beating occurs in schools and other institutions (WHO, 2003, 13).

Almost 50% of Thai children are verbally abused and physically attacked by their parents and elder relatives, [according to] The Thailand Research Fund ... report on a survey of 9,488 young people aged 1-18 in 16 provinces, conducted between Sept and Dec 2001 ... Dr Ladda Mosuwan, head of the research team, said 45.9% of children were attacked verbally and physically, 8.3% were likened to animals...1.4% were trampled and 0.3% were burnt with cigarette butts (*Bangkok Post*, 1 October 2003).

Research results from Northern countries point to a correlation between corporal punishment and depression, low self-esteem, negative psychological adjustment and poor relationships with parents and other authority figures. These negative mental health outcomes are likely to be caused by feeling (or being made to feel) powerless, and unable to explain or defend the behaviour for which they have been punished.

Justifications for using physical punishment are found in many different cultures and contexts. Research on child abuse with Filipino children and parents, using participatory and 'indigenous' methods, found that parents considered they would be committing child abuse if they did not discipline their children, implying physical punishment such as spanking that was not 'overdone' and turned into beating them up or abusing them. Children agreed that 'disobeying their parents merited punishment' but also said that 'the most abusive acts were inflicted when the parents were disciplining them' (De la Cruz et al, 2001, 83, 82). The main arguments given in favour of physical punishment are:

- Children need physical punishment in order to learn discipline, to adhere to social rules and correct behaviours, and to be respectful towards authority;
- The way children are brought up is a private, family issue that should not be subject to public scrutiny or sanction;
- Physical punishment is traditional, and may be sanctioned by interpretations of religious texts; it has always taken place, without harming children (see for example Newell, 2003).

Nevertheless, it is necessary to be sensitive to cultural contexts when defining physical and emotional punishment. Cross-cultural study of child abuse suggests that there are three levels for understanding maltreatment of children:

1. Cultural practices that are viewed as abusive or neglectful by other cultures, but not by the culture in question;
2. Individual departures from cultural ideas of acceptable behaviour;
3. Harm caused to children by society (such as during civil conflict that is beyond the control of individual parents and caretakers) (Korbin, 1987).

Comparative studies indicate wide variations in what is thought to be either beneficial or harmful treatment in child rearing, and that few actions can be taken for granted as intrinsically good or bad. Thus 'Western' practices of putting babies to sleep alone in their own bedrooms are seen as uncaring or even abusive by many other cultures (ibid). Similarly, 'Hawaiian parents prefer [moderate] physical discipline to other measures because it is thought to be swift, quickly forgotten, and therefore less disruptive to the parent-child relationship than scolding or harsh words' (ibid, 36).

What children say

Finding out about the extent of physical punishment, and the exact forms it takes requires asking children using methods that encourage them to share their ideas and experiences, rather than questionnaires and surveys. In West Bengal, a Save the Children researcher found this out the hard way:

Initially children were asked who is violent towards you, and most answered 'no one'. However, when asked 'Who hits you as a form of discipline' children mentioned that their parents, teachers, siblings, neighbours and teachers all used corporal punishment on them, but 'only when we are bad'. Violence to children meant being hurt 'when we don't deserve it, for not reason.' Corporal punishment meant 'being disciplined when we do something wrong, or are being bad'. The two categories were seldom equated (Chakraborty, 2003).

Box 13: The case of China

If we are to believe analysis of Chinese culture, child and adolescent upbringing among ethnic Chinese has traditionally been characterised by extreme deference for elders, and subjugation of offspring ... David Wu, [in a study of child abuse in Taiwan], argues that the authority system, among other things, implicates that no matter how unreasonable parents' demands may be, or how harsh the treatment or punishment of a child is, a son or a daughter has to obey and endure.

When a child is considered to 'understand things', that is when it can talk, walk and receive instructions, it is believed necessary to start using corporal punishment by parents. A child, in particular a son, does not belong to parents alone. He is also linked by emotional ties to other relatives and friends, and a child is usually cared for by a wide range of kin, friends and neighbours.

Chinese adults, whether they belong to the family or not, are obliged to punish a child for his wrongdoings ... Wu argues that when the society respects elders, child abuse is less likely to occur since the elders have the authority to interfere and act as a brake against abuse ...

The traditional respect and deference of authorities and elders, which seems to be one of the reasons for the belief in harsh punishments, is one of the factors that has been crucial in the state's combat against corporal punishment in China. The state has transferred the respect of elders to a respect for the state representatives ... and [Jill Korbin reports] that the state has managed drastically to reduce the rate of corporal punishment and abuse ...

Korbin's account ... gives three important insights when attempting to abolish corporal punishment: the importance of a clear policy against corporal punishment by all public institutions, a will to see that this policy is enforced and members of social networks that do not hesitate to interfere if necessary.

Source: Bartholdson, 2001, quoting Wu, 1981 and Korbin, 1981.

The words they use

When a Save the Children Sweden researcher began to study children's views of physical punishment in Ethiopia he first used interviews in which he referred to a direct translation of the English term 'physical punishment' even though his mother tongue was Amharic. He was not satisfied with the results, so began to explore the words children used themselves in focus group discussions. Then he collected drawings from children of the exact acts of punishment they referred to, revising these with a professional artist, piloting them with different groups of children, and finally devising a self-administered questionnaire for children, based on these drawings. Thus he discovered that children were punished in a wide variety of ways, some of which could be more harmful than being hit or beaten. He was also able to discover which punishment was used for what kind of offence, and by whom children were disciplined (Boyden and Ennew, 1997).

This gradual process of research is needed to obtain accurate data, especially with children. As already shown, in The Philippines a similar research process revealed that, even though children said (like adults) that punishment was necessary, they also defined physical punishment as abuse and even provided extra information about the way they were punished (Box 9 – see especially point 2).

Following a similar research approach, a questionnaire was administered to mothers and children in Pakistan to explore four degrees of discipline. There were no reports of parents only using verbal punishment, and only a few reports in the second category – all from girls. Almost all children and mothers reported hitting as the main form of punishment, nearly half using sticks, which were often kept specifically for this purpose. In addition many mothers admitted that such punishment was frequently administered not as discipline, but rather because they had lost their tempers (Rahim, 1993).

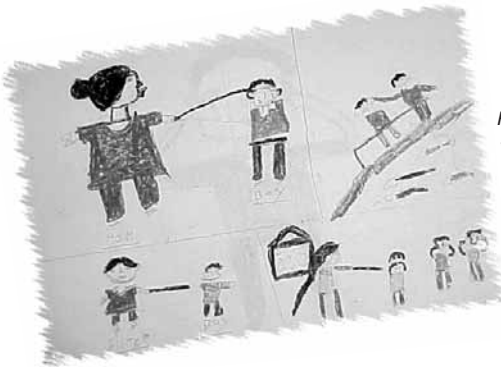
Who is punished and how?

Punishment is often gendered. Girls are not hit as often as boys, who are most at risk. Girls are more likely to be punished by having to

double their household chores, whereas boys are beaten. This has long term consequences, 'Physical punishment in schools affects girls and boys in different ways – boys are mostly physically punished resulting in learning violent behaviours and on the other hand girls ... face humiliation, ridicule and insults eventually leading to submissiveness in adulthood.' (Save the Children Alliance, South and Central Asia, 2002,1). The same submissiveness explains the greater degree of violence accepted by society and women themselves in domestic conflicts.

Who punishes whom?

Another factor that becomes clear when children are asked about punishment is the range of individuals who are responsible for discipline, including other children. This was very clear in a drawing, entitled 'Different people who are violent towards me' made by a 12 year old for research in West Bengal (Chakraborty, 2003; Picture 1).



Picture 1: 'Different people who are violent towards me: my mother, friend, sister and teacher' (Chakraborty, 2003).

In addition, children experience corporal punishment differently from adults. They may perceive the meaning of the act differently, partly because of their lack of power, but also because their social understanding may be incomplete (Green et al, 2002). One of the clearest examples of this is the way children perceive verbal insults as 'hurting them most', a finding that is quite clear in research from many different countries and all continents. As seen in Picture 2, from Cambodia, children also learn to fear (and be intimidated by) watching the physical punishment of other children.

The point of using children's perceptions and paying attention to cultural and linguistic differences is not to argue for cultural relativity, but rather to make sure that legislative changes and awareness raising actually affect the situation. If the legislation and campaigning only mention 'spanking' and 'beating' parents and teachers may continue to use other (sometimes worse) forms of physical punishment that children complain of, such as punishing, hair pulling, burning. Thus legislation to ban all forms of 'corporal punishment' may not be possible to implement fully if these alternatives are not spelt out.



Picture 2: Drawing by Sun Tine, aged 13, Mith Samlanh Street Children Programme Cambodia, (From UNICEF, 2000, Children in need of special protection, Bangkok, UNICEF EAPRO).

Summary of research on physical and emotional punishment

Even given the relative lack of research, it is possible to suggest some common issues from the worldwide research, most of which remain unresearched or inadequately researched in Southeast, East Asia and the Pacific:

- Children tend to be inadequately protected by existing legislation (and/or the way it is implemented);
- Hitting is only one of a vast array of physical punishments reported by children;
- Children may see verbal violence as more damaging than physical violence, and may also be harmed through fear developed through witnessing the physical punishment of others;
- Whatever the form of punishment used, anger management is

- a problem for adults, which means that this should be included in programmes to promote alternatives to physical punishment;
- Classroom management is a problem for teachers, who need to be provided with methods for maintaining discipline that they can trust;
 - Punishment is a reason for school drop-out;
 - A wide range of people punish children – not only parents and teachers, but also other adults and other children;
 - Girls and boys have different experiences of punishment – and girls' experiences may not be the same as women's, although they can be linked to learning the submissive social role of women;
 - Children resent unfairness more than punishment. They repeatedly say that they do not mind being punished, – parents and other adults have a duty to punish them – but they do not like unfair, arbitrary or excessive punishment; that they want to be disciplined, but that it is better to explain their mistakes and listen to their reasons than to punish them;
 - A further consistent finding is that children find verbal abuse and threats to be worse in general than physical assaults, whatever form these may take.

Approaches to research on the physical and emotional punishment of children

Existing research on the physical punishment of children, especially if it is action research, may use a variety of approaches, from the macro-perspective of situation analyses, which may only look at physical punishment as part of the overall picture, to the community-level approaches that collect descriptive information from target communities, using people-friendly techniques. Programme managers and researchers who are looking for existing research reports, should be able to distinguish between these approaches.

Situation analyses

To design successful programmes to eliminate the physical punishment of children, it is not enough to study groups of the physical punishment

of children. It is also necessary to analyse the broader economic, social, cultural and political context in which children are abused and exploited, using what is often called a situation analysis, which has the following components, almost always drawn from already published reports:

- Review of legislation and law enforcement;
- Analysis of policies and programmes;
- Institutional and stakeholder analysis (institutional structures, capacity, commitment, important actors, type and level of collaboration and participation);
- Analysis of attitudes, beliefs and practices relating to children, education, physical punishment of children, gender, sexuality and trafficking;
- Budget and resource review at national and local levels;
- Analysis of what is known about the situation of the physical punishment of children;
- Analysis of broader socio-economic factors, such as the impact of the 1997 Asian Economic Crisis, or the situation of women.

'Rapid assessments'

Rapid assessment is a process of data collection that uses a variety of methods, such as observation, studying existing reports, interviews with key informants, group discussions, interviews with children and anecdotal case studies, to obtain a rapid overview of a population or a research topic. The results are not representative and the reliability is questionable if the time-frame for the assessment is too short. Rapid assessments should not be used to design long term plans but can be used as the basis for more in-depth research and to draw up small pilot interventions. If researchers choose to carry out a rapid assessment themselves, they should be careful to use ethical procedures and not to cause resentment or boredom (or both) among people who may later be asked to participate in more valid research. On the other hand, rapid assessment can be an excellent way of developing relationships that will allow children, parents and communities to be involved as stakeholders in planning future, scientific research.

PRA, PAR and PARC

In the past two decades, an approach known as Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) has been used successfully in poor, rural communities to find out about community ideas. The methods used, which are primarily visual, are often called ‘qualitative’ and have stimulated considerable interest in participatory research. The methods are sometimes mistakenly called ‘participatory methods’ – which they are not. As explained earlier, no research method is essentially participatory.

PRA has had considerable success in gathering information on the lives and views of people who lack power and whose opinions are seldom sought. PRA is based on the assumption that everyone, regardless of education and status, is creative and capable of research, analysis and planning, a view that is basic to this Resource Handbook. PRA is also implicitly based on the principles of human rights because it claims that:

- People should be active agents in their own lives;
- Research should respect research participants’ own words, ideas and understandings;
- Researchers and research participants are equal (which is why PRA and this Resource Handbook do not refer to ‘research respondents’);
- Research methods should be flexible, exploratory and inventive;
- Both researchers and research participants should enjoy the research.

In PRA, as in the research processes in this Resource Handbook, researchers act as facilitators, who make it easy for participants to express their own views and formulate their own analyses. The researcher’s role is to establish trust, listen, learn, support and – as far as possible – hand over control to research participants. Sometimes this approach is called Participatory Action Research (PAR) because the purpose of research is to develop actions (programmes) to improve peoples’ lives. Both PRA and PAR approaches have developed ways of working with child participants and have achieved some interesting results.

However, PRA, PAR and PARC (Participatory Action Research with Children) are associated with descriptive rather than numerical data, and it is difficult to analyse the data so that they provide a useful basis for programme design and monitoring. Reports usually rely on descriptions, case studies and extended quotations from research participants. Interesting and enlightening as these may be, the research cannot be compared over time or between different places, and programmes based on the results are bound to be based on impressions rather than scientific analysis.

Nevertheless, it is possible to use the innovative research techniques of PRA, PAR and PARC in a twelve-step, systematic research process to provide both descriptive and numerical results, as the basis for programme planning and monitoring, as well as for comparative studies. The success of this approach depends on the involvement of all researchers in developing a protocol (manual or instruction book) for their research, which contains all the information they will need, from defining the problem to exactly how to use each research method in their specific research.

The twelve steps for scientific research

In the approach taken by this Resource Handbook there are twelve steps on the staircase between identifying a problem and action to resolve it. Each must be carried out properly and each one is supported by the step below, just as it is impossible to walk up a staircase if some steps are missing or badly constructed. In Part III each step is explained.

This twelve-step process is ideal for action-oriented research on the physical punishment of children. The process is simple, systematic and replicable, which means that the results are scientific and verifiable. Above all it is a process in which children can participate progressively, taking part in any stage and thus progressively fulfilling their rights for their opinions to be heard and noticed on a topic that is a priority for them and consistently violates their rights.

Main ideas in Chapter 3

- Research on the physical punishment of children has tended to produce data that are not an adequate basis for programme design and monitoring;
- An approach that is truly participatory and children-centred is needed in order to generate relevant and authentic information on the physical punishment of children;
- Research on and with children needs to take the entire lives of children into account and not only concentrate on a single aspect;
- The action-oriented research process consists of twelve distinctive steps;
- Each step must be properly carried out to ensure successful progress.

PART III

TWELVE STEPS FOR SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

The twelve steps of research are clustered into five levels (Diagram 2):

- Preparation;
- Protocol design;
- Data collection;
- Analysis and writing;
- Implementation.

Programme managers and researchers can measure their progress on their way to the top of the stairs. Read all the twelve steps and the Tool Kit before beginning to plan research. Then follow each step systematically, in combination with the Tool Kit, to plan and carry out research on the physical punishment of children.

The description of each level begins with a description of the steps it contains. Each step begins with a definition of words needed to understand the processes. Definitions of all basic words used in research can also be found in the 'Research dictionary' section of the Tool Kit.

Diagram 2: The research staircase

Step 12 Use information	Level 5 Implementation
Step 11 Research report	Level 4 Analysis and writing
Step 10 Analysis	
Step 9 Second data collection	Level 3 Data collection
Step 8 First analysis	
Step 7 First data collection	
Step 6 Research plan	Level 2 Protocol design
Step 5 Research tools	
Step 4 Detailed research questions	
Step 3 Collect, review and analyse secondary data	Level 1 Preparation
Step 2 Define research aims and main research questions	
Step 1 Identify stakeholders and the research team	

LEVEL I

PREPARATION

Step 1 Identify stakeholders and the research team	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Programme managers contact and involve the people and institutions interested in the physical punishment of children, who can take action based on the research results;• Raise awareness and build commitment among stakeholders;• Encourage partnerships between stakeholders;• Recruit researchers from among the stakeholders and their contacts.
Step 2 Define research aims and main research questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Arrange meeting(s) for stakeholders, where they can share what they already know and discuss what they need to know;• Together with the stakeholders define the aim (purpose) of the research by asking:<ul style="list-style-type: none">• What do you need to know in order to improve work to abolish violent punishment of children?• Agree on the main questions the research can answer within the limits of available time, money and skills.
Step 3 Collect, review and analyse secondary data	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Collect existing books, research reports, statistics, policy, legal and programme documents, videos, films and other information related to the main research questions;• Think about the theories, questions and research methods that had been used in this secondary data;• Compare and contrast information from different sources; identify contradictions and try to explain them;• Recalculate statistics to make them children-centred;• Identify information gaps and possible new research questions. <p><i>See also Tool Kit 1</i></p>

Step 1: Identify stakeholders and the research team

Definitions

Civil society – Civil society includes all citizens and all organizations that are not part of governmental structures: business groups clubs, children's organizations, community groups, employers' organizations, 'NGOs', religious organizations, professional organizations, trade unions and women's groups are all part of civil society.

Ownership – When people understand and take part in processes of collecting data they have confidence in the results and see them as something they own or possess; they feel that research was theirs and that they are taking decisions on the basis of the results.

Research – Purposeful, scientific information gathering and analysis.

Research aim – Overall purpose of research.

Research process – The word 'research' not only means collecting data but also refers to the entire 'twelve step' process of identifying a problem or issue to be studied, finding out what is already known, planning how to collect data systematically, collecting data, analysing data and writing research reports.

Research team – The research team consists of all the people who plan the protocol, collect the data, analyse the data and write the report. There should be no status distinction between a 'lead researcher' and 'research assistants'. Everyone has a valuable role to play, whatever their qualifications and experience, and all researchers should be involved in all processes, from start to finish.

Stakeholders – People who have a 'stake' (interest or role) in an activity, event or organisation. In research on the physical punishment of children, stakeholders can include employers and clients, parents and other relatives, social workers and other professionals, community leaders, NGOs and their staff and volunteers.

Research on the physical and emotional punishment of children has a practical aim – it should support action by resulting in information that can be used to protect and empower children. For research to lead to action, it is necessary to involve a wide range of interested people and organisations (stakeholders) in the entire research process. Stakeholder participation builds confidence in the research (ownership) and commitment to taking action, raises awareness and understanding of physical punishment of children and also encourages cooperation between stakeholders in taking action after the research is finished.

Stakeholders should be involved from the beginning, to identify the research aim (purpose) and overall research questions, to support the processes of collecting and analysing information, of report writing and of disseminating results. This does not mean that everybody has to be involved in every step of the research, but everyone should be informed about progress. In their first meetings, stakeholders should decide together exactly who should be involved in which part of the research – and why. Identify the most committed stakeholders and those who have the greatest potential for taking action on the basis of research results. Discuss with them how they should be involved, so that their role is clear to everyone (terms of reference – TOR – can be included in the protocol: Tool Kit 7).

To identify stakeholders, think about:

- Which government and non-government agencies, and which individuals, have the power and the will to take action to abolish the physical and emotional punishment of children?
- Who has responsibilities related to physical punishment of children?
- Who should take action on the basis of research results?
- Which children have personal experience of physical and emotional punishment?

Stakeholders might include people from:

- Government: Ministries and departments of family, justice, education, health, women, police, social welfare, development and statistics; lawyers and court officials, staff of reform schools and orphanages;
- Civil society: Children’s clubs and other organisations, including organisations of working children, teachers’ organisations, children’s rights organisations, religious organisations, media, research institutes, women’s organisations, non formal education projects, private orphanages (including projects run by international NGOs), private schools (including religious schools), NGO projects;
- Community: Community-based organisations, community leaders, parents, children and youth;

- International organisations: such as UNICEF, UNESCO and international NGOs.

The research team

Programme managers and researchers are also stakeholders, with specific roles and responsibilities, as explained earlier. All members of the research team, which should ideally include children, should be involved from the beginning in planning and carrying out the research. This will build their understanding of the situation of abused children, develop their capacity for carrying out research and strengthen their confidence in (ownership of) research results.

This means that potential researchers should be included in the first stakeholder meetings. They will not necessarily all have academic qualifications. Some may not have been involved in research before, but they should all have had experience of working directly with children. It is important not to decide the membership of the research team beforehand but to use the first stakeholder meetings as a way of recruiting people who can be committed to the process full time and have the most appropriate skills and characteristics. It is especially important not to think of researchers in terms of 'lead researchers' and 'research assistants'. Each researcher has a valuable role to play, regardless of qualifications and experience, and all researchers should be involved in all processes, from start to finish.

There are several other issues to consider when selecting members of the research team from among, or with the help of, the stakeholders. The team should include a range of ages and ideally have equal numbers of men and women. Choose some people who are similar to the research population (same gender, age, class, background, ethnicity and status). Include some who understand the cultural beliefs and practices and are familiar with the local area, have contacts and/or speak the local language(s). Also include people with experience of direct project work with vulnerable children and participatory projects, as well as people with data-collection skills, analysis skills and programme experience. A mixture of educational backgrounds is advisable in order to ensure that research is holistic (taking into account all aspects of children's lives) and does not, for example,

concentrate only on children's psychological problems. Social workers, administrators, sociologists, economists, statisticians, psychologists, medical workers, journalists, activists, social anthropologists, public health workers, local government officials and many others can all play useful roles in a research team. The ideal is to have researchers who complement each other, rather than being all the same. A varied team provides a broader range of perspectives and supports the principle of cross-checking (triangulation).

At an early stage, appoint a coordinator to be responsible for overall team leadership. The main skills required by a coordinator are organisation, ability to meet deadlines and to motivate others. Coordinators should gather data alongside other researchers. They should not simply give orders while sitting at a desk in an office or a university. Coordinators are responsible for making sure the data are collected, the analysis carried out and the report written. They do not do all the analysis and report writing themselves, but make sure the tasks are completed on time and in the correct way. They are also the main point of contact ('focal point') between the research team and stakeholders, media, any supporting agency and the general public (Tool Kit 7).

The qualities needed for effective co-ordination are:

- Understanding of and commitment to children's rights and welfare;
- Some research experience, ideally with participatory approaches;
- Flexibility and ability to think ahead;
- Excellent interpersonal skills, with a wide variety of people;
- Good verbal and written communication skills;
- Energy;
- Non-authoritarian manner;
- Intellectual honesty;
- Understanding of ethical issues in research;
- Ability to manage difficult situations, think strategically and consider ethical dilemmas without panic or loss of temper;
- Efficiency, good time keeping and organizational skills (adapted from Boyden and Ennew, 1997).

In order to involve stakeholders fully, organise the research process so that they learn about research methods and processes. It may be helpful to plan brief technical workshops for stakeholders at specific

times during the course of the research. These workshops might focus on research methods, how to develop a research protocol, how to analyse data, how to test research tools, and how to write a research report (Robinson, 2000).

Organise workshops for the research team also – to share knowledge about and experiences of physical punishment of children, as well as working with children, data collection and other aspects of research. This should be a structured process in which team members learn from each other. Researchers with strong skills in particular aspects of research can share their skills by organising workshops for others.

Main ideas in Step 1

- To ensure that the results of research are acted upon, it must involve all important stakeholders from the beginning of the research process;
- Stakeholders will be children, parents and teachers, together with representatives of national and local government, civil society organisations and international agencies;
- Wide stakeholder participation in research improves understanding, builds ownership and commitment to act, and provides the basis for future collaboration;
- Research team members should come from a variety of backgrounds and, as a group, represent a wide range of knowledge, skills and experiences.

Step 2: Define research aims and main research questions

Definitions

Children-centred – Children-centred research concentrates on understanding children's views, opinions, experiences and perspectives. Children-centred programmes focus on children and their best interests. Children-centred statistics focus on children as the units of observation and analysis;

Hypothesis – An idea based on knowledge, information, previous observation or analysis that has to be proved or disproved through research. A hypothesis may or may not be true.

Ranking – Placing things in order of importance, or of value. Ordering things from 'more' to 'less' importance or from 'low' to 'high' priority.

Research aim – Overall purpose of research.

Research question – In this Resource Handbook, and in protocols, a distinction is made between 'main', 'detailed' and 'specific' research questions (Diagram 3):

Main research question – Overall question that the research aims to answer, related to the research aim and structuring the research protocol and report. Not necessarily a hypothesis (theory) to be proved or disproved, the answer will provide information to improve stakeholders' programming and advocacy;

Detailed research question – Main research questions can be broken down into a series of more detailed, or implicit, questions that are usually the basis for designing research tools. Thus a main research question, such as 'What is the incidence of the physical punishment of children?' might be broken down into detailed research questions, such as 'What is the meaning of 'child'?' 'What ages of children?', 'Are boys and girls involved?' 'What are the legal definitions of physical punishment?' 'What do people say about physical punishment of children?' and so on;

Specific research question – Specific research questions are direct questions that researchers ask participants, particularly in interviews and questionnaires, for example 'How many hours you have worked this week?' (See Diagram 3).

Once stakeholders have been identified, organise a meeting, or series of meetings, with groups of stakeholders to explore how they see the problem. What do they know about physical and emotional punishment of children and the proposed topic of research? What do they not know? What do they need or want to know?

Stakeholders need to agree on the aim (purpose) of the research. Action-oriented research on the physical and emotional punishment of children will have the overall aim of finding out more about the children involved, and may be related directly to Save the Children aims. But research must have more specific objectives in order to provide accurate, detailed information for designing and monitoring programmes and projects. Deciding on the objectives of research means finding answers to the following queries:

- Why is this research needed?
- What will the information add to our understanding of the research topic?
- Which stakeholders will benefit from the research?
- What kind of data are needed in order to plan for action in programmes and advocacy?
- What is the legal background to the physical punishment of children?
- What is known already (secondary data)?
- Where are the gaps in existing knowledge?
- What should the main research focus be?
- What kind of research should be carried out?
- How much time and money are needed (or available) for the research?
- How will the research results be used, and by whom?
- What could be achieved by programme activities based on the research results?
- Are other people or groups already carrying out research on this topic?
- Should these people or groups be included among stakeholders, or is joint research possible?

Sending these questions to stakeholders before the first workshop can be useful, and may save time in the workshop itself. But sometimes staff of stakeholder organisations do not have time to reply to surveys. Make sure that most of the people who will come to the workshop will be able to reply to written questions beforehand. If too few people or organisations respond, this may cause confusion in the workshop and might also result in some stakeholders feeling excluded.

Remember that it is not possible to carry out one research project that will cover the entire range of issues concerning physical punishment of children. Some questions cannot be answered without background information. Funding may not be available to do all the research people wish for. Thus some practical decisions must be taken to choose the research that is most urgently needed and can be done within the time and money available. Some possible choices are:

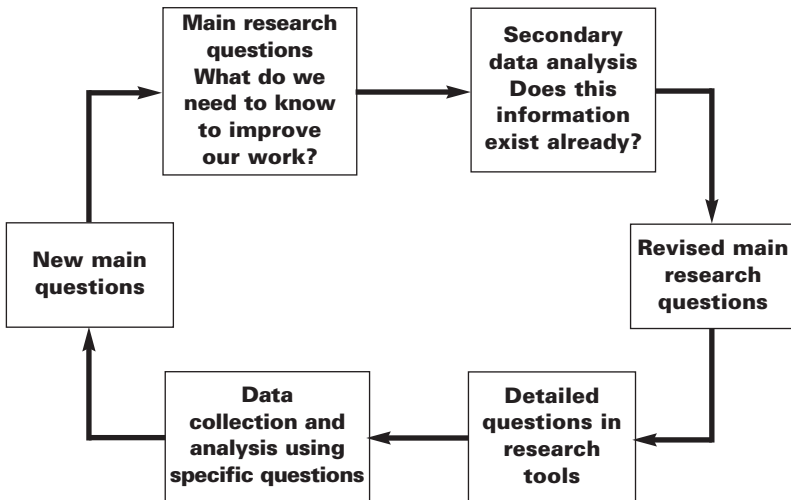
- A review of legal provisions;
- An investigation of the nature and prevalence of physical punishment of children;
- A detailed study to understand the way physical punishment of children is viewed, its nature and causes, together with children's views and experiences;
- Research to obtain accurate data for advocacy, public education and campaigning.

Once there is a decision about the overall aim of research, stakeholders need to develop a list of main research questions. These are not the direct questions that might be asked of participants in interviews or questionnaires. They are fundamental questions that the research must answer in order to improve the knowledge on which stakeholders base their programmes and advocacy. Thus, a research group from Save the Children Sweden in Hanoi, with the research aim of finding out about the physical punishment of child beggars, drew up the following initial list of main research questions:

- What are the characteristics of child beggars (including health status)?
- What forms of physical punishment do they receive?
- Who punishes them?
- What are the causes of physical punishment?
- What are the attitudes to physical punishment?
- What are the consequences of punishment (physical and emotional)?
- What are the attitudes and reactions of outside agencies?
- What traditional attitudes and practices might be used to develop alternative ways of teaching children values and discipline?

This kind of preliminary list will help to develop a framework for research methods and processes. The list will be refined after secondary data analysis (Step 3) and during protocol design (Step 4). As Diagram 3 shows, research questions are continuously refined and added to as the process of research develops.

Diagram 3: The process of asking research questions



Example of research questions being developed during a stakeholder meeting

To advance the process of discussion about research on children in prostitution in Indonesia, researchers used a one-day workshop for stakeholders. They divided the stakeholders into small groups with similar interests and gave them the morning to answer two questions:

- What do we need to know to improve our programme work?
- What do we need to know to improve our advocacy work?

Each group was facilitated by a researcher and included child sex workers. To start the afternoon, groups shared their lists by presenting them on flip charts and discussing them.

The lists were then combined and each question was written in large black letters on a separate piece of card. The cards were placed on the floor and all stakeholders ranked the questions in order of priority, helped by researchers. This was a participatory way of deciding on research questions that also gave stakeholders experience of the kind of ranking method that is used in participatory research.

Main ideas in Step 2

- Research must have a clear, agreed aim (purpose);
- Action-oriented research gathers information that is relevant to stakeholders;
- Main research questions must be closely related to the aim of the research;
- Main research questions must be practical, and achievable within available resources;
- Main research questions need to be systematically grouped and ranked in order of priority.

Step 3: Collect, review and analyse secondary data

Definitions

Analysis – Logical and systematic process of examining data to see what they mean.

Children-centred statistics – Statistics in which the data are presented (for example in tables) so that they focus on children, rather than (as is usual) on adults, households, institutions or services.

Childhood – Variable and culturally-defined life stage, before adults roles and responsibilities.

Data – Information collected by a researcher.

Disaggregation – The process of dividing statistical data into smaller groups, by gender, age, location for example. This allows analysis that shows differences between groups of people and is a guide to finding inequalities and violations of rights.

Hypothesis – An idea based on knowledge, information, previous observation or analysis that has to be proved or disproved through research. A hypothesis may or may not be true.

Mapping – Systematic collection of information on a specific theme or topic, for example making a comprehensive list and descriptions of all national street children projects.

Primary data – Original data collected for a specific research project.

Secondary data – Research makes a distinction between primary data (collected during a particular research process) and secondary data (which already exist). Researchers begin by looking at existing information, which includes all relevant information that was collected for other studies or purposes. Secondary data include books, published or unpublished reports, situation analyses, rapid assessments, theses, laws, statistics, information from the internet, records, media articles, videos, photographs or films.

Research on the physical punishment of children, like all other research, begins with collecting, analysing and evaluating all existing information (secondary data) before planning a new research project. This is more than a literature review, it is an essential part of research, which takes a critical look at existing data, ideas, prejudices and images, before deciding what research questions or ideas (hypotheses) need to be investigated, with which groups or populations and using which methods.

Secondary data can include books, published or unpublished reports, situation analyses, rapid assessments, academic theses, laws, statistics, internet information, records, media articles, videos, photographs or films. Secondary data review and analysis is the foundation of all good scientific research, and should be allotted sufficient time and resources in the research plan. Research must always be based on an analysis of existing ideas and information. Researchers need to read, discuss and analyse all the available information, not only at the beginning, when a report should be produced to share with stakeholders, but also when writing the final report, to compare secondary data with the primary data, as well as with any additional secondary data, they may have collected.

Initially secondary data collection will be more national than local. Further secondary data, such as school, police and clinic records, should be collected in the field.

Legal review²

A particular necessity for all research on the physical punishment of children is a comprehensive and detailed review of legal provisions, policies, plans for reform and the implementation of law. Indeed this may be a topic for research in its own right, in which case it is probably best carried out by legal experts. However, knowing about the legal situation is essential background for any research on the physical and emotional punishment of children (although it is worth noting that national legislation is likely to mention only physical punishment, and probably only certain forms, such as smacking and caning).

This legal research can also be used as awareness-raising. For example, any proposal to research the legal status of physical punishment could be circulated in draft to all relevant government departments (such as justice, welfare, education, family and health) human rights institutions and human rights lawyers, international NGOs working in the country, national offices of UN agencies, interested national NGOs and so on. The results can be written up and widely disseminated, including recommendations for full law reform. Researching the law

² Adapted from presentation by Peter Newell, International Save the Children Alliance SEAP Region, 2003.

will not be a simple process, unless there already is an active debate on elimination of physical punishment. Such a debate is a necessity if legal reform is to be feasible.

Information required

Detailed research questions for the legal review include:

- Is the physical punishment of children lawful:
 - In the home, by parents and others with parental responsibility;
 - In schools – all categories including private and religious schools as well as state schools;
 - In other institutions and forms of alternative care, such as foster-care and daycare;
 - In the penal system – as a sentence of the courts and as a punishment in penal institutions;
 - In the workplace.

- Has there been already any significant progress towards challenging physical punishment in any of these settings (for example, government consultations, official reports recommending reform, parliamentary discussion and so on).

Most countries have assault laws – making it a crime to hit or otherwise assault another person. Many have child protection laws prohibiting cruelty to children, and some have constitutions that guarantee protection from torture and cruel, inhuman or degrading punishments. When they ratify international human rights instruments such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child, some states incorporate the Convention into their law so that it takes precedence over domestic law. However, these laws and regulations tend to be scattered in different parts of the judicial system, so that physical punishment in the family is dealt with under welfare for instance, and caning in schools is found in regulations for the education system, while emotional punishment will probably not be dealt with at all.

The legal provisions depend on where children are cared for or educated, which is why they are scattered in various laws:

- Schools: there may be different laws or regulations applying to state schools, church schools and private schools, or to schools with different ages of pupils;
- Institutional care: in most countries there are many different kinds of residential children's homes and orphanages, run by the state, by voluntary and church organisations and private bodies. There may be regulations applying only to state-run bodies and they may allow or prohibit physical punishment; non state orphanages run by foreign or religious bodies may be outside the law and able to use physical punishment without fear of prosecution;
- Foster-parents: are likely to have the same rights as parents, but some countries have regulations prohibiting the use of physical punishment of foster-children;
- Daycare for young children while their parents are working: nurseries, crèches, daycare centres, and less formal systems such as people who are paid to look after young children in their own homes. It is important to find out what, if any, regulation there is of the various forms of day care. If the law is silent, these carers will have the same rights as parents to use physical punishment;
- Penal system: in some countries, courts can still sentence children and young people to be caned, whipped or flogged. In penal institutions, physical punishment may be allowed as a form of discipline. There may also be customary or 'informal' systems of justice and punishment operating locally, which include physical punishment;
- Other institutions: such as health or mental health – particularly psychiatric – institutions, whether state or private, including NGO provisions for street children; may use physical and emotional punishment;
- The workplace: employers may physically punish child workers – especially child domestic workers.

Collecting copies of laws and legal documents is only half the work of a legal review. Further information is required on how the law is implemented (if at all), including what means are available for monitoring and inspection and how efficient or adequate these are. In addition, researchers need to know what individuals and organisations (including politicians and policy makers) may be campaigning for law

reform, as well as any government plans for reform and how these campaigns and plans are progressing.

In very few countries will any of this legislation protect children from being hit by parents and other carers. In some states, the right of parents, teachers and others to use 'reasonable' physical punishment, is actually written into the law, with special defences available. In other states, the law is silent but this 'right' has been confirmed in court judgments, or is simply accepted throughout society. Systems of 'customary' or local or regional or religious law may need to be reviewed as well. Human rights apply equally to all children in any country; there can be no possible justification for local or customary laws allowing physical punishment for some children, or in some circumstances.

No state can say it has prohibited all physical punishment unless any existing legal defences have been explicitly removed and the government and courts clearly interpret existing legislation as prohibiting all physical punishment.

Once a state has prohibited all physical punishment in this way, the protection covers children wherever they are – at home, in day care, in schools and other institutions, in employment and so on. Of course, it will still be very important to ensure that enforcement of the law is monitored and that everyone concerned, including children, knows about the law, and it may be useful to have confirmation of the prohibition of physical punishment in the specific laws that apply to schools or to other institutions, such as orphanages or foster care.

Until there is a clear overall prohibition of physical and emotional punishment it is important to look at individual laws – child care, education, and juvenile justice - to see if there has been some progress to protect some children in some situations.

The fact that there is a clear law in place, for example prohibiting hitting children in school, does not mean that physical punishment is no longer used. A teacher can still punish children by kicking them, making them do excessive physical exercise or shutting them in a cupboard. It is important to find out what systems, if any, are in place to enforce the law, such as independent inspection and complaints

procedures that students can access and use. Often the only way to find out whether any form of physical punishment is in use is to ask children themselves.

Where to find secondary data

Other secondary data are just as scattered as legal documents. If researchers try to look for information specifically about the physical and emotional punishment of children, they are likely to be disappointed, or to come back with one or two anecdotal reports. Yet information can be discovered in a variety of secondary data sources, even in countries where official statistical records are scarce. Creativity and perseverance are required. In the first place, a large number of individuals and organisations collect data that include information on children in general, which may contain information about punishment as well as important background information about childhood. These sources include:

- Researchers and research institutes that have studied physical punishment of children;
- Government departments of employment, social welfare, children, women, family, health, education;
- Human rights organisations focusing on children's rights, gender, domestic violence, child abuse and physical punishment of children;
- NGOs and charitable organisations;
- International organisations such as Save the Children, UNESCO, UNICEF and WHO;
- Newspapers, magazines, radio and television.

Some secondary data may not focus on children, but still include useful information about children. Sometimes researchers have to be creative. Background information on children and childhood can be found in:

- Reports on employment and workforce;
- Reports on education and schools, and health;
- Reports on juvenile justice;
- Reports on families;

- Reports on domestic violence;
- Reports on orphanages, reform schools and prisons;
- Socio-economic household surveys;
- Reports on accidents and injuries;
- Police and court records;
- Research reports on physical and emotional punishment of children, abuse, child labour and street children;
- Surveys to investigate causes of social problems affecting children, such as child abuse or the commercial sexual exploitation of children;
- Project reports on work related to the abuse and exploitation of children;
- Country situation analyses – many international agencies and donors carry these out at regular intervals, and it is worth collecting past reports as well as the most recent in order to analyse changes over time.

Information on the physical punishment of children can be found in various documents. It is particularly important to do a survey of media (newspapers, magazines, television and radio programmes) in order to find out what people think about children, childhood, discipline and the physical punishment of children. Collect information from all projects and programmes that may discipline children. Schools are obvious, but include police, court and health records – a process known as ‘mapping’ (see Tool Kit 1). In addition, there are some specific sources worth exploring for certain groups of children: child domestic workers, children living on the street, children in institutions and children in conflict with the law.

Child domestic workers

Child domestic workers have been widely reported to suffer physical and emotional punishment at the hands of employers (and even employers’ children). Information may be found in:

- Census and workforce data on domestic workers, particularly if children less than 18 years of age can be separated from data on adults;

- Data in household surveys or censuses that show the relationship of people younger than 18 years of age to the household head. Unrelated children may be invisible domestic workers;
- Women’s organisations running projects for domestic workers;
- Information (and legislation) about wages and conditions of service;
- Published life histories and oral testimonies (records of individual life experiences) of current/former domestic workers.

Children living on the street

Street children in the region are reported to be vulnerable to physical assaults from other children, police, gangs and employers. This group of children has been relatively well researched. Many Save the Children and UNICEF offices have produced reports, as have local NGOs and academic researchers (especially MA students). The bibliographies in these reports will provide some information about sources of information, which may also include police records, juvenile centres and prisons, court records of offences for vagrancy.

Children in institutions

Children who are cared for outside their families can be particularly vulnerable to physical and emotional punishment, which may be permitted by the law or simply condoned as appropriate discipline. Few orphanages keep punishment records, but it is worth mapping all institutions that care for children outside their families (including mental health, psychiatric care and care of children with disabilities) and seeking any records that may be kept of punishments – or at least copies of regulations about discipline.

Children in conflict with the law

Legal review may reveal that physical punishment is permitted for use on juvenile delinquents, who may also suffer physical punishment during arrest, holding in police cells, remand homes, court processes, detention centres and prisons (including adult prisons). It can be very

difficult to gain access to punishment records, but they should be sought from police, courts and any place in which children (less than 18 years of age) are detained for actual or alleged offences (Box 14).

Box 14: Corporal punishment in the Thai penal system

Today, corporal punishment is illegal in Thai legal system ... corporal punishment is an offence of assault and the person who uses it is liable to up to two years imprisonment, in accordance with Article 295 of the Penal Code. If the injury is so severe that the victim has to undergo medical treatment for longer than 20 days, the offence is defined as 'aggravated assault' and the punishment is imprisonment from six months to 10 years (Article 297). Thus, corporal punishment has been abolished by the Thai legal system.

Nevertheless, two laws still exist that authorise corporal punishment to be used against prisoners in prisons and against children in training (rehabilitation) centres. Article 35 of the Correction Act of 1936 states that, if a prisoner violates a rule, he is liable for several punishments, one of which is corporal punishment. The prisoner can be beaten on the upper legs with a cane no bigger than one centimetre in width, not more than 20 times. The beating must be carried out under the supervision of a doctor, several documents have to be completed, the record of the caning has to be kept and a report must be made and sent to the Department of Correction. This is a very complicated procedure, with official records, and in fact this punishment has not been used for more than ten years.

Source: Wanchai Roujanavong, in International Save the Children Alliance SEAP Region, 2004.

Review of secondary data

An initial review of secondary data will provide an overview of the research topic, as well as helping to identify gaps in available information. It may already answer some main research questions, and should help to develop detailed research questions (See Tool Kit 1 for details of secondary data analysis).

Some points to remember

Children should be thought of as active human beings and subjects of rights, not objects of concern, or victims, or categories such as 'abused child', 'street child' or 'child domestic worker'. These

prejudices often distort data on children. The correct approach is to use human rights as a framework, which means that children are viewed as capable social actors rather than as victims. It also means that information about children must focus on their rights, rather than on the interests, views and actions of adults.

To understand how children's rights apply to any situation, data must be disaggregated to show which groups of children have their rights violated or not achieved. Disaggregation will aid accuracy. It is vital to programme planning because it helps target programme interventions to specific groups of children. Disaggregation is also an important tool for monitoring the impact of interventions. Typical disaggregations are by age, gender, ethnicity and the place where children live. But the precise disaggregation used in any research will depend on local social structures. Thus, in South Asia, caste might be an important disaggregation; in Thailand and Viet Nam disaggregation by province is important.

Information about children is produced by different organisations and agencies, all of which have their own aims and ideas (Box 15).

Box 15: Reasons for the difficulties of finding secondary data on the physical and emotional punishment of children

While studies and research have been undertaken in many areas of violence, these usually give only anecdotal information and are often limited in scope in terms of target populations or geographical area covered. These studies are, more often than not, one-time studies that do not provide data on developments over time. Information on violence against children can also often be found in the 'margins' of studies focusing on other topics, for instance studies on ... domestic violence.

One problem contributing to the lack of quantitative information is the lack of systematic and comprehensive data collection in relation to abused children ... The reality is that data on victims of violence – when collected and recorded – also tends to be scattered. Violence against children in work situations might be recorded by departments in the Ministry of Labour, physical punishment in schools by the Ministry of Education, and violence in homes in some countries by social welfare departments or child protection institutions. Another problem is posed by the fact that different agencies and departments might also have slightly different definitions of core concepts, thus impeding comparisons provided by different organisations.

Source: Sandvik-Nylund, 2003, 4-5.

This information must be combined and, where possible, compared to give a consistent picture (Took Kit 1). A crucial question for any data about children is ‘how children-centred is this information?’ The unit of observation and analysis may be adults, households or institutions such as schools. To find out what is really happening to children you may have to recalculate the data (Box 16). Information about children may be collected and recorded but it is usually not presented as being about children in official publications and tables. Instead, the statistics are about adults or institutions, such as households, schools or hospitals.

Box 16: Comparison of statistics based on households (adult-centred), schools (service-centred), and children (children-centred)		
Household-centred statistics	School-centred statistics	Children-centred statistics
Number of households with no children; Number of households with 1 child; Number of households with 2 children; Number of households with 3 or more children; Number of female-headed households.	Number of schools in the district; Number of children enrolled in school; Average number of desks in the school.	Number of children in the school-aged population in the district; Number of children who are enrolled in classes with more than 30 children; Average number of children per desk;
Problems		
Give no idea about children’s place and situation in family structures.	Give no idea if there are enough schools for the number of children who need them.	Number of children in a household with two adults and no other child; Number of children in household with three or more other children and a single mother.

Assumptions, terms, concepts and definitions

Although all researchers try to be impartial, data-collection is always the product of underlying assumptions made about the research

topic, the people researched and the methods used. Thus, as far as possible secondary data analysis tries to discover the preconceptions about society, families, gender, ethnicity, children and childhood that appear in secondary data.

A central question for research on the physical punishment of children is 'What are the prevailing ideas about childhood, discipline, education and family life being taken for granted in secondary data?'. One major problem is the way people use the term 'child'. There are considerable differences between babies and teenagers, boys and girls, poor children and rich children. It is equally meaningless to talk about 'the Girl Child', 'the Asian Child' or, for example, 'the Chinese Child'. No one description will be sufficient to illustrate all childhoods.

Many different factors contribute to physical punishment of children. One may be local expectations of what children are or can do, or what are believed to be the duties of boys and girls (and their parents). These ideas may be different at different levels of society, in rural areas and in cities.

Research planning should clarify basic words and definitions. Secondary sources and discussions with stakeholders can be used to help analyse the language used by government officials, media, campaigners and donors to describe children, discipline and punishment.

Main ideas in Step 3

- Like all research, studies of the physical punishment of children begin by collecting, reviewing and analysing secondary data (existing information) before planning a new research project;
- A legal review is a specific requirement for research on the physical punishment of children;
- Sufficient time needs to be set aside for systematic collection, review and analysis of secondary data;
- Most secondary data, although about children, do not focus on children, so re-calculation of statistics and other data may be necessary;
- Different organisations have different objectives and collect, record, store and process data in different ways using different age groups and definitions.

PROTOCOL DESIGN

Definitions

Fieldwork – Collecting primary data from or with participants.

Protocol – Instruction booklet for data collection, including definitions of basic words, all research tools, ethical procedures and other details of research design.

Reliable data – Data that have been collected and/or analysed systematically, so that results can be repeated.

Research method – A systematic, scientific technique for gathering data about people (research participants).

Research tool (instrument) – Purpose-designed instructions for systematic data gathering to answer detailed research questions. These tools are written in a research protocol.

Valid data – Data from a particular research tool that have been collected with sufficient accuracy to be included in analysis.

A protocol is an instruction booklet used by all researchers throughout data collection. A fresh protocol is designed by researchers for each new research process. Because all researchers follow the same instructions, the protocol guarantees that data gathered by different researchers, at different times and places and with different people, can be scientifically compared. Properly used, a protocol produces valid and reliable data, and can also be used to train new researchers, including children. It can be used in later research to gather data for monitoring programmes designed on the basis of the first research results (baseline data).

A research protocol contains:

Background:

- Justification, aims and objectives of research;

- Definitions of basic words and concepts;

- The main and detailed research questions;

- A set of detailed research tools (sometimes called research instruments), using different methods;

- The reasons for choosing particular target groups and research sites;

- Ethical guidelines, including:

 - Methods for obtaining informed consent;

 - Instructions for researchers' behaviour;

- The plan of research:

 - Timetables;

 - Fieldwork sites;

 - Numbers of participants ('samples');

 - Where each researcher will go;

 - Equipment and transport requirements.

Each researcher should carry a copy of the protocol at all times during research, for reference. It should be clear and detailed. Because it is used so often, the copies given to researchers must be easy-to-read and firmly-bound. The Tool Kit gives some examples of the material that should be included in a protocol (Tool Kit 2, 4, 7).

The protocol should be drafted and designed by the research team. Comments from stakeholders will help to improve the protocol, and the fact of being asked for their opinions will help the stakeholders develop a thorough understanding of the research methods, research tools and research process. The research protocol is finalised before starting data-collection, and revised after the first period of fieldwork (See Level 3 Step 8).

Steps 4, 5 and 6 explain what is involved in developing a research protocol.

<p>Step 4 Detailed research questions</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Based on secondary data analysis, stakeholders and researchers identify detailed research questions.
<p>Step 5 Research tools</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Researchers consider different ways of collecting the data required to answer the detailed questions; • Research methods and groups of participants are considered; • Research tools are designed; • Research tools are piloted (tested); • Based on piloting results, research tools are modified or discarded.
<p>Step 6 Research plan</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An ethical strategy is included in the protocol; • Membership of the research team is finalised; • Plans are made (and recorded in the protocol) for practical and logistical preparations (such as field timetable, budget, transport, equipment); • Final research protocol is agreed between stakeholders and research team members.

Step 4: Detailed research questions

Definitions

Research question – In this Resource Handbook, and in protocols, a distinction is made between ‘main’, ‘detailed’ and ‘specific’ research questions:

Main research question – Overall question that the research aims to answer, related to the research aim and structuring the research protocol and report. Not necessarily a hypothesis (theory) to be proved or disproved, the answer will provide information to improve stakeholders’ programming and advocacy;

Detailed research question – Main research questions can be broken down into a series of more detailed, or implicit, questions that are usually the basis for designing research tools. Thus a main research question, such as ‘What is the incidence of physical punishment of children?’ might be broken down into detailed research questions, such as ‘What is the meaning of ‘child?’ ‘What ages of children?’ ‘Is punishment different for boys and girls?’ ‘What are the legal definitions of physical punishment?’ ‘What do people say about discipline?’ and so on.

Specific research question – Specific research questions are direct questions that researchers ask participants, particularly in interviews and questionnaires, for example ‘How many hours you have worked this week?’ (See Diagram 3)

Initial stakeholder discussions on the research aim and the review of secondary data (Steps 1-3) will have already identified topics and main research questions. After secondary data analysis, these should be reviewed with stakeholders. If necessary ask again: What needs to be known to design or improve work to abolish physical and emotional punishment of children? What are the gaps in data, knowledge and understanding?

Develop and cross-check the list of main research questions to make sure they are appropriate. Discuss how each piece of information will be used for later action and planning. Avoid adding more and more questions without a clear idea of how the data will be used. Get feedback on the draft list of questions from programme managers, government officials, children, and researchers. Put the topics in a logical order.

Once agreement is reached among stakeholders and researchers about the broad topics and main questions, researchers have to define more detailed questions. Each broad research question can be broken down into more detailed ‘implicit’ questions. Both main and detailed research questions should be organised in a table (Box 17).

Box 17: Main research questions and the detailed questions they contain (an example from research on corporal punishment)	
Main question	Detailed questions
How is the corporal punishment of children defined?	What are current definitions of corporal punishment? What are current definitions of child? What are the differences between legal and customary definitions? Do different groups of people have different definitions in each case? If so, what are these varied definitions? How do children define physical punishment? What kinds of physical punishment do children think are the worst forms?
What are the impacts of corporal punishment on children’s health?	Deaths? Permanent injuries? Psychological effects? Effects at different ages? Effects on different groups of children? Effects depending on the person punishing, or the place where punishment takes place?
Why are some children and not others subjected to physical punishment?	Which children are physically punished, where, by whom, in what ways and for what reasons? What are the factors that influence whether or not a child is physically punished? What are the factors leading to non violent conflict resolution (if this takes place)?

Main ideas in Step 4

- A research protocol contains exact instructions for researchers;
- Main research questions are the basis of a research framework;
- Main research questions should be revised in the light of secondary data analysis;
- Each main research question should be broken down into a series of detailed research questions.

Step 5: Research tools

Definitions

Control group – A control group of research participants is necessary for most research particularly when the aim is to discover the cause of a problem. Members of a control group have all the same characteristics (age, gender, ethnicity, economic status) as the research sample, except for the factor being researched.

Informed consent – Agreement to voluntary participation by a participant in research, based on the person fully understanding the goals, methods, benefits and risks of the study. Informed consent is given with the understanding that the participant can change his or her mind about taking part in the research at any time.

Piloting – Testing draft research tools on limited samples before using them to gather data in the field.

Protocol – Instruction booklet for data collection, including all research tools, ethical procedures and other details of research design.

Research method – A systematic, scientific technique for gathering data about people or research participants.

Research tool – Purpose-designed instructions for systematic data gathering to answer detailed research questions. These tools are written in a research protocol.

Sample – In general, the group of research participants who will be targeted for answers to a particular research question. In research tools the precise characteristics and numbers of participants who will be asked to work with researchers on this tool. In certain cases, a selection of people chosen to represent the target population using a variety of techniques.

Standard observation sheet – Standardised record of the context of each data collection session.

The next step is to design research tools. These are instructions for using a research method with a group of research participants in order to answer one or more of the detailed questions, which means deciding:

- Which groups of people will be able to provide information to help answer these questions ('research participants')?
- Which methods will make it easy for them to share their knowledge and experience with researchers, without feeling uncomfortable.

Choosing research methods

In order to select appropriate research methods and use them to design research tools for the protocol, think about the detailed research question and consider the types of data needed. There are specific times in the research process, and certain purposes, for which particular types of method are appropriate (Box 18).

Detailed descriptions and examples of research methods are explained in Tool Kit 3. Methods should be used in research tools especially designed to answer a specific research question or questions, and researchers should not be afraid of trying out their own ideas for using a method in ways that are appropriate for the culture, age and other characteristics of research participants (Tool Kit 4). The ethical implications of using particular research techniques for certain topics and groups of participants should be taken into consideration (Tool Kit 2). The overall ethical rule is 'Do no harm'.

Box 18: Research methods, when, why and how to use them (Tool Kit 3)	
Method	When/why/how it should be used
Research diary	Every day, for planning and reviewing day to day research activities;
Observation	Unstructured observation should take place every day at all times, wherever they are; it can also take place at specific times/places (such as bus terminals); Structured observation takes place after patterns have been noted and need to be checked.
Drawings and other visual methods	Can be used at any time to break the ice and give material for comment in interviews and focus group discussions; to examine ideas with people (especially children) who are shy or find it difficult to speak; for particularly sensitive subjects; for mapping areas, rapid censuses, ranking and decision-making.

Method	When/why/how it should be used
Recall	Can be used at any time after initial observation. Use diaries, time lines, recall sheets. Recall is used to gather information on past events or experiences.
Ranking	Can be used at any time after initial observation. Ranking methods are used to find out about people's preferences and priorities.
Focus group discussions	Use early in fieldwork to check opinions, language, ideas. Should be limited to a relatively small number as they are difficult to record and analyse.
Drama and role play	Use when researchers have good relationship with participants; to explore sensitive issues.
Written methods	Can be used at any time with literate people and especially good for school-aged children. Diaries and recall schedules can be written or filled in by participants. Essays can be used to explore issues about which not much is known. Written methods also include life histories, written checklists and rankings, sentence completion and self-completed questionnaires.
Interviews	For information about individuals, interviews are usually used later in the research process, when appropriate words, ideas and questions have been identified. Interviews can include sentence completion. Life histories/oral testimony can be collected from people who cannot (or do not want to) write. Interviews can be structured, semi-structured or highly structured (questionnaires). Questionnaires should not be designed or used until the final period of fieldwork (Steps 8 and 9).

Essential methods

Two research methods (research diary and observation) are always used, and should be included in the set of research tools in the protocol:

All researchers should keep a research diary from the first stakeholder meeting onwards. It is a good motivation if they are all given diaries – plain ruled, hard-bound notebooks that can easily fit into a bag – at that meeting or soon after.

Observation is the basis of all good research. Researchers need to make use of at least unstructured observation, which takes place throughout the research process, leading to the formulation of detailed research questions that can be tested using other more systematic methods, including structured observation (See Tool Kit 2 for an example of a standard observation sheet).

Individual and collective methods

Observation and research diary records do not require direct contact with the research target group. Methods that do involve direct contact, and which require informed consent to be obtained, can be classified into individual methods and collective (group) methods - although some can be used both with individuals and with groups of people.

Individual methods are used with children or adults who have special knowledge of a situation or topic. Individual methods are also used to give participants a confidential opportunity to communicate about personal and sensitive issues that they might not express in public. These methods help to bring out a range of different views. Individual responses only reflect personal viewpoints, so it is necessary to use them with a significant number and variety of participants (Tool Kit 2).

Collective methods are useful for exploring information about which people have a common understanding, community-level information and public attitudes. Collective methods, such as focus group discussions or role play/drama, may make groups of children feel more comfortable because they can reduce the role and power of

researchers. Observation of the ways people interact as they participate in a group method can also be a useful source of information.

Collective methods are not suitable for gathering data on individual views, sensitive personal issues or some major social problems. They can lead to superficial results if some participants do not dare speak up in front of others. In some cultures people are encouraged to express themselves freely in public, while in others the opposite is the case. Group methods benefit outspoken individuals but disadvantage quieter ones. Collective research methods are often not possible in conflict situations or dangerous situations.

Box 19: Matching people and methods to research questions

Research question	Detailed questions	Research participants	Method (Tool kit 3)
How is the corporal punishment of children defined?	What are current definitions of corporal punishment? What are current definitions of child? What are the differences between legal and customary definitions? Do different groups of people have different definitions in each case? If so, what are these varied definitions? How do children define physical punishment? What kinds of physical punishment do children think are the worst forms?	Legal experts Policymakers Education officials Teachers Parents Children	Secondary data Focus group discussions Interviews (using attitude survey and sentence completion techniques - see Tool Kit 3) Drawings Writings Role Play Recall

Research question	Detailed questions	Research participants	Method (Tool kit 3)
What are the impacts of corporal punishment on children's health?	Deaths? Permanent injuries? Psychological effects? Effects at different ages? Effects on different groups of children? Effects depending on the person punishing, or the place where punishment takes place?	Health personnel (hospitals, clinics, health visitors, school health, psychologists) Education officials Teachers Parents Children	Secondary data - hospital and clinic records for injuries and 'accidents' Focus group discussions Interviews Drawings Writings Recall Role play
Why are some children and not others subjected to physical punishment?	Which children are physically punished, where, by whom, in what ways and for what reasons? What are the factors that influence whether or not a child is physically punished? What are the factors leading to non violent conflict resolution (if this takes place)?	Parents Children Police, court and detention centres Parents Children Teachers Community leaders	Recall Focus group discussion Interviews Secondary data - records Recall Focus group discussion Interview (in addition to observation by researchers)

Matching people and methods to research questions

Groups of research participants need to be matched with both detailed research questions and methods. Return to the table of broad and detailed research questions (Step 4 Box 17). Add two more columns: for the participant groups that will be able to provide information that will help to answer detailed questions, and for the methods that will make it easy for them to share their knowledge with researchers (Box 19). It is important to realise that this does not usually mean asking participants the detailed questions directly. In most cases they would not be able to give a direct answer. Research methods

are a means of communication between researchers and research participants, using specific questions, leading to improved knowledge and understanding.

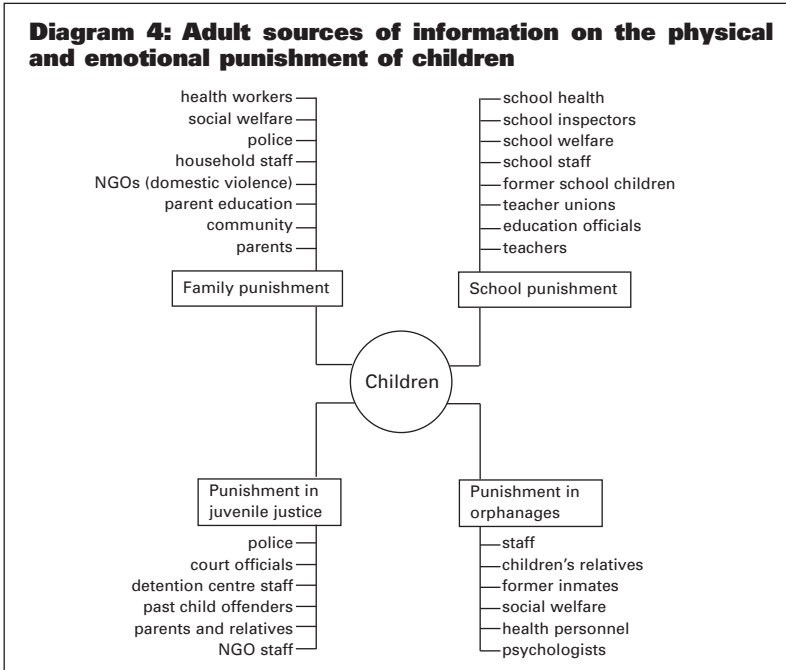
Think about several methods for each question. The advantages and disadvantages of using each method with selected participant groups (including ethical issues) can be discussed with stakeholders. Different participants react differently to the same methods depending on their age, ethnicity, or level of literacy.

- How sensitive is the topic?
- Are there particular difficulties of obtaining access to the research population, such as the privacy of family life or language difficulties?
- How much time money and other resources can stakeholders spend on the research?
- Do researchers and/or stakeholders have particular contact with or knowledge of potential research participants?

Where possible, plan to compare the results from the same method with different groups, or in different places. Collecting data from different sources is a form of cross-checking ('triangulation'). Many different participants (or proxy informants) can provide information about the physical punishment of children (Diagram 4). They all bring their own perspectives and views. Select participants based on their depth of knowledge and compare differences in their responses. Remember always to try to compare the perspectives of adults with those of children on the same topics.

Sampling

Each research tool needs to give specific instructions to researchers about the number and type of participants for each data collection session: for example, in a role play 'eight children aged five to ten years, half boys and half girls'. This precise number should be related to the overall samples of different kinds of participants (such as children, parents, and teachers) whom the protocol aims to involve in primary data collection.



Sampling is the process of selecting sites, participants, households or enterprises for study from among the available sources of information. The correct samples will provide reliable answers. A sample that is wrongly chosen or too small can make the research data invalid. At this stage, researchers must begin to devise ways of seeking informed consent from different groups of participants (Tool Kit 2).

Each specific group of participants is referred to as a 'sample', a term that is frequently misunderstood because the term 'sample' refers to three main ideas in daily life:

Smallness: A small piece of a larger item. Thus a sample of a piece of cloth might be shown to a prospective buyer to show the characteristics of the whole roll, such as colour, quality, type of material;

Testing: The act of taking a small, but typical, amount of something, such as spoonful of soup, in order to test its characteristics or prove its quality;

Representation: In science a 'sample' is also used to refer to a specimen used for testing, in which a small part represents the whole because it is believed to be typical. Thus a small part of a piece of yellow rock may be sampled and tested to see if it is all really gold.

In social research 'sample' has all three meanings: smallness, testing and representation. With the exception of a census, which counts and measures an entire population, social research can only work with a small number of people (the sample), who are taken to be typical of their group, in order to ask questions and/or test hypotheses. Thus, sampling means three things in social research:

- In general it refers to a defined group of participants who will be targeted to provide answers to a particular research question;
- Within a research tool it refers to the exact characteristics and numbers of participants who will be asked to work with researchers on this tool;
- In certain cases, a selection of people (or places, objects) chosen to represent the target population using a variety of techniques.

Sampling must be as systematic as possible in order to represent a wider population, and social researchers have devised a number of ways of deciding on groups, numbers and ways of selection. Social research is not like physics or chemistry because people are not objects that can be used in experiments. This is one of the reasons why ethics are important in research with human beings. It is also one of the reasons why social research cannot always produce exact, convenient samples, especially on sensitive topics such as the physical and emotional punishment of children. In addition, people have minds and lives of their own. They can decide whether or not to take part in research, or to tell the truth about their lives, and they may be hard to contact if their activities make them very mobile or cause them to hide because of embarrassment, guilt, fear or the illegality of what they are doing. To overcome these limitations, sampling must be as systematic as possible so that the participants represent wider groups of people.

Sampling methods

There are a variety of valid ways to select areas, participants, enterprises or households for a study. The choice of sampling methods depends on the purpose of the research, research approaches and population, and on the available time and resources. All the most common methods are explained in Tool Kit 2. Many new researchers worry about their samples, because there have been many texts written on this topic, which often sounds very technical. But, in research on hard-to-reach and mobile populations, researchers cannot afford to be too detailed about sampling; the main problem is to find children and adults at all. The research will be scientific if researchers are truthful and exact in the way they write in their reports about how they made contact with participants. The two methods that are most useful for hard-to-reach populations, or on sensitive subjects, are opportunistic sampling and snowball sampling:

- **Opportunistic sampling:** Taking advantage of meeting people during research to involve them as research participants. Particularly useful for hard-to-reach groups, such as street children, child prostitutes or pimps;
- **Snowball sampling:** Selecting people by starting with one participant and asking for suggestions about, and introductions to, other people who might be interested in taking part in the research.

In complex studies, such as multi-country research, sampling follows the same rules as in smaller studies. But each part of the research must use the same protocol in the same way, so that results from different regions or countries can be accurately compared.

Samples and age groups

Research with children always entails being clear about age groups. In order to be able to compare the data from one tool with data from another, researchers need to define a consistent set of age groups that they use in all tools, or to design different tools appropriate for younger and older children. This must be stated and explained at the

beginning of the protocol. For example 'In this research, child participants were divided into three age groups: five to 11 years, 12 to 15 years and 16 to 18 years, as this is the age grouping used by the education system.'

Control groups

A control group of research participants is necessary for most research, particularly when the aim is to discover the cause of a problem. Members of a control group have all the same characteristics (age, gender, ethnicity, economic status) as the research sample, except for the factor being researched.

Control groups must be similar in characteristics (such as age, gender, ethnicity, economic status, and family type) the sample groups, except for the major difference that is being tested (such as girls/boys). The more closely control and sample groups resemble each other the more confident researchers can be that their analysis of data is valid. Nevertheless, because the physical and emotional punishment of children is so widespread it may be difficult to find children who are not punished to form a control group. In that case, information about each child should be collected for later disaggregation to compare different groups of children. For example data will be needed about gender, age, birth order, educational success/failure, ethnicity and so forth.

Each research tool, or each sample in the protocol, may require one or more different control groups in order for the analysis of data to be reliable and verifiable. This is particularly important in research about the causes and effects of punishment. It is very important to remember that whatever adults or children say (in interviews and focus group discussion for example) is the cause of punishment is opinion, not fact. Unless children who are punished are compared with children who are not, then it is not possible to come to valid conclusions about the individual, family or community factors that cause physical punishment of children.

In longitudinal studies, in which the same research tools are used with the same groups at different points in time, there is seldom any need for a separate control group, because the group is its own control.

Example of using a control group

The question ‘What is the effect of physical and emotional punishment on school drop out among children aged six to 10 years in the target area?’ can be answered to a certain extent through asking drop out children themselves (using a variety of methods) and cross-checking with school enrolment, drop out and (where these exist) punishment records. To make a direct link between punishment and drop out, the same research tools need to be used with children of the same age and background who do not drop out. It will probably be necessary to work with more than one control group (for example children attending school who work, and children attending school who do not work) to make sure that it is really punishment, and not any other factor, that is causing (or at least directly linked to) school drop out.

Designing research tools

Decisions about methods and samples are recorded in detail in draft research tools, which should all follow the same structure and provide the same kind of information. Exact and detailed research tools are the basis of scientific data collection and analysis. They can be used by different researchers, at different times, with different groups of participants and in different places. Because they are used in the same way in all situations the data can be compared. The contents list of a research tool is always more or less the same (See Box 20 and Tool Kit 4).

Keeping records

Detailed instructions for recording data are a vital part of any research tool. Records can be made in a variety of ways. One necessity for every data collection session is for researchers to fill in a ‘standard observation sheet’, which records details of that particular session, the researchers, participants, place and any factors that may have affected the information collected (See Tool Kit 2 for an example of a standard observation sheet).

Box 20: Contents of a research tool

Aim: What this research tool aims to find out;

Method: The chosen method (described briefly but accurately – it may not be sufficient to write ‘focus group discussion’ for example);

Sample: The group of participants that will be involved in this tool (for example ‘a group of up to ten children in any one session of children aged eight to 15 years who have returned to their community after being trafficked’);

Number of researchers: The number of researchers necessary for carrying out a successful data collection session using this tool;

Site: The type of place that is needed for the research to take place. For a focus group discussion with 12 participants and three researchers this might be ‘A comfortable room with good lighting, 15 chairs, free from interruptions’;

Materials: An exact list of the materials needed for each session (this is essential for planning the materials and equipment needed for the research as a whole). A typical list for a session collecting children’s drawings from a school class might be ‘30 pencils, 30 sheets of drawing paper, flip chart sheet with written instructions, informed consent forms, standard observation sheet’;

Instructions for researchers: These must be detailed, giving the precise order in which the events of a data-collection session should take place, what words the researchers use, and what materials are used. Instructions must include things that are done in all data collection sessions, seeking informed consent; keeping records, filling in a standard observation sheet and numbering data.

Any charts, forms, schedules and visual materials used in the research tool must be attached (see examples in Tool Kit 4).

For all methods, records can be made in writing, in drawings and maps, using a tape recorder, photographs or a video camera. A written record must always be kept because tape recorders and cameras may fail. In addition tape recordings, in particular, are difficult and extremely time-consuming to analyse. In all research tools, try to design special forms for easier data collection (Tool Kit 4).

Negotiate with participants the recording method to be used. Make sure children and adults know and agree to the way in which the session is recorded and how this record will be used (Tool Kit 2). In

situations where notes cannot be taken, record answers and observations immediately after the data-collection session.

Make sure recording methods do not interrupt communication: look at people; make eye contact in interviews; do not look all the time at a notebook; do not stop talk or action in order to record.

Children and adult community members have their own ways of using words. Do not stop participants talking or acting in order to write things down. Do not summarise or translate what people say. Record the exact words, sayings, jokes, songs, body language and hand signs that different people use when they talk about 'sensitive' topics or illegal activities, such as sexuality and different types of people involved in sex work, drugs or trafficking. Do not 'correct' language 'mistakes'.

After collective methods, ask participants if they want to check and agree to the record of the meeting that will have been made on flipcharts or in sketches, diagrams, photographs and videos.

Piloting

Research tools must be piloted (tested) before being used to gather data, so that any mistakes can be corrected and data can be collected efficiently. Once the full set of tools and all materials necessary for using them have been designed, researchers should test them out on each other, friends and family members. This needs to be done in order to become familiar with using them and to correct any errors, such as wording in instructions or visual materials that do not make sense.

Revise the draft tools on the basis of this informal testing and then choose a community (or communities) that is similar to the places where it is intended to carry out the research. For each tool, select small groups of participants similar to the sample groups required and go through the entire procedure of using each tool. Record any problems on a standard observation sheet. Look for:

- Mistakes in the order in which things are done;
- Badly-worded or confusing instructions;
- Missing instructions;
- Instructions that are difficult for researchers to carry out;
- Samples that are too large or too small;
- Words and questions that are misunderstood by participants;
- Tools that do not gather the intended information;
- Visual materials that are misunderstood by participants;
- Informed consent methods that do not work.

Researchers then need to compare systematically the experiences they have using each tool in a meeting deciding 'What works', 'What doesn't work', 'What can be done differently'. Do not be afraid to change a tool completely, or discard it. However, tools that are discarded will have to be replaced with another tool that can do the same job (this tool will also have to be piloted).

Revise the tools and test again, agreeing final changes with the whole team.

Main ideas in Step 5

- Main research questions lead to decisions about which groups to study and what methods to use;
- To answer main research questions takes more than one method and more than one research tool;
- Research diaries and unstructured observations are used in all research;
- Research methods can be collective or individual;
- Research methods are used to design precise tools for data collection;
- Choice of sampling methods depends on the purpose of research, research approaches and participants, as well as on the available time and budget;
- For research on hard-to-reach groups, opportunistic and snowball sampling methods are particularly useful;
- Research with children requires age groups to be selected and used consistently throughout research;
- Control groups are usually necessary for research results to be valid;
- Recording must be systematic – written records are essential.

Step 6: Research plan

Definitions

Ethics – Moral principles or rules of conduct.

Fieldwork – Collecting data from or with participants.

The final part of a research protocol is the research plan, which contains all the practical instructions for how, when, where and by whom it will be carried out. Some of this planning will already have been discussed with the funding organisation, other stakeholders and the researchers. Now is the time to put it all down on paper.

Make a printed version of the whole protocol thus far, containing:

- A statement of the background explaining briefly (1-2 pages) the reasons why the research is necessary and its aims;
- A table of main and detailed research questions (See Step 4);
- Detailed research tools for data collection (Tool Kit 4);
- A list of additional secondary data to be collected during fieldwork from local sources.

Ethical strategy

A number of ethical considerations are of crucial importance in social research (Box 21). Specific questions arise with particular vulnerable groups of children, and a detailed ethical strategy must be a written part of any protocol. This includes details of ways in which informed consent will be sought and records kept of people's consent or refusal.

Finalising the research team

Return to Step 1 to make final decisions about the size and composition of the research team. The size of a research team depends on the research purpose and topic, the research approach and population, and the available time and budget. Focused, local studies can be

carried out by small teams or by individual researchers. National household surveys require dozens or even hundreds of enumerators and a hierarchy of staff.

Box 21: Sample checklist for ethical issues to consider in research

- Is this research necessary?
- Is this research well planned?
- Is this research intended to be integrated into a programme of action?
- Have ways been found to address specific ethical issues raised by this research?
- How will informed consent be obtained from children?
- How will informed consent be obtained from adults?
- Is accessible information about this research being provided?
- What level of confidentiality and anonymity can be offered to participants?
- Is there appropriate stakeholder participation in this research?
- Is compensation for taking part in the research necessary?
- What kind of compensation will be offered, when and how?
- Is appropriate compensation being offered for assistance?
- Will participants be able to check the researchers' version of the information they have provided?
- How will participants be consulted on the results of the research?
- What are risks to participants and how will these be minimised?
- What are the risks to field researchers and how will these be minimised?

Source: Adapted from Laws et al 2002.

Action-oriented research puts a strong emphasis on raising awareness and strengthening the commitment of stakeholders. Programme managers should be aware that this usually results in larger teams of researchers, although single researchers can also follow the twelve steps. All researchers in action-oriented research on physical and emotional punishment of children should have been involved in developing the protocol. If others join the team at this stage, or are planned for inclusion at a later stage (perhaps children and other community members), time must be given for them to understand and use the ethical procedures and research tools and operate as equals with other research team members. This is not the same as 'training research assistants'. Participatory research does not permit differences of status of that kind. Researchers who do not understand and 'own' the research will not collect good data.

Decide if and when researchers work alone or in pairs. Consider the time it takes to build good team spirit among the members of the research team. Even if all team members were involved from the beginning in the preparations for the research, team dynamics are likely to be different during fieldwork.

If the research is carried out in more than one community, it saves time to have a smaller research team for each place (each with a team coordinator).

Within a research team it can be useful to assign specific tasks or research tools to team members. This allows each researcher to build up a deeper understanding of topics in a specific place and with community members, or of the data collected using a particular method. As long as the research protocol is followed correctly by all researchers, data from different places, collected by different people, can be compared – the standard observation sheet and precise research tools ensure this.

Timetable

The first major constraint on the length of time that can be spent on a research process is funding. It is important to be realistic, but it is also important to make sure that sufficient time is budgeted for each stage of data collection, analysis and writing. Even a small-scale, modest research process undertaken by experienced researchers is unlikely to take less than nine months to one year from start to finish, if it is to include proper protocol development, the collection of sufficient, accurate data, adequate analysis and a well-written report.

Research timetables have to take into consideration practical factors such as seasonal differences, weekly and daily working rhythms, religious holidays and observances, school holidays, and irregular events, such as national elections, a population census, even international sporting events. Specific points to check include:

- School term and examination times;
- Seasonal differences in work patterns and work loads: people in rural areas are often busier during the rainy season; during the dry season people may migrate;

- The effects of rainy or dry seasons on transport to remote areas;
- National holidays and local festivals;
- Work time: when is it least inconvenient for participants to meet researchers (during lunch breaks, in the evenings, on the weekends)?
- When and where to interview children. Find out when children have time off and what they do in their free time (if any). Observation will identify meeting points or places where children receive services or enjoy leisure. Drop-in centres, for example, are easily accessible and provide good opportunities to establish contacts and build relationships. School playgrounds or bus and train stations might also be useful meeting points.

Different methods and sources of information may be appropriate during different times of the day (or week). Weekends are busy shopping times for families, which means that it is possible to observe interactions between parents and children in public places (such as supermarkets and shopping malls). Working children may only be free to meet researchers late at night. Check if researchers are able to work at weekends and at night and if they expect extra pay for these unsocial hours.

Participation requires time and flexibility. Together with research team members, and liaising with programme managers and stakeholders as necessary, coordinators can adapt research schedules and tools to facilitate participation. Inflexible research schedules exclude the weakest, youngest and those with the least power. Make special efforts to include them.

Coordinator(s) and programme manager(s) should prepare a research schedule and allocate time for every part of the research plan. Allow more time for research during rainy seasons, due to transport difficulties, heavy work periods in rural areas. Add ten to twenty per cent extra time for unforeseen events during data collection. Consider the time it takes to get to the research site, and the time it takes to get from the researchers' living quarters to offices, houses of participants, and work sites. In rural and scattered communities it will take time to organise meetings and to bring people together. Researchers will also need time for team meetings in which they plan and review the research.

Building trust with children, communities and officials also takes time. Especially if senior people are part of the research team, there may be delays due to official introductions and formal meals. This is a necessary part of the introduction of the team to the community and important for getting support for the research from community leaders.

Sequence the steps of the research at the community level to make best use of the available time and to avoid rushing, overlap, overwork, or long periods where nothing happens.

Allow time for numbering and indexing data, for inputting into a computer if this is planned, as well as for computing tables, for analysis, interpretation and report writing. Time required for these parts of the research depends on the skills and experience of the researchers, on the complexity of the research approach and methods, the scope of the research, and on the length of the required report. A rough guide is to plan one or two days of analysis for every day of data collection. If researchers are inexperienced or unfamiliar with the methods or are trying out new analytical approaches, both analysis and report writing can take much longer.

Logistics

All the following details need to be considered and entered in the protocol:

- Government approval for research may be needed. Therefore, obtain all necessary permissions (official and informal) from the relevant authorities;
- Explaining the purpose and approach of the research. Make sure central and local government staff will facilitate and support the study without dominating or directing the research activities;
- Finding out what government officials know and expect and how they see community problems;
- Explaining that staff of relevant agencies will be debriefed about the results of the research;

- Identifying the contacts local government officials have with the community and different community groups;
- Assessing the capacity, motivation, mandate and resources of government officials to address the issues;
- Involving government officials from different levels in the research;
- Ensuring that the people in the communities are ready to receive the researchers, and are willing to participate;
- Finding out when it is convenient to do the research. Team members who know the area well can help communicate with the communities;
- Permission to access schools and obtaining informed consent from education authorities, teachers and parents in order to be able to access children.

Equipment

Make a list of all equipment needed, using the research tools as a guide. Materials needed in the field include notebooks, paper (especially if children's drawings and essays are being collected), pens, flipcharts, markers, tape, clips, plastic folders, scissors, camera, film, spare batteries, tape recorders, standard observation sheets, materials for each research tool (including for example copies of visual stimuli used, recall and structured observation sheets).

Check out local power supply, communications (phone, fax, e-mail) and photocopying services in research sites.

Consider whether to provide researchers with laptop computers to use in the field to record and store data.

Transport

Programme managers need to be particularly aware of transport needs, especially if data are to be collected some distance away from the office, or in rural areas. This is a crucial budget issue, which possibly causes more problems during research than any other. Arrange transport to the research sites, and a cash flow to pay for it.

Check if there are there any restrictions of movement (permission to visit sensitive border areas, conflicts and so forth). Take into account seasonal issues, such as periods of heavy rain when roads become impassable.

If researchers are using local transport make sure that bus and train timetables will not limit their time with participants – it may be more cost effective to hire a car with a driver or make an arrangement with local taxis. It is not a good use of researchers' time to spend six hours on a bus going to and from a research site and spend only one hour collecting data.

If researchers use their own cars, draw up a contract for adequate repayment for fuel and other costs. Timely payments will keep the research on the road and motivate researchers.

Accommodation, health and safety

Arrange accommodation for the research team, who should aim to stay in the communities they work in wherever possible. Make necessary arrangements for food, observing dietary restrictions due to health or religion, and making sure that there will be adequate food when travelling (and a cash flow to pay for it). Even if hospitality is offered by participants or others in a community, be careful that researchers do not become a burden.

Identify medical facilities at the research site(s) as well as any potential risks to the health, safety and security of the researchers. Obtain adequate insurance for the researchers. Organise a kit of essential medicines and make sure that preventive measures (such as against malaria) are taken. Leave contact information with colleagues and relatives at home.

Researchers must always be prepared to deal with their own exhaustion, their reactions to experiences that shock them, occasional abusive community members or officials, and situations in which they have to deal with children or adults who become distressed by talking about abuse, punishment or family conflict. Coordinators must arrange regular, team meetings during which researchers can

support each other as well as deal with any team crises and conflicts. Before fieldwork begins this should also be discussed with stakeholders, so that counselling and other help for emergency situations can be identified, and become part of the research plan.

Before leaving for fieldwork

Make a final protocol check. Each and every research protocol must contain:

- A statement of the background explaining briefly (one page) the reasons why the research is necessary and its aims;
- A table of research questions (See Step 4);
- An ethical strategy including means of seeking informed consent (See Chapter 2; Box 16 and Tool Kit 2);
- Detailed research tools for data collection, including standard observation sheet (Tool Kit 2 and 4);
- A plan for fieldwork logistics.

Each researcher requires a complete, bound copy of the protocol.

Main ideas in Step 6

- Research tools are detailed instructions for researchers to follow;
- All research tools must be tested before they are used, and modified where appropriate;
- Fieldwork should be planned and prepared in detail so that data can be collected efficiently without undue strain on researchers or participants.

LEVEL 3

DATA COLLECTION

Primary data collection is at the heart of research. The process of analysis begins between two periods of field research, in a period of reflection and revision and the systematic organisation of data.

Step 7 Detailed research questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Research team uses the protocol as a manual for collecting data following the ethical strategy and using all the research tools;• Regular team meetings ensure the protocol is used properly;• Ethical problems encountered in the field are resolved in team meetings;• Data are systematically recorded.
Step 8 First analysis	Research team pauses to: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Check methods of recording and indexing;• Analyse data collected so far:<ul style="list-style-type: none">Develop categories; for analysisConsider what the data already collected have revealed about research questions;Modify or add new questions or hypotheses if required;Begin to formulate overall messages.• Revise and finalise the protocol for the second period of data collection:<ul style="list-style-type: none">Review the research tools and modify or change them if necessary;Add new samples or field work sites if needed;Design and pilot new research tools if required.
Step 9 Second period of data collection	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Research team continues data collection:<ul style="list-style-type: none">Using the revised research protocol;Continuing to index data;Continuing to resolve ethical dilemmas;• Data collection is completed in all sites and with all groups.

Level 3 thus consists of time collecting primary data through field work (Step 7), followed by a an interactive workshop for researchers as they begin their analysis, develop new research tools and perhaps revise the protocol (Step 8) and a second, usually longer, period of time in the field (Step 9).

All three steps in Level 3 must be taken.

Step 7: First period of data collection

Definitions

Analysis – Logical and systematic process of examining data to see what they mean.

Data number – Unique number for each piece of data.

Field research – A study of people in their everyday world, not in a laboratory or other special setting.

Fieldwork – Collecting primary data from or with participants.

Standard observation sheet – Standardised record of the context of each data collection session.

Valid data – Data from a particular research tool that have been collected with sufficient accuracy to be included in analysis.

Before fieldwork, researchers need to check with the research plan in the protocol, to make sure that they have all the materials they require, especially a bound copy of the protocol itself, and sufficient copies of the research tool attachments for use during fieldwork (such as forms and visual stimuli), standard observations sheets and informed consent materials. There may be no time or facilities available in the field to make copies, especially in rural areas.

After all preparations have been made the researchers arrive in the research areas ready to start 'fieldwork' (collecting data with participants). The research protocol is used to guide all data collection. The agreed ethical strategy must be used and informed consent sought from children and adults who are asked to take part in the research. Researchers must be prepared to deal with situations in which children or adults break down during or after talking about abuse, punishment or family conflict. Researchers should also be prepared to support each other on a day-to-day basis. Researchers work as a team, and individuals should not make decisions about groups to work with or tools to use without team agreement.

Box 22: Helpful research attitudes

- Learn to doubt your own attitudes and preconceptions and do not always believe what people say they do – observe what they actually do, and record both their words and their actions;
- Learn from mistakes – everyone makes mistakes, these are opportunities for learning and do not ‘invalidate’ data provided that they are recorded on standard observation sheets;
- Practice humility, especially with children, for example sit on the floor if participants are sitting on the floor, even if offered a chair;
- Listen actively, with respect for and interest in children’s, women’s and men’s knowledge, experience, analysis, feelings and thoughts;
- Do not lecture children or adults, accept what they say and do not argue with them;
- Create trust and equality – share information and knowledge, but remember that data are confidential;
- Do not try to control child and adult participants through authoritarian voice, body language or attitudes;
- Show patience – do not rush participants; give them time to understand, reflect and share their ideas;
- Resist the temptation to provide answers or remedies, and do not make promises you cannot keep;
- Do not interrupt participants.

Source: Adapted from Boyden and Ennew, 1997.

Teamwork

Team coordinator(s) supervise and manage the research team(s) to ensure high quality data collection and recording during fieldwork. Coordinators should be active in the field, collecting data themselves and supervising the work of other field researchers in daily team meetings. Coordinators are responsible for:

- Maintaining ethical standards at all times;
- Observing researchers at work and comparing their work;
- Observing relationships between researchers and dealing with any conflicts;
- Observing relationships between researchers and participants; gently correcting dominating or unethical attitudes and behaviour by researchers;
- Ensuring fieldworkers use methods correctly;
- Checking quality and quantity of data;
- Checking recording methods and the organisation of records;

- Suggesting where changes, additions and improvements could be made;
- Listening to the suggestions of team members and learning from their experiences;
- Discussing problems and suggesting solutions;
- Supporting researchers and ensuring their confidence remains high;
- Watching for signs of stress in individual field researchers;
- Ensuring safety and security of researchers, participants and data.

Coordinators need to monitor energy levels of team members. Researchers who investigate stressful social issues in unfamiliar places, under difficult physical conditions, may suffer from physical and emotional strain. Reduce stress by breaking the fieldwork into several shorter periods or by using a larger team and shortening the data collection time. Make sure the researchers get adequate rest, eat regularly and healthily, have access to medical care if necessary, and occasionally have breaks for fun and relaxation.

The research team should meet at the start or end of each day, to review the previous day, plan the next activities and solve problems. The purpose of these meetings is to report progress, ask for advice on problems, discuss solutions, get feedback on methods and data, try out new ideas, and do some preliminary analysis of the data. Topics and activities in these meetings should be systematically organised and may include:

- Ethical dilemmas and solutions;
- Surprises in data collection;
- Confirmation of prior ideas;
- Practical difficulties and solutions;
- Sharing research diaries, through reading passages;
- Talking about themes that appear to be developing.

Organise records

Unless researchers take detailed and careful notes, follow research tools exactly and number data systematically, the best research protocol in the world will fail and data will not be valid. Data analysis

begins during fieldwork by organising the records of data collection from all research tools. This should be part of the daily routine, and should not be left until the end of the fieldwork. Records that are systematically numbered, ordered, stored and indexed are much easier to analyse. Well-organised records also reduce the risk that important information may be overlooked or lost.

Numbering data

Every piece of data (interview sheet, focus group discussion record, each drawing, essay, recall sheet or other schedule) must have a unique data number. Because some of the data will be entered into a computer for analysis, it makes sense to use a four-digit numbering system, in which 1 is written as 0001, and 600 as 0600. Using four-digit numbers will provide unique data numbers for 9999 pieces of data. If it is anticipated that more pieces of data will be collected, use a five-digit system (00001 or 00600) or even larger (Box 23).

Box 23: Example of numbering and labelling pieces of data		
Research tool number and title	Number of tools	Allocated reference numbers
1a Unstructured observation of conditions, facilities and use of facilities in institutions	17	0001-0017
1b Structured observation of conditions, facilities and use of facilities in institutions	5	0018-0022
2a Essay: child’s institutional life history	109	0023-0131
2b Individual interview: Child’s institutional life history	26	0132-0157
3 Drawing: Children’s perceptions of conditions in the institution	433	0158-0590
4 Role play followed by focus group discussion: Children’s perceptions of discipline and corporal punishment	13	0591-0603
And so forth...		
<i>Source: Robinson, 2000.</i>		

Reserve a block of unique data numbers for each research tool before starting data collection, corresponding to the maximum number of pieces of data it is expected to produce (Box 23). Individual researchers or groups of researchers may also have blocks of numbers allotted to them.

Number notepads, individual pages, rolls of film, tape recordings and drawings. Date each research event (diary entry, interview, drawing session, focus group discussion, role play...).

Add details clearly and systematically to a standard observation sheet immediately after each data-collection session and keep the sheet attached to the data records.

Storage

Store materials needed for research tools, and records of data collection in a safe place where they cannot be lost, damaged or read by people who have not signed confidentiality undertakings. Wherever possible, keep second copies in a separate place. Where practical, send copies of children's writing and drawings elsewhere for safekeeping.

Make sure that no data are discarded – even if they do not appear to provide the information required by the research. There are no 'bad' data, only interesting data. If participants do not answer the research questions the way researchers expect, this may be because the research tool is badly designed for this group of people, or it may be that participants have different understandings about the research topics - which is vitally important for research analysis.

Box 24: Typical mistakes made by researchers during fieldwork

- Not following the instructions in the research tool exactly;
- Not keeping research diaries up to date;
- Forgetting to record observations;
- Not taking enough time for recording;
- Failing to complete standard observation sheets;
- Not numbering data;
- Missing out part of a research tool;
- Not having sufficient copies of research tool materials, voluntary consent forms or standard observation sheets;
- Inadequate note taking, such as not recording literally what participants say in the language they use;
- Recording an answer incorrectly;
- Insufficient probing and cross-checking;
- Recording contradictory data without probing;
- Not maintaining ethical standards;
- Being too hasty about collecting informed consent;
- Listening to adults and not children;
- Being obviously shocked by what they see or hear;
- Making value judgements about people;
- Criticising or lecturing children and adults whose behaviour researchers do not understand or do not approve of.

Main ideas in Step 7

- Informed consent must always be sought;
- Researchers must follow the instructions in the protocol;
- Records must be kept systematically;
- All data must be numbered;
- Every time a research tool is used, a standard observation sheet must be completed;
- Data must be safely and systematically stored;
- Researchers must meet every day to review data collection and ethical issues.

Step 8: First analysis

Definitions

Analysis – Logical, systematic process of examining data in order to see what they mean.

Category – An organising idea or topic, used to index, cross-check and analyse data; categories may be part of main and detailed research questions, or may arise during data collection and analysis.

Hypothesis – An idea, based on knowledge, information, previous observation or analysis that has to be proved or disproved through research.

Indexing – Numbering or naming parts of data according to categories, so that data can be compared between different research tools (triangulation). Also useful for locating data on specific themes or topics.

Message – Overall research result.

At the end of the first period of fieldwork, all researchers should meet for a workshop, organised and facilitated by the coordinator(s), lasting about one week, in which they share and review their experiences, order their data, revise some research tools and perhaps design others, and begin to develop the framework for analysis and report writing. This also provides an opportunity to relax together away from the pressures of collecting data. It is ideal if researchers can have a short break from work before this workshop begins.

The activities of Step 8 are to:

- Share and reflect on the field experience;
- Identify and discuss initial messages;
- Begin the process of indexing;
- Begin to construct a list of research categories;
- Review research tools;
- Reflect on ethical issues;
- Consider difficulties encountered in the field and how to overcome them;
- Design and pilot new research tools if necessary;
- Revise the research protocol.

This is the first stage of analysis. Putting the collected data in order prepares the data for analysis. Without categorising, indexing, coding and sorting the data it is impossible to carry out an analysis. In fact, data analysis is largely a process of sorting and re-sorting the data in different ways, so that trends, links, similarities, gaps and contradictions become clear.

The process of organising and sorting data consists of a number of ordered tasks. During Step 8 researchers carry out the first two tasks – categorising and preliminary indexing. These need to be followed by discussing difficulties, and revising the protocol.

Nevertheless, Step 8 is not all routine work. Researchers also share impressions about what they think children and adults are telling them through the research tools, the 'messages' that will probably become the framework for their final report. This should be the first task of the workshop.

Messages

Attention to detail in the field and in analysis should not draw researcher's thoughts away from broader issues and ideas. Researchers need time to reflect on and share their impressions about what they have noticed during the first data collection period, which has confirmed their ideas before fieldwork, or surprised them, or raised new questions. It is important not to become so involved in the details of data that overall ideas and main research questions become forgotten. Thus researchers should begin the workshop by reflecting on what messages they think children and adults are sharing through participating in data collection.

Individual reflection, followed by brainstorming is usually the best way to explore these areas. The research coordinator should ask each researcher to make three lists, without discussion with anyone else:

- Ideas that were confirmed in fieldwork;
- Surprises and perhaps shocks revealed by the data (including through observation and research diaries);
- New questions that have arisen during fieldwork.

The coordinator should prepare three flip chart sheets, each of which should be labelled to match one of the lists. When all researchers have finished their lists, their ideas can be shared and recorded on the flip chart sheets. If the research team is large, it may make sense to form groups to share and consolidate lists before recording them on the flip chart.

The result will be a large number of ideas that can be clustered and organised under a small number of headings (possibly using ranking techniques). These headings will form the basis of the main messages of the research. They can be shared with stakeholders for comment and refined in later stages of analysis.

Programme managers will be particularly interested in these messages, which may give them ideas to use in programming, but they should not put pressure on researchers to produce 'results' or 'findings' at this stage.

Develop categories

'Categories' are the organising ideas that structure analysis and are vital for writing a research report. Some categories are very clear from main and detailed research questions – physical punishment of children, ideas about discipline, family and childhood, for example. Others will arise through reflection on the data. If researchers find that many children are orphans, for example, this may be added as a category, and if physically punished children seem to have step-parents, the category 'step-parent' may be added as a sub-category to the category 'family'.

Before they meet at the start of Step 8, researchers should read through all their data, notebooks and research diaries. This overview will help them to develop the organising ideas (categories) through which they will index the collected data.

Following agreement on draft messages, researchers begin to develop categories. Each researcher should then make a list of categories, which may be derived from the main research questions, or may relate to themes: such as 'family life' or 'physical punishment of

children', or research questions, such as 'What are the reasons why some children are punished more than others?', or one or more of the messages. They include:

- Key topics, such as parental duties, community views;
- Key groups of participants, such as children, adolescents, child workers, parents, opinion leaders.

Categories also emerge from reviewing data – issues, ideas or groups that were not thought about in the original research question, such as children who punish other children, or non violent conflict resolution measures used by some parents.

The coordinator should facilitate researchers to share and discuss their personal lists of categories, first in pairs and then in groups of four, which present combined lists to the group as a whole, for discussion. A final combined list of categories can then be drawn up. One technique is to write each category on a piece of card and then group, rank and sort them. Finally a list should be drawn up with the categories in alphabetical order and with some organisation into sub-categories (Box 25).

Indexing – first stage

From this point in the research process, researchers should begin to index data according to the agreed list of categories. This means reading through all data, including research diaries, and marking them according to the categories. For example, Box 26 shows how the life history of a child domestic worker might be indexed using categories like those in Box 21. Inevitably some categories overlap. They may need to be indexed for more than one category or sub-category. Do not try to decide which is the 'real' category they belong in – this will limit analysis.

Researchers should try to index all the data they have already collected before leaving for the next stage of fieldwork. During fieldwork this process should continue and time should be allowed before the final analysis stage (Step 10) for all indexing to be completed.

Box 25: List of some possible categories for research on the physical punishment of children	
Category	Sub-categories
Childhood	School Work Effects of gender
Family	Mother Father Step-parents Siblings Other relatives
Punishment	Slapping/smacking Hitting with stick Hitting with other implement Hard work Hard physical exercise Confinement Painful treatment Neglect Humiliating treatment Verbal abuse Emotional abuse
Effect of punishment	Injury Death Unhappiness/depression Pain Run away from home/work Leave school
Who punishes	Parents Stepparents Siblings Other relatives Un-related person Teacher Employer Pimp/brothel owner

Box 26: Example of indexing data (life history of sexually exploited child)	
Original data	Indexing (Researcher's notes in the margin according to categories)
<p>Data number 0093 Child age: 14 Child's gender: female Child's place of origin: Cambodia Child's place of work: Bangkok</p> <p>Life history</p> <p><i>I was born in Phnom Penh and went to school until the end of Primary Four. My father died and my mother married another man, who did not like me and my brother. So we started to live by ourselves in the house of my mother's sister. She didn't give us any food. One day her friend said she would take me to Bangkok so that I could find work. So I left. I started to work cleaning a house but the family didn't give me enough to eat. The lady beat me if I made mistake or did not speak Thai. One day I spilt some soup and I was afraid so I ran away. I met my friend who took me to his house. Now I have a good place to live and my friend gives me money. I meet foreigner in bar and take them home. They pay my friend. Sometimes he takes me to clinic because I have sickness.</i></p>	<p><i>Step parent</i></p> <p><i>Neglect</i></p> <p><i>Child domestic worker</i></p> <p><i>Employer</i></p> <p><i>Run away from employer's home</i></p>

Reviewing research tools

During breaks from indexing, which can be boring and difficult to concentrate on if done for long periods of time, researchers share their experiences using research tools, discussing any difficulties and how to overcome them. They decide which tools to continue to use (which should be most of those in the protocol), and which need to be modified (this should not be necessary if they have been correctly piloted). The discussion can be organised around the sort of questions that now should have become a familiar part of the research process:

- What worked and what did not work?
- What are the reasons why some things worked and others did not?
- What were the effects of these difficulties on the quality and reliability of the data?
- What should be done differently during the second period of data collection?

The coordinator should lead these discussions and make sure that a record is kept of all ideas and decisions, which will be used to revise the protocol.

Revising the protocol

Before revising any part of the protocol, check the table of main research questions (see example in Box 11) to make sure that the data being gathered can provide the information that is needed by stakeholders. This can be done by using the following questions which will also help amend existing research tools and perhaps design a few more for Step 9, the second stage of data collection:

- What are the participants telling us – in what they are saying, and what they are not saying?
- What are the children telling us?
- What is the community telling us about children?
- What are parents telling us about discipline?
- What are teachers telling us about discipline?
- Are there any unexpected observations?
- What do we feel uncertain about?
- What research questions or messages have emerged that require some quantitative checking?
- What interesting and unexpected ideas, concepts and problems have the data revealed that we had not expected or thought about before?
- Which of these can be explored within the current research, and which should be recommended for future research projects?

New tools can be designed according to the same processes followed in Step 5. This may be the time to develop specific, focused questionnaires. But remember that some checking can be done by adding other elements or questions to existing research tools.

- Make agreed changes to research tools;
- Design new tools;
- Pilot new tools using the process in Step 6;
- Make practical, logistical adjustments to the plans and timetable in the protocol;
- Share ideas and the revised protocol by presenting them in a meeting with stakeholders to get their feedback;
- Make any final adjustments to the protocol, and provide each researcher with a bound copy of the revised version.

Main ideas in Step 8

- The first stage of fieldwork reveals ideas, insights and difficulties;
- Some of the main messages that will form the framework for the research report should already be clear;
- Messages can be shared with stakeholders;
- Programme managers must not put pressure on researchers to produce 'findings' at this stage;
- Data must be organised and numbered;
- Data categories must be developed;
- The process of indexing begins with marking all data according to the list of categories and sub-categories;
- Difficulties in conducting data collection need to be discussed and resolved;
- Adjustments may need to be made to the tools and plans in the protocol;
- New tools may need to be developed and piloted;
- The revised protocol is finalised.

Step 9: Second period of data collection

Researchers are now ready to complete data collection in Step 9. This stage of data collection is usually longer than the first period, and researchers probably have some additional research tools to use. On the other hand they will have more experience and confidence than they had in Step 7.

This does not mean that standards of data collection or ethical procedures should slip. On the contrary, the research team should have higher standards, more experience with the protocol and greater understanding after discussion and problem solving in Step 8.

All the procedures and practices of Step 7 must be observed in Step 9, especially daily team meetings. The research team completes data collection using the revised research protocol, with the addition of newly designed research tools. They continue to number and index data.

Main ideas in Step 9 (as in Step 7)

- Researchers must follow the instructions in the protocol;
- Records must be kept systematically;
- All data must be numbered;
- Data must be safely and systematically stored;
- Researchers must meet to review data collection and ethical issues every day;
- All data must be indexed.

ANALYSIS AND REPORT WRITING

Programme managers should plan ahead for:

- Possibly contracting people to input data and/or calculate basic statistics;
- Providing space in which researchers can work together, including computer, printing and photocopying facilities as well as data storage;
- Research team members must not take data home or work in isolation from each other.

Step 10 Analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Data preparation: Sort and combine the collected data; Make inventories; Revise messages and categories; Finish indexing; Code data for numerical analysis; Produce tables.• Data analysis Analyse data by research tool; Analyse data by categories; Triangulate; Feedback to stakeholders.
Step 11 Writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Combine the analyses of tools and categories into a written report;• Base the structure on the main research questions and messages;• Share the draft report with participants and stakeholders for comments;• Edit and finalise the report, taking comments into consideration;• Follow the ethical strategy when writing the report.

Step 10: Analysis

Definitions

Analysis – Logical and systematic process of examining data to see what they mean.

Category – Topic, theme or idea used to index, cross-check and analyse data; categories may be part of main and detailed research questions, or may arise during data collection and analysis.

Classification – Organising facts, things or people into groups based on qualities they have in common.

Coding – A procedure for ‘translating’ raw data into a standardised format to group data for easier data analysis. Coding qualitative data involves identifying recurrent words, concepts or themes. In quantitative research, coding involves turning data (answers) into numerical values. For example, assigning numbers to all of the possible responses to a question, such as yes=1, no=2, not sure=3, no response=0.

Hypothesis – An idea, based on knowledge, information, previous observation or analysis that has to be proved or disproved through research.

Indexing – Numbering or naming parts of data according to categories, so that data can be compared between different research tools (triangulation). Also useful for locating data on specific themes or topics.

Inventory – A complete listing of data.

Raw data – Primary data that have not been analysed.

Triangulation – The systematic comparison of data from different research tools and groups of participants in order to increase the validity of research analysis. An essential part of valid research.

Valid data – Data from a particular research tool that have been collected with sufficient accuracy to be included in analysis.

Validation – A much misused term, often mistakenly used to apply to feedback on research results from stakeholders and/or participants. Validation is possible for research data collected using specific research tools. Stakeholders and participants do not validate research results and reports. Validation takes place through triangulation. In research ‘valid’ does not mean ‘true’.

The purpose of analysis is to find and explain patterns and trends in the data, as well as to identify and interpret differences, contradictions and exceptions in the information. The researchers who collected data must be the people who analyse them, but support from people with particular skills, such as in coding and computing data and cross-checking (triangulation), is invaluable and also helps to build the capacity of researchers.

Sort and combine data

Researchers will return from fieldwork with piles of data from different research tools, groups of participants and places. The data must first be fully indexed and checked for accuracy of data numbering, and completion of standard observation sheets. Then the entire data set must be combined.

Combining

A common mistake at this stage is for researchers to try to combine data according to categories, groups of participants or fieldwork locations. If they do this, systematic analysis will be impossible. Data from each research tool gathered by different researchers must be combined and coordinators are responsible for ensuring that no data are lost, that data from each research tool are stored or filed together and that all researchers know the storage system.

Making an inventory

The first action in analysis is to prepare a complete list (inventory) of all collected pieces of data according to research tools and reference numbers (Box 27). This needs to take into account all data, and be annotated to show any pieces of data that are not valid and cannot be included in the analysis. This provides a check on both the quantity and quality of data collected.

Box 27: Example of record of data pieces according to research tools and reference numbers

Research tool number and description	Reference numbers		Total data	
	Assigned	Used	Total	Valid for analysis
1. Drawings	001-100	001-063	63	58 ¹
2. Structured interviews	200-299	001-063	22	21 ²
3. Focus group discussions	300-399	300-306	6	6
4. Self-completed questionnaire	400-499	400-499	100	56 ²
Totals			191	141
Notes:				
¹ Two children's drawings do not have children's explanations attached; three drawings have insufficient information about children;				
² One interview schedule was mistakenly completed as if it was a self-completed questionnaire.				
³ 100 questionnaires were distributed, but only 58 were returned completed.				

This inventory table provides a clear overview of the total number of pieces of valid data. In addition, tables (Box 28) should be made according to other factors, such as:

- Number of participants in each tool and sample;
- Types of participant (for example adults/children; boys/girls);
- Places in which data have been collected.

Box 28: Example of a record (inventory) of number of valid data pieces collected with each tool according to place of collection

Tool number	Number of valid pieces of data collected			Total
	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	
1. Drawing	17	19	22	58
2. Interviews	7	9	5	21
3. Focus group discussion	2	3	1	6
4. Self-completed questionnaire	40	14	2	56
Total	66	45	30	141

Tables should be prepared under the supervision of the research coordinator. Make sure the rows add up in all directions and are consistent between tables. For example, the numbers in the final column in Box 28 must be the same as those in Box 27.

These second types of table are vital for writing about the research process in the introduction to the research report. As soon as they are complete, researchers should discuss the data as a whole, and explain any problems that are revealed by the tables – for example, the table in Box 27 shows that more data were collected in urban areas than in semi-urban and rural areas. Was this an intention in sampling, or did transport difficulties prevent researchers reaching the anticipated number of rural participants? For example, checking between the two tables it is clear that the intention was to collect 100 interviews, so why were only 22 collected?

Indexing – second stage

Before completing indexing, researchers need to revise their lists of messages and categories, using the same process that was followed in Step 8, but taking into account the data collected in Step 9.

A final list of categories needs to be agreed, and each researcher should have a reference copy of this. It may also be helpful to make a copy of the category list on a flip chart and post this on the wall of the work room.

Finish indexing

All the data in each tool (including research diaries) should be indexed. Usually two researchers, working separately, will take responsibility for indexing the data collected from a research tool. The indexing of the first researcher is checked by the second.

The final stage in indexing is to list all the references to each category in a single index. Researchers can use either cards that can be kept in a box or sheets that can be kept in a file. Use separate index sheets or cards for each category and subcategory, and then make a general

index to keep track of all the data (Box 29). On each index sheet list all relevant data by noting the reference number of the data piece and additional information to identify the information clearly. For example: 0143-p3 refers to page three of data numbered 0143. The first sentence of the relevant data can be added to indexes to make it easier for the researchers to locate the relevant data for analysis.

Box 29: Example of how to begin a general index of research records

Category	Research diary volume and page number	Observation (Tool 1 data number and page)	Role play number and page of record	Drawings (Tool 6 data number)
Physical punishment by parents	Vol 1 pp5-15	0102, pp 20-25; 0103 p6, 10	No 0002 pp2 & 12,	0636, 0455, 0743
Physical punishment by teachers	Vol 1 p 13; Vol 2 pp 35-8, Vol 2 pp14, 44-5, 71, 111 Vol 2 pp7,9 `5, 24, 25, 76	0102, p20-25 0104 pp3,5, 19	Nos 0001, 0002 & 0008 No 0002 pp2 & 12, 16, 54 No 0002 pp2 & 12	0636-0667 0724-0755
Physical punishment by other children	Vol 1 pp 7-8; 27, 85; Vol 2 pp 36, 38	0104 pp5, 19		0543, 0637, 0662, 0728
Health effects	Vol 1 pp2, 5, 6, 9	0105 pp35-6	No 0017	0728

Source: Adapted from: Boyden and Ennew, 1997.

Words and numbers

Researchers do not have to wait for indexing to be complete before preparing data for numerical analysis. It is important at this point to be very clear that no distinction can be made between quantitative and qualitative data. Indeed, as pointed out earlier, numbers cannot be collected until words are used. Even if researchers count the number

of people in a classroom, they still have to classify them according to qualities they have in common. For example (Box 30):

Box 30: Classifying people in a schoolroom in order to count them			
Class of person	Numbers		
	Male	Female	Total
Adult (over 18 years of age)	1	2	3
Child (under 18 years of age)	27	33	60
Total	28	35	63

Data from questionnaires are often described as ‘quantitative’, but this is mistaken. Participants provide answers in words, such as ‘Yes/No/Do not know’, even to closed questions and numerical codes, such as 01, 02, 03, are allocated to each answer. When numerical tables are prepared from questionnaire data, researchers still have to explain in words what the numbers mean. Counting is just one way of analysing data. Numbers neither tell you ‘the truth’ nor have some kind of superiority compared with ‘qualitative’ data. Numbers are tools that help understanding. Systematic counting can help to bring order to data. Among other uses they can:

- Check perceptions;
- Check hypotheses (or ‘hunches’);
- Compare and contrast different populations meaningfully.

Using words to classify groups of people prepares raw data for counting by establishing codes for each research tool that will be used to produce numerical information. This quantitative information will then have to be described and explained – analysed – using words. Thus the process of analysis proceeds from words, to numbers and back to words, with quantitative and qualitative information mutually supporting researchers’ analytical judgment (Box 31). This is usually the case even when very descriptive data sets (such as unstructured observations) have been collected, because researchers can count the frequency with which certain classes of event or person occur in the data records.

Box 31: Analysis proceeds from words to numbers to words			
Stage	Processes and products		
	Questions	Techniques	Products
Words	What do the data say?	Sorting and indexing; Developing categories and messages.	Categories Messages
Numbers	How frequently? By whom? Where? About what?	Classification; Coding; Calculating.	Tables for frequencies and cross-tabulation
Words	What do numbers mean? What do people mean? What are the answers to the research questions?	Analysis of each research tool; Analysis of each category; Triangulation.	Research report

Coding

If data from some research tools are going to be used for computer analysis, they will need to be coded. There is no need to code small data sets. Simple counting is often all that is needed.

Make a manual to show the meaning of the codes for all the items that will be entered in the computer. The items on the standard observation sheets must also be coded so that tables can be made to show frequencies (number of times it occurs) for each item according to the research tool, place of data collection, characteristics of the participant, category and researcher(s) collecting the data. If researchers have not done this kind of analysis before, someone with specialist skills may need to be employed at this point.

Every sentence, answer, paragraph or drawing in the data may need its own coding. The same piece of information may need two or more codes because it is relevant for several categories. Write the codes

directly on the original data. Use different colours if this is helpful. Coding should be checked by at least two researchers to ensure that it is reliable and does not reflect one researcher's perspective. Transfer the codes to coding sheets for input into a computer programme that can provide both frequency of occurrence and cross-tabulations (comparison of frequencies between different items, such as number of days worked in a week by boys, compared to girls). Word Excel™ is a good, easy-to-use programme, another is the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)™.

Coding prepares data so that the frequency with which certain classes of person, event or statement occurs can be counted accurately. Codes should be given to each item that researchers wish to count, usually starting with characteristics of participants (Box 32). Coding manuals should record each code used for every part of each research tool, including answers to open-ended question, which researchers can classify for counting (Box 33). Then the codes for each piece of data are entered into the computer programme being used – starting with the unique data number, which is a code in itself.

If codes for classes such as boy/girl are the same for all research tools it is easier to compare information from different tools.

Box 32: Gender coding in tool of child's drawing and explanations of drawing 'My home'	
Gender	Code
Boys	01
Girls	02
Not known	09

The first calculation from coding is the number of times (frequency) a code occurs. In the codes for gender and punishment above, for a sample of 100 participants and 100 valid pieces of data, the frequency tables might look like the examples in Boxes 34 and 35.

In Box 34 the three cases in which gender is 'not known' indicate carelessness in recording details of children's characteristics on behalf of one or more researchers.

Box 33: Coding for occurrences of ‘punishment’ in tool of child’s drawing and explanations of drawings ‘My home’

Type of punishment	This includes	Coding number
Confinement	Being confined to house for a couple of days Being shut in a cupboard	01
Physical punishment	Being hit with a stick, Being hit with a belt Being punched Having to kneel on sharp stones	02
Chores	Sweeping the yard Washing someone else’s clothes Watering plants	03
Verbal punishment	Being shouted at Being yelled at Being told I am wicked Being told I am stupid	04
No punishment drawn		98

Researchers should check the frequency for ‘other’ whenever they have coded answers to open ended questions or descriptive and visual data. If the frequency for ‘other’ is greater than any of the other codes they will have to return to the data to repeat the classification and coding process.

Box 34: Tables of frequency for gender in research tool Children’s drawing ‘My home’

Boys (01)	45
Girls (02)	52
Not known (09)	3
Total answers	100
Total valid answers	97

To compare the frequencies across other codes, particularly characteristics of participants such as gender, age or where they live,

Box 35: Frequencies of 'punishment' in tool of child's drawing and explanations of drawings 'My home'

Type of punishment	Frequency
Confinement (01)	5
Physical punishment (02)	45
Chores (03)	10
Verbal punishment (04)	6
Other (05)	4
No punishment drawn	30

tables of frequency can be combined into tables of cross-tabulation. Thus the 70 valid answers in the frequency table in Box 36 can be compared numerically with the frequencies in the table in Box 35, to see if there are any differences in punishments received by boys and girls.

In Box 36, of the 70 children who drew a form of punishment, 39 were boys and 31 were girls. There is a clear difference in these data with respect to the type of punishment children drew. Girls are more frequently punished through being made to perform chores, while boys are most frequently given physical punishment. From this table it is also possible to make other conclusions, such as most of the boys who drew punishment (30 out of 39) were punished physically, while just under one third of girls had to do extra chores (10 out of 30).

Box 36: Punishment by gender according to research tool of child's drawing and explanations of drawings 'My home' N=70

Type of punishment	Total replies	Boys	Girls
Confinement (01)	5	3	2
Physical punishment (02)	45	30	15
Chores (03)	10	0	10
Verbal punishment (04)	6	3	3
Other (05)	4	3	1
Total valid answers	70	39	31
No answers	0	0	0

One coding complication that can occur in the translation of descriptive data into numerical forms is that more than one kind of answer may be received to an open ended question, or in the case of drawings or essays more than one kind of 'answer' will be drawn or mentioned. For example, one child might draw being hit, being shouted at and being made to do chores. This would mean that separate tables (Yes/No) would have to be made for each of the punishments.

Analyse the data in each tool

A written account should now be made of the data collected using each tool. This should consist of a description of how the data were collected, how the data were coded, the numerical results and explanation of the numerical results using descriptive data. Usually one or two researchers will have been responsible for coding and analysing data – or even have taken particular responsibility for collecting data using that tool. In a research team, most members develop a liking for and understanding of a particular tool. Thus the written account of each tool can be made by individuals or small groups.

How the data were collected

A written account should be made for each tool, explaining how the data were collected, any surprises or difficulties, the way the data have been analysed, and what researchers think they mean. Include in this written account any tables that have been made, quotations from participants and examples of drawings or photographs collected. Write this account in as much detail as possible. It will form an important part of the research report in Step 11. It can also help if researchers share their experiences with each tool in a brief meeting (Box 37).

Analysis of numerical data ('quantitative')

The next part of writing about each tool is to examine all the tables for frequencies and cross tabulations, and write about what they mean. It helps to know the order in which to write about numerical data.

Box 37: Researchers' evaluation of methods used in fieldwork		
Method	Comments on its use in research tools	Conclusions
Essay	Five separate topics for each child, including self-image; child participants did not like writing	Research tool was too complicated, children should have been given the option of semi-structured interviews or oral testimony.
Observation	Observed home, work, school, leisure	Takes a long time to code, but worth doing for contextual information. Structured observations should also have been done.
Daily schedule	Two 12 hour clocks, colour coded	Children seemed to enjoy this, and the data can easily be coded.
Drawing	Two sets of drawings: Future aspirations	Data on future aspirations can be compared with data on current self-image.
Role play	Daily activities, workplace, teacher behaviour, education. Good for gender differences in education	Very important method for sensitive topics as well as for children's perspectives.
Area Map	Where they live, where they work, difficult in schools where children may come from different villages; children liked it Used especially for places of recreation and places of danger	Good for 'access' issues and for getting children's viewpoints.
Focus group discussions	Held with separate groups of children, parents, stakeholders	Very difficult to organise, record and analyse.

1. Look at the main and detailed research questions the tool was designed to explore and compare with the information in the data:

- List the questions;
- Have relevant data been collected?
- If not, why not?
- Have the data raised new questions or provided extra interesting information?
- If so, what?

2. Look at the tables:

- Are there any noticeable regularities?
- Are there any surprises?
- What happens if some of the numbers are added together?
- Look particularly at percentages rather than frequency counts, provided that samples are more than 100, otherwise ratios can be used.

3. Describe the tables in detail, including the following:

- Sample size;
- Disaggregations;
- Frequencies;
- Percentages;
- Control groups?
- Any surprises?
- Any disappointments?

4. What factors in data collection may have influenced the data collected? (Check the Standard Observation Sheets)

- What external factors may have influenced the data collected? (Check overall population data for example to see if the male/female ratio in your sample is equivalent);
- What factors in your quantitative analysis may have influenced the tables? (Have you used appropriate categories and codes? Have you asked for the appropriate cross-tabulations?).

5. Explain the numbers

Check back with the 'qualitative' data from which you extracted the categories and started your counting:

- Do you think the numbers in the tables reflect the 'reality' of the original data set?
- What have the numbers told you about your assumptions, perceptions, hunches, and hypotheses?
- Can you find anecdotal material in the qualitative data that illustrates what you have found out by looking at the tables? (Quotations, drawings and so forth). Use these when you write about the numbers (remembering to reference them to the original data/index number);
- Write about the relationship between the numbers and the qualitative data.

Numbers can be displayed in many different ways – through tables and graphs for example. The 'raw' numbers that result from calculations in a programme such as SPSS™ or Excel™ can be recalculated or reorganised in order to make particular points about the data you have collected and what you think this means with respect to your research questions.

Analysis of non-numerical data ('qualitative')

This applies to tools that have not been analysed using codes and computer, to tools for which simple counting of frequencies has been sufficient, and also to the non-numerical data from all tools.

Once again go back to the list of research questions:

- Have the quantitative and qualitative data from this research tool answered these questions?
- Have they answered them adequately?
- What else might you need to know?
- What else do the numerical data tell you?
- What extra questions/hypotheses are raised?
- How valid do you think these results are? How can you justify your opinion on this?
- What doubts do you have?

- What other research tools in the protocol will you need to check your results with?

Complete a written record of all the analysis for each tool and share it with other members of the research team. The coordinator should keep a copy of each of these written records.

Analyse the data by categories

Using the index as a guide to where information can be found, write an account of each category of data, using all the information in all tools. It is usual for a single researcher to do the first draft, and a second researcher to revise this after returning to the information. Thus each researcher will be responsible for one or more categories:

- Looking at the general index for all the references to that category;
- Looking at and making notes on the references in each tool;
- Writing a description of the data on that category, including quotations, drawings and diagrams where these are relevant.

Remember that the researchers' role is to facilitate what participants say as individuals and groups about their experiences, hopes, fears and plans. These written accounts of each category of data will form another part of the research report in Step 11.

Triangulate

This is the final stage in analysis in which the analyses in tools and by categories are compared. First identify the most important research results and ideas (return to the main research questions and messages for guidance). Pairs or small groups of researchers can focus on a few categories each:

- Looking for patterns and developing ideas about trends in the data;
- Identifying causes and effects;
- Keeping in mind that these ideas are provisional;

- Avoiding jumping to conclusions;
- Avoiding generalisations that cannot be supported by the data.

Compare and contrast data. Find data that contradict each other across different times, places and groups, in comparison with secondary data and the original research assumptions or hypotheses. Where are the differences? Look for differences between: children and adults; national policy level and community level; different research reports; and boys and girls (gender). Consider other differences that affect the data, such as wealth, ethnicity, residence status, religion, caste, disability. Emphasise differences in perspectives and different views of participants.

Formulate hypotheses (ideas) about what the data say, for example: 'Children with step-parents are more likely to be punished than children from nuclear families'. Compare these hypotheses with the actual data and with the interpretations of people, such as other members of the research team or key informants.

Explain differences and contradictions in the data:

- What data do not fit?
- What data contradict the main results?
- What data challenge the original research questions and hypotheses?
- Why do they contradict? Is it the result of working with different groups, using different methods, external factors?

Identify gaps in the data:

- Where are the data insufficient?
- Was some important information not collected?
- If so, is it possible to return to the field, or use secondary data, to fill the gaps?
- Which topic did children and adults not provide information on or not mention? Is this an indication that people do not think about this topic, or that they are reluctant to talk about it?

Critically review results – how reliable are they? Interpretations must be accurate and honest. Take into account all possible explanations,

including those that conflict with your own. Relate results to other research using the analysis of secondary data from Step 2, especially if the research challenges previous results.

Has the research uncovered new information and ideas? How far do the results and conclusion fit with existing knowledge on the topic?

- Are they surprising?
- To what extent are the conclusions relevant for other areas and situations?
- Are they the result of any researcher's personal perspective?
- Do the data reflect the way the methods were used?
- Do the data reflect stereotypes held by the participants?
- Do the conclusions represent the complexity of the research topic?
- Have alternative explanations been explored?
- Have the data been 'triangulated' with other sources in order to strengthen confidence in their reliability?

Make a detailed written record of conclusions on all these points.

Keeping track of the process

Analysis is a detailed process, and the preparation stage can seem to go on for ever. Coordinators need to hold meetings each morning and evening to check what each researcher will be doing that day, discuss any difficulties and record daily progress. A flip chart record of progress can be prepared so that researchers feel that they are indeed progressing and can celebrate the completion of various tasks. This also enhances researchers' confidence, motivation and mutual support. Box 38 shows the progress chart for the fifth day of analysis for a research team studying the physical punishment of children.

Feedback

An important part of triangulation is to share the conclusions with children and adult community members, with government officials,

and with other researchers. This is a way for the research team to get feedback on the research results. Summarise the main conclusions from analysis and cross-checking and prepare presentations for different groups of stakeholders.

Box 38: Example of a daily progress record for analysis of data (Day 5 of analysis)

Research tool	Reference numbers	Standard Observation Sheets	Index	Code	Tables	Write
Body map						
Health check						
Children's essays						
Role play						
Drawing						
Focus group discussion						
Visual stimulus interviews						
Photo essay						
Research diaries						
Observation						

Key to progress chart

Done	
Not necessary	

Organise meetings with different groups of people to present the research team's results and conclusions. Listen to the comments from the participants and other stakeholders. Record the feedback: agreements, disagreements and explanations. Differences in opinion may be the result of differences in people's concepts and definitions (of discipline, education and gender, for example). Compare different views and explain why different groups of people hold different opinions. In the end, researchers should be able to defend their

research data and conclusions. Stakeholders and participants do not validate research results and reports. Validation takes place through triangulation.

Take a final look at the data

Once the data analysis is complete, the research team should reflect on the entire research process:

- What is important about this study in relation to abolishing the physical punishment of children?
- Look at the results in relation to other research on the physical punishment of children. Do they support earlier research, or challenge the conclusions?
- Ensure that the data really provide evidence for the arguments researchers want to make in the report;
- Test the claims made by the research and think about the arguments other people might bring up against the conclusions;
- Make sure the conclusions and recommendations are supported by the research results.

Main ideas in Step 10

- Those who do the data collection should also analyse the data;
- Skilled assistance may be needed for computer analysis and data interpretation;
- Written records are made of analysis according to tools, analysis according to categories, triangulation and the messages;
- Results, conclusions and recommendations should be shared with stakeholders and their feedback included in the analysis;
- The written records, including conclusions and recommendations, provide the bulk of the research report in Step 11.

Step 11: Writing

Definitions

Appendix – Section added to a research report containing additional information to which readers may wish to refer.

Bibliography – Alphabetical list (by family name of author) of all sources referred to in a report, whether published or unpublished, with details of author, title, publisher, date and place of publication.

Conclusion – A statement based on analysis of research data.

Dissemination – Distribution of research data, information, conclusions or recommendations, using any means of communication.

Feedback – Comments, reviews or other responses, often from the people who are being studied or from the people who will receive the results of the study.

Glossary – List of acronyms and technical terms, with definitions.

Main research question – Overall question that the research aims to answer, related to the research aim and structuring the research protocol. Not necessarily a hypothesis (theory) to be proved or disproved, the answer will provide information to improve stakeholders' programming and advocacy.

Message – Overall research result.

Validation – A much issued term, often mistakenly used to apply to feedback on research results from stakeholders and/or participants. Validation is possible for research data collected using specific research tools. Stakeholders and participants do not validate research results and reports. Validation takes place through triangulation. In research 'valid' does not mean 'true'.

A research report gives an account of what the research team tried to do, how it was done, what happened and the conclusions reached. Before writing a report, ask: Who will read the report (children, community, government, NGOs, donors)? What will the report be used for? What should the report contain? How should the information be presented? If the original report is in English or the official language, and this is not the majority language of stakeholders, prepare the report quickly in the local language so that the results can be used for decision making and actions at local levels.

Guidelines for writing a research report

Organise the report according to a logical, easy-to-follow framework, with clear sections and sub-headings. Choose a form of presentation that catches people's attention. Although it is necessary to describe the research process, context, results and analysis in detail, the report should be as brief as possible, and especially avoid repetitions. Although bullet points and diagrams can be used, they should be clear. Over-use of bullet points makes a report unreadable. Ensure that facts and figures from secondary data are fully and correctly cited and referenced. Ensure maps are legible and have a clear explanation of any symbols used. Make full use of charts, tables, diagrams, and illustrations, label each item clearly, and link each one to the text by describing the contents and meaning of each one. Use graphs or charts rather than tables of numbers, provided that the meaning of graphs and charts are clear, and the sample size is given. If tables are used, ensure columns and rows add up correctly. Provide sample size and raw numbers together with percentages (but do not give percentages for numbers below 100).

Use short sentences and plain language without complicated terminology. Group sentences on the same theme into paragraphs. Avoid single-sentence paragraphs, like bullet points they make a report difficult to read. Do not exaggerate. Organisations using research reports for awareness-raising campaigns and advocacy often sensationalise in order to attract more attention. To be scientific and ethical, a research report should present and analyse facts alone, and should base conclusions only on research results, not on assumptions and opinions. Avoid emotive words and moral judgements. Do not use negative, degrading or stigmatising images of children, either in pictures or in words:

- Do not represent children as powerless, helpless victims;
- Protect children from any additional risks through their identity being revealed;
- Check that children (not parents or teachers) were asked for, and gave, permission to use their stories and pictures;

The report should make clear, practical recommendations that follow logically from the research results and conclusions.

Process of report writing

Research team members should write the report together, using the written records produced in Step 10. Make a timetable and give researchers defined writing tasks. Prepare a report outline structure (Box 39 next page). Concentrate at first on the chapters in the section on research results according to categories, then on the sections on methods and process, and background and context. Once the report has been drafted, review and revise it with all team members, making sure that chapters refer to each other. Get feedback on the report from participants and stakeholders before finalising, and consider presenting the final draft report in a meeting of stakeholders to ensure acceptance of the final report and promote action based in results. Get skilled help editing the final version.

Main ideas in Step 11

- The written records from Step 10 are the basis of a research report;
- Concentrate on writing the research results, do not get distracted by glossaries and contents lists;
- Check that all information is accurate;
- Use plain language, avoid technical terminology, unnecessarily long words, emotive language and language intended to shock;
- Base conclusions on research results only;
- Make clear, practical recommendations;
- Remember that children and adults must not be harmed by the information or style of the report;
- Write the summary last.

Box 39: Example of a report structure

Title page

Title, authors, date, organisation, place, contact information

List of contents

Acknowledgements

Glossary

Explain technical terms, special words used, terms in the local language, acronyms and abbreviations

Summary

(usually 1-3 pages)

This is a condensed version of the main report. It is not a description of the main report. The summary is always written last, once the main report has been completed. It should state in clear language: objectives, methods and circumstances of the research (who, what, where, why, when); main results; main conclusions and recommendations. Unless the report is targeted to specific agencies who intend to take (execute) actions on the basis of recommendations, the summary is not an 'Executive summary'.

Introduction

Background and justification of the research, audience and structure of the report.

Background and context of physical punishment of children

Population; economy; political background; legal framework; what was already known about physical and emotional punishment of children, using the legal review and analysis of secondary data from Step 3.

Research problem

Justification and purpose of the study. Use the tables of main and detailed research questions table from Steps 2 and 4, together with some details of the stakeholder meetings.

Methods and research process

Explain reasons for selecting the overall research approach – action-oriented, participatory and children-centred;

Describe each research tool, stating why it was used; what specific questions it was designed to ask; exactly how it was used;

Comment on difficulties experienced, especially those that might have affected results; describe the data obtained. Mention gaps in data and any shortcomings of the research. Researchers have a special responsibility to be transparent about the methods used and the practical obstacles encountered in the research. Lack of transparency makes research results invalid. If

based on small samples, results should not be generalised;
Include profiles of the research area/s in this section (reasons for choosing them, population, local economy; community infrastructure and so forth).

A series of chapters on research results

This should be the largest part of the report, at least three-quarters of the total length. Structure chapters on main research question, messages, categories and sub-categories. Each chapter should end with a conclusion based on the data and analysis.

Conclusions

Base these directly on analysis of the data collected and explained in earlier chapters. Compare and contrast these conclusions with those of the secondary data reviewed in the background section. Try to answer, or at least comment on, all the main research questions. Do not present new data or ideas in the conclusion; make a distinction between conclusions you can be sure about and those that are not certain. Include analysis of factors critical to designing policies and putting them in to practice.

Recommendations

Make a clear distinction between conclusions and recommendations; make only practical recommendations that could be carried out by organisations likely to read and act upon the report; base recommendations on the data and analysis presented in the report.

Bibliography

List all sources cited and used in the report, using a consistent style, as in the bibliography of this Resource Handbook.

Appendices/annexes

If necessary these can be used to present some examples of data that are too long or complex to be included in the main body of the report. But appendices must not be longer than the report.

IMPLEMENTATION

Step 12 Use information	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Decide upon a strategy for sharing the report with different stakeholders;• Disseminate research results so as to maximise awareness and impact among the people and institutions who can act upon them;• Store the raw data and research protocol so that other researchers may have access to them.
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Step 12: Use information

Definition

Dissemination – Distribution of research data, information, conclusions or recommendations using any means of communication.

Information from research can be disseminated in various ways. The data must be stored so that they can be checked and used again in the future. Most importantly, the data and conclusions of the research should be used by programme managers to make plans for advocacy, policies, programmes and projects. This last step is the most important because it converts the research results into action. Although this may be the end point of this particular research process it is almost certainly the beginning of another. Researchers do not have the responsibility of taking action at the policy and programme level, but they do have a role to play in ensuring that the research is used.

Disseminate the report

Sharing the research report is the first move programme managers make towards using the data for action, in policy, programming and advocacy. Make sure the report reaches appropriate people and institutions in the right form and language, so that the results can be used for decisions about the physical punishment of children. Share the report with those who were involved in the research as participants or researchers. To make best use of the research results, disseminate them in various ways – as reports, through workshops, using the media, or in communities (for example through drama) in order to encourage debate at different levels. Follow ethical guidelines to protect the children who were involved in the research:

- Conclusions and results should be shared with children;
- Adults have an obligation to ensure that children fully understand results and problems;
- Those able to identify themselves in the report should not, as far as possible, be distressed by the way in which they are portrayed;
- The report should not attract unwanted publicity to the research site or to the people living there;

- The information in the report should not put anyone's physical safety at risk.

Lack of control over dissemination may result in misrepresentation. It can also lead to the issues and problems being sensationalised.

Sharing the information freely, so that it feeds into action is vital – too many reports are regarded as the 'property' of the organisation funding the research and remain on office shelves rather than being disseminated. Dissemination of results needs to take place at three levels (policy, programme and participants), in all of which researchers have a role to play, not least because they have the greatest knowledge of the data and are in the best position to share the information effectively.

Policy level

The conclusions and recommendations of the report should be the basis for changes in policy and programme decisions by stakeholders in government and non governmental organisations, both local and international. This may require bringing the conclusions to the notice of decision-makers as well as 'lobbying', or making them aware that the information is important and that action should be taken.

Sending a copy of the report to stakeholders who are in a position to take action is unlikely to be sufficient. Such people rarely have time to read a full report. A public launch of the report, with good media coverage may focus their attention on the research results. Both media and policy-level communication require brief, attractive materials, such as press packs, fact sheets, slide shows and PowerPoint™ presentations, to communicate the messages from the research. Researchers have first hand knowledge of the data and the children most affected by physical punishment. They are in an ideal position to give lively, interesting accounts as well as to make sure that government and other powerful actors become aware of:

- The methods used and importance of action-oriented, participatory, children-centred research, as well as the fact that these produce good quality, reliable information on which

decision-makers can base their policies and programmes with confidence;

- The most important results of the research (conclusions);
- The actions that can be taken as a result (recommendations).

Programme and project level

The second level of communication is with the stakeholders who are most likely to take immediate action by designing programmes and projects on the basis of the research results; stakeholders from organisations at national and community level, who will have been involved throughout the research process. These are the partners who are most likely to read the full report, although many will prefer a version in a local language. Whatever their degree of involvement in the research, they will still need reminding of the methods, results and recommendations. Communicating about the methods used is particularly valuable at this level. This is a role for researchers: training colleagues about the way they obtained the information, showing that action-oriented, participatory, children-centred research produces valid, useful data. Documentation, such as the protocol document should be as freely available as the research report itself.

Participant level

Last but very much not least, the research participants, their communities and others who will be affected by policy changes and programme actions, such as teachers, have a right to know about the methods, results and recommendations. As major stakeholders they should already have provided feedback on early results and ideas from the research. But, in many cases, written reports are not appropriate for communicating with community members, and almost certainly inappropriate for use with children. Visual materials such as posters, slide shows and videos can be very effective, as are role play and drama and focus group discussions, in communicating at community level so that children and adults are empowered with authentic knowledge about physical and emotional punishment of

children, the implications of decisions taken on their behalf, and what they can do about both.

Storing data

Reports and other communication materials shared immediately after research are not the only way the information from the research can be used. Data can be analysed and used in different ways and for different purposes, and it is important that other researchers and communicators have access to systematically stored research records, statistics and the documentation of the process. In action-oriented research this is particularly vital. Programme designers may need to check facts from the report, and the data as a whole are the baseline for future monitoring of the impact of programmes. Nevertheless, it is important that confidentiality is respected. Data should not be stored where there is open public access. Permission to use them must be requested formally, granted after consideration of the reasons for the request and only after an ethical undertaking has been signed to ensure confidentiality of participants and responsible use of data.

Store all records and raw research data in a secure place, where they can be accessed easily by other users. Make the data and the research protocols available to others who are planning to carry out research on the physical punishment of children. Start by listing all the materials available and telling stakeholders about them, then make the list available to a wider audience. One or more of the stakeholders may wish to place the list and information about how to access the materials on their web site.

Action plans

Researchers do not usually take action on the basis of the information they have gathered and analysed. Inevitably, however, researchers who are involved in action-oriented research have contacts with, and often employment in, organisations that are in a position to take

action, as well as to sponsor further research stimulated by new questions that have arisen. Researchers are well placed to motivate and carry out training within these organisations, principally on the methods of action-oriented, participatory, children-centred research, but also on the meaning of results and their implications for programme and advocacy. They are also likely to be involved in designing new research processes.

Main ideas in Step 12

- The research should be made available quickly in the local language to facilitate action planning;
- An advocacy strategy should ensure the report is circulated and disseminated to the people and institutions able to act upon or influence the situation of the physical punishment of children at three levels (policy, programme and participants);
- Other ways of communicating the main research results will need also need to be used as disseminating the report alone is unlikely to be sufficient to ensure action;
- Raw data should be stored together with the research protocol and any other documentation, and made available and accessible to other researchers on request, after signing an ethical guarantee;
- Communicating about research methods is as important as disseminating information about results and recommendations.

PART IV

TOOL KIT

The Tool Kit has nine parts:

1. The process of analysing secondary data
2. Essentials for a protocol
3. Research methods
4. Examples of tools for research on the physical and emotional punishment of children
5. Legal background
6. Children's participation in research on physical and emotional punishment
7. Planning and managing research
8. Bibliographies
9. Research dictionary

THE PROCESS OF ANALYSING SECONDARY DATA

Definitions

Children-centred statistics – Statistics in which the data are presented (for example in tables) so that they focus on children, rather than (as is usual) on adults, households, institutions or services.

Childhood – Variable and culturally-defined life stage, before adult roles and responsibilities.

Data – Information collected by a researcher.

Disaggregation – The process of dividing statistical data into smaller groups, by gender, age, location for example. This allows analysis that shows differences between groups of people and is a guide to finding inequalities and violations of rights.

Dissemination – Distribution of research data, information, conclusions and recommendations by any means of communication.

Hypothesis – An idea based on knowledge, information, previous observation or analysis that has to be proved or disproved through research. A hypothesis may or may not be true.

Mapping – Systematic collection of information on a specific theme or topic, for example making a comprehensive list and descriptions of all national street children projects.

Primary data – Original data collected for a specific research project.

Raw data – Primary data that have not been analysed.

Research makes a distinction between primary data (collected during a particular research process) and secondary data (which already exist). Researchers begin by looking at existing information, which includes all relevant information that was collected for other studies or purposes. Secondary data include books, published or unpublished reports, situation analyses, rapid assessments, theses, laws, statistics, information from the internet, records, media articles, videos, photographs or films. Analysis of secondary data is a systematic process of examining the source of the information, why it was

collected and what methods have been used to store, analyse and publish the results. Not all raw data collected are adequately analysed and it is worth trying to find out if all existing data have been fully used. Be careful not to plan to collect new information while the analysis of existing data is incomplete.

This section of the Tool Kit describes ways of analysing secondary data by examining the origin, collection, recording, organisation and storage, processing, accuracy, quality of analysis and dissemination.

Origin

What is the source of the information? Is it simply information referring to one point in time, such as a single survey of physical punishment of children? If so, how does it relate to other information? The origin will tell you about why the information was assembled. This is important because information will vary depending upon the purpose for which it was collected. The aims of the census office, ministry of education, health ministry, justice department, or an academic institution, are different, and each organisation collects information according to its definition of, and interest in, children. For example, the ministry of education thinks of children as pupils, and the justice department collects information about juvenile delinquents. This affects the age groups and social groupings in which the data are recorded. The strengths and limitations of different sources need to be taken into account. Some information is collected but not used in action plans, but it may be useful for research on the physical and emotional punishment of children.

When they are mentioned at all in information about children or child abuse, the different types of physical and emotional punishment of children are often not clearly defined or separated from each other. The lack of common definitions and age categories makes it difficult to compare data from different surveys.

Media reports, court records and reports by child protection agencies can be useful sources for identifying attitudes to, and even types of, physical punishment (Box 40). However, such reports are seldom representative and may draw much attention to a few particularly

shocking forms of physical punishment of children, while overlooking the forms that are hidden from public knowledge, or condoned by public opinion.

Box 40: Media report: An untypical example or representative of school punishment?

A physical education teacher will lose 5 per cent of his salary for three months as punishment for kicking a 16-year-old student on Wednesday and fracturing the child's eye socket.

'I apologise for my action. I applied too much force although I meant to teach my student a lesson not to brawl,' said teacher Narawut Utsahathana, 25.

Narawut said he lost control after the student failed to heed his warning and engaged in an after-school fight on Tuesday.

The student said he accepted his punishment although Narawut's attack was 'a bit harsh'. He is being treated for a black eye and might need surgery to mend the fractured bone.

School headmaster Uthai Suekrasae said the violent punishment was unacceptable. The school will bear the student's treatment costs, he added.

Source: The Nation, Bangkok, Thailand, January 2004.

Collection and recording

The methods used to collect data affect their quality and usefulness. Research results can only be assessed and verified if researchers are transparent about the data collection methods and how they were used. Does the report contain information about the methods? How suitable were they? It is important to know about the specific questions asked, definitions used, conditions under which research was carried out, sample sizes and how they were chosen, use of control groups, characteristics and training of researchers and composition of the research team, recording methods, language and definitions used. It is also essential to know when or how often the data were collected. All this information can usually be found in official reports in detail, usually in an appendix, but is often lacking in reports of research carried out by NGOs, academic institutes and intergovernmental organisations.

It is useful to know if researchers had sufficient training. Did they understand the research aims and methods? Did they have any role in the design of the research? How responsible were they? Is there any danger that untrained or uncommitted research assistants filled in questionnaires themselves, without carrying out interviews? What was the purpose of data collection? Did the sponsoring organisation work towards banning physical punishment or promoting its own fundraising? What interests were at stake?

Organisation and storage of data

It is important to know how the secondary data are stored: in report form or on computer databases (or both). If computer data bases exist it may be possible to access them and perform new calculations. For example, tables in a data base may show children divided into conventional five-year age groups (0-5, 6-10 and so on), when having the information according to whether children are pre- or post-pubertal might be more interesting (Box 41). Statistics offices can often do this kind of calculation if they are requested, providing tables with different age groupings or disaggregated by districts or provinces, for instance. Some will do this free – others will ask for payment. Programme managers should check with government offices and include payments for these services in the budget.

Box 41: Typical age groupings used by government agencies for information about children	
Misnistry or agency	Age groupings
National census office	0-5 years 6-10 years 11-15 years 16-20 years
Ministry of education	1-2 years (nursery provision) 3-5 years (pre-school or kindergarten) 6-9 years (elementary education) 10-13 years (lower secondary school) 14-18 (upper secondary school)
Ministry of health	Less than 12 months 13 months - 4 years 5-14 years 15-49 years 50+ years

In most countries the age groups depend on the perspective of the agencies involved in collecting and presenting data for different purposes (Box 41). Census offices make it difficult to calculate the actual child population (less than 18 years), and are not sensitive to the stages of childhood, such as infancy, early childhood and adolescence; ministries of education concentrate on children in schools, and often do not compare these numbers with children of the same age who are out of school; ministries of health are likely to publish information according to the risks of illness and/or programmes for preventing illnesses (but seldom for counting or preventing injuries resulting from physical punishment).

In practice, most regular government surveys, such as workforce surveys, household surveys, and population censuses, focus on people over 14 years of age. Figures about youth are mixed with data about adults, and often classified as aged 14 to 21 years, rather than 14 to 18 years. Accident, injury and mortality figures are usually not disaggregated by age. If they are, they can be used to identify some physical punishment of children. Sometimes the records of individual schools and hospitals can give more information than national- or district-level data. Such data can be particularly useful for calculating the relationship between school and punishment compared to homes and punishment, as well as punishment related to child work.

Processing

It is useful to understand the methods used to process 'raw data' (the original information collected on forms, questionnaires and other research tools). It is also important to consider the degree of transparency with which the data are published and processed. Try making an inventory of available data, showing what exists, how it has been processed and by whom, in order to compare methods and results easily – a technique known as 'mapping' (Box 42).

Ask some of the following questions: What different ages were given for childhood in different documents? How were these different ages presented in tables? What age groupings were used for data collection and presentation by different agencies (government, UN agencies, NGOs)? How easy is it to compare figures between

agencies (for example children in school compared to children who are working)? What are the main problems caused by trying to compare age groups between agencies? How could these problems be solved?

Box 42: Example of a table for mapping secondary data from different sources

Location of punishment	Source(s) of information	Year of research	Research method(s)	Definitions	Samples	Research findings
Family						
School						
Non formal education						
Orphanage						
Community						
Workplace						
Police station						
Juvenile justice/court						
Prison/detention						
Street						
NGO project						
Other						

Accuracy

Numerical data seem to be given more credibility than descriptive data, and as a result many researchers do not check their accuracy. However, not all published statistics add up or are sensible. Advocacy programmes frequently focus on one number to the exclusion of others, without checking accuracy or considering context. Some numbers gain legitimacy through constant repetition, even although their origin is unclear and their accuracy doubtful.

Researchers should check constantly that the statistics they find in secondary sources are consistent, viable and up-to-date. It is usually

easy and quick to check if the numbers in the columns of tables add up to the numbers given as 'totals', or whether numbers in graphs and tables are consistent with figures given in the text, and if percentages are being given for very small samples of people. It is more difficult to assess whether numbers derived from one source are, or even should be, consistent with those from other sources. Important clues to the reliability of the data can always be found in the clarity with which tables and graphs are titled, with proper reference to the source and year of data. All tables should be clear and unambiguous.

Quality of analysis

A surprising amount of published secondary data is poorly analysed, often presenting tables with no description of how the numbers were collected and what they mean. One task of secondary data analysis is to examine whether the analysis in previous research used the data appropriately and whether the conclusions reached were based on the data and relevant to the research questions. Conclusions must be based on available evidence rather than on pre-existing beliefs.

To analyse available data about the physical and emotional punishment of children, ask the following questions:

- How useful and reliable is existing information on physical and emotional punishment of children?
- How was the information produced?
- Can this information be used to design practical programmes?
- What do the data tell us reliably about children and the physical and emotional punishment of children?
- What do the data fail to say about children and the physical and emotional punishment of children?
- Do the conclusions reached in reports match the data?
- Where are the gaps in existing information?
- How can these gaps be filled?

Compare different secondary sources with each other and with the data that are collected later during the fieldwork. Finding similar and contradictory data, and explaining the differences, is an important

part of analysis. Try to prepare lists and tables with significant information from different sources. This will make it easy to compare data and assess their reliability (Table 42).

Dissemination

Data are used and published in various ways and for different purposes. Does the agency collecting the data have more than one means of disseminating information and more than one group of readers for reports? It is worth examining examples of the full range of publications and other products of research and comparing the information they include. Are there differences between the information shared with staff of an organisation and what it publishes in the media, for official consumption or for fundraising? These differences may misrepresent the information and affect research questions.

ESSENTIALS FOR A PROTOCOL

This part of the Tool Kit contains descriptions and examples for three of the essential elements for any Protocol:

- Ways to seek informed consent;
- A standard observation sheet to be used with all research tools;
- Techniques of sampling.

The full list of contents for a Protocol can be found in Step 8. In addition, it is worth remembering that it is obligatory to include tools for research diary and observation in all Protocols.

Informed consent

Definition

Informed consent – Agreement to voluntary participation by a participant in research, based on the individual fully understanding the goals, methods, benefits and risks of the study. Informed consent is given on the understanding that the participant can change his or her mind about taking part in the research at any time.

Every research protocol must include a written ethical strategy. The most important part of the strategy sets out in detail the ways informed consent will be sought with different groups of potential participants. Informed consent must not be hurried: children and adults should be informed and asked as individuals and given time to reflect and make their own decisions. A simple but effective technique is to ask people to repeat back to the researcher what they have been told about the research, and about the methods that will be used. How researchers phrase their explanations depends on the age and background of potential participants. Informed consent should be sought in the same way by all researchers, and records of consent kept (with a copy offered to the participant).

Examples of informed consent procedures from three different research projects are provided here in considerable detail, because it is important for programme managers and researchers to understand that seeking informed consent takes time, and has to be adjusted according to the group being researched. Individuals must have the research explained and, if they wish, provide consent using an appropriate form – with a copy for the researcher and the research participant.

Despite the time it takes informed consent is not an optional extra – it is a human right, and shows that research participants are respected.

The first of the following examples of obtaining informed consent are taken from the ethical strategy of the Protocol of national-level research on children in institutions in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The second is from regional research in Southeast, East Asia and the Pacific to evaluate children's participation in international forums, and was intended for use with children in different countries. The

third set of examples is from small-scale research in New Zealand, and shows particularly useful examples of how to inform younger children and their parents.

Researchers would have to adapt these techniques for their own protocols, or develop their own methods of seeking informed consent, but the principles remain the same:

- Explain to (inform) potential participants about the research;
- Check that the explanation has been understood;
- Provide more explanation if necessary;
- Make it clear that people can refuse to take part in the research if they wish;
- Obtain some kind of record of consent to participate;
- Share a copy of the record with the participant if possible;
- Store records of informed consent with the data obtained.

Examples of seeking informed consent: Bosnia and Herzegovina

The following procedures for obtaining informed consent were used for all data collection sessions during research on children in institutions in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

With adults

- Researchers will introduce themselves;
- Each potential 'participant' will be given a copy of the consent form for adults (See below);
- The aim(s) and importance of this research will be explained to potential participants;
- 'Participants' will be informed about how they will be involved, how much of their time will be required, and how confidentiality will be ensured;
- Researchers will make sure that 'participants' have understood what has been said, and will give 'participants' time to ask questions or to raise any concerns;
- 'Participants' will be given time to read the consent form;
- No pressure will be put upon 'participants' to sign the form or to take part in the research;

- Two forms will be completed for each 'participant', one for researchers' records and the other for the 'participant' to keep;
- An undertaking by researchers to share the results and conclusions of research with 'participants';
- The process includes asking 'participants' their wishes about publication and dissemination of information.

Consent form for adult participants

My consent to be a research subject

This research project entitled 'Unaccompanied children and children at risk of being institutionalised in Bosnia and Herzegovina' is an initiative of UNICEF Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH). The aim of the project is to improve knowledge and understanding of children without parental care in institutions, or at risk of being institutionalised, in BiH in order to design effective interventions to improve the situation of those in institutions and provide support and alternatives for those at risk.

The research is being carried out by a six-member research team recruited by UNICEF BiH for this purpose only, and will be divided into two periods of fieldwork (July and September 2002).

Your participation in this study is voluntary. Thus, you have the right to choose not to participate, and you are free to discontinue at any time.

This research may include topics of a personal nature. However, all your answers and personal data will be kept strictly confidential and will be used only for the purpose of this research. Thus, we encourage you to be as honest as possible – there are no right or wrong answers. We are simply seeking to gain an accurate picture of the lives of children without parental care in institutions.

You will have the opportunity, if you wish, to obtain a copy of the results of the research in which you are taking part. If you have any questions regarding this project, you may contact [name and contact details of responsible UNICEF officer].

My signature of acceptance

I have read and understood all the information above, and give my voluntary consent to participate in this research. I understand that I can withdraw my consent at any time.

_____ Signature

_____ Date

For photographs

Researchers might take photographs of the institutions, to be used for the directory and research report. In order to do this, informed consent needs to be obtained from the director of the institution (or officer in charge).

Researchers will introduce themselves to the director of institution (or officer in charge) if they have not already done so:

- Explain the purpose of the research;
- Explain how photographs will be taken;
- Explain what the photographs will be used for;
- Ask for signature on the consent form for photographs;
- Two forms will be completed, one for researchers' records and the other for the participant to keep.

Consent form for photographs	
I give my consent for members of the research team to photograph this institution, and I also give my consent for these photographs to be published in a directory of institutions and/or the research report.	
_____	Signature
_____	Position
_____	Name of institution
_____	Date

Techniques and forms for seeking the informed consent of children

According to the protocol designed in Bosnia and Herzegovina, researchers observed the following rules when seeking informed consent from groups of children during classroom-based, data-collection sessions:

- Introduce yourself as a person rather than as a status;
- Explain the purpose of the research;
- Inform children about the importance of the research;
- Inform children about how they will be involved, how much of their time will be required, and how confidentiality will be ensured;

- Inform children about what kind of information would be collected, how it will be collected, and how it will be used;
- Make sure children really do understand what you have told them by asking them to repeat back what you have told them;
- Give children time to ask questions or raise concerns;
- Listen to children;
- Make sure children know that they can stop taking part in the research at any time;
- Make sure children understand that you are making no promises about improving their conditions of life;
- Make no other promises you cannot keep;
- When children have made drawings or written materials for researchers they must be told how these might be used in research dissemination and asked afterwards if they wish to be identified as artist/author.

The original idea was to obtain children's consent by giving them a picture of a traffic light and ask them to tick next to one of the three colours after reminding them that traffic lights in the street tell cars when to stop (red), pause (yellow), and go (green), and explaining that in this case the cards mean something very similar:

Red means 'No, I do not want to participate';

Yellow means 'I need more information';

Green means 'Yes, I do want to participate'.

All the children who place a tick on the red light will not be included in the research, as they expressed their wish not to participate; all the children who tick on the yellow light will be given the extra information they need to make a decision; and all the children who tick on the green light will be included in the research.

If less children than the number required for the research tool agree to participate, repeat the technique with others until there are sufficient children in the sample. Keep the forms that have green lights ticked clipped to the standard observation sheet, in order to check the number of consents against the number of participants.

Shortly before going to the field the research team realised that they would have to adapt this method because they had access to neither colour printers nor colour photocopying. It was decided to retain the

use of the traffic light colours but substitute red, yellow and green cards. Once the research itself had been explained to the children, cards in all three colours were given to each child, while a large picture of a traffic light was shown to them (drawn on a sheet of flip chart paper). The researchers discussed with children what each colour in traffic lights represents (stop, pause, go). It was explained that the cards they had been given represented similar ideas:

Red card: 'No I do not want to participate';

Yellow card: 'I need more information';

Green card: 'Yes, I do want to participate'.

Children were then asked to hold up the card that represented their views about taking part in the research. All children who held up a red card were not included in the research; children who held up a yellow card were given more information to help them make a final decision; children who held up a green card were included in the research. In each data collection session the number of consents was recorded on a standard observation sheet.

Example of seeking informed consent: SEAP Region

The form used in the SEAP regional research for children younger than 12 years of age who were not literate was envisaged as possibly being translated into a local language, in which case the potential respondent would be provided with a printed version in the local language. The protocol gave the following instructions to researchers:

Use this form after explaining in simple terms:

- The research aim;
- The kind of questions that will be asked;
- The method (semi-structured interview – research tool 3);
- That both tape recording and notes will be used to record the interview;
- How the information will be used;
- Confidentiality;
- That the child/youth is free to say no to taking part and to stop the interview at any time.

Check that the child/youth has understood by asking him/her to repeat back to you what you have said.

Explain that you will read the statement on the form and for each statement the child/youth should circle ☺ if the answer 'yes' and ☹ if the answer is 'no'.

Write the child/youth's name in the final box, and ask them to sign or make a special mark that he/she will recognise as their own.

Fill in the date and place. Make a copy of the form to give to the child/youth and attach the original to the standard observation sheet and completed relevant interview form.

Informed consent form For children (under 12 years of age) and youth who are not literate in English or who may not be literate in their mother tongue	
I agree to answer questions about taking part in meetings with other children and youth	☺ ☹
I agree to a record of my answers being made using notes and a tape recorder	☺ ☹
I agree to my answers being used in a report on meetings of children and youth, which will be published by Save the Children Sweden – and I expect to receive a copy.	☺ ☹
My name will not be used in the report and my answers will only be used for this report.	☺ ☹
My name is: This is my signature: Date: Place:	

Examples of seeking informed consent: New Zealand

In New Zealand, working with younger children (aged five to seven years) in primary schools, Terry Dobbs obtained the informed consent of parents and teachers, but also used children-friendly materials to seek the consent of children. The materials included a children's information sheet, and a consent form (Dobbs, 2002).

Children's information sheet

I am writing a report for my University work. It's like homework. My report is going to be about what children think about smacking. So if you agree I would like you to tell me what you think about smacking. Sometimes adults do not always know what children think about smacking.

You do not have to talk to me if you do not want to and you won't get into trouble. If the other kids want to talk to me and you do not want to, that's OK too. You still won't get into trouble.

When you talk to me there will be other kids talking to me at the same time so that might make it easier. It's not like a test there are no right or wrong answers. We will be reading a storybook that will help us talk about what we think about smacking.

If, when we are talking, you want to stop talking or go that's OK. If you do not want to answer any of the questions that's OK too. When we are talking I will put the tape on so that I can remember what everyone's said for my report. But at any time you can tell me to turn it off and I will.

The words on the tape will be typed by a lady who is good at doing this sort of thing. The tape and the copy of your words from the tape will only be seen by me, my teacher [name] and the person who has done the typing. After we have finished with the words and the tape they will be locked away for 5 years then destroyed.

When I write my report I might write about some of the things you have talked about but I won't use your name so people won't know they are your words.

If you have any worries after our talk you can come and talk to me. I will keep everything private but if I think that you might not be safe I might have to tell some other adults who can help me make you safe.

Your parents have said it's OK for me to talk with you today but if you do not want to talk with me then that's OK. I won't talk to you unless you say it's OK. You can ask me any questions you like before you say it's OK to talk to you.

Consent form for children

Terry has told me that:

- If I do not want to talk to her today that's OK and I won't get into trouble;
- She will be asking me questions about what kids think about smacking.
- There are no right or wrong answers and that if I do not want to answer some of the questions that is OK.
- Any time I want to stop talking that's OK and she will turn the tape off.
- She is writing a report for her university work.
- She will write about some of the things I've talked about but won't use my name. I agree that's OK.
- The tape and copy of my words from the tape will only be seen by her, her teacher [name] and the lady that did the typing, and that the tape and the copy of my words from the tape will be kept private.
- If I have any worries about our talk I can talk with her.

I agree it's OK for Terry to talk to me today.

I agree it's OK for Terry to use the tape today.

..... (I agree) Day.....

Terry also developed information sheets and consent forms for the school board of trustees, head teachers and parents.

Information sheet for parents/guardian

Thank you for showing an interest in this project. Please read this sheet carefully before deciding whether or not to allow your child to participate. If you decide to allow your child to participate we thank you. If you decide not to allow your child to take part there will be no disadvantage to you or your child of any kind and we thank you for considering our request.

What is the aim of the project?

Terry is undertaking this project as part of her Postgraduate Diploma ... at the University of Otago. The intention of this study is to encourage children to give Terry their general ideas and views on physical discipline.

The research proposes to examine what children think of the use of physical discipline. It will also be looking at the changing views of children and childhood within our families ... The research will look at how these views of children and childhood may or may not help us to determine our thinking on the use of physical discipline.

The views of children in this study will be compared to the views of a larger study done in the United Kingdom.

Who is participating?

Ten children from the junior classes at your school have been chosen in consultation with the [Head teacher].

What will participants be asked to do?

Your child will be part of one of two discussion groups. Each group will consist of five children. Terry believes that children find it easier to talk with an adult when they are in a group. The children in the discussion groups will be introduced to a central character, Splodge, in a storybook. The children will be asked to assist Splodge by answering some questions Splodge had to ask. The children will be asked to:

- Describe what a smack is;
- Say how children feel when they are smacked;
- Explain why, when and where children are smacked;
- Discuss their ideas about alternatives to smacking.

These discussions should take approximately 30-40 minutes. They will be audiotaped and a professional typist will then transcribe the tape.

Should your child talk about personal experiences either during or after the group discussion that Terry believes may be harmful for your child she is obligated to follow this up by informing the Social Worker... at your school.

Can participants change their mind and withdraw from the project?

You may withdraw your child from participation in the project at any time and without any disadvantage to yourself of any kind. Terry will not interview your child unless you and your child have given consent. A copy of the information sheet and consent form that will be given to your child is enclosed.

Should you and your child consent to participating in this study, your child will be told the following: s/he can withdraw at any time before or during the discussion; s/he does not have to answer any questions s/he does not want to and s/he can ask to have the tape recorder turned off at any time.

What data or information will be collected and what use will be made of it?

The purpose for which the information is being collected is Terry's university studies. Results of this project may be published but any data

included will in no way be linked to your child. You and your child's anonymity will be preserved at all times. You will be provided with a summary of the research at the end of the project and you are most welcome to request a full copy of the results of the project should you wish.

The data collected will be securely stored in such a way that only those mentioned below will be able to gain access to it. At the end of the project any personal information will be destroyed immediately except that, as required by the university's research policy, any raw data on which the results of the project depend will be retained in secure storage for five years, after which it will be destroyed.

What if participants have any questions?

If you have any questions about this project, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact either:

Terry Dobbs

[Telephone number]

[Name of university supervisor]

[Telephone number]

This project has been reviewed and approved by
the Ethics Committee of the University of Otago

Consent form for parent/guardian

I have read the Information Sheet concerning this project and understand what it is about. I have also read a copy of my child's information sheet and consent form. All my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I am free to request further information at any stage.

I know that:

1. My child's participation in the project is entirely voluntary;
2. I am free to withdraw my child from the project at any time without any disadvantage to my child;
3. I understand that the research data on my child ((audio tapes and transcript) will be retained in secure storage for five years, after which time it will be destroyed, and that all personal information (names and consent forms) will be destroyed at the end of the study;
4. I understand that my child will be part of a group discussion with other children. The group will be asked to discuss the following questions: what a smack is, how children might feel when they are smacked, to explain why, when and where children are smacked and to discuss their ideas about alternatives to smacking;

5. I give my consent for the researcher to notify the Social Workers ... at our school should my child disclose personal experiences during or after the discussion of a nature that the researcher believes may be harmful to my child;
6. I understand that my child will not be interviewed without my child's consent;
7. I understand that only Terry Dobbs, her supervisor [name] and the person who typed the transcripts will have access to the personal information of my child. I am aware that only Terry and [name of supervisor] will have further access to the personal information of my child once the transcript is made;
8. I understand that the results of the project may be published but my anonymity and my child's anonymity will be preserved;
9. I understand that I have access to Terry should I need to discuss this project with her or discuss any issues that may arise from this project for myself or my child.

I give consent for my child to take part in this project.

..... (Date).....
Signature of parent or guardian

This project has been reviewed and approved by
the Ethics Committee of the University of Otago

Rules for managing visitors

If a visitor accompanies researchers to the field the following ethical rules apply (even to programme managers):

- Introduce the visitor to research subjects and explain why he/she is present;
- Informed consent needs to be obtained from research subjects for the visitor to be present as an observer;
- There should be no interruptions by the visitor during the time that research tools are being used;
- Agree beforehand with visitor about the appropriate time and topics for their own questions (if any) to research participants;
- Make sure that any interpretation for the visitor (into English) is not intrusive at any point in the research process.

No more than one visitor at a time should accompany the research team.

Standard observation sheet

Definition

Standard observation sheet – Standardised record of the context of each data collection session.

This essential aid to research must be used at the end of every data collection session, whether the data were collected with children or adults, and needs to be numbered and attached to the relevant data set. Each person who is involved in a process of collecting data, whether in the position of researcher, recorder or observer, makes notes during the session. After the session they compare notes and then together fill a standard observation sheet for the session as precisely as possible. There is little variation between the standard observation sheets of different protocols.

The purpose of this essential item in a protocol is to make it possible for the data collected to be compared between different times, places, groups and researchers, as well as to keep track of data collected using each research tool. The standard observation sheet provides scientific control for the research process as a whole. It should be used for each data collection session and attached to the relevant data set.

Standard observation sheet

Researcher(s) name(s):

Date of session:

Time of session: From..... To.....

Tool used:

Place of data collection:

Number sequence of data collected:

What factors may have influenced the collection of data during this session?

 Researcher (s):

 Children/adults:

 Characteristics of the place where data were collected:

 Weather:

 Interruptions/distractions:

 Other:

Sampling

Definitions

Sample – In general, the group of research participants who will be targeted for answers to a particular research question. In research tools, the precise characteristics and numbers of participants who will be asked to work with researchers on this tool. In certain cases, a selection of people (or places) chosen to represent the target population using a variety of techniques.

Sampling frame – Complete list of people (or places, objects) from which a selection of people (sample) is made. Sampling frames include voting lists, lists of welfare recipients, school registers, or the directory of villages in a district.

The aims and research questions for research will decide which groups of people will be involved in general (Steps 2 and 4) and any control groups required for comparison. Each research tool will also define a sample of participants (Step 5). As already noted, the most likely sampling techniques for research on the physical punishment of children will be ‘opportunistic’ and ‘snowball’ sampling. But there are other techniques that are worth considering:

Cluster sampling – To select naturally occurring groups within a population; for example, in a primary school with five grades, and three classes in each grade, choosing five classes – one in each grade;

Convenience sampling – Another name for opportunistic sampling;

Opportunistic sampling – Taking advantage of meeting people during research to involve them as research participants; for example, collecting data about injuries from people attending a clinic for treatment. This technique is particularly useful for hard-to-reach groups, such as street children, or sensitive subjects such as physical punishment in families;

Purposive sampling – Targeting specific (often named) people known to have information or to be opinion leaders;

Quota sampling – Selection of a quota, or fixed number, of people or places, which share certain characteristics (such as the same age or sex). For example, selecting the same quota of people from each group of potential participants: ten boys and ten girls aged between nine and 12 years in each school covered by the research;

Random sampling – A process of selecting a sample whereby each member of the population has an equal chance of being included. Sometimes this kind of sampling is done with a table of random numbers, or with a computer giving out random numbers, or by drawing lots;

Representative sampling – A sample that has similar characteristics to the overall population from which it was selected. A representative sample can be used to draw conclusions about the population as a whole. For instance, a sample of children in which the ratio of girls to boys is the same as the national ratio for children in the same age group;

Snowball sampling – Selecting people by starting with one participant and asking for suggestions about, and introductions to, other people who might be interested in taking part in the research. The same process is followed with each subsequent participant, so that the sample of participants increases. The idea of a snowball does not mean much in tropical regions of Asia and the Pacific. It is better to think about what happens when a small sticky object (such as a sweet or candy) is rolled in sand or dust, gradually gathering new grains and becoming a larger ball.

In practice, researchers begin by selecting general groups of children and adults who are involved in, and/or have information about, physical and emotional punishment of children, and then use specific techniques or sampling frames for each group, or research tool. Age groups, gender ratios and other factors required for comparison must be kept constant throughout the protocol.

Researchers also need to think about the response rate when they decide on the number of people they will try to involve as participants in a particular research process or tool:

Response rate – The percentage of sampled participants who have taken part in the research. For example, out of 100 sampled participants, 20 may not be at home and 10 are unwilling to take part in the research. This makes a response rate of 70%. Sampling has to anticipate response rates and compensate by adding more participants to the sample if required.

Example of sampling techniques in action

General survey of physical punishment of children in a large town³

When little is known about the situation of the physical punishment of children it is useful to carry out a general assessment. This can provide an overview and should be followed with more detailed research on specific types of physical punishment of children, or by more in-depth studies in communities.

The research in this example (Box 43) was carried out in a Southeast Asian town with six million inhabitants, divided into 24 administrative districts, which are sub-divided into a number of quarters (wards). Each quarter has a population of about 15,000 people. To obtain an overview of the diversity of children and punishments, researchers decided to select a total of six out of the 24 districts (quota sampling). After dividing the districts into town centre, urban, semi-rural and rural districts, the research team consulted government officials, social workers and researchers about the best choice of districts (representative sampling). Selection criteria included large reported incidence of the physical punishment of children, existing programmes on domestic violence, and a supportive attitude from the local authorities (representative sampling). After some negotiation, the team agreed on six districts and received permission from the relevant district authorities to carry out the research.

To make the research more manageable, the team decided to concentrate on two quarters in each district (quota sampling). Again, the team consulted with different organisations to identify the most diverse selection of social groups in the twelve quarters (representative sampling).

Within each quarter, the researchers started with a general survey of the types of physical punishment reported by children and a ranking exercise, to identify what children felt were the worst forms. The team gathered the information from parents, teachers, government officials, social workers and children, as well as through direct observation. The next step was to select two or three forms of physical punishment

³ Hypothetical example based on survey of child workers described in RWG-CL, 2003.

of children that were reported to be particularly common in each quarter (representative sampling). The team avoided selecting the same form of physical punishment of children in more than one quarter (target sampling).

Box 43: Purposive sampling in a large town				
Site	Number of participants involved in the research (individuals and groups)			
	Children	Teachers	Parents	Local officials
Town centre district (a)				
Quarter 1	90	4	5	4
Quarter 2	65	0	15	5
Town centre district (b)				
Quarter 3	35	6	4	3
Quarter 4	25	5	6	6
Urban district				
Quarter 5	80	10	11	3
Quarter 6	90	25	5	3
Semi-rural district (a)				
Quarter 7	20	7	6	5
Quarter 8	12	5	5	3
Semi-rural district (b)				
Quarter 9	18	4	6	9
Quarter 10	20	5	3	5
Rural district				
Quarter 11	120	0	12	5
Quarter 12	100	5	8	5
Total	675	76	86	56

The team interviewed and held focus group discussions with parents, teachers and children (opportunistic sampling/snowball sampling). They interviewed children at home and school and talked to parents and teachers (snowball sampling). Finally, the researchers visited health centres to collect information about punishment-related injuries and deaths. They also interviewed government administrators to find out if there were any existing or planned government or civil society programmes to abolish the physical punishment of children.

Case study

In one quarter, the team studied the physical punishment of a particular group of children – scavengers at the municipal garbage dump. The local authorities had already carried out a census of all children working at the garbage site, which showed that two thirds of the 300 workers were under 18 years old. The research team used the census data to select fifty (out of about 200) children for individual interviews and group discussions (random sampling). The group of participants included boys and girls aged 6 to 17 years. The research team organised interviews and discussions with groups of children to get an understanding of the physical punishments they endured (purposive sampling).

RESEARCH METHODS

Definitions

Research method – A systematic, scientific technique for gathering data about people (research participants).

Research tool (instrument) – Purpose-designed instructions for systematic data gathering to answer detailed research questions. These tools are written in a research protocol.

Social science research methods are generally-accepted techniques for collecting social data with people. Research tools are designed using one or more research methods.

This section of the Tool Kit explains the main methods, or techniques, of data collection listed in Step 5:

- Research diary
- Observation
- Visual methods
 - Drawings
 - Maps and diagrams
 - Photographs and videos
 - Visual stimuli
- Recall
- Ranking
- Focus group discussion
- Role play and drama
- Written methods
- Interviews
- Surveys

In each case, the explanation includes some general comments on using the method, ways of recording data, examples of the ways other researchers have adapted basic methods to carry out their research, and guidance from experience.

Research diary

Each researcher must keep a personal research diary from the start of the research process. A research diary is used every day to record:

- What happened today;
- Ethical issues;
- Problems and possible solutions;
- Questions and possible answers ('hypotheses');
- Impressions and feelings;
- 'To do' lists;
- Names and addresses of contacts;
- Brief unstructured observations;
- Records of conversations;
- Ideas about the meaning of what happened;
- Comments about the fieldwork or the research in general.

Recording in a research diary

Research diaries are handwritten in hard-backed notebooks that are a convenient size for researchers to carry with them at all times. Although they often contain some personal thoughts and feelings their purpose is to record the research process.

Each day's entry should be dated and each page numbered. Most researchers develop a system of symbols that help them to distinguish one kind of entry from another, for example:

- | | |
|-----------------------|-------------|
| ?? = Check this; | □ = Do this |
| ★ = Remember this; | ■ = Done |
| ☺ = Person to contact | |

Example of research diary record

In Box 44, a researcher has made notes about a visit to an official in a Ministry of Education in an Asian country, recording some of the

topics discussed, using personal symbols in the margin as reminders about things to do, or to indicate important points to be remembered later.

Box 44: Extract from research diary	
?? = Check this; ★ = Remember this; ☺ = Person to contact ☐ = Do this	
<p>11.03.02 Ministry of Education</p> <p><i>Saw [name of person] after a long wait and talked for about an hour.</i></p> <p><i>Discussed private schools. Mostly in urban areas, 3,500 of countrywide total of 5,000 schools. Not all are state licensed</i></p> <p><i>But have been evaluated (he doesn't know who did it though).</i></p> <p><i>Parents ask for children to be given homework, so private head teachers do not want to change. Parent sensitisation is necessary.</i></p> <p><i>ECD started because of over-enrolment in primary (child-minding issue)</i></p> <p><i>When asked (and not before) suggests I see [name and contact details of person] in ECD department</i></p> <p><i>Not sure these people are on top of the statistical data, I found them irritating, not sure why. The Ministry buildings are very untidy and dirty, lots of broken desks piled in hallways.</i></p>	<p>Page 25</p> <p>?? Check statistics ?? Who gives licences</p> <p>☐ Get this evaluation</p> <p>★ Remember!</p> <p>☐ Get appointment</p>

Guidance from experience

- Researchers should have their diaries with them at all times;
- Diary writing should not be left to the next day;
- Some records can be made as they happen;
- Leave a wide margin on each page for later indexing;
- If researchers feel that they do not want to share some of the details in their diaries they can enter passages that are important for the research on a computer file for sharing with others.

Observation

Observation may be structured or unstructured and is vital for understanding context. Observation should be a daily activity – researchers should never be ‘off duty’. Brief observations should be recorded in the research diary. Other methods are more systematic; even ‘unstructured’ observation is in fact a methodical process.

Unstructured observations

Unstructured observations are especially useful during the early stages of research to produce research questions that can be explored later, using other methods. These observations record people, surroundings, sounds and speech, events, what is said, smells, behaviour and body language. They can be made at a fixed place, or while moving around.

Unstructured observations might take place at fixed places during research in a school or community, in shopping centres or malls, to observe interactions between adults and children or between older and younger children, watching for examples of:

- Conflicts that ended in physical punishment;
- Conflicts that have peaceful resolution;
- Arbitrary punishment;
- Types of punishment.

Unstructured observations can also be made while driving or walking, including following an individual child (with informed consent) and observing with participants during community walk.

Recording unstructured observations

Written records, which must be made in as much detail as possible and can include sketches, are made either at the scene, or as soon as possible afterwards. Observations made from a fixed point can sometimes be written down at the time, if researchers are sitting in a bar or restaurant for example. But standing in the street writing in a

notebook will attract attention. Two researchers chatting can talk about what they see, which helps them to remember and write down later. It can be easier to make notes on the move, sitting in a taxi for example, or recording what people say during a community walk.

Example of unstructured observation

Community or 'neighbourhood' walks were used in Cleveland, USA, to identify areas where children feel unsafe, a technique that could also be used with the physical punishment of children. Children led the researcher on a walking tour of the community, pointing out landmarks and responding to questions designed to stimulate general discussion about community likes and dislikes, dangers, safety, resources and people. If children wear unobtrusive tape recorders in a back- or belt-pack, their exact words can be recorded to complement the researcher's notes (Source, Spilsbury, 2002).

Guidance from experience

- While making unstructured observations, researchers should keep a low profile;
- Wear clothes similar to the people being observed;
- Do not create any disturbance;
- Try not to be noticed;
- Avoid interacting with people, unless the observation is carried out in the company of other researchers or with participants.

Structured observations

Structured observation focuses on regular events or activities. It is an important method for research on the physical punishment of children, because it can reveal details about actual punishments, their frequency and who does the punishing. Structured observation tools are designed after other methods have identified appropriate places and researchers have begun to form theories about how often or how hard some children are punished. These theories need to be checked using systematic records that can be analysed to produce

numerical information. This is vital because researchers carrying out unstructured observations often place too much importance on a particular activity or behaviour and develop theories about how frequently it happens, failing to notice other aspects that are less obvious but more frequent. Methodical counting will correct mistaken impressions, and is a very basic form of cross-checking (triangulation).

Structured observations can be based on:

- Frequency of events, activities or behaviour;
- Events at regular intervals at the same place;
- Duration of events;
- Sample of people – watching the individual activities and reactions of a child for half an hour, then repeating the observation with other children.

Structured observations of physical punishment of children can include frequency and types of punishment and the way parents, teachers or others in authority behave towards them.

Recording structured observation

Records of structured observations are made on charts (also called schedules, forms, tables, matrices or checklists) specially designed for each research tool. They will usually need to be piloted several times to make sure that they are easy to use and that they do in fact record the events or behaviour correctly.

Example of structured observations

These two examples of structured observation charts can be adapted for a number of situations. The first form below was designed for observing parents and children in a stressful public place, such as a supermarket checkout (Box 45). The second form is for observing regular interactions between members of a group of street children (Box 46).

Guidance from experience

- Structured observation is best done in pairs, with one researcher observing and the other recording on the chart;
- Structured observation charts can be cross-checked (triangulated) with recall charts.

Box 45: Structured observation chart for monitoring and recording parent-child conflicts at a supermarket checkout at five day intervals, at the same time of day for one hour		
Name of supermarket:		
Address:		
Checkout number:		
Date of observation:		
Day of the week:		
Time	Observed conflict	Observed punishment or resolution
0800		
0805		
0810		
0815		
0820		
0825		
0830		
0835		
0840		
0845		
0850		
0855		
<i>Source: Adapted from Ennew, 2000</i>		

Visual methods

Visual methods are especially useful for working with children (and adults) who find verbal expression difficult, or to deal with issues that are hard or embarrassing to talk about, or to stimulate a focus group discussion or interview. It is often easier to talk about a picture, photograph or other visual image than to answer a question. Visual methods can include drawings, sculptures, masks, maps, puppets, photographs and videos produced by the participants. They can be used with individuals or with groups. Yet these methods may not be suitable for all societies and researchers must take into account that cultures have different visual understandings.

Box 46: Structured observation chart for regular records of conflicts and punishments observed among a known group of street children around a bus station								
Date								
Place								
Time	From	To						
Day of the week								
Name of child who punishes or abuses	Type of punishment/abuse							
	Verbal abuse	Humiliation	taking property away	Isolation	Hitting with hand	Hitting with stick etc	Kicking	Other
Ramon								
Jean								
Butch								
Louie								
Marty								

Source: Adapted from Ennew, 2000.

In general, visual methods are acceptable and enjoyable for most participants. But there are some situations in which they should be used sensitively. Visual methods may not be culturally appropriate; for example drawings of people may not be possible in Muslim areas. Researchers have to be familiar with local ‘ways of seeing’ to make sense of the images. Diagrams may need to be adapted to the local context. People have to be ‘visually literate’ in order to use visual methods. Non-literate people may be unfamiliar with the use of pen and paper and people not used to ‘wasting’ paper may feel uncomfortable drawing on a large sheet of flipchart paper. Illiterate children may feel inhibited by pen and paper, and feel foolish when they are asked to draw pictures.

Visual methods reduce the risk of the researcher missing important points. They can result in new perspectives. For example, photographs and drawings made by children may capture details that an adult researcher would fail to notice (Picture 3).

There are two fundamental rules for all work with visual methods; interpretation and ownership:

- Interpretation

Pictures, drawings, diagrams and maps must be interpreted by the people who draw them. It is unethical and unscientific for a researcher to interpret people's drawings and diagrams without consulting them. Researchers should allow time for comments, explanations and discussions. Listen to and record what people say about the pictures they make. This is as important for research as the pictures themselves (Pictures 4 and 5).

- Ownership

Participants own the pictures they have made. Ask permission for researchers to take away drawings, maps, diagrams and photographs, to publish them or to use them in another group. Make copies (with permission) for the research record if people want to keep the originals. Give the names of people who have provided drawings, maps and diagrams in any reports or publications, if this is the wish of the artist(s).



Picture 3: Bui Huyen Nga, a girl from Hanoi, Viet Nam, was determined that adults would not miss the details of this picture she drew as part of a group discussion of physical punishment, so she added 'bubbles' with the words of the child's father, 'Such insolent behaviour, how dare you drop out of school!', and mother, 'Even if you are ill you have to go to school!'. She also made sure that adults noticed that both parents beat the child, mother with a wooden stick and father with a belt (both drawn attention to by arrows and words).

Children's drawings

Drawing allows participants to explore a topic without having to answer individual questions. It reduces eye contact between an adult researcher and a child, which can help reduce the researcher's role and power. Children usually enjoy drawing but must be asked what they have drawn because adult interpretations are almost always incorrect, or miss vital details that are important to the child.



Pictures 4 and 5 illustrate the importance of asking children for an interpretation of their drawings. Both pictures appear to show fairly common occurrences of physical punishment, the first in school, the second at home. But, children's explanations also illustrate the differences between punishment in different economic settings and cultures. The first picture is by 17-years-old Jin Sun-mee, from a Senior High School in South Korea, who explained that the two weeping girls are being punished for low school achievements.

Dao Thuy Hang, from Viet Nam, on the other hand, drew a child being beaten in a poverty-stricken home (note the crumbling wall in the background). He explained that the picture shows a child who has made a mistake being beaten by his father, 'who gets angry easily because of the economic difficulties'.



Children's drawings are particularly useful in situations where children cannot or do not want to express themselves orally or in writing. Drawings may be useful in approaching sensitive subjects, such as experiences of abuse.

Children's drawings are individual and cultural interpretations. Researchers need to understand local ways of seeing and drawing, respect local customs relating to visual representations, and understand what children draw at different ages.

Children's drawings should not be used as illustrations in a research report, other than to make a particular point connected with the research, connected to the proper analysis of the drawing.

Recording children's drawings

All drawings need to have the following information recorded, in addition to the use of a standard observation sheet for each data collection session:

- Child's gender;
- Child's age;
- Other personal characteristics (such as type of work, or grade in school);
- Child's interpretation of the drawing;
- Replies made by the child to any questions from the researcher, together with the questions themselves.

Drawings and pictures – together with the explanations by the artists – can be coded to identify the number of times certain ideas or images appear. The coded and tabulated data can then be analysed. It is important to think about how to analyse before spending time and resources on collecting large numbers of drawings, diagrams or photographs.

Example of children's drawings

Pioneering research with street boys in South Africa asked the children to divide a page in half from top to bottom and draw 'people doing good things' on the right-hand side and 'people doing bad things' on the left. The boys were encouraged to draw as many things as possible. They drew in the open air, in a place where they felt comfortable, which provided sufficient space between them to minimise copying. The drawings were collected during several sessions with different groups of boys over a period of time, and written records of their explanations of their pictures were kept with the drawings. The drawings were categorised, counted and tabulated; results showing, among other things, that contrary to public opinions these boys held very conventional values (Source: Swart, 1990). This method can easily be adapted so that children draw 'good' and 'bad' methods of discipline or conflict resolution (Picture 6).

Guidance from experience

- Researchers need to provide the paper and pencils/crayons. Children may want to keep them – researchers need to think about what they will do if this occurs;
- Children who do not often get a chance to draw or use coloured pencils may need time, and many sheets of paper, to enjoy the

- experience and practice before they draw what researchers would like them to draw;
- Explain the purpose of the research and how the drawings will be analysed and used;
 - Do not praise 'good' drawings or criticise 'bad' drawings;
 - Do not select only 'good' drawings for analysis – use them all as data;
 - Children may not draw what you ask. This is not a problem. Find out why they draw what they draw. Never discard any drawings. Remember that 'negative' data are also data – they show that the researcher needs to know more about the topic and/or how to ask questions or describe what they would like participants to do.



Picture 6: Beating with a stick in a violent family (left) is contrasted with life in a loving family (right). This drawing by 12-year-old Phok Oudom, was collected as part of a competition to raise awareness of physical punishment in Cambodia by the NGO Committee on the CRC, a partner of Save the Children Norway.

Maps, diagrams and charts

A variety of visual methods, usually used with groups, has been developed for collecting information about space and time use. These techniques rarely use a pencil and paper in the first instance, but the results are copied on to paper by researchers. To make it possible for illiterate or semi-literate people to participate, extensive use is made of natural materials, such as sticks or stones, which are readily available locally – and free. Drawing and modelling is done on a large scale on the ground, so that all participants can move around the map or diagram and the final product is agreed on by everyone. This approach is particularly useful for exploring both individual and group ideas about their environment and daily activities.

Such methods (together with the ranking methods described below) developed as a form of action-oriented research with communities in villages and are usually referred to collectively as 'PRA' (Participatory Rural Appraisal). The aim is to involve community members in the planning process. The methods are useful outside rural settings, particularly for rapid assessment, but are difficult to analyse scientifically. The main techniques are described in many manuals on PRA, some of which are referred to in the bibliography. However, most of the typical mapping techniques are unlikely to be useful for research on the physical and emotional punishment of children, other than community maps in which children identify areas they regards as 'safe' and 'dangerous'. The most useful form of 'map' for research on the punishment of children is the 'body map', which is discussed under visual stimulus below.

Recording maps

Keep a permanent (paper) record of all maps, charts and diagrams, including the names and relevant characteristics of the people who made them.

Guidance from experience

- These methods can be difficult to use in urban communities and conflict situations;
- As the activity usually takes place outside, it can invite unwelcome interference from other people;
- These methods can take a lot of time and participants may get bored;
- It is difficult to collect sufficient pieces of data for quantitative analysis.

Photographs and videos

Children and adult community members can easily be shown how to take photographs, and may already have experience using cameras. Children can take photographs and make videos as individuals or in

groups. In some situations, children are able to take photographs in places that are not accessible to outsiders. Photographs taken by children can provide useful insights into the way they see the world but, like drawings, they have to be explained to adults, which turns the photograph into a useful source of information, rather than a mere illustration for a report.

Pictures taken during fieldwork can be used as visual stimuli during subsequent discussions and interviews. One of the most useful ways of using photographs to collect data is to ask a participant, or group of participants, to use all the shots on a disposable camera to make a 'photo-essay' to illustrate some aspect of their lives; 'punishment of children in our community', for example. When the photographs are developed (which in most large cities can be done within an hour) the photographer(s) can display them on a flipchart or wall and explain what they want to communicate, which usually results in lively and interesting discussion.

Photographs and video are powerful ways to communicate and raise awareness. They reach many people who would not read a written report. Yet, despite all these advantages, photographs and videos can raise ethical issues. Once they have been made public, films and photographs can take on a life of their own and are hard to control. Researchers must be especially careful when using photographs and videos that show vulnerable or victimised children. Even when children agree to the images being published, researchers are ultimately responsible for protecting identities. When the privacy of participants cannot be ensured, photographs should not be taken. As already discussed, programme managers and researchers are responsible for ensuring that photographic images do not fall into the hands of paedophiles who might use them as pornography.

Ask for consent when taking someone's photograph. Make sure people understand the implications and potential risks. Do not take photographs if this may put children and adult participants in danger. Using video or film shot by participants has a long history in social research, especially with non-literate people. Making the video is just the first step. Editing video recordings can completely change the meaning of the images and editing should thus include the participants who took the pictures. The process is also expensive and

should involve experts in film-making. Researchers who are interested in including video among the methods in a protocol will find ideas and advice on the website of the Granada Centre for Visual Anthropology (See Web sites).

Recording photographs and videos

Photographs are records in themselves but, to be useful in research, they must be collected within the context of a research tool and labelled with information such as photographer, date, site, subject, comments and interpretations from the photographer and other people, as well as a standard observation sheet. Informed consent is required from both photographers and people who are photographed.

Example of photography

A researcher in a remote rural village in Orissa, India, decided to use disposable cameras as an experiment in his research with boys involved in agricultural labour. The researcher could only afford one camera, and the boys had never used one before. They formed a group to make a photo-essay of 'work in our village', deciding jointly on the images to record, and with one confident boy taking all the photographs. It was two weeks before the researcher was able to go to the nearest town for the photographs to be developed and then return to the village. The boys excitedly arranged the photographs on the mud floor of a hut, explaining what they had been trying to communicate so fast that the researcher could barely keep up with them as he took notes. Despite the boys' inexperience, each photograph was in focus and perfectly framed. The topic could just as easily have been 'discipline in our village' (Adapted from Boyden and Ennew, 1997).

Guidance from experience

- Using photography, and especially video, is expensive;
- Using disposable cameras can be a relatively cheap option;

- Despite many adults' fears that children will break or steal cameras, this almost never happens;
- It is important to remember that photographs reflect the viewpoint of the photographer

Visual stimulus

Single images, or a set of images, drawings or photographs can be used to stimulate discussion with individuals or groups. This approach is particularly useful for participants who are shy, or for difficult or sensitive topics, as well as for exploring ideas. For example, to begin discussion about punishment in a rural area, researchers might show participants drawings of punishment or conflict involving children and ask 'What do you think is happening? Who do you think they are?' 'What is this?' 'What does this tell and show?' Or 'What does this mean?' Pictures can also be used in ranking exercises.

A variety of visual stimuli can be developed from:

- Children's/adults own photographs and drawings;
- A 'photo-essay' or set of drawings made by other participants;
- Pictures made beforehand by an artist or photographer;
- Collages;
- Posters;
- Films and videos;
- Pottery, sculpture and other objects.

If drawings made by artists are used as stimuli, they will need very careful piloting in order to make sure that participants see what researchers would like them to see. Different sets of drawings may have to be made for rural and urban participants, or for participants from minority cultures. Each culture has its own ways and experiences of seeing. Participants from remote areas may have almost no experience of 'seeing' in two dimensions on a page and can be unable to recognise a photograph even of a close relative. Researchers should not take any visual image for granted. To take examples from this Resource Handbook, ☺ does not mean a smiling face or 'yes' to all people, and ☒ can mean many things besides 'no'- for example, a kiss or 'do not enter'.

Recording visual stimulus methods

The idea of using visual images is to stimulate discussion, so the recording methods are the same as those used in focus group discussions or interviews. If the image used is a drawing, map or photographs made by participants, these should be recorded also.

Examples of visual stimulus

'Body mapping' is an interesting visual stimulus technique that can be used to explore both children's understanding of, and ideas about, their own bodies and the physical and emotional effects of punishment on children. This is a method that can be used with groups of both adults and children. One participant volunteers to lie on the ground, face up on top of a large sheet of paper (two or more sheets of flip chart paper stuck together) with arms and legs spread wide. Using a thick marker pen, another participant draws a silhouette round the volunteer's body. Then, with the volunteer back on his or her feet, the group discusses and marks on the 'map' places on the body that they feel correspond to a list of characteristics provided by the researcher, such as 'places used for punishment', 'vulnerable places', 'private places', 'places that hurt'.

During focus group discussions with schoolchildren on 'physical punishment', Ethiopian researcher Tsegaye Chernet found that children were not clear about the definition of the topic. He explored with the children the meaning of the word 'Q'tat' (punishment), used in the local language, and developed a list of different punishments, from being struck with a cane to being hung upside down over burning chili-peppers. Then an artist worked with children to draw pictures they would recognise of each type of punishment. Finally, the pictures were used in a recall chart (see below) for week-long diaries of punishments kept by children themselves (Adapted from Boyden and Ennew, 1997). Sometimes children's own drawings can be used; at other times, artists drawings made with the participation of children can be made use of in a multi-level approach (Pictures 7 and 8).



Images such as these shown in pictures 7 and 8 of physical punishment in Lao PDR, drawn by young artist(s) for a competition to develop a poster on physical punishment for awareness raising, might be used as visual stimuli – but only after consultation with children and piloting.

Guidance from experience

- Visual stimuli are particularly effective for encouraging rural girls and women to talk;
- Do not include words in pictures that will be used with illiterate or semi-literate participants;
- Never use pictures from research tools developed in another country – replace them with local images.

Recall

In recall and time-use methods, participants are asked to recall (remember) past events, either specific events or routine activities, usually using some kind of chart. Typical topics for recall are daily routines (all activities during the previous 24 hours, or during the past week), or routine activities, such as all types of food consumed during the previous 24 hours. Rather than asking a long list of questions (When did you get up? What did you do first? What did you do next?), researchers give a participant a broad question or questions to answer in a chart that either the researcher or the

participant can fill in. Probing questions can be added, to ensure that the information is complete.

Both children and adults can provide memories of past punishments, and how they felt about it, and children can keep records of punishments as and when they happen. The method used will vary according to the period of time covered (Box 47). Recall charts of various kinds have been successfully used in many countries to record types of punishment, when and by whom they are administered, for what reason and what children think about them (Box 48).

Recording recall methods

There are several ways of recording recalled events, ranging from detailed charts, to videos and autobiographies (Box 47). The way information is recorded depends on the period of time, the participants and the topic. As Box 47 shows, discipline and punishment can be recalled in many different ways.

Examples of recall methods

Charts that record punishments can be filled in by children immediately after they happen, or completed by researchers through questioning children. It is best to define the type of punishment with children, using role play, drawings and focus group discussion before designing a chart. It will also probably be necessary to explore the words used for various punishments, and perhaps to use pictures, or pictures and words together (Box 48). Punishment recall charts provide good, accurate and quantifiable data, but they must be well-piloted beforehand (Piloting, Step 6).



Guidance from experience

- These methods work best if participants develop their own time categories and activities/events to be recorded;
- Symbols or drawings (tested or developed with participants) can replace writing on charts, so that illiterate participants can fill them in themselves.

Box 47: Time use and recall: Ways of recording, when and why they are used		
Period of time	Time use: As it happens	Recall: Remembered activities
	Best for getting details	Best for information about routines, but also good for unusual or one-time events
Hour/day	<p>Diaries and charts for participants to fill in, which could include topics such as:</p> <p>Overall use of time Hours worked Type of work or task Food eaten Discipline and punishment</p>	<p>Charts filled in by researcher or participants, which could include topics such as</p> <p>Hours worked Type of work task Food eaten Discipline and punishment</p>
Week	<p>Diaries and charts for participants to fill in, which could include topics such as:</p> <p>Overall time use Hours worked Work or task Food eaten Discipline and punishment</p>	<p>Weekly activities can be recalled in charts filled in by researchers or participants, or in some cases using structured interviews or questionnaires, to record topics such as:</p> <p>Hours worked Work or task Food eaten Discipline and punishment</p>
Year	<p>Can be done if fieldwork is long-term, or research is a continuous process within a project and participants keep daily diaries, or fill in weekly or daily charts.</p>	<p>May be individual or collective and use a variety of methods, including visual, interview and questionnaire, and including:</p> <p>Major or long-term punishment trends, Seasonal calendar Illness episodes Employment (especially for casual workers)</p>

Period of time	Time use: As it happens	Recall: Remembered activities
	Best for getting details	Best for information about routines, but also good for unusual or one-time event
Lifetime	Not possible except with already-existing diary materials (secondary data), which are unlikely to exist outside highly literate societies.	<p>May be individual or collective: and use a variety of methods, including visual techniques. Useful for topics such as:</p> <p>Life history (including past punishments and forms of discipline) Pregnancies Jobs Migrations Life history Community history</p>

Box 48: Start of a design for a punishment recall form

Punishment	Day	Time	Why was I punished?	Who punished me	What do I think about it ?
 Hitting with a stick					
 Ear twisting					

- Never use pictures drawn by artists without first finding out about types of punishment from children and piloting pictures with children and other participants.

Ranking

Ranking identifies preferences and priorities. Typical rankings used in everyday life are the most important people in a community, the most popular songs, and the position reached by football teams in a competition such as the World Cup. Ranking is the basis on which stakeholders decide their research priorities in Steps 2 and 4. As a research method, ranking can be used with individuals or with groups. Using words, objects, cards or visual images, participants can rank ideas, events, people, things, types of activities and almost any aspect of their lives, such as the effectiveness of social services, forms of physical punishment of children from 'acceptable' to 'worst', or the most vulnerable children in a community. Reading and writing skills are not essential and the activity can be organised with groups or individuals.

Used with groups, ranking is a swift and enjoyable way of organising a discussion in which a group of people come to a collective decision about things they may not have actually talked about before, but which are important elements in their lives. For example, a group of villagers might be able to make a list of the reasons why children are punished and then place them in order of gravity.

Ranking and scoring methods provide a visual focus that can encourage the participation of people who might not readily take part in discussions. They identify words used by community members. They are useful for sensitive topics, such as physical and emotional punishment.

Ranking topics can be divided into three main groups:

- Priorities and preferences;
- Criteria and reasons;
- Wealth and status.

The first two of these are useful for research on physical and emotional punishment of children. All ranking begins with listing the

objects, persons, events or people in a category: such as types of punishment. Lists can simply be divided into 'likes' and 'dislikes'; for example children can list, sort and rank the severity of physical and emotional punishments they experience in their communities, at home, at school and at work.

Listing can be useful as an opening activity, and the original lists can be used as the basis of further activities, such as grouping items on the list into categories. For example, children may group a list of different punishments into reasonable and unreasonable. This might lead into a discussion of what punishment fits which misbehaviour. In this way, researchers can discover children's own ways of thinking about discipline and compare them with those of adults in the same community.

Listing and sorting can lead to more complex ranking exercises and further discussions on each item or group of items. For example, forms of physical punishment of children can be given a 'score' in the ranking, according to different criteria – pain, humiliation, injuries or fear.

Lists that have been collected from a large number of participants can be used for numerical analysis, by counting the number of times each item has been listed by individuals, and then comparing the number of times they are listed by groups of participants (for example do boys and girls list different things?).

- Discover and learn to use community members' own ways of talking about and categorising forms of misbehaviour, punishments and effects;
- Adapt ranking and scoring exercises to the requirements of the study and the places where data are collected (homes, schools, communities, for example);
- Discuss any ideas about what to focus on with children, before designing a research tool;
- Make sure to get the perspectives of different groups of people in any ranking process: men, women and children will probably have different views, as will boys and girls;
- Ask questions to probe people's reasons for the order of the ranking and their criteria (Why do you think that? What makes this so humiliating?).

Recording ranking methods

In typical rural ranking exercises, participants use objects from their own environment, and move them around on the ground, or add extra counters (stones, sticks, leaves) to piles or rows to indicate preferences. Literate people write on cards, which they move around on a table or the floor, or stick on a wall or flip chart. Whatever is used, the result must be recorded in detail immediately, by reproducing the final order of things on paper. Remember to collect details of the people who have been involved in the ranking – names, ages, gender and so forth – and to complete a standard observation sheet.

Tables (sometimes referred to as ‘matrixes’ or ‘matrices’) can be useful for recording people’s ranking decisions. They can be ‘drawn’ or marked out on the ground in the first instance using sticks or stones (Box 49).

Example of ranking method

A group of ten boys and ten girls of the same age in a community might be asked to list the ways they are punished, resulting in a list of four ways (blaming, insulting, shaming, beating), which the researcher would write on a large table, made on a flip chart sheet. Each child would then be given 10 counters, and asked to rank the frequency with which they receive each of these punishments, by placing the counters in the appropriate cell of the table: four for the most frequent, three for the next most frequent, down to one for the least frequent (Box 49).

In addition to providing information about the differences in punishment according to gender, the discussions between children about will be worth recording. After the table is made, researchers can ask children questions such as ‘Why do you think boys are beaten more often than girls?’ and ‘Do you think this is fair?’

Guidance from experience

- Some unnecessary terminology has crept in to descriptions of ranking. Researchers sometimes say ‘matrix ranking’ when

- they mean making a chart or table;
- Some cultures do not include ranking as a way of thinking about the world and may not have words and concepts for ‘better’ and ‘worst’;
 - Some descriptions of ranking suggest using beans or rice to use as counters in ranking exercises. It is neither respectful nor ethical to use food for this kind of exercise in places where people go hungry;
 - Physical punishment deals with sensitive issues and deeply held beliefs. Researchers should be aware of possible personal dangers, of causing community strife and of issues of confidentiality;
 - Beware of misinterpreting the results of scoring tables. The numbers produced in scoring and ranking are relative rather than absolute. This means that the numbers usually cannot be used to make calculations during analysis.

Box 49: Ranking table comparing types of punishment received, comparing boys and girls

Forms of punishment	Boys	Girls
Blaming	20	20
Insulting	5	5
Shaming	6	65
Beating	69	10

Focus group discussions

Focus group discussions are facilitated discussions on a specific topic (‘focus’). They are useful for exploring agreed ideas and attitudes in the early stages of fieldwork, in order to find out what questions to ask and what words to use in interviews and questionnaires. Focus group discussions are useful for identifying the knowledge, ideas, values, beliefs and attitudes of a group, as well as for discussing questions about the kinds of interventions that people think would be successful.

Participants in a focus group discussion should share common characteristics, for example, a group of girl domestic workers of the same age discussing the abuse they receive from employers. Discussions should be arranged with more than one group of girls, in

different places, or of different ages and birthplaces in order to cross-check the information. In addition, focus groups with adults (parents, teachers and non-teachers) could be organised to find out about attitudes towards discipline. Separate focus groups of children with different characteristics can be organised, to discuss the same basic issues, in order to compare attitudes, for example of boys and girls, children of different ages and children from different economic and ethnic groups.

The group dynamics during focus group discussions can reduce the role and power of the researcher, which is empowering for children. Participants have greater control over the process than during a one-to-one interview. Focus groups can be enjoyable for participants. Sometimes group members are motivated to take action as a result of sharing their stories. A group of children discussing punishment can become so animated and interested that they ignore the adult facilitator during their debate. Sometimes they organise focus groups with other children in the same school, in order to campaign against physical punishment.

On the other hand, focus groups do not offer confidentiality and privacy, which may inhibit honest responses and means that this method is usually not appropriate for asking about individual experiences of punishment and abuse. For such topics, individual methods may be more appropriate, but this is not a strict rule. Some participants may talk about personal experiences if they feel supported by other members of the focus group.

A focus group discussion requires:

- Eight to 15 participants with the same characteristics (gender, age, employment, education, for example);
- A comfortable place with no interruptions or spectators;
- Sufficient space for everyone to sit down comfortably in a circle, with no tables or desks to block the space between them;
- A set time for discussion (no less than one hour and not normally more than two);
- The list of ideas, questions or topics to be covered, from the relevant research tool;
- A skilled facilitator;
- At least one skilled note taker.

It can take time to organise focus groups and it is easiest to set them up in a place where people gather together anyway, such as a school, club or vocational training project, a clinic or project premises in an NGO. In rural communities it may be possible to take advantage of existing community meetings, women's groups or credit unions. Community leaders can be invaluable in helping researchers locate people to take part in a focus group discussion. Participants should be informed when the discussion will take place, what will happen, what will be discussed and asked for their consent as individuals.

Focus groups can sometimes be dominated by a few individuals who suppress controversial or minority views. They may also exclude people who are not comfortable about speaking in public or who are not able to speak in front of someone of higher status. Focus group discussions were developed in 'western' societies that presume everyone has an equal right to speak, whatever their status. In Asia, it is customary for the person of highest status to speak first, often at length, followed by people of lower status in order of rank. Thus focus groups with adults may appear to be dominated by community leaders, the elderly, the educated or the wealthy. This makes it all the more important to try to select people with the same characteristics. Among children, status differences tend to be small, and seldom affect focus groups, except that it is often wise to hold discussions separately with children of different ages, boys and girls (although this is not an inflexible rule and depends on the topic). Girls and adult women, who are not accustomed to having their opinions sought, or listened to, may be too shy to talk and respond best to looking at pictures or videos to begin the discussion. Several other methods can be used before and during focus groups, including listing, role play, ranking and drawing.

Apart from choosing appropriate groups, the success of a focus group discussion depends on the 'facilitator' (whose job is to make the discussion flow smoothly) and the note taker(s) who keep a detailed record of what is said. The aim of a well-facilitated focus group discussion is to get the participants talking and discussing the topic with very little intervention from the facilitator. The role of a facilitator is to:

- Establish a friendly and positive atmosphere;
- Introduce the discussion;
- Encourage open discussion and active involvement of all participants;
- Monitor the discussion and try to prevent or diminish the domination of the discussion by a few individuals;
- Be prepared to deal with people's emotions, including distress or disagreements between group members;
- Summarise the discussion at the end;
- Listen to additional comments after the session.

A focus group discussion produces invalid data if the facilitator:

- Asks questions of each participant, as if in a group interview;
- Suggests responses;
- Gives personal opinions;
- Acts as an expert or teacher;
- Contradicts or corrects participants;
- Uses an authoritarian or patronising tone when speaking to participants.

Recording focus group discussions

A written record must always be made of:

- Date, time, place and names of participants;
- Names of facilitator and note taker;
- Content of the discussion throughout, recording exact words where possible and especially the words and phrases used by participants to discuss sensitive topics;
- Group dynamics: level of participation, level of interest, dominant and passive participants;
- Opinions and emotions;
- Body language and the way things are said (angrily, with humour, shyly...).

An experienced note taker should record the group discussion in as much detail as possible. Agree on the methods of recording with the participants before the discussion begins. Possible additional recording

methods include: recording main points of discussion on flipcharts for everyone to see, typing into a laptop computer (although it is important to be sure that there is a supply of electricity or sufficient battery time on the laptop), tape recording or video recording. But tape recordings of focus group discussions are not easy to analyse and miss most important details, such as who said what. They should never be used as the only record and, in many cases, are probably best not used at all.

Examples of focus group discussions

In Dunedin, New Zealand, discussions with groups of children, aged five to seven years, were based on an 'alien' storybook character called Splodge, who, in a series of pictures with captions, asked naïve questions about smacking. This approach, which was adapted from a Save the Children study in the UK (Willow and Hyder, 1998) enabled children to decide whether they talked about their own experiences, or answered questions in general terms. These discussions were not sessions in which children were encouraged to share personal experiences, and they were told that they could talk further with the researcher, a teacher or a school social worker if they had any worries afterwards.

Splodge was introduced to the children as being very curious about life on earth and not knowing much about what went on. This provided children with a safe environment for talking, and also established that the children were the experts, while the researcher was learning. Children were presented with certificates for 'good talking' a week after the discussions (Dobbs, 2002; see Tool Kit 2 for details of informed consent).

More extensive focus group discussions were part of a survey carried out by Save the Children Fiji to discover why some children drop out of school, or never enrol. Meetings were held so that focus discussions could take place in five major locations in Fiji:

The meeting schedules were advertised in the media and open to members of the public. In addition, invitations were sent out to government departments, known community leaders, social

workers, school-teachers, religious leaders and representatives of various NGOs. The discussion centred on their understanding of the factors that encouraged primary school drop-outs. These meetings provided qualitative information about community knowledge and attitudes about the problem and its solutions (Save the Children Fund Fiji, 1998, 18).

Guidance from experience

Programme managers should note that research coordinators must almost always observe pilot focus group discussions, in order to improve researchers' facilitation and note-taking skills:

- Facilitators should not talk or intervene unnecessarily; research should never use facilitators who dominate, give opinions and explanations, or move the discussion on to another topic before people have finished discussing the current one;
- Note takers should not stop writing; they should take notes continuously, and concentrate all the time. Their notes should be legible (and may have to be written or typed up later in order to ensure this). Note takers who stop taking notes, stare at discussants (or out of the window) should not be used;
- Inexperienced note takers can practice their technique by trying to keep a continuous record of a television programme – the news or an episode of a soap opera. This is a particularly effective learning technique if a video recording is made of the same programme and played back later to be checked against the written record;
- If participants have to travel to take part in a focus group discussion they may need to be provided with refreshments and travel expenses;
- A useful piece of equipment, when focus group discussions are held inside a borrowed room, is a 'Please do not disturb' notice for the door;

- Good focus group discussions are extremely difficult to carry out, to record and to analyse. When research is being planned, remember to use them sparingly – if at all;
- It is essential to remember that focus group discussions do not produce factual data; they simply provide ideas about what people think are the facts.

Role play and drama

Role play can help to establish relationships with children and give those who are less articulate an opportunity to express themselves. Drama also provides a means by which children revisit painful experiences with less danger of being re-traumatised. When they are playing a role, it is as if the events in a drama are not ‘happening’ to them. It is also easier for children to criticise adult behaviour through role play, showing what the adults in their lives actually do. Role play can stimulate focus group discussions.

In research on sensitive subjects, where children may become distressed about remembering painful experiences, puppets and masks have been found to be very helpful. Children can enjoy making puppets and masks, as well as writing dramas in which the characters they have created take part. The pain then ‘happens’ to the invented character, and children are protected from reliving experiences directly (Gordon, 1988, Saunders et al, 1998). These methods take time and skill, but protect children, who can also keep the puppets and masks after the research experience.

Role plays and puppet theatre enable children to express their views about sensitive issues without having to talk about themselves and their own (traumatic or illegal) experiences. Children can express their opinions without risking punishment. Role plays help identify and understand the terms and language used by children. They are also used to enable children to provide feedback about the research process to the researchers. For example, children can be given a microphone and tape recorder to ‘make a radio programme’ to express their views. This puts children in charge (they hold the microphone and chose what to say) as well as making research enjoyable.

Dramatic performances also vary with culture – songs and dances may also be ways of communicating with children in research. In some communities proverbs, poetry, songs and drama are used to express sensitive social and political topics. Participatory research can build on these traditions by adapting existing forms of public expression to the purposes of the research.

Recording role play and drama

Recording a role play happens in stages:

- Researchers take notes about group dynamics as participants discuss and rehearse a role play;
- Researchers take notes during the role play (perhaps supported by photographs or video, but without intruding on the action);
- After the role play is finished (and has been applauded) one researcher asks any participants or other researchers in the audience 'What did you see?' and notes the answers;
- The actors are asked to describe what they intended to show;
- Finally the researcher probes both actors and audience about the actions and behaviour in the role play; 'Does that often happen?' 'Why did he do that?'

Examples of using local type of performance

In the Sindhuli district of Nepal, girls use songs to express their perceptions of their present and their future. Many of the songs reflect the girls' lives of hard work and their regrets about not being able to go to school (Johnson et al 1995). Songs are a means of entertainment as well as an informal method of venting feelings and emotions. When the girls made up songs for researchers they found that preferential treatment of boys is a recurrent theme:

Boys go to school daughters go to farm.
Who made this rule that daughters are less than sons?
My younger brother and I both fed at our mother's breasts.
Why will he feed from our father's land all his life?

Traditional art forms that emphasise the values of harmony and non-violent conflict resolution can be used as the basis of both research and advocacy. The use of Balinese shadow puppets is a case in point. Shadow puppetry has been used to help the local healing process in Bali after the 2002 bombings, showing that traditional culture can be both potent and relevant in modern circumstances.

Guidance from experience

- Two researchers taking notes about what happens during a performance, which they compare afterwards and merge into a single account, is the most effective form of recording;
- Role play usually works best if children are given a topic and asked to make up a drama about it, rather than following a scenario written by researchers. Providing children with a topic (such as punishment at school) and a set of roles (such as parents, children, neighbours, teachers) can be particularly successful if the aim is to find out about interpersonal dynamics;
- Role play is an excellent stimulus to use before a focus group discussion with children. After they have finished the role play, children can sit down with the researchers, and give an explanation of the action in the drama (which should also be recorded). Researchers can ask questions such as 'Does this happen often?', 'What was [character] doing?' 'Do you know many people like that?'
- If a video record has been made, play it back for the children or (with their informed consent) to use as a visual stimulus for another group (of children or adults).

Written methods

Essays, diaries and/or life histories can provide insight into the activities of children, particularly their own views, priorities and concerns. They include essays, lists, diaries and recall charts kept by children who are literate and/or at school. Written methods are useful for collecting large data sets, if they are used in schools – whether formal or non-formal.

A particularly good method for exploring sensitive issues is sentence completion, in which children are given a number of sentences to finish in their own words, such as 'I am good at...', 'I am afraid of...', 'I wish...'. This is rapid and relatively easy to analyse, and can also be used to explore a number of different dimensions in a single research tool (See below under 'interviews').

To collect written material from groups of children:

- Give clear and consistent instructions (the exact words used by researchers should be written in the research tool);
- Stress that there are no right or wrong, or good or bad answers;
- Do not grade or mark written work – tell children they will all receive the highest possible score;
- Ignore mistakes in grammar and spelling;
- If data are collected in a classroom, the teacher should not give instructions to the children (it is best if the teacher is not present);
- Ask for informed consent to possibly publish children's writing, and if they wish their names to be used.

Classroom-based research can produce large amounts of data that can be quantified in a relatively short time. Thus it is important to develop a good sampling frame to decide which kind of schools (primary/secondary), where (urban/rural/semi-urban) and which classes or grades, as well as how many grades to sample in each school.

Recording written methods

The method is the record, but each essay or sentence completion sheet needs to have specific information provided by children, such as gender, age and any other variables included in the research.

Example of using children's writing

Large scale data sets of up to 3,000 essays in each country have been collected by researchers in Jamaica, Peru and England, on the topic 'What I do when I am not in school'. The combination of quantifiable data and children's own words provided insights that could be

reliably compared between three very different sites, with very high degrees of statistical significance. Essays allowed children to give information that was not pre-determined by the researchers' assumptions and the broad title prevented the results being limited by the use of words such as 'work' and 'employment'. In addition, it was possible to obtain an impression of the importance of a variety of paid and unpaid work in children's lives (Source: Ennew and Morrow, 1994).

This approach could easily be adapted using a title such as 'Who punishes me and why?' Essays on physical punishment were collected from boys in an Addis Abeba (Ethiopia) secondary school where the researcher had observed corporal punishment being administered regularly, harshly and often arbitrarily. Given the chance to express his opinions, a 17-year-old boy wrote:

[Teachers] are unfamiliar with the ethics of teaching and discipline. They do not respect the rights of students. They do not attend to our interests. They tell us their rights of earning money even without working. Do not we have the right to learn? ... Children commit mistakes knowingly or unknowingly ... When such offences are committed the culprits should be advised and made to learn. It is not right to beat like a donkey (in other countries donkeys have rights). Causing injuries in the different parts of the body is unacceptable. In our country beating has become part of our culture ... I do not support the use of force. Advise them! Teach them! Do not take any other measures.

*Essay by Abas Bargicho,
collected and translated from the Amharic original by Belay Zeleke
during pilot work for the twelve steps approach
funded by Save the Children Sweden in 1995*

Guidance from experience

- In classroom settings in particular, teachers should have everything explained to them beforehand and be restrained from giving instructions;
- Schoolchildren may be accustomed to writing essays in the

majority language and may be happier to use this rather than their mother tongue;

- Some children will write more (and quicker) than others. Have a back up activity for those who finish first; either a drawing to accompany the essay or (with the prior agreement of the teacher) permission to leave the room and go to the recreation space.

Interviews

Interview methods include informal, unstructured discussions on relatively-undefined topics, semi-structured interactions about pre-defined topics, and a variety of written questionnaires. Interviews are the best known of all social research methods, but this does not mean that they are the best methods to use, especially with children. It is difficult to design a successful interview tool. The results are usually limited by the researcher's inability to ask the right questions as well as being difficult to analyse. Unstructured and semi-structured interviews can be used sparingly in the first stages of research to find out more about context. Questionnaires are only useful in the final stages for checking ideas that researchers have developed on the basis of earlier analysis. When questionnaires are used in this way they are very useful indeed – but not before!

The reason why interviews (and especially questionnaires) are so frequently used is because there is a myth that they are more scientific and produce numerical (quantitative) results. But numbers on their own mean nothing at all without understanding the context. Interview tools (especially questionnaires) must never be used until researchers have an understanding of context. This is why fieldwork is split into three distinct steps in Level 3.

Interviewers should avoid using 'leading questions', which means questions that lead a participant to give a particular answer or assume particular situations, thoughts or behaviour. Leading questions invalidate research results. For example, asking a girl 'When was the last time your father beat you?' assumes that she has a father and that he beats her. She might feel unable to answer, or simply lie in order to get rid of the researcher.

The questions in any interview can be designed to be either 'open' or 'closed'. Open questions, such as 'What was the best day in your life?', or 'What can you tell me about the journey from your village?' encourage participants to think about and provide answers that are relevant to them. Closed questions, such as 'What is your name?' 'Do you like this town?' have a set of predetermined (and often pre-coded) answers. They are mostly used in structured interviews or questionnaires because they easily provide numerical data. Closed and open questions can be used together in the same interview. For example 'Do you like your school?' which can only be answered with 'yes', 'no', 'do not know', 'not much', can be followed by the open question, 'Why?'

Key informants

Interviews are usually conducted with individuals, but also sometimes with groups. Individual interviews can be carried out with any participants (or samples) who can talk about themselves and their own experiences, as well as with key informants, who are experienced and articulate observers of local conditions and are willing to share their views and knowledge. Key informants may include community leaders and elders, staff from government agencies, service providers or mass organisations; people working with community groups; managers and workers in businesses; academics and researchers; journalists. Take time to select useful key informants. Start with people who have been recommended and ask them to identify other key informants (snowball sampling). Key informants have their own views and motivations. Do not rely too much on just a few, or research results will be biased.

Unstructured and semi-structured interviews

Unstructured or semi-structured interviews are informal sessions, usually with individual participants, using a list of questions or themes rather than a questionnaire with fixed questions. The interviewer is free to phrase the questions, and to ask them in any order as long as they follow the broad themes of the research. This approach gives participants greater control over the direction of the

conversation and allows them to tell their story in their own way. Participants usually enjoy such interviews.

Life history interviews are a form of semi-structured interview. They are useful for understanding the situation of individual children in greater detail: their lives, families, histories, work, education and experiences. Life history interviews can be useful for finding out about the occasions for and effects of physical punishment of children. Children should tell their own life story with the least amount of interruption by the researcher – to prompt participants using questions such as ‘What happened next?’. Possible topics for life story interviews include:

- Biographical details;
- Family background – parents, siblings;
- Community setting;
- Everyday life – household environment, domestic routines, household economy;
- Work and migration;
- Crises, difficulties and coping strategies;
- Education;
- Special occasions – births, funerals, weddings, festivals;
- Leisure and recreation.

It is wise to spend time talking informally to a participant before beginning any interview. Begin with socially accepted small talk. Introduce the interviewer(s). Explain the reasons for the interview and explain what will be done with the answers. Seek informed consent from the participant. If the interviewee is uncomfortable with the situation, stop the interview. The secret of a successful interview is to be natural and relaxed while guiding the conversation. Avoid sensitive questions at the beginning; leave them until later in the interview. If a question causes silence, or cannot be answered, avoid suggesting answers. Ask the question in a different way or ask the question again later during the interview. Avoid any indication of disbelief, contempt or ridicule of responses given by the interviewees. Avoid repeating questions (this may happen if interviewers do not concentrate on listening). Be flexible and adapt the interview, particularly if the participant begins to talk about something interesting for the research that is not on the interview schedule.

Recording unstructured and semi-structured interviews

When taking notes, researchers should avoid rephrasing responses in their own words. It is important to record the participants' actual words in their language, using a tape recording as support if necessary.

Observe the participant, and environment, during the interview. Observational data can be important additional information, and can be used to interpret the answers of the interviewee. Notes about ideas that should be further pursued should be recorded in the research diary. In addition, standard observation sheets are particularly useful for unstructured or semi-structured interviews and must be used to record:

- Comments on answers received - for example if the researcher thinks the participant may be lying or exaggerating;
- Body language and facial expressions;
- Emotions - such as tears, anger;
- If the participant appears to be giving answers to please the researcher;
- Interpersonal dynamics between the participant and the researcher;
- Characteristics of the place where the interview took place.

Example of children's participation in interviews

Tobias Hecht conducted what he called 'radio workshops' with street boys in Brazil, handing them a tape recorder and microphone and asking them to interview each other, using their own questions. He found that:

- The children tended to view the tape recorder not with suspicion but rather as a means of getting their opinions listened to;
- They often used role play, pretending to be on the radio, as the basis of their interview technique;
- Street-children interviewers were not afraid to challenge a participant if they thought he was telling lies;
- They asked questions adult interviewers would not have thought of;

- They asked questions in words and ways that other boys understood;
- The questions they asked each other were often as interesting for the research as the answers they gave (Hecht, 1999).

Guidance from experience

- Good interviews are intensive and tiring. Limit interviews to about one hour. It is not possible for a researcher to carry out more than four interviews in a day;
- Find out how people ask questions
- Find out how people listen to others and encourage them to keep talking (in some cultures this entails nodding and saying 'Uhuh', for example).

Structured interviews (questionnaires)

Structured interviews use standard forms (or questionnaires) designed to collect the same information from all the people interviewed, and are by far the most used research method. Governments, donors and research departments use them because they generate representative quantitative data that are used in planning, targeting and monitoring outputs and impacts.

Structured interviews are particularly suitable for collecting straightforward factual information. All questions on the questionnaire must be asked in the same standard way and in the same order. Possible answers may be indicated on the form so that the interviewer simply ticks the selected reply. Questionnaire surveys offer a relatively cheap way of collecting data from large numbers of people. They are easy to analyse, if mainly pre-coded questions are used, but open-ended questions have to be coded after data collection, using the steps and processes described in Levels 3 and 4.

Questionnaire surveys are generally not successful methods for investigating physical and emotional punishment of children. Children are not good participants in structured interviews, because they tend to feel intimidated by both the interviewer and the formal interview situation. Structured interviews allow no flexibility and give

little time for establishing trust between interviewee and researcher, but they can be used effectively, provided they are properly piloted and combined with other methods (Box 50).

Box 50: School-based questionnaire on corporal punishment in Hong Kong

This study attempts to examine children's experience of corporal punishment and investigate the impact of children's self-report corporal punishment experience and perception of their carers' affection on their psychological functioning. In addition, their help-seeking behaviour and coping strategies are also explored. Primary 5 students were chosen as the subjects of the study as school pressure mounts up in preparation for the public examination before secondary school allocation and physical abuse is particularly prevalent in this age group.

Questionnaires were given to Primary 5 students in ten primary schools in Kwun Tong district in Hong Kong and a total of 1,274 responses were received. Respondents were asked to report their experience of corporal punishment in the month preceding the questionnaire.

The questionnaire paid particular attention to the choice of words to suit the reading ability of this group. A draft of the questionnaire was given to Chinese teachers for comments and a pilot study of 34 students in a primary school demonstrated that most students could complete the questionnaire on their own. In order to make it easier for the respondents to report, a number of common forms of punishment were listed, including kicking, hair pulling, ear twisting, face slapping, shaking, hitting with the hand, kneeling on the ground, standing for more than an hour, being tied up, beating with implements (rattan canes, clothes hangers and belts) and removal of clothes.

In addition, children's psychological functioning was studied using psychometric tests of maladjustment and self esteem, as well as a scale to measure the affection of their carers.

Source: Adapted from Mok et al, n/d.

To produce valid results, a questionnaire survey must be based on considerable prior research to establish the context and to develop hypotheses. It can take a long time to draft and pilot test a questionnaire. If structured interviews are used at all, they should come late in the research process. They should never be used as the only research tool. If researchers decide to use questionnaires, they should choose the sample carefully, and keep the questionnaire relevant and short.

Recording structured interviews and questionnaires

Recording structured interviews and questionnaires is done using specially prepared forms, designed for each research tool using this kind of method. Questionnaires may be used in a formal interview between a researcher and a participant, or sent by post or email for participants to fill in themselves and return. In the latter case, researchers should be aware that the response rate can be very small, which means that the original sample should be as large as possible. Standard observation sheets and informed consent forms should be specially designed for postal and electronic questionnaires.

Examples of structured interviews

Two forms of structured interview – attitude surveys and sentence completion surveys - are particularly useful for collecting data on the physical and emotional punishment of children. They can be used with children and adults, may be completed by researchers or research participants, and collect a large amount of quantifiable data in a short period of time.

Attitude surveys are versions of ranking exercises. They are easy to analyse and have the advantage of being familiar (to adults in particular) because they are frequently used in surveys made by newspapers, magazines and market-research organisations. They provide quick overviews rather than in-depth results, but can be useful to collect opinions about physical and emotional punishment of children. A typical way of exploring attitudes to punishment among adults, and comparing these with children's views would be to read out a set of statements and ask respondents if they agree or disagree. For example:

Adults have the duty to hit children as part of discipline.

Strongly agree	Agree	Do not know	Disagree	Strongly disagree
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Governments should not interfere with parents' way of disciplining their children.

Strongly agree	Agree	Do not know	Disagree	Strongly disagree
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Girls should not be beaten.

Strongly agree	Agree	Do not know	Disagree	Strongly disagree
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Being beaten hurts less than being humiliated.

Strongly agree	Agree	Do not know	Disagree	Strongly disagree
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When a list of statements is drawn up it is important that contrasting opinions are expressed, and that the list is not organised in two halves – ‘for’ and ‘against’ corporal punishment for example – but with statements mixed.

Sentence completion provides more in-depth information by allowing research participants to finish sentences with their own ideas. They are provided with a list of unfinished sentences and asked to complete them, ideally with the first thought that comes into their minds. Examples for children might be:

If I am beaten...

When I do something wrong...

When my teacher is angry...

Knowledge, attitudes and practice surveys (KAP, also known as Knowledge attitudes and behaviour – KAB) are a form of questionnaire survey, which can also be carried out using a variety of other methods. They are widely used and popular with donors, who see them as a quick way to get information. Typical topics for KAP surveys include: HIV/AIDS, reproductive health, or road safety, but they could also be used to research ideas about and practices of physical punishment of children. KAP surveys focus on individual behaviour rather than collective beliefs and practices. KAP surveys have the same limitations as other questionnaire surveys. They take place too fast to build trust and to allow the researcher to interact with the interviewee in a relaxed way. However, if other methods are used and the KAP survey is part of a protocol using other research tools, this can be a useful method for surveying community attitudes and behaviour.

Guidance from experience

The following problems frequently occur when questionnaires are used:

- The sample is too small to be representative. For example, it is meaningless to calculate percentages based on a sample of 40 people;
- The types of prepared answers do not cover all possibilities. As a result, 'other' is the most frequent response, and the results become meaningless;
- Too many questions. Many surveys have over 100 questions, which is boring and exhausting for both interviewers and participants;
- People do not understand the questions and answer anything to make the interviewer go away;
- Questionnaires are filled in by the interviewers because they could not find the sampled participants;
- The sample choice is wrong because participant selection was poor.

EXAMPLES OF RESEARCH TOOLS

This section of the Tool Kit shows how the methods described in the previous section can be used to design research tools for a fieldwork Protocol. Each example uses the research tool pattern from Step 5:

Aim
Method
Sample
Number of researchers
Time
Location
Materials
Instructions for researchers
Attachments

These examples of research tools are not models, and will not work in any other research project if they are simply copied. Every research question and every group of participants will require specially-designed research tools. It is the responsibility of the research team (with support from stakeholders and other participants) to design the tools that will be included in their own research protocol.

The first two examples specifically focus on physical and emotional punishment at home and at school, and are designed for the start of the research process, when researchers are exploring the types of punishment children have experienced, and the words used to describe them. A protocol on physical and emotional punishment might start with these methods (in addition to observation and research diaries) and then develop a list of punishments, with matching pictures (either from the drawings made by children or made by artists using these pictures with further advice from children). These pictures could be used in:

- A recall sheet for punishments received over a seven-day period (Tool Kit 3); children could be given a sheet on Monday and asked to bring it back to school the following Monday;
- A structured interview for groups of adults – parents, teachers, community leaders, young adults, health workers, social workers, education officials – (self-completed or administered by researchers, asking questions about each of the punishments depicted).

Further research tools to complement this information might be:

- Focus group discussions with adults (groups of parents, teachers, community leaders, young adults, health workers, social workers, education officials) asking the same questions put to children after role plays;
- Survey of attitudes to physical punishment (statements which respondents are asked to respond to by answering one of 'strongly agree, agree, no opinion, disagree, strongly disagree). This should be used with children and adults.
- Sentence completion on aspects of physical and emotional punishment, for children and adults. Some sentences should be the same for both groups, and some should be different. For example both children and adults can respond to the sentence 'The worst punishment of my life...', but only children could answer 'I am punished when ...', and only parents 'I punish my child when...'

The final two examples, Protection Shield and Network Interview, have been included because they both explore children's strengths, and could be used in a protocol to cross-check (triangulate) data if they are used with the same groups of children as well as to help children to cope with their experiences.

They are also similar in that they use several methods in the same tool. Protection Shield is an ethical strategy that also collects written and drawn data. Network Interview uses drawing and visual stimulus to encourage discussion and semi-structured interview.

The tools differ in that Protection Shield is a quick technique that collects a large amount of data from groups of children (who write and draw individually), while Network Interview collects in-depth information from small numbers of children working alone with researchers. Protection Shield can only be used with literate children over 7 years of age, while the network interview can be used with any children.

RESEARCH TOOL

Punishment at home and school: Role play and discussion

Aim	To explore children's ideas about and experiences of physical and emotional punishment in school and at home.
Method	Role play followed by discussion
Samples	Children 1. In each primary school a. Two groups of six, aged six-seven years, and 10-11 years; b. Boys and girls mixed, equal numbers if possible. 2. In each secondary school a. Two groups of six, aged 14-15 years; b. Boys and girls separate.
Researchers	At least two for each group
Time	One hour and a half for each group
Location	Quiet room in school premises during school time, free from interruptions and with no teachers or other adults present besides the researchers (groups to be in different rooms).
Materials	Informed consent forms – 2 for each child (Note: Before visiting any school, permission must have been obtained from education authority, headteacher and parents of possible child participants); Two standard observation forms for each group; Notebook for each researcher; Tape recorder for each group; Batteries; Tape cassettes;

Coloured stickers – one for each child, one for each researcher;
 Prepared game/energiser (lasting no more than 3-4 minutes);
 ‘Do Not Disturb’ notice for the door.

Instructions for researchers

Informed consent and introductions

- Explain the purpose of the research, methods to be used (role play followed by discussion) and forms of recording (written notes for both methods, additional tape recording for discussion), and seek informed consent.
- Ask the children to write their name on one of the stickers and stick it on their clothing, so that they can be identified by researchers during conversation. Researchers also do the same.

Role plays

- Ask the children to prepare and perform a brief (5 minute) role play on ‘punishment at home’;
- Applaud the performance and ask the following questions (one researcher should ask the questions and the other write the answers, and any subsequent discussion, as far as possible in the words used by children);
- Probe for more information for each question:
 - What were you showing in that role play?
 - Does that happen a lot?
 - How do you feel about it?
- Then ask the children to prepare and perform a brief (5 minute) role play on ‘punishment at school’;
- Applaud the performance and ask the following questions (one researcher should ask the questions and the other write the answers, and any subsequent discussion, as far as possible in the words used by children);
- Probe for more information for each question:
 - What were you showing in that role play?
 - Does that happen a lot?
 - How do you feel about it?

Take a five minute break for a game/energiser.

Discussion

- Now ask the children to sit down with researchers (one facilitating, one recording). Say *'We really enjoyed watching your role plays and we have learnt a lot from what you have told us. Now we should like to spend some time with you discussing the differences between punishment at home and punishment at school. Are you ready to begin? Right, let's start:'*
- Encourage and facilitate children to discuss the following topics:
 - Different kinds of punishment at home and at school;
 - Who punishes them at home and at school;
 - Why they are punished;
 - How they feel about the punishment – Is it fair? What punishment hurts most?
 - How they would prefer to be treated when they have done something wrong.
- The record-taker should be particularly careful to note words that children use to talk about punishment, and the names of different kinds of punishment. If researchers do not understand the words they should ask children to demonstrate (without being violent).
- When the discussion has finished (or needs to be brought to a close because of time constraints) ask the children if they have anything else to add. Thank them for their time and information. Take note of any child who has been or is distressed and make sure that researchers can have some private time with this child so that referral for help can be made if the child wishes.
- Number notes and tape cassettes and fill in standard observation sheets for role play and discussion.

Note: This tool can be adapted for children in a number of different settings: such as institutional care (orphanages), children in the street (provided a quiet space for discussion can be located), children in NGO and government projects, children in clubs and other organisations.

RESEARCH TOOL

Drawings of physical punishment

Aim	To explore the various types of physical punishment used on children of different ages and according to gender, as well as the words used for each type.
Method	Children's group drawings
Samples	Children <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In each primary school: one group aged six to seven, and another aged 10-11 years, mixed gender, opportunistic samples up to 30 in each group; 2. In each secondary school: one or more groups aged 14-15 years mixed gender, opportunistic samples up to 30 in each group.
Researchers	At least two for each group
Time	One to one and a half hours for each group
Location	In classroom, with no teachers present.
Materials	Informed consent forms – 2 for each child (Note: Before visiting any school, permission must have been obtained from education authority, headteacher and parents of possible child participants); Standard observation form for each group; Prepared flip chart sheets (see attachment); Coloured felt tip pens (six for each flip chart sheet); Notebooks for researchers; Desks, tables or clean floor for children to work on.

Instructions for researchers

- Explain the purpose of the research, method to be used and seek informed consent;

- Divide children into groups of six (use natural groupings in the classroom, or the groups they are accustomed to if applicable);
- Give each group a prepared flip chart sheet and set of six different coloured pens;
- Say *'We are trying to find out about the kinds of punishments used on children. In your groups please talk about the punishments you receive at home and at school. Then draw them on the sheet of paper - punishments at home on the left and punishments at school on the right. Make sure these are real punishments that have happened to at least one person in the group. Under each picture write what you call this punishment – the words used to describe it';*
- Ask for a volunteer(s) child to repeat the instructions back to you and gently correct any errors;
- Say *'Are you ready? Now let's start. You have thirty minutes to draw as many punishments as you can – but remember these must be punishments that have happened to at least one person in your group';*
- While the children are drawing make sure that they do not look at the work being done by other groups. Check that they are writing the words under each picture. Make sure they understand that the same punishment can appear under 'home' and 'school' if it can happen in both places. Take note of any interesting comments made by children as they draw, to researchers or to each other;
- At the end of half an hour ask the children to write their names and ages at the bottom of the sheet;
- Each group can then present their sheet to the other groups if time allows. Researchers should record what children say about each set of pictures;
- Collect the sheets, and thank the children;
- Number the data, attaching records of children's comments and presentations to the appropriate sheet;
- Fill in a standard observation sheet.

Attachment

Prepare flip chart sheets like this before going to the school

Punishments at home	Punishments at school
<p style="text-align: center;">We drew these pictures</p> <p>Name.....(age) boy/girl Name.....(age) boy/girl Name.....(age) boy/girl Name.....(age) boy/girl Name.....(age) boy/girl Name.....(age) boy/girl Name.....(age) boy/girl</p>	

Note: This tool can be adapted for children in a number of different settings: such as institutional care (orphanages), children in the street (provided a quiet space for drawing can be located), children in NGO and government projects, children in clubs and other organisations.

RESEARCH TOOL

Protection shield

Adapted from a psychological test by researchers in Bosnia and Herzegovina for use with children without parental care.

Aim Ethics: Protect children from potential negativity after the research process;
Research: To find out something about children's support structures.

Method Writing (and drawing) with visual stimulus

Sample Age groups 7 – 12 and 13 – 18 years; number in each session opportunistic as this method is used to follow on from other method(s) used with the same children.

Researchers One

Time 15 minutes

Site Wherever the previous method has taken place

Materials Sample Protection Shield on flipchart (attachment);
Empty Protection Shield forms (2 per child);
Pens;
Standard observation sheet;
(Informed consent already obtained).

Instructions for researchers

- Make sure that adults working in institutions know what is happening and that they should not interrupt nor interfere with the process;
- Make sure all children have pens, two Protection Shield forms and a flat surface to write on;
- Explain the task by saying:

'Each of you has a picture of a Protection Shield in front of you, which is for you to fill in. As you can see, on the flip chart in front of you there is the same picture, a shield divided in five sections. In each section you should write an answer to one question. This is where you write the most beautiful event in your life (point to the appropriate place on the flipchart). This is where you write names of two persons you love most (point on the flipchart). This is where you write two things you are best at (point on the flipchart). This is where you write what you would do if you were powerful (point on the flipchart). This is where you write your life motto (point on the flipchart).'

- Ask children if they understand the task. Check by asking them to repeat the instructions back to you (give an example if it is necessary). If they do not understand what a 'life motto' is, explain. You may say: *'It is OK not to write anything, but if you would like some help, we would be happy to help you.'* They can also colour the Shield if they wish;
- After they finished, each child will be able to keep their Shield. The researcher should ask if they will copy their shield on the second form, to be used as another source of information for the research;
- Thank the children for participating;
- Complete the standard observation sheet for the session;
- Number data.

Attachment

A shield-shaped graphic divided into five sections for a personal reflection exercise. The shield is divided into four quadrants by a vertical line and two horizontal lines. The bottom section is a larger, unquadranted area.

Most beautiful event:	Two people I love most:
I am best at:	If I had power:
My Life Motto:	

RESEARCH TOOL

Network interview

Adapted from a sociological research tool for use with 'Western' children for research with street children in Sri Lanka, and subsequently used in Tanzania with street children and orphans, in Kenya with AIDS orphans and in India with street children.

Aim	To identify the sources of support used by individual children in abusive situations.
Method	Semi-structured interview with drawings used as visual stimulus.
Sample	Individual children, aged eight to 18 years, with whom trust has already been established; snowball sampling to include as many children as possible, both boys and girls.
Researchers	One
Time	One hour, or more
Site	Safe and comfortable place, free from distractions and interruptions
Materials	Large sheet of paper (A3); Coloured felt tip pens; Question sheet (see attachment); Extra sheets of paper; Small squares of cardboard (25); Informed consent form; Standard observation sheet.

Instructions for researchers

- Explain the method to the child and seek informed consent; say *'I am going to ask you a list of questions about who you go to see in different situations. Each time you tell me, please draw the person or persons on the big sheet of paper'*;
- Researcher asks the child the set questions on the question sheet (attachment);
- Each time a new person is mentioned, the researcher asks the child to draw him/her on the large sheet of paper;
- Do not hurry the child while drawing; encourage discussion about the person being drawn and record answers;
- If a person is mentioned more than once, one of the small squares of card is put by that drawing;
- Record the person/category of person on the question sheet;
- If the child mentions a name that the researcher does not know, a probing question may be used to identify the category of person, for example, if the child answers 'Mary', researcher asks *'Who is Mary?'*;
- At the end of the questions, the researcher should continue to talk to the child about the people drawn, especially those with a pile of cards beside the drawing;
- Record the child's answers in the exact words used as far as possible, on the 'record of discussion' section of the question sheet, continuing on extra sheets if necessary.
- Thank the child and ask if the researcher may keep the drawing sheet, if not ask if a copy may be made;
- Number data;
- Fill in standard observation sheet.

Question sheet	
Number of interview	Child's age
Name of researcher	Gender
Place	Any other characteristics
Date	
Time	
Question	Response
To whom do you go if you have a bad headache?	
To whom do you go if another child hits you?	
To whom do you go for food?	
To whom do you go for new clothes?	
To whom do you go if you feel lonely?	
To whom do you go if you know you have done something wrong?	
To whom do you go when you feel sad?	
To whom do you go if your teacher is angry with you?	
To whom do you go if a teacher punishes you?	
To whom do you go for medicine?	
To whom do you go if your mother is angry with you?	
To whom do you go if your mother punishes you?	
To whom do you go for school materials?	
Who do you go to if you want to relax?	
With whom do you share jokes?	
To whom do you go if your father is angry with you?	
To whom do you go if your father punishes you?	
To whom do you go for money?	
To whom do you go if an adult hits you?	
Who would you tell if you received bad news?	
With whom do you share secrets?	
Who would you go to if someone was bullying you?	
Who would you go to for help if you cut yourself badly?	
Who do you play with?	
Who would you go to if you were very sick?	
Is there someone who always believes what you say? Who?	
Who would you trust to look after your belongings or money if you went away for a while?	
Whom do you go to for advice?	
Record of discussion	

LEGAL BACKGROUND

The physical punishment of children is a violation of their human rights. Despite the widespread use of corporal punishment in child rearing, international law does not condone or encourage this adult behaviour. Corporal punishment of children violates international human rights law, in particular the basic principles of dignity, physical integrity and fundamental freedoms, which have been established in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966), as well as specific instruments such as the UN Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (1984). With respect to children, these rights are stated in greater detail in the 1989 UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). In addition, there are also United Nations rules and guidelines on juvenile justice, as well as UNESCO guidelines on school discipline. International law seeks to abolish capital punishment for all human beings, as well as to end illegal ('extrajudicial') executions, such as the killing of street children by police or vigilante groups. Children also share with adults the right to equal and proper justice, with particular consideration to their age and maturity. This includes the rights, under Articles 12 and 13 of the CRC to express their opinions and have them taken into account, as well as under Article 17 to be provided with appropriate information.

The CRC explicitly protects children from all forms of physical violence (Article 19) and from inhuman and degrading treatment or punishment (Article 37). It requires school discipline to be 'consistent with the child's human dignity' (Article 28). Corporal punishment can have negative effects on children's attendance and learning experiences, violating Article 28 by interfering with their right to receive primary education (Article 28.1.a) and causing irregular school attendance and drop out (Article 28.1.e).

The provisions of the CRC have been quite specifically interpreted by the Committee on the Rights of the Child as indicating that corporal punishment of children is unacceptable. The Committee on the Rights of the Child has considered violence against children in three of its 'general discussion days'; the administration of juvenile justice (1995), state violence against children (2000), and violence against children within the family and in schools (2001). Save the Children Alliance members took an active part in these debates. The Committee has repeatedly made clear in its concluding observations on state party reports that the use of corporal punishment respects neither the inherent dignity of children nor the strict limits that should be placed on school discipline (CRC Preamble and Article 28). Such punishment often reaches the level of 'cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment' in violation of Article 37 of the CRC and, in cases that are sadly not infrequent, it can lead directly to death. Thus it is not surprising the Committee on the Rights of the Child has called for public education so that parents, teachers and other carers understand the harmful effects of corporal punishment and learn to use other modes of discipline (Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2001a). In addition, Article 29 (Article 29), which has been called 'the aim of education', by the Committee on the Rights of the Child, refers to children's right to be prepared for 'responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and people of indigenous origin' (2001). Corporal punishment of children is thus a violation of children's rights in the broad sense that it teaches them that it is acceptable to resolve conflicts by using violence.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)

...recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world.

Article 1. All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

Article 3: Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.

Article 5: No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966)

Article 7: No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading punishment...

Article 10 1: All persons deprived of their liberty shall be treated with humanity and with respect for the inherent dignity of the human person.

UN Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (1984)

Article 1: ... the term 'torture' means any act by which severe pain or suffering, whether physical or mental, is intentionally inflicted on a person for such purposes as obtaining from him or a third person information or a confession, punishing him for an act he or a third person has committed, or intimidating or coercing him or a third person ... it does not include pain or suffering arising only from, inherent in or incidental to lawful sanctions.

Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)

Preamble: ... the child should be fully prepared to live an individual life in society, and brought up in the spirit of the ideals proclaimed in the Charter of the United Nations, and in particular in the spirit of peace, dignity, tolerance, freedom, equality and solidarity.

Article 12.1: States Parties shall assure that the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child.

Article 13.1: The child shall have the right to freedom of expression; this right shall include freedom to seek, receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either orally, in writing or in print, in the form of art, or through any other media of the child's choice.

Article 17: States Parties recognise the important function performed by the mass media and shall ensure that the child has access to information and material from a diversity of national and international sources, especially those aimed at the promotion of his or her social, spiritual and moral wellbeing and physical and mental health.

Article 19.1: States Parties shall take all appropriate legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to protect the child from all forms of physical or mental violence, injury or abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse, while in the care of parent(s), legal guardian(s) or any other person who has the care of the child.

Article 28.2: States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that school discipline is administered in a manner consistent with the child's human dignity and in conformity with the present Convention.

Article 29 1(d): States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to ... the preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples ...

Article 37(a): States Parties shall ensure that ... no child shall be subjected to torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

UN Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice (Beijing Rules) (1985)

Article 17.2: Capital punishment shall not be imposed for any crime committed by juveniles;

Article 17.3: Juveniles shall not be subject to corporal punishment.

UN Rules for the Protection of Juveniles Deprived of their Liberty (1990)

66. Any disciplinary measures and procedures should maintain the interest of safety and an ordered community life and should be consistent with the upholding of the inherent dignity of the juvenile and the fundamental objective of institutional care, namely, instilling a sense of justice, self-respect and respect for the basic rights of every person.

67. All disciplinary measures constituting cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment shall be strictly prohibited, including corporal punishment, placement in a dark cell, closed or solitary confinement or any other punishment that may compromise the physical or mental health of the juvenile concerned. The reduction of diet and the restriction or denial of contact with family members should be prohibited for any purpose. Labour should always be viewed as an educational tool and a means of promoting the self-respect of the juvenile in preparing him or her for return to the community and should not be imposed as a disciplinary sanction. No juvenile should be sanctioned more than once for the same disciplinary infraction. Collective sanctions should be prohibited.

UN Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency (Riyadh Guidelines) (1990)

3. ... a child-centred orientation should be pursued. Young persons should have an active role and partnership within society and should not be considered as mere objects of socialisation or control...

16. Measures should be taken and programmes developed to provide families with the opportunity to learn about parental roles and obligations as regards child development and child care, promoting positive parent-child relationships, sensitising parents to the problems of children and young persons and encouraging their involvement in family and community-based activities.

21. Education systems should, in addition to their academic and vocational training activities, devote particular attention to ...

(g) Provision of positive emotional support to young persons and the avoidance of psychological maltreatment;

(h) Avoidance of harsh disciplinary measures, particularly corporal punishment.

54. No child or young person should be subjected to harsh or degrading correction or punishment measures at home, in schools or in any other institutions.

CHILDREN'S PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH ON PHYSICAL PUNISHMENT ⁴

As Diagram 5 on the following page shows, children can participate throughout the research process by:

- Choosing or selecting themes and topics;
- Designing research;
- Providing data;
- Collecting data;
- Interpreting or explaining data;
- Being involved in analysis;
- Using the data to disseminate research results;
- Helping to design solutions and campaigns.

Most of these areas have been covered in this Resource Handbook and the various manuals on which it is based. A number of manuals for building the capacity of adults in working with children have also been published (See for example RWG-CL, 2003). Indeed, it is central to the philosophy of the Handbook, and the experiences on which it is based, that research on the physical and emotional punishment of children could not produce adequate information without children having a central role. Punishment is their problem and their experience.

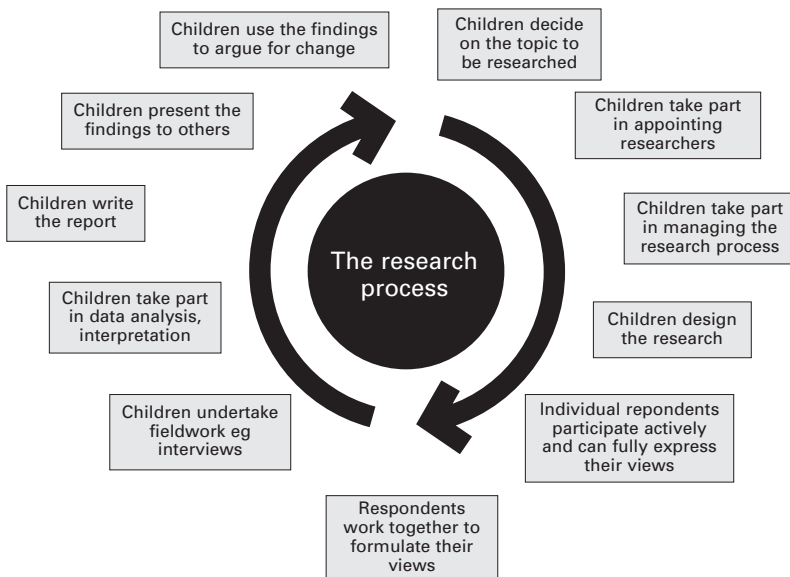
One obstacle to children's full participation in research is that adults, perhaps especially academic researchers, find it difficult to treat children as partners in the process. This is nowhere more apparent than in Step 2 – the analysis of secondary data – and Step 10 – overall analysis of research.

⁴ Adapted from Laws and Mann, 2004 Part I

Although there have been few examples of children’s involvement in final analysis, one of Save the Children’s publications to support children’s participation in the UN Study, shows how they may be involved in secondary research, which is the core information in the Study (Laws and Mann, 2004). The benefits of their involvement include:

- Knowledge of sources of secondary data that are unknown to adult researchers;
- Markedly different interpretations of materials;
- Ability to judge if the research reflects children's experiences;
- Community-level insights;
- Enthusiasm;
- Challenges to established ways of going about research;
- New approaches to old problems;
- Ongoing learning and development of programme managers and their organisations.

Diagram: 5: A ‘wheel of children’s participation in research’



Adapted from Laws and Mann, 2004, 43

Nevertheless, researchers need to consider the extra time, skills, materials and financial resources children's involvement may entail. Children need to be involved from the start and the roles and responsibilities of individual children and groups of children need to be worked out with programme managers and adult researchers. There are some specific roles that children can take during the process of secondary data collection and analysis:

- Identifying and collecting documents that may contain useful information, especially at community or school level;
- Collecting secondary data, by contacting sources through letters, visits and email, for which children may need support, for instance transport, adult help during visits and role playing telephone conversations in advance;
- Examining and analysing documentary materials – the process from which they are usually excluded but in which they will learn useful skills for involvement in Step 10, and also provide adult researchers with new insights. Adult researchers can work with children through all the processes discussed in Tool Kit 1. Sometimes researchers can help by summarising articles or books and presenting the key elements to children;
- Identifying common themes in secondary data, comparing and contrasting data and conclusions from different sources and working on developing or refining research questions. This may be best organised in workshops in which children are facilitated to comment on secondary data;
- Reporting on secondary data by writing their own analyses, identifying gaps in existing information, making suggestions for future research and refining research questions, with their report being incorporated into any adult analyses and/or reports.

PLANNING AND MANAGING RESEARCH

Research is an integral part of any programme manager's planning cycle. Information is needed:

- For setting objectives;
- Throughout the programme for monitoring;
- For evaluating outputs and outcomes.

Participatory action research with children requires programme managers to take greater responsibility for the research process than they would if they simply commissioned research from a research institute or external consultant. The benefit of taking a more proactive role is that research results are more likely to fit with and enhance programme activities. This section of the Tool Kit covers some basic tasks that are the responsibility of programme managers, in the form of a framework for a research proposal, including timetable, budget and terms of reference for researchers. Possible points of involvement for children are **highlighted in red**.

Research proposal

A proposal for action-oriented, participatory research with children will usually be based on direct programme requirements, either for new programme developments or for enhancing existing work.

Remember that the assessment must incorporate children's perspectives on these issues and lead to the development of feasible and sustainable plans of action to address the physical and emotional punishment of children. The ways in which you will do this must be shown throughout the proposal.

Justification/background

The proposal must be justified by a brief statement giving information about:

- How physical and emotional punishment of children is defined;
- What rights are being violated or not met, and the current national legal situation;
- What is known about the national and local incidence of the physical and emotional punishment of children;
- The problem and how this fits with Save the Children priorities;
- Who else is working on this topic (programming, advocacy and research);
- Gaps in knowledge;
- What it is necessary to know in order to improve programme and/or advocacy activities.

Aim

Suppose that the justification and background statement has led to the conclusion that what is needed is a national assessment of the physical and emotional punishment of children. This is the aim.

How have children been involved in developing this aim?

Objectives (research questions)

The research will seek to find out about:

- Forms of physical and emotional punishment of children;
- Who punishes whom and why;
- The views of different groups of children and adults;
- The incidence of punishment in families, schools, institutions and the juvenile justice system;
- The law and how it is applied (including any planned reforms);
- Any traditional forms of non violent conflict resolution.

How have children been involved in developing these objectives?

Scope

The scope of the research includes which children will be part of the research, where it will take place geographically, what settings (family, institutions, schools) will be targeted and what kinds of punishment will be studied.

Have children been involved in making these decisions?

Methodology and methods

Participatory methodology in child research follows from the Convention on the Rights of the Child and treats children (human beings less than 18 years of age) as competent social actors with valid perspectives. New methods of social research are required to enable children to express their views and experiences. In addition, research with children raises ethical concerns that may not apply in the case of adults.

The approach will include the following methods:

- Analysis of already-existing data, re-computing statistics where necessary so that children are the units of observation and analysis;
- Development of children-centred, rights-based research questions;
- Anticipating and dealing with ethical dilemmas;
- Designing appropriate scientific research instruments for data collection with vulnerable children, their families and communities, including visual, methods, role play, focus group discussion, observation and recall;
- Using the results of these methods correctly to design more conventional instruments, such as interviews, surveys and questionnaires, in a properly designed research protocol;
- Analysis of data collected by a variety of methods, using both statistics and description through scientific triangulation.

**Do adults in your organisation and potential researchers have the skills to carry out participatory research with children?
How are you going to involve children in research design, data collection, analysis and report writing?**

Monitoring and evaluation

In addition to the successful completion of data collection and production of a report, key indicators of success of the research will be:

- The process will be owned by the agencies and NGOs working on the physical and emotional punishment of children;
- The assessment process will be transparent and participatory;
- The perspectives of children, their families and communities will be included;
- Action plans are feasible and address systemic issues in a systematic way, taking into account existing resources and currently planned changes.

How will you involve children in monitoring the research process?

Outcomes

What do you want the output and outcomes of the research to be?
Perhaps:

- Better knowledge and understanding of the physical and emotional punishment of children;
- Better understanding of the perspectives of children on physical and emotional punishment;
- Better information about and understanding of the legal situation;
- Recommendations and action plans to address the challenges of eliminating the physical and emotional punishment children;
- Baseline data for monitoring future interventions and advocacy;
- Increased capacity in children-centred research.

Are these the outcomes children will be looking for?
How will you involve children in future monitoring?

Timeframe

The basic time frame for research depends on the research questions and scope. Involving children as stakeholders will inevitably increase the time frame – but also the cost-effectiveness in the long run,

because it will be the basis of enhanced and successful programming. The timetable below shows the approximate time required for each stage of a year-long research process.

- Does the timetable take into account children's seasonal activities (school terms and examinations)?
- Will this timetable be affected by seasonal changes in the weather, and public and religious holidays?

Months	Activities
January-February	Workshop for potential researchers and stakeholders to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Build capacity in participatory child research and children's rights in a wide range of stakeholders and researchers; • Recruit research team through observing their ability to carry out participatory research with children using a wide range of appropriate techniques; • Develop research questions; • Develop ownership of the research among a wide range of stakeholders; • Form a research support group among stakeholders.
March	Secondary data collection and preliminary analysis
April	Protocol development: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analyse secondary data; • Refine research questions; • Develop research instruments for first stage of primary data collection; • Design research protocol for first stage of primary data collection.
	Research support group meeting (1 day).
	Piloting research instruments and finalisation of research protocol.
May-June	Data collection
End of June	Workshop (5 days): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preliminary analysis of primary data; • Revision of research questions and development of new hypotheses; • Development of new research instruments (questionnaires and surveys may be developed at this stage but not before).
	Research support group meeting.
	Piloting new instruments and continuing data collection.

July-September	Continuing data collection.
October	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Data analysis • Triangulation and analysis of results • Development of main themes and structure of report
November-December	Report writing

Budget

The following items should be considered for inclusion in the budget (which should be adjusted once a protocol has been developed):

What would be the real costs of children’s participation as researchers?
Especially of ensuring their rights to protection?

Cost heading	Might include
Human resources	Fees/salaries for researchers
	Employment of administrative or liaison support
	Artists’ fees if visual stimulus drawings are used
	Fees for data input personnel
	Transcription of recordings
	Driver(s)
	Translator(s)
	Per diem for stakeholders attending meetings
	Cost of children’s participation (possibly including chaperones)
	Capacity building for researchers/children/other staff
Health and safety insurance	
Research costs	Workshops for protocol development and analysis
	Reproduction of protocol and research tool materials, including informed consent forms, standard observations sheets
	Research equipment – tape recorders, cameras, paper, pens/crayons/felt tips, photograph development (disposable cameras), tape recorders, batteries, tapes, video....(depending on the needs in the protocol)
	Data storage (Shelves, files, and/or lockable boxes)
	Incidental costs of focus group discussions (compensation for participants, travel costs, refreshments)
	Workspace for researchers, including storage for data, computers and printer and photocopying access

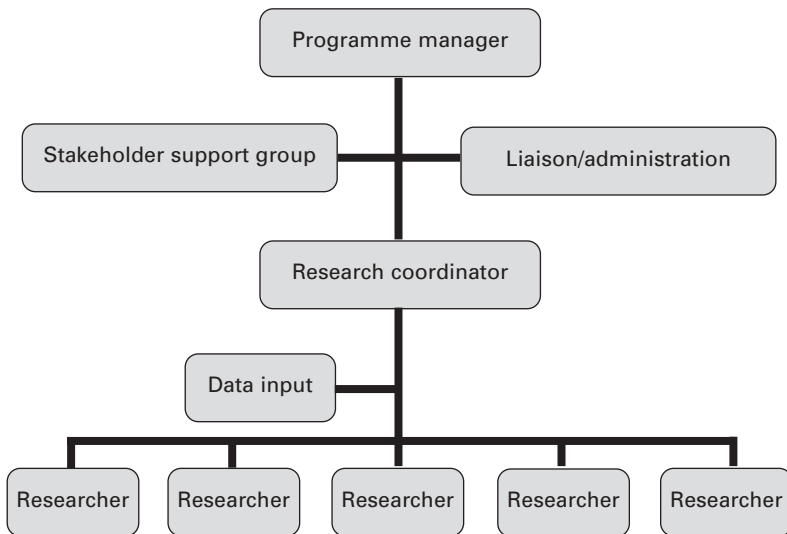
Cost heading	Might include
Transport costs	Travel costs for researchers
	Travel costs for children
	Per diem for researchers' overnight stays
Capacity building	Trainer(s)' fees and costs
	Training workshop costs
Dissemination	Editing report(s)
	Production of children-friendly version(s)
	Printing
	Launch
	Dissemination (postage)
	CD or web-page version

Structure and organisation

A diagram of the research team structure (see next page), showing lines of reporting and responsibility can also be useful for understanding the reporting structures during research, especially as research usually takes place outside the programme manager's office. Any stakeholder support group should also be included in the structure and have its own TOR so that lines of communication do not get confused, and ideas about responsibilities do not result in misunderstanding.

It is always useful for a research project to have a liaison focal point within the organisation, responsible for ensuring that payments are made, transport is arranged and materials and equipment available. Some research projects employ an administration assistant specifically to take on this role for the duration of the research.

Where will children fit into this structure?



Terms of reference

The following draft terms of reference are typical of those used in action-oriented participatory research with children. The research proposal should be attached to any TOR and contract.

Research Coordinator

The Research Coordinator will be directly responsible to the Programme Manager and will keep the Liaison Officer and Stakeholder Support Group informed of the progress of the study, requesting feedback or advice where necessary and appropriate. S/he will:

- Be responsible for the day to day progress of the research according to agreed work plans and protocols;
- Supervise field research;
- Manage the research team;
- Supervise data analysis and writing up the research by the research team;
- Finalise the design of the Workplan;
- Ensure timely and good quality analysis and report writing.

Research Team Members

There will be [number] Research Team Members whose tasks will be to assist where requested by the Research Coordinator in:

- Collection and analysis of secondary data;
- Collecting primary data according to agreed workplan and protocols;
- Taking part in the analysis of data and report writing.

Stakeholder Support Group

The Stakeholder Support Group should include all major stakeholders from government, NGO, academic and intergovernmental communities. It will meet regularly to support the research team and be informed of progress in order to ensure local relevance, transparency and the timely incorporation of results into meaningful and effective action. Main functions will be to:

- Give feedback to researchers at protocol development, fieldwork, analysis and report writing phases, as well as at other times at the request of the programme manager (or liaison officer) on behalf of the researchers;
- Promote the aims and activities of the research process;
- Support researchers during data collection, particularly through assisting in issues of access to data and informants where necessary and appropriate;
- Assist in the dissemination of results and the development of programmes to eliminate the physical and emotional punishment of children.

What about children-friendly TORs, for children
involved in the research?

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Useful web pages

Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children

The website can be found at www.endcorporalpunishment.org. The website has details of all key judgments and decisions of human rights bodies, all the recommendations of the Committee on the Rights of the Child relating to corporal punishment, and details of elimination. The Global Initiative welcomes additional information on corporal punishment, which should be emailed to Peter Newell at peter@endcorporalpunishment.org
www.endcorporalpunishment.org

It is also very willing to offer individual advice and support to national campaigns.

Anti-Slavery International

Email: info@antislavery.org
www.antislavery.org

Children's Rights Information Network (CRIN)

Email: info@crin.org
www.crin.org

Childwatch International

Email: childwatch@uio.no
www.childwatch.uio.no

Child Workers in Asia (CWA)

Email: cwanet@loxinfo.co.th
<http://lox2.loxinfo.co.th/~cwanet/>

Granada Centre for Visual Anthropology

E-mail: granada.centre@man.ac.uk
www.les1.man.ac.uk/visualanthropology/

Save the Children Sweden

Email: info@rb.se
www.rb.se

Save the Children United Kingdom

www.savethechildren.org.uk

UNICEF

www.unicef.org

RESEARCH DICTIONARY

Some of the technical terms defined in this dictionary are not used in this Resource Handbook. Nevertheless, researchers are likely to find them in other research manuals and thus they are explained here to add to the usefulness of the Resource Handbook.

Action-oriented research – Research that leads to action (similar to applied research). Such research is carried out by or on behalf of organisations as the first step of planning and implementing projects.

Analysis – Logical and systematic process of examining data to see what they mean.

Analytical framework – A set of ideas and questions for analysis. This is used in research to interpret the gathered data. The analytical framework is based on a conceptual framework.

Annex – See appendix.

Appendix – Section added to a research report containing additional information to which readers may wish to refer.

Applied research – Research that produces results to solve a problem. Research questions are most often chosen by programme and policy staff rather than by researchers – as opposed to research carried out mainly to get more understanding and knowledge.

Assumption – Belief that is taken for granted and that is mistakenly used as the basis of a statement or research question. Assumptions may be correct or false.

Audience – The group of people who are targeted to receive a specific message. An audience for research are people who are informed about the research, read research reports and use research results.

Audit – Systematic listing, evaluation, assessment and checking of resources and processes.

Baseline study – The collection and analysis of data about a population before a programme or project is set up. In monitoring and evaluation, baseline data (data from a baseline study) are compared with later evidence to find out what has changed.

Bias – Any influence that distorts the results of a research study and that may lead a researcher to wrong conclusions. For example, using only quantitative methods, only male researchers, or gathering data only from adults leads to bias in research.

Bibliography – Alphabetical list (by family name of author) of all sources referred to in a report, whether published or unpublished, with details of author, title, publisher, date and place of publication.

Body mapping – A research method in which the outline of a participant's body is drawn and questions are asked about the meaning or function of different body parts; for example 'Which parts must not be touched by other people?'.
Category – Topic, theme or idea used to index, cross-check and analyse data; categories may be part of main and detailed research questions, or may arise during data collection and analysis.

Causal relationship – The link between causes and their effects, for example, illiteracy (the cause) leads to poverty (the effect).

Census – A survey of all individuals or households in a certain area. Many countries carry out a national household census every ten years.

Child – Human being less than 18 years of age.

Childhood – Variable, culturally-defined life stage, before adult roles and responsibilities.

Children-centred – Children-centred research concentrates on understanding children's views, opinions, experiences and perspectives. Children-centred programmes focus on children and their best interests.

Children-centred statistics – Statistics in which the data are presented (for example in tables) so that they focus on children, rather than adults, households, institutions or services.

Civil society – Civil society includes all citizens and all organisations that are not part of governmental structures: business groups clubs, children's organisations, community groups, teachers' organisations,

'NGOs', religious organisations, professional organisations, trade unions and women's groups are all part of civil society.

Classification – Organising facts, things or people into groups based on qualities they have in common.

Closed questions – Questions in an interview or survey format that provide a limited set of predefined alternative responses, such as Yes/No/Don't know.

Cluster sampling – To select naturally occurring groups within a population, for example, classes in a school.

Coding – A procedure for 'translating' raw data into a standardised format to group data for easier data analysis. Coding qualitative data involves identifying recurrent words, concepts or themes. In quantitative research, coding involves turning data (answers) into numerical values. For example, assigning numbers to all of the possible responses to a question, such as yes=1, no=2, not sure=3, no response=0.

Cohort – A group of people with common characteristics, for example, people born in 1965.

Concept – Thoughts or ideas, especially about how to organise things or about how things are alike or different. A basic idea that is part of a theory. A theory might consist of several concepts that are linked to form a more complex idea.

Conceptual framework – A theoretical model (set of ideas) for explaining something.

Conclusion – A statement based on analysis of research data.

Content analysis – A method that identifies themes and concepts in written documents, films, audio tapes, or speeches. Content analysis may also count the number of times different words or phrases are used in different documents, for example different terms for the commercial sexual exploitation of children.

Control group – A control group of research participants is necessary for most research, particularly when the aim is discovering the cause of a problem. Members of a control group have all the

same characteristics (for example age, gender, ethnicity, economic status) as the research sample, except for the factor being researched.

Convenience sampling – Another name for opportunistic sampling.

Corporal punishment – See Save the Children definition page 15.

Correlation – The relationship between two variables. For example, the relationship between poverty and child labour – the greater the poverty is, the greater is the prevalence of child labour.

Cross-checking – Comparing data with other data for consistency. Related to triangulation.

Cross tabulation – Comparison of frequencies between different items in coding, such as number of days worked in a week by girls, compared to boys.

Data – Information (collected by a researcher).

Data collection – Gathering information through surveys, interviews, experiments, library records, or other methods.

Data number – Unique number for each piece of data.

Detailed research question – See Research Question.

Disaggregate – Break data down into smaller groups (opposite of aggregate). Analyse data according to different groupings to show differences between certain groups of people (rich and poor, boys and girls, children of different ages, ethnic group, or disability).

Dissemination – Distribution of research data, information, conclusions or recommendations using any means of communication.

Ethics – Moral principles or rules of conduct.

Evaluation – Systematic assessment of progress and achievement, measured against agreed criteria.

Facilitator – Facilitate means ‘make easy to achieve’. A facilitator is someone who helps people achieve goals, in research or workshops.

Feedback – Comments, reviews, or other responses, often from the people who are being studied or from the people who will receive the results of the study.

Field notes – Detailed notes taken during data collection in the ‘field’ (field research).

Field research – A study of people in their everyday world, not in a laboratory or other special setting.

Fieldwork – Collecting primary data from or with participants.

Focus group discussion – A method of information collection on a particular topic involving a carefully planned discussion among a small group led by a trained facilitator (or moderator). The members of a focus group usually share common characteristics, such as the same age and sex, or the same socio-economic background.

Frequency – The number of times a particular item of data appears, for example, a specific answer to a question.

Glossary – List of acronyms and technical terms, with definitions.

Hypothesis – An idea based on knowledge, information, previous observation or analysis that has to be proved or disproved through research. A hypothesis may or may not be true.

Indexing – Numbering or naming parts of data according to categories, so that data can be compared between different research tools (triangulation). Also useful for locating data on specific themes or topics.

Indicator – A characteristic that represents something else. For example, height and weight of a small child can be used as indicators for the child’s growth and health.

Informant – A person who gives information. Similar to respondent, but likewise better described as participant.

Information – Data and research results.

Informed consent – Agreement to voluntary participation by a participant in research, based on the person fully understanding the goals, methods, benefits and risks of the study. Informed consent is given with the understanding that the participant can change his or her mind about taking part in the research at any time.

Instrument – Tool.

Interpretation of data – Analysis.

Interview – A method of data collection involving an interviewer asking questions of another person.

Key informants – People who are believed to have in-depth knowledge and understanding of an issue.

Leading question – Question that makes assumptions about the participant and leads the participant to give a certain answer. For example, ‘do you have to work because your family is poor?’ This question assumes that the participant sees poverty mainly as an economic issue.

Legislation – The act or process of making laws; the laws that have been made in this way.

Main research question – See Research Question.

Mapping – Systematic collection of information on a specific theme or topic, for example making a comprehensive list and description of all national street children projects.

Matrix – A table of rows and columns used to compare things.

Message – Overall research result.

Method – Way of finding and studying information, for example, interview, group discussion, literature review, observation.

Methodology – Study of methods, theory of research practice. Different research methodologies include quantitative, qualitative or participatory research approaches. The research methodology explains the reasons for using certain methods and the principles for using them.

Myth – A mistaken belief based on unproven ideas or on prejudice.

Observation – A method of data collection where data are gathered by watching people, places or processes.

Open(-ended) questions – Questions that let people answer in their own words instead of having to choose from a limited, predefined set of answers.

Opportunistic sampling – Taking advantage of meeting people during research to involve them as research participants. Particularly useful for hard-to-reach groups, such as street children, or sensitive subjects such as corporal punishment in families.

Oral testimony – Collection of spoken data from individual participants, for example about life events, cultural beliefs or community history. Usually collected using a tape recorder.

Ownership – When people understand and take part in processes of collecting data they have confidence in the results and see them as something they own or possess; they feel that research was theirs and that they are the ones who are taking decisions about actions taken on the basis of the results.

Participant – Person (child or adult) who takes part in participatory research. In conventional research they would be referred to as ‘informants’ or ‘respondents’.

PAR (PARC) – Acronym for Participatory Action Research (Participatory Action Research with Children) loosely applied to a research approach used by programme staff and involving a variety of methods to gather data to improve projects.

Participatory research – Research done by people themselves in order to understand (and challenge) the problems they are facing. For example, children research their own situation to bring about change.

Participatory Rural Appraisal – Informal, participatory research approach that mainly uses visual and group methods for data collection and analysis (also known as Participation Learning and Action).

Piloting – Testing draft research tools on limited samples before using them to gather data in the field.

Primary data – Original data, collected for a specific research project.

Probability – The likelihood that a particular event or events will occur.

Probability sampling – Also known as ‘random sampling’. Choosing people to be studied, in such a way that each person (or thing, place) in the total population has an equal chance of being chosen.

Probing – Searching for more information and cross-checking answers of participants.

Problem analysis – Analysing a problem to identify causes, effects and solutions. Problem analysis provides an important foundation for development project planning (to address problems and causes).

Prompt – Reminder. Who, what, where and when can be used as prompts during interviews to remind the researcher of questions to ask. Prompts help in probing for more information.

Protocol – Instruction booklet for data collection, including all research tools, ethical procedures and other details of research design.

Proxy indicator – Indicator that represents another variable that is more difficult to assess. For example, condom sales as a proxy indicator for commercial sex activity.

Purposive sampling – Targeting specific (often named) people known to have information or to be opinion leaders.

Qualitative data – Information in the form of words and images.

Quantitative data – Information in the form of numbers and statistics.

Questionnaire – Form with questions, often with pre-defined answers.

Quota sampling – Selection of quota, or fixed number, of people or places, which share certain characteristics (such as the same age or sex).

Random sampling – A process of selecting a sample whereby each member of the population has an equal chance of being included. Sometimes this kind of sampling is done with a table of random numbers, or with a computer giving out random numbers, or by drawing lots.

Ranking – Placing things in order, for example in order of importance, or of value. Ordering things from 'more' to 'less' importance or from 'low' to 'high' priority.

Rapid assessment – A process of data collection that uses a variety of tools (observation, key informant interviews, group discussions, visual methods) to get a quick overview of a population or a research topic.

Rapport – Trusting relationship between researcher and participant.

Raw data – Primary data that have not been analysed.

Reliable data – Data that have been collected and analysed systematically, so that results can be repeated.

Reliability – A measure of whether the research results will be the same if the research is repeated. This term describes the extent to that a method of data collection will produce similar results if used by other researchers or by the same researcher more than once.

Representative sampling – A sample that has similar characteristics to the population from which it was drawn. A representative sample can be used to draw conclusions about the population as a whole.

Research – Purposeful, scientific information gathering and analysis.

Research aim – Overall purpose of research.

Research method – A systematic, scientific technique for gathering data about people (research participants).

Research process – The word ‘research’ does not only mean collecting data but the entire ‘twelve step’ process of identifying a problem or issue to be studied, finding out what is already known, planning how to collect data systematically, collecting data, analysing data and writing research reports.

Research protocol – see Protocol.

Research question – In this Resource Handbook, and in protocols, a distinction is made between ‘main’, ‘detailed’ and ‘specific’ research questions:

Main research question – Overall question that the research aims to answer, related to the research aim and structuring the research protocol and report. Not necessarily a hypothesis (theory) to be proved or disproved, the answer will provide information to improve stakeholders’ programming and advocacy;

Detailed research question – Main research questions can be broken down into a series of more detailed or implicit questions that are usually the basis for designing research tools. Thus a main research question, such as ‘What is the incidence of physical punishment of children?’ might be broken down into detailed research questions, such as ‘What is the meaning of ‘child?’ ‘What ages of children?’ ‘Is punishment different for boys and girls?’ ‘What are the legal definitions of physical punishment?’ ‘What do people say about discipline?’ and so on;

Specific research question – Specific research questions are direct questions that researchers ask participants, particularly in interviews and questionnaires, for example ‘How many hours you have worked this week?’

See Diagram 3

Research team – The research team consists of all the people who plan the protocol, collect the data, analyse the data and write the report. There should be no status distinction between ‘a ‘lead researcher’ and ‘research assistants’. Everyone has a valuable role to play, whatever their qualifications and experience, and all researchers should be involved in all processes, from start to finish.

Research tool (instrument) – Purpose designed method for systematic data collection. Research tools are designed to gather data to answer the research questions and are written in a data gathering protocol.

Respondent – A person who is being interviewed or studied, who answers a questionnaire, or who takes part in other research activities. Better described as ‘participant’.

Response rate – The percentage of sampled participants who have taken part in the research. For example, out of 100 sampled participants, 20 may not be at home and 10 are unwilling to take part in the research. This makes a response rate of 70%. Sampling has to anticipate response rates and compensate by adding more participants to the sample.

Sample – In general, the group of research participants who will be targeted for answers to a particular research question. In research tools the precise characteristics and numbers of participants who will be asked to work with researchers on this tool. In certain cases, a selection of people (or places, objects) chosen to represent the target population using a variety of techniques.

Sampling frame – Complete list of people (or places, objects) from which a selection of people is drawn. Sampling frames include: voting lists, lists of welfare recipients, school register, or a list of villages in a district.

Secondary data – Research makes a distinction between primary data (collected during a particular research process) and secondary data (which already exists). Researchers begin by looking at existing information, which includes all relevant information that was collected for other studies or purposes. Secondary data include books, published or unpublished reports, theses, laws, statistics, information from the internet, records, media articles, sound and video recordings, photographs or films.

Semi-structured interview – Interview with open-ended questions. Interviewer uses a checklist of topics rather than a questionnaire with fixed, pre-defined questions.

Sentinel site – Location selected for long-term monitoring and surveillance. The monitoring is carried out at the same location (using the same methods). Sentinel sites are selected to be representative for a larger area.

Situation analysis – Overview of a theme or topic, using secondary data.

Snowball sampling – Selecting people by starting with one participant and asking for suggestions about, and introductions to, other people who might be interested in taking part in the research. The same process is followed with each subsequent participant, so that the sample size increases. The metaphor of a snowball does not mean much in tropical regions of Asia and the Pacific. It is better to think about what happens when a small sticky object (such as a sweet or candy) is rolled in sand or dust, gradually gathering new grains and becoming a larger ball.

Source of information – Any origin (source) of data: documents (written), videos (non-written), participants.

Specific research question – See Research question.

Stakeholders – People who have an interest or role ('stake') in an activity, event or organisation. In research with children, stakeholders can include teachers, parents and other relatives, social workers and other professionals, community leaders, NGOs and their staff and volunteers, and children themselves.

Stakeholder survey – Survey of stakeholders to find out what their interests are and how they will react to any changes in their work or institution.

Standard observation sheet – Standardised record of the context of each data collection session.

Statistics – Data in numerical form. Also, the study of numerical information.

Structured interview – An interview conducted with a fixed questionnaire where all questions are predetermined and have to be asked exactly the way and in the order that may be listed on the interview list (questionnaire).

Testimony – Interview on a single topic. Collecting testimonies from many participants in a short time is useful to build up an understanding of a topic.

Theory – A way of explaining or trying to explain a set of facts. Belief that has not yet been proven.

Theoretical framework – The conceptual basis of a research study that may be based on theory or a specific conceptual model (in that case it may be referred to as the conceptual framework).

Tool – A research instrument used by a researcher to collect and record data, for example, interview guide, questionnaire, or observation checklist. Same as instrument.

Trend – A steady change in one direction over time; for example, more and more children are complaining about being physically punished at school.

Triangulation – The systematic comparison of data from different research tools and groups of participants in order to increase the validity of research analysis. An essential part of valid research.

Typology – A system that groups information into different categories.

Unit of analysis – Basic element of a research study, for example, an individual person, a family, a household, a town, or an enterprise. This unit will be different for different studies. For example, a child labourer in research about child labour; a household in a household survey.

Validation – A much misused term, often mistakenly used to apply to feedback on research results from stakeholders and/or participants. Validation is possible for research data collected using specific research tools. Stakeholders and participants do not validate research results and reports. Validation takes place through triangulation. In research 'valid' does not mean 'true'.

Valid data – Data from a particular research tool that have been collected with sufficient accuracy to be included in analysis.

Validity – Accuracy and truth of the data and results that are produced. It refers to the concepts that are being investigated, the people or objects that are being studied, the methods by that data are collected, and the results that are produced. A method can be reliable, consistently measuring the same thing, but not valid.

Variable – A characteristic that is being analysed in a study. A characteristic that can change or vary among different people (or objects) or in the same person over time. For example, race or ethnicity varies among individuals, and income varies for the same individual over time.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Peter Newell

Peter Newell is Joint Co-ordinator with Thomas Hammarberg, of the Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children, launched in 2001. He is Coordinator of the 'Children are unbeatable!' Alliance of more than 350 organisations campaigning for law reform against all corporal punishment in the United Kingdom, and was chair of the Children's Rights Alliance for England from 1992 to 2003. He is co-author of UNICEF's *Implementation Handbook for the Convention on the Rights of the Child* and *Innocenti Digest on Children and Violence*, and consultant to UNICEF's Innocenti Research Centre and Geneva Regional Office, as well as Advisor to the European Network of Ombudspersons for Children, member of the NGO Advisory Panel for the UN Study on Violence against Children. His publications include *A Last resort? Corporal Punishment in Schools* (Penguin, 1972) and *Children are people too – the case against physical punishment* (Bedford Square Press 1989).

Judith Ennew

Judith Ennew, a social anthropologist by training, is currently Senior Research Associate in the Centre for Family Research, University of Cambridge. She has been an activist and researcher in children's rights since 1979, specialising in issues concerning child workers, 'street children' and child sexual exploitation, with respect to both research and programme planning. Over the last decade, she has increasingly focused on capacity building among local researchers and programme managers in participatory research with children. Her publications on research include *Children in focus* (with Jo Boyden, Save the Children Sweden, 1997). She has worked in Latin America, Africa, South and Southeast Asia and Eastern Europe, but has been based in Thailand since 2000, working largely in Indonesia, The Philippines and Viet Nam.

Dominique Pierre Plateau

Dominique Pierre Plateau, is currently based in Bangkok, Thailand, as Non Violence and Child Labour Regional Co-ordinator for Save the Children Sweden Southeast Asia. From 1998 until mid 2003 he was Co-ordinator of the Secretariat of the Regional Working Group on Child Labour (RWG-CL). After beginning his career in the Headquarters of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), he began working in Southeast Asia in 1988, initially with the UNHCR Delegation in Hanoi (Boat People Voluntary Repatriation Programme), and the Office of the Special Representative of the United Nations Secretary General (Land Mine Awareness Programme) in Bangkok, prior to joining the UNHCR-United Nations Transitional Authority in Cambodia (UNTAC) Cambodian Repatriation Operation. He has also worked in the private sector, providing consulting services in marketing communications.

Judith Ennew and Dominique Pierre Plateau co-authored *Child labour: Getting the message across* (RWG-CL, 2001), a resource manual dealing with the production and strategic use of information about child labour in Asia.

Save the Children fights for children's rights. We deliver immediate and lasting improvements to children's lives worldwide.

Save the Children works for
a world which respects and values each child
a world which listens to children and learns
a world where all children have hope and opportunity.

Since 1992, Save the Children has been in the forefront of finding rights-based approaches to research with children, including their meaningful participation in research processes. How to research the physical and emotional punishment of children, with a preface by Peter Newell, continues the efforts of members of the International Save the Children Alliance in Southeast, East Asia and the Pacific to research the physical and emotional punishment of children, using verifiable processes and methods, so that data can be used by project and programme staff to develop campaigns and actions based on reliable information.

How to research the physical and emotional punishment of children provides programme managers and researchers with the guidance and tools for scientific, ethical research on this topic. In clear, jargon-free language it describes a twelve-step process for planning, data collection, analysis and writing reports, supported by a Tool Kit, which provides essential background information.

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Save the Children

International Save the Children Alliance,
Southeast, East Asia and Pacific Region
15th Floor, Maneeya Centre South Building
518/5 Ploenchit Road, Bangkok 10330, Thailand
Tel: ++662 684 1046/7, Fax: ++662 684 1048
www.seapa.net <<http://www.seapa.net/>>