The 2002/3 PPA Methodology

____

“A Field Guide”

Economic and Social Research Foundation
February 2002

TANZANIA PARTICIPATORY POVERTY ASSESSMENT:

A FIELD GUIDE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction to the PPA Guide

This guide has been prepared to assist researchers who will be going to different parts of Tanzania to generate information on the poverty and vulnerability situation in the country, and how this relates to policy. The guide is intended to be used as an easy-to-reach general reference text. Research teams should note that it is not a substitute for other important documents and/or communications that have been shared with them by PPA management. As such the teams will need to ensure that they meet their contracted and expected obligations regardless of what the guide suggests. Similarly, researchers are advised to use the guide as a general framework to refer to NOT as a prescription of what must be done.

1.2 Why do we need a guide?

The purpose of any guide is to provide some kind of a "road map". As its name suggests, a guide is only intended to provide guidance NOT directives. Specific objectives of this guide, therefore, will include:

- Providing guidance on the process to be followed by the teams in the field;
- Ensuring a consistency in approach to the fieldwork;
- Providing a quick reference on the methods that the team can use; and,
- Putting "under one roof", for easy reference, the objectives, process, methods and overall framework for the implementation of the PPR.

1.3. How is this guide organised?

This guide has been organised into 8 main sections, namely:

- Section 1: An Introduction that spells out the main objectives of the guide;
- Section 2: On PPA Themes;
- Section 3: On the fieldwork process
- Section 4: On PLA methodology
- Section 5: On Tools and methods
- Section 6: On analysis of information
- Section 7: On recording and writing reports
- Section 8: On team composition and roles
- Section 9: On policy summaries

Section 1 introduces the guide, outlining objectives and setting the guide in the context of the PPA design.

Section 2 summarises the two key themes of the Second Tanzania PPA. It also explains in a bit of detail how the district research teams are expected to develop these into more detailed research outlines that are to be followed at District level.

Section 3 details the process that will be followed for the fieldwork, including key milestones, sequencing of major activities, and important outputs.

Section 4 looks at PLA methodology: the principles, main features, behaviours and attitudes, etc.

Section 5 outlines some of the specific methods/tools that can be used by the research teams. Only a limited selection of methods is made here although great effort is made to include a wide spectrum of methods to enable flexibility in choice by the teams.

Section 6: This section specifically focuses on analysis of information from the field. It spells out some of the techniques that are required for enhancing the analysis of PRA-type information from the field.

Section 7: This section is on Recording and Writing Reports. The main objective of the section is to encourage researchers to proactively work on their report writing skills with a view to improving the way poor people's voices are articulated.

Section 8 discusses team composition and roles.

Section 9 gives summaries of selected policies. Owing to the very large number of policies, and also given the amount of detail that can be contained in the actual policy documents, the number of summaries has been limited to 11. Similarly the policies have also been presented in summary form, mostly highlighting their genesis, objective and expected outcomes.

1.4 How is the PPA related to other poverty institutions?

The Tanzania PPA is coordinated by a Steering Committee, working under the auspices of the Research and Analysis Working Group (RAWG). The latter reports to the Macro-Economy Division of the President's Office, Planning and Privatisation. The lead implementing partner for the PPA is the Economic and Social Research Foundation (ESRF) while the other implementing partners are:

1. The President's Office, Planning and Privatisation (PO-PP)
2. The National Bureau of Statistics (NBS)
3. The Ministry of Finance (MoF)
4. The Institute of Development Studies, University of Dar es Salaam
5. Christian Social Services Commission (CSSC)
6. Concern for Development Initiatives in Africa (forDIA)
7. Maarifa ni Ufunguo
8. Women's Research and Documentation Project (WRDP)
9. The Pastoralists and Indigenous NGO's Forum (PINGOs Forum)
10. Action Aid, Tanzania
11. African Medical Research Foundation (AMREF)
12. Concern Worldwide, Tanzania
13. Save the Children, UK
14. CARE, International

2.0 THE TANZANIA PARTICIPATORY POVERTY ASSESSMENT

2.1 What is a PPA?

A Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA) has been defined as " … an instrument for including poor people's views in the analysis of poverty and the formulation of strategies to reduce it through public policy"[1].

An important characteristic of any PPA is that its process starts with grass-roots participatory analysis and dialogue, and culminates in greater understanding of policy implications and hence better policies. In turn this is expected to lead to more effective action for poverty reduction.

Thus a PPA aims to improve poverty reduction actions by promoting improved understanding of policy impacts (or gaps in policy) and how these affect poor people. More specifically, therefore, PPAs can lead to better poverty reduction processes through:

- increasing and broadening of participation of poor people themselves (leading to increased ownership);
- articulating the voices of the poor, thus enriching understanding;
- providing quick and high quality information in a cost-effective way; and,
- establishing new relationships between policy-makers, service providers, Civil Society Organisations, donors, and communities themselves.

A PPA thus aims to achieve four key things:

- better understanding of poverty
- new constituencies for anti-poverty action
- enhanced accountability to poor people
- more effective policies and action

2.2 Objectives of the Tanzania PPA[2]

The current Tanzania PPA has three specific objectives, namely:

(1) Enhancing, through in-depth description and analysis, research participants' and policy makers' understanding of key poverty issues.

(2) Exploring:

   (a) the difference and sometimes competing priority needs of poor people.
   (b) the likely impact of policies.
   (c) tradeoffs and potential compromises between diverse interests in order to develop "best bet" recommendations for poverty alleviation.

(3) Facilitating the constructive engagement of civil society in pro-poor policy-making processes.

[1] Andy Norton and others (2000): "A Rough Guide to PPAs".
[2] For a detailed description of Tanzania PPA objectives see the Project Design Document.

2.3. Research themes and questions

The Tanzania PPA aims to focus attention on the "vulnerability of different social groups to 'extreme' poverty and their diverse experiences trying to prevent, survive and/or overcome it"[3].

More specifically, the PPA Research Teams will aim to learn about:

(a) The concept of "vulnerability" and who is vulnerable.
(b) The forces that make people vulnerable and lead to (further) impoverishment.
(c) "Coping mechanisms" at individual, household and community levels.

A key task for each of the research teams will be to "customize" the research themes and questions to their selected field research sites.

A more detailed breakdown of the key research questions follows:

(A) The Concept of Vulnerability

Research Questions:

(1) How do people experience and perceive the relationship between poverty and vulnerability?
(2) Which social groups are perceived in diverse communities to be particularly vulnerable?

- To what extent are specific social groups (e.g. female-headed households) recognized and considered to be vulnerable in all settings?
- What characteristics do community members see as particularly relevant in assessing whether one social group versus another is categorically "vulnerable"?

(B) Causes and Consequences of Vulnerability

(3) Environment and vulnerability
(3.1.) Popular perceptions

- What environmental factors (including the status of natural resource and climatic conditions) do people perceive as affecting – and how – their vulnerability to becoming poor(er)?
- What patterns do people perceive regarding:
  (a) environmental conditions, and,
  (b) Government response?
- What do people think can be done by themselves and by policy makers at different levels to reduce the frequency, intensity and impact of impoverishing environmental conditions?

(3.2.) Environmental Degradation (e.g. soil, pasture, forest and fisheries)

[3] Source: The Tanzania Participatory Poverty Assessment Process, Project Description, Prepared by the Economic and Social Research Foundation, December 2001.

- How does environmental degradation affect the well-being and vulnerability of different social groups (e.g. women and/or small farmers)?

(3.3.) "Natural" Disasters (e.g. drought, floods, etc)

- In what ways do natural disasters affect the well-being of diverse social groups?
- To what extent are some groups more vulnerable than others to the negative effects of natural disasters?
- How do people (at individual, household and community levels) cope with natural disasters?
- How can Government (at different levels) support local responses to natural disasters, and how should it intervene?
- What is the relationship between vulnerability and seasonality?

(4) Livelihoods and Vulnerability

- What role does "child labour" (i.e. that which precludes formal education) play in household strategies to minimize risk and stave off absolute poverty? How do children themselves view this strategy, especially with respect to their long-term vulnerability as individuals? What trend do they perceive vulnerability to be taking (increasing or decreasing)?
- How different is the vulnerability experienced by unemployed rural and urban youth from that of other social groups?
- Do the livelihood options open to particular social groups (e.g. women versus men and people with disabilities) mean that some are inherently more vulnerable than others?
- What forms of vulnerability are associated with specific livelihoods?
- What is the relationship between land ownership (or lack thereof) and vulnerability vis-à-vis diverse social groups?

(4.1.) Hazardous and "illegal" Livelihoods

- Why do people engage in hazardous and illegal livelihoods (e.g. prostitution and poaching)? What is the relationship between these livelihoods and "vulnerability"?
- How do some of the worst forms of child labour affect the short and long-term vulnerability of children?
- How can Government facilitate people shifting from hazardous and illegal to safe and legitimate livelihoods?

(5) "Economic Reforms" and Vulnerability

(5.1.) Access to quality social services and markets

- What is the relationship between access to quality social services and vulnerability of a particular social group?
- How do illiteracy and innumeracy contribute to individuals' vulnerability?
- To what extent has the recent collapse of public social services increased people's vulnerability

(5.2.) Policy Shocks

- What effect has the sudden removal of agricultural subsidies had on the well-being and vulnerability of particular social groups?

(5.3.) Cash-Crop Price Fluctuations

- What effect does cash crop price fluctuation have on the vulnerability of small-holder farmers.

(6) Good Governance and Vulnerability

(6.1.) Corruption

- How does corruption in social service delivery affect people's vulnerability?
- How does corruption affect different social groups' access to social services?
- What suggestions do people have for reducing corruption in social service delivery?

(6.2.) Unequal policy influence between industrial and small-scale operators (e.g. artisanal versus industrial miners and fishermen)

- Do some social groups experience and perceive themselves as essentially "excluded" from policy debates in general and about poverty alleviation in particular?
- Do community members perceive Government, at various levels, as having been "captured" by elite interest groups?
- Does the limited policy-voice of certain social groups affect their vulnerability? If so, how?

(7) "Social Power" and Vulnerability

- How does the exclusion (or diminished influence) of specific social groups in household and community decision-making processes affect their vulnerability?
- What forms of social exclusion significantly increase the vulnerability of certain social groups?
- What social groups are most affected by exclusion from or limited voice in households and community decision-making processes?

(8) Physical Abuse and Vulnerability

- What forms of physical abuse are perpetrated against particular social groups?
- Does the mere threat of physical abuse curtail livelihoods and/or undermine well-being?
- What measures are taken by individuals, households and communities to guard against physical abuse?

(9) Health and Vulnerability

- What is the relationship between "health" and vulnerability of individuals and households?

(9.1.) HIV/AIDS and Vulnerability

- How does HIV/AIDS affect the well-being of individuals, households and communities?
- Do the experiences of HIV/AIDS infection and care-taking differ between social groups?
- What are the consequences of HIV/AIDS positive parents for children and grand parents?
- What affects the quality of home care provided to HIV/AIDS patients?
- How do HIV/AIDS positive households cope with the loss of productive labour? Does the significance of lost labour vary according to livelihood?
- Do HIV/AIDS positive individuals and households suffer from "social exclusion"?
- What can Government do to facilitate grass-roots support to HIV/AIDS affected individuals, households and communities?

(10) Other Shocks and Processes leading to increased vulnerability

C. Coping Mechanisms

(11) Strategies to "prevent" or avoid crises (e.g. moving away from a drought-prone area) Are they desperate or appropriate strategies—i.e. Do they empower or, drain energy and cause loss of assets?

- What prevention strategies are employed at individual, household and community levels?
- How does membership in one social group versus another affect these strategies?
- Are these strategies changing? Are specific strategies becoming more or less widespread/effective? If so, how and why?
- What is the role of non-farm rural enterprises in these strategies?
- How do power relations at household and community levels affect these coping strategies?

(12) Strategies to "prepare" for crisis and prevent negative impact (e.g. building-up food stocks)

- What actions have individuals, households, and communities taken to prepare for negative shocks/processes? What has the outcome been?
- Are these strategies (e.g. Community-Based Disaster management and safety-net/care programmes) changing? How? Why?

(13) Strategies to "mitigate", or diminish, the impact of negative shocks/processes (e.g. food-for-work programmes)

- What actions have individuals, households and communities taken to mitigate the impact of negative shocks/processes? What has the outcome been?
- Are these strategies (e.g. Community-Based Disaster management and safety-net/care programmes) changing? How? Why?
- What can Government do to encourage and support grass-root initiatives?
- What complementary actions can Government take?

- What is the role of livelihoods diversity at the household level (and particularly rural/urban pairing) in mitigating the impact of negative shocks/processes?

2.4 Categories of vulnerable people

The research agenda that has so far been spelt out also proposes a possible categorization of "vulnerable people". This list is only indicative, and is aimed at giving researchers some ideas on where to start. The categories include:

(1) Elderly people
(2) People with disabilities
(3) Women
  - Female-headed households
  - Widows
  - Teenage mothers
(4) Youth
  - Unemployed urban or rural youth
(5) Children
  - Under 5's
  - Child-headed households
  - Orphans
  - Street children
  - Child labourers
(6) HIV/AIDS affected people
  - Individuals
  - Households
  - Communities
(7) Pastoralists
(8) Hunter-gatherers
(9) Small-scale farmers
(10) Rural landless
(11) People in degraded landscapes
(12) Urban landless and squatters

Overall, therefore, researchers will be expected to make an in-depth enquiry of who are the vulnerable, why are they vulnerable, and what are they vulnerable to. The PPA will in this regard focus on what shocks and processes predispose some people to vulnerability what kind of policy changes might help to redeem that situation.

3.0 HOW WILL THE FIELDWORK BE ORGANISED?

3.1 Site selection

Site selection will be undertaken by the research team, working in close consultation with District officials. The research team will endeavour to use similar criteria in selection as those used for selection of the District. Thus it is important for research teams to remember the reasons for which each district was selected and to attempt to reflect these reasons in the entire research process. In cases where several sites qualify for selection on the basis of district selection criteria, preference should be given to those sites that present the widest range of diversity with respect to vulnerability.

3.2 Key steps

Fieldwork for the Tanzania PPA comes after successful conclusion of the design and training stages. In both stages researchers have been alerted to the importance of investing substantially in the PPA process and "bringing back good information and analysis". In order to achieve this, the following four steps are envisaged:

3.2.1 Step 1: Paying a first visit to the Region and the District

During this step research teams will pay courtesy calls on the respective Regional and District Headquarters, meet with relevant officials, and:
- share with them information on the planned research, including criteria for selection of the district, research themes and key research questions.
- make final selection of the sites where the teams will be working.
- collect any secondary information that is both available and relevant to the study;
- hold discussions with service delivery personnel; and,
- explore the possibility of working more closely with district-based personnel with a view to gaining further insights into the political and socio-economic landscape of the district.

3.2.2 Step 2: Briefing and initial consultations with the village (site) leadership.

The objective of the briefing is to introduce and explain the idea of the PPA and to seek leaders' support, while at the same time urging them to mobilize communities for the community and focus group meetings.

3.2.3 Step 3: Consultations at the site (village) level

This step will comprise of the key consultative meetings with a variety of key stakeholders operating at the village (site) level. The consultations are expected to be all inclusive, perhaps beginning with a community meeting, and later breaking into smaller (focus) group discussions, household dialogues and key informant interviews. Field researchers are expected to focus a lot of attention on this step, as it is at this stage that the most important information for the research will be generated. Wide use may be made of PLA/PRA and related tools to "bring out the true picture and an enhanced understanding of poverty and vulnerability". A high level of quality and analysis will be expected from the teams with respect to the information that will be presented. Consequently, the reports that will be produced will of necessity be self-critical in nature and reflecting the relevance of findings to the themes of the PPA and the research questions.

The main outputs expected out of the fieldwork include:
- Field Activity Reports reflecting the various activities carried out;
- Daily Reports (summarizing the objectives, key findings and main conclusions reached on each day);
- A Site Report for each of the sites covered by the research team.

3.2.4 Step 4: Feedback

After all field consultations have been completed and the preliminary analysis and summaries have been done, the research team needs to feedback its key findings to the community. Usually this is done through an all-inclusive community meeting. It is usually a good idea that individuals that are selected by community members themselves be given opportunity to present findings. As a rule, the materials that the team uses for the feedback should be left behind for the community to use as they deem fit.

3.3. The Fieldwork Model

3.3.1. Team Composition

Each team will be composed of a Team Leader, 1 Research Associate, 1 Intern and 3 Research partners. At the village (Site) level, teams may be assisted by local mobilisers whose principal role will be to mobilize communities for meetings, assist with translation (where necessary), assist with description and explaining of site issues (such as sensitivities), etc. In instances where "additional" team members are brought onto the team, it will be the Team Leader's responsibility to fully brief and orient the new member on the objectives, process and approach to the participatory study.

4.0 "PARTICIPATORY POLICY RESEARCH"

4.1 Positive Inquiry

During the PPA Training Programme, we discussed the pros and cons of various approaches to participatory research and concluded that we need to make something new… something that meets our needs, answered our concerns and belongs to us. This discussion is ongoing. Nonetheless, key elements of our methodology-in-the-making have been agreed upon. For example, we believe we must:

- Focus on uncovering people's "success stories" rather than generating lists of problems to be solved by Government. With regards to the 2002/3 PPA, this implies:
  - Learning about effective coping strategies employed (now and in the past) at individual, household and community levels
  - Exploring how Government can encourage, facilitate, buttress and complement grassroots initiatives to diminish vulnerability
- Help research participants see themselves as key actors in poverty alleviation rather than as dependent on inadequate and often unreliable Government largess
- Help research participants develop a better understanding of the circumstances they and their neighbours face
- Create useful information for policymakers operating at village, district, national and international levels
- Avoid raising false expectations (e.g. the construction of a new school house or well as a result of the PPA) by using methods better suited to the participatory production of local action plans

Each of these elements reflects real world experiences and lessons learnt (oftentimes, painfully). As such, our decision to structure a methodology around them is reasonable but full of formidable challenges. Perhaps chief amongst these is the possibility that we will not shift from the "problems-based approach" that characterises most participatory planning processes to a style of "positive inquiry" better suited to policy purposes.

Some forms of participatory research – most notably those designed to yield action plans – are "problem based." In other words, they typically focus on what is wrong, broken or missing in people's lives. In contrast, we want to ask what people do that works, why and how Government can support it. We will do this by asking people to describe a picture of "successful coping scenarios." This technique has proven tremendously powerful in nearly twenty years of Appreciative Inquiry.

In some ways, our own style of "positive inquiry" is not so different from what we might have done otherwise… But it is explicit and purposeful. And we hope that the process will lead research participants, our own institutions and Government to reflect on our diverse roles in building healthy, adversity-resistant communities, households and individuals.

4.2. Participatory Research Methods

There is a lot of misunderstanding about the differences between participatory and other forms of research. This is understandable, as some of their attendant concepts are complicated. The confusion is magnified by the misuse (frequently by senior researchers) of common technical terms.

For example, a "methodology" is different from a "method," though these words are often used interchangeably. Indeed, a methodology is a way of trying to gather information and learn about reality. It entails explicit rules and many implicit assumptions about the nature of knowledge, where it comes from and who can get it. In contrast, methods are the nuts and bolts, or mechanics, of data collection and interpretation. Accordingly, Participatory Policy Research is a "methodology" while the tools it employs in the field – such as transects, Venn diagrams, etc. – are "methods."

Participatory methods, like surveys, generate qualitative and quantitative information. "Quantitative data" is information expressed in terms of an amount (e.g. an amount of food consumption), while "qualitative data" is information about the nature of things (e.g. the nature of ill health and its consequences for poverty). An example of a quantitative question is: 'How many times have you seen a health care professional this year?' In contrast, the question 'Does your house have a thatched or tin roof?' is qualitative.

It is, therefore, misleading to speak of "qualitative" versus "quantitative" methodologies. Indeed, in most cases, it is far more accurate to speak of "participatory" versus "survey-based" approaches to research. One of the main differences between these approaches is that participatory research typically uses open-ended, rather than close-ended questions. Close and open-ended questions have different (and, arguably, complimentary) strengths and weakness. An example of a close-ended question is: 'Was the care you received in the health clinic satisfactory?' An example of an open-ended question is: 'Why didn't you go to the clinic when you had malaria?'

Open-ended questions allow participatory research to analyse research results in partnership with poor people. Though this is a unifying trait, important differences remain between participatory methodologies. For example, Participatory Poverty Assessments and Participatory Rural Appraisals (PRAs) use many of the same methods and can, in practice, look a lot alike. However, when you step closer and listen, the similarity between the two disappears. This is because the primary goal of PPAs is to generate data and understanding to guide macro-level strategies for poverty alleviation while PRAs aim to create plans for local action.

PPR employs a wide range of methods and/or tools. In the PPA research these may be combined with any other appropriate methods (such as Appreciative Inquiry or Solutions Focus) in order to enrich the quality of the outcome of the research. Researchers should always note the following:

- PPR is primarily NOT about methods, and methods are **not an end unto themselves** – they should only be used **to aid a process.**
- Application of methods should always be accompanied by **discussion** during the exercise and **'interviewing the diagram'** after completion, to ensure that **reasons why** and explanations are recorded. These are often far more important than the visual output itself.
- Visualising discussions allows all present to participate in some way as they can see what has been discussed and can actively participate by moving cards or stones or writing, etc.
- Visual methods are a way of structuring discussions. They create an instant record of what has been said, so that those who come late, can see what has been happening and ensure that all participate in recording their own discussion.

4.3. PPR Features:

The main features of all good participatory research are:

- Triangulation
- Informality and flexibility
- Working in the community
- Optimal ignorance and appropriate imprecision
- On-the spot analysis
- Multi-disciplinary team
- Mixing of techniques

Triangulation:

This is a method of **cross-checking** qualitative information. Information about the same thing can be collected in different ways and **from at least three sources** to make sure it is reliable and to see whether it is biased. This is done by:

- using a **multi-disciplinary team** to collect the information – in other words, one that is made up of people with different skills, experience and viewpoints;
- using **different tools and techniques** for collecting and analysing information; and,
- collecting **information about the same problem or issue from different sources** (from people, from places, and from events and processes).

During the PPA fieldwork, it will be important for researchers to cross-check all the information that they obtain from the field as this helps in validation of such information.

4.4. PPR Principles:

The principles of Participatory Policy Research principles may be described as those "things" which govern PPR – the bedrock of PPR methodology and/or practise. During the course of implementation of PPA activities researchers should ensure that they adhere to these principles. A few of the principles are outlined below:

- sensitivity, flexibility and impartiality of facilitators
- appropriate conduct, including dressing, language, etc.
- empowerment, involvement, mobilisation and mutual benefit
- participation of all stake holders (interest groups)
- results and action- and policy-oriented.
- adaptability to community situations.
- gender sensitivity and responsiveness
- effective communication
- affordability, relevance and cost-effectiveness
- multidisciplinary nature
- visually and interactive
- bottom-up

4.5. Behavior and attitudes

Researchers will need to closely watch their behaviours and attitudes as these will certainly affect the quality of information that they will be able to obtain from communities. Behaviours and attitudes are closely related to the principles and they focus on researchers' conduct as they perform their role as facilitators. The following list of behaviours and attitudes is only a guide, and is not exhaustive. In all instances PPA researchers should:

- Have critical self awareness.
- Respect and trust the people they work with
- Have personal responsibility.
- Be honest and open.
- Seek diversity.
- Cross-check information.
- Be prepared to embrace error.
- Hand over the pen/stick
- Be able to recognise and offset biases
- Be curious and observant.
- Be humble and sensitive.

- Learn from local people
- Use their best judgement.
- Find out only as much as they need to know.
- Be precise only as far as they need to.
- Learn in an exploratory and interactive manner.
- Have self discipline.
- Listen and appreciate detail

5.0 WHICH APPROACHES AND METHODS SHALL WE USE?

There are many approaches and tools or methods that research teams can use in the implementation of the fieldwork. This section outlines some of the more commonly used tools/methods in participatory research but is not exhaustive. The aim of the section is not to present all the tools that researchers can use. Instead, it is to highlight some of these and to suggest ways in which some of the tools can be used.

5.1. Semi-structured dialogue

Nearly all the interviews and discussions that the PPA research teams will be involved in will necessitate the use of **Semi-Structured Dialogue (SSD)** as the underlying method of investigation. Semi-structured dialogue uses a checklist of questions related to each topic of interest. Questions can be added or omitted as appropriate. It is a flexible tool which must be used systematically in order to produce valid results.

Always remember that whatever exercise that you will be involved in as researchers is NOT an interview but a DIALOGUE. A key objective is to make the process as interactive as possible.

An **example** of SSD:

Topic: How do people in this area describe vulnerability?

Key issues and questions:

- What are the local definitions of vulnerability?
- Who are the vulnerable?
- How do people cope with vulnerability?

Questions can be added or omitted as appropriate.

5.1.1. Key steps in SSD

During the actual session the following steps may be useful:

- Always ensure that you have prepared and read through your checklist of questions, and that you are familiar with the topic/s that you are going to conduct an SSD on.
- Begin with the traditional greeting and state that the interview team is here to learn.
- Begin the questioning by referring to someone or something visible.
- Conduct the interview informally and mix the questions with discussion.

- Be open-minded and objective.
- Let each team member finish their line of questioning (do not interrupt) unnecessarily.
- Do not begin with sensitive questions - carefully lead up to these (use your best judgement);
- Assign clear roles for team members, and rotate these;
- Be aware of non-verbal signals – for example, are your respondents yawning?
- Avoid leading questions ad value judgements.
- Avoid questions that can be answered with ‘yes’ or ‘no’.
- Do not carry on for too long – individuals and groups get tired even if they my be enthusiastic about what you are discussing with them.
- Make sure that you have a list of topics and key questions written down in order in a notebook.

5.1.2. Common mistakes in SSD

As a researcher you should always be conscious of the common mistakes that are usually made while carrying out semi-structured dialogue. These include:

- failing to listen closely
- repeating questions (sometimes because you were not attentive when a respondent was talking to you).
- helping the interviewee give an answer (often done by completing sentences for respondents).
- asking vague or insensitive questions.
- failing to cross-check a topic, or failing to judge answers (believing everything)
- asking leading questions
- allowing the interview to go on too long
- over-generalising findings.
- relying too much on information from the well-off, more articulate members of the community, the educated and men
- ignoring anything that does not fit your ideas and preconceptions.
- giving too much weight to answers that contain quantitative data; and,
- incomplete note-taking.

5.1.3. Analysing findings from semi-structured interviews

The analysis of responses from unstructured or semi-structured interviews can be more difficult than analysing responses to fixed questionnaire, since there will be a wide variety of answers, different people will raise different points and some of the answers might be long.

One way to analyse the responses is to **summarise each interview into the main points that were raised.** It may then be possible to create a limited number of categories of response which will help to see how many people agree or disagree with different views. It is also useful to report any particularly interesting views word for word.

5.2. Community Group Discussions/Community Meetings

Discussions that bring together all members of the community, for example the village meeting, are called community group discussions (or Community Meetings). Interacting with a community group together provides access to the knowledge of several people at once. There is also cross-checking from others in the groups. Most fieldwork situations require that the first major meeting in a community should involve all that can attend from the village. PPA fieldwork will find such meetings useful as the starting point. They can be used to introduce the purpose of the research process, to get a general understanding of the main characteristics of the site and to begin identifying themes and smaller groups that the team can work with in later meetings.

Research teams should however know that community group discussions are not particularly good for revealing sensitive information, and responses may as a result be misleading. Thus facilitators should proactively encourage alternative views and opinions in such discussions, but should equally be on the lookout for those who are not participating. Informal conversations afterwards can be useful for getting information from people who did not express their views during the community group discussions.

Owing to the often very mixed nature of community groups, research team members should always be adequately prepared.

5.3. Focus group discussions

These are discussions which are held with a relatively small group of people (usually between 6-12), with specialist knowledge or interest in a particular topic. A facilitator is chosen to keep the discussion on or around the original topic, and to stop individuals dominating the discussion. It can bring together people who have a particular problem, those who cannot speak up at large meetings (such as women or minority groups), or those who are peripherally involved in a community, such as disabled people or ethnic minorities.

Focus groups can also be used to clarify specific topics which a can then be discussed by a larger group, or can be used as working groups.

In order to have successful focus group discussions, the following suggestions should be considered by all teams:

- hold the discussions in a comfortable place, with no interruptions, and where community members are secure and relaxed;
- create an atmosphere of informality, equality and trust between group participants and facilitators;
- ensure that there is understanding and agreement within the group about the purpose of the discussion;
- as you facilitate the discussion promote respect for the right of all participants to speak and be listened to;
- ensure that there is an agreed and open method of recording the discussion, such as flip charts.

5.4. Key informant interviews/discussions

These interviews focus on deriving information from individuals who have a specialist knowledge or skill in a field or topic which the PLA exercise may be investigating. Such interviewees may, for example, be teachers, community health workers, traditional birth attendants, local artisans, etc. Key informants should be able to answer questions about the knowledge and behaviour of others, and give a good overall view of the way things work in the community.

5.5. Direct observation:

This is one of the most well known, powerful and useful tools in participatory research. Observing needs to be done in a **systematic way**, and direct observation is a good way to cross-check people's answers to questions. Checklists can be used to help ensure certain factors are noted. PPA researchers and team members need to train themselves to observe:

- **Objects**: for example a dilapidated toilet at a health facility;
- **Events**: for example celebration of the Women's Day in the village, the market day etc.
- **Processes**: for example a committee meeting to decide on how funds given to the village will be used;
- **Relationships**: for example the nature of collaboration between local Community Based Organisations (CBOs) and the village government; and,
- **People's behaviour**: for example how do men leaders respond to questions raised by women regarding the allocation of funds?

The key steps in drawing up an observation checklist include:

- Thinking about the objectives & broad topics of the PRA/PLA exercise
- Identifying indicators that you can assess through direct observation (These indicators make up the checklist).

During the actual observation:

- Look out for the unexpected (or anything else that may be relevant.
- Where possible or necessary participate in an activity (participant observation).
- "Standardise" techniques if different people / team members are making direct observation.

5.6 Overview of broad categories of PLA methods

PLA methods can be grouped in a number of categories. Overall, one recognises five broad categories[4], namely:

[4] This categorisation is only done for convenience as there are many other broad categories that one could identify.

- methods for understanding the area around us (analysing space);
- methods for analysing time
- methods for prioritising and ranking; and,
- methods for analysing institutions and relationships.
- Methods for gender analysis

These methods are not mutually exclusive.

5.7 Methods for exploring and analysing the site (Tools for spatial analysis)

As the name suggests, these methods are used for analysing the space around us. They are intended for capturing images, the location of particular features or attributes, etc. in a village. Maps and Transect Walks are an example of methods for examining the area or space in which a community lives and carries out their livelihood activities. .

5.7.1 Maps:

They are simplified models that represent information in an easily understandable form. They are particularly useful because:

- they simplify complex information;
- the act of drawing maps encourages people to analyse the information they are using;
- they facilitate communication;
- they stimulate discussion;
- they increase consensus among team members;
- they are an excellent way of involving community members and discovering their views.

Maps can be drawn by community members to show the location of households (social maps), resources (resource maps), the movement of people (mobility maps), or some other features. They are thus useful for finding out about an area, and about how different groups use the area. They are also one way in which particular categories of a given population perceive the important things in the village/community to be. For example, a map drawn by a group of women may show dfferent features from one of the same area drawn by a group of men, or one drawn by a group of children. Maps can be combined with wealth ranking exercises to identify which are the poorest households, female headed households, different ethnic groups, number of children in a household, etc.

What is a map therefore? How can it be drawn?

A map is thus a marking and drawing on the ground by the community members. It is drawn with minimum interference by facilitators or "outsiders". The person holding the stick talks about what s/he is drawing. As the map takes shape, more people become involved, and so want to contribute and make changes. During the process of drawing researchers ought to be very attentive to the comments that are made as the map takes shape. These comments, dialogue and sometimes arguments often reveal a wealth of information and analysis that is useful to the understanding that researchers will be seeking.

Maps can be drawn for many topics, such as:

- a village's use of natural resources, forests, water, soils, etc.
- social and residential stratification (wealth, ethnicity, religion, etc.)
- field and land use
- mobility (where do people go often and why—map the traffic)
- population and settlement, etc.

Steps in drawing maps:

(1) Find out whether the informants know the village and the topic of the mapping exercise, and who are willing to share their knowledge.
(2) Choose a suitable place (ground, floor, paper) and medium (sticks, stones, seeds, pens, pencils, etc) for the map.
(3) Help the people to get started but let them draw the map themselves. Be patient and do not interrupt them. Similarly, do not dominate the proceedings. It is their map. Your role is to facilitate.
(4) Encourage active participation of all the informants and the use of local materials to represent features on the map. Look out particularly for the shy and support them to participate.
(5) Do not put too much information on one map. If there is too much, help the people decide if they want to make several maps, each for a particular purpose.
(6) Transfer the map onto paper. If there is an informant who can do it, encourage him/her to do so.
(7) Note all useful information which cannot be presented on the map in a notebook. Remember to indicate the direction and putting a key for the symbols used.
(8) Cross-check the information on the map by asking several people if the map is accurate. Establish from those present whether there is anything that they would like to improve on the map.
(9) Finally, ask the community to select one of their number to copy the map from the ground onto a piece of paper. Explain that they can use the map for their own discussion or when preparing an action plan.

5.7.2 Social and Resource Mapping

A social/resource map helps the PLA team to gain understanding of various social and economic features of the village. Social maps can be used to plot all the houses in a village, the heads of households, members of households and any other aspects of interest (e.g. children in households, people with disabilities, pregnant mothers, etc). On the same map can be plotted the natural resources of the village.

Objectives of social and resource mapping:

- To establish dialogue with groups of local people.

- To construct a picture of local perceptions of the local environment.
- To explore spatial patterns of resources.
- To document access and control arrangements over resources.
- To create baseline information for reference and for use in later discussions.
- To empower groups to analyse and better understand their own conditions

5.7.3 Mobility maps:

A "mobility map" shows the movement of people into or out of a given locality. Usually mobility maps show what people move, where to, and the reasons why they move. Thus the maps record, compare and analyse the movements of different groups in a community, and are a useful indicator of a community's contact with the outside world. The maps can also be used to identify what takes particular community members out of the community and what brings others into that community. In addition, mobility maps can help researchers assess how much time is spent in "movements" as opposed to other activities.

Steps in making Mobility Maps

1. Begin with a discussion on the various "things" that lead to mobility within a community and between the community and other areas.
2. Discuss the purpose of the exercise, that is, to see where people spend their time, and who comes and goes in the village.
3. Ask one of the community members to draw a large circle on the ground to represent their village.
4. Encourage various community members to put arrows showing movements into or out of the village. As the drawing progresses remember to ask reasons why such movement takes place, and find out whether the movements have always been like that or whether they are a recent phenomenon.
5. Establish more specifically, for example, where men or women move within or outside the village? Why they move and when?" etc. Ask community members to indicate their answers on the map using stones, leaves, sticks, etc.
6. Repeat the same process for different categories of people in the community and for outsiders.
7. Discuss what people do and how often. Ask, for example, if youth migrating to the city is good or bad. Whether women travelling to the next Ward to access health facilities is good or bad, etc. Establish the frequency of movement.
8. When the map is completed, encourage community members to share what they have learned from the exercise.
9. Ask the community members to select one person to copy the map from the ground on to paper for the community to use and keep. Make an extra copy for the study team.

The following questions may help in the drawing of a mobility map:

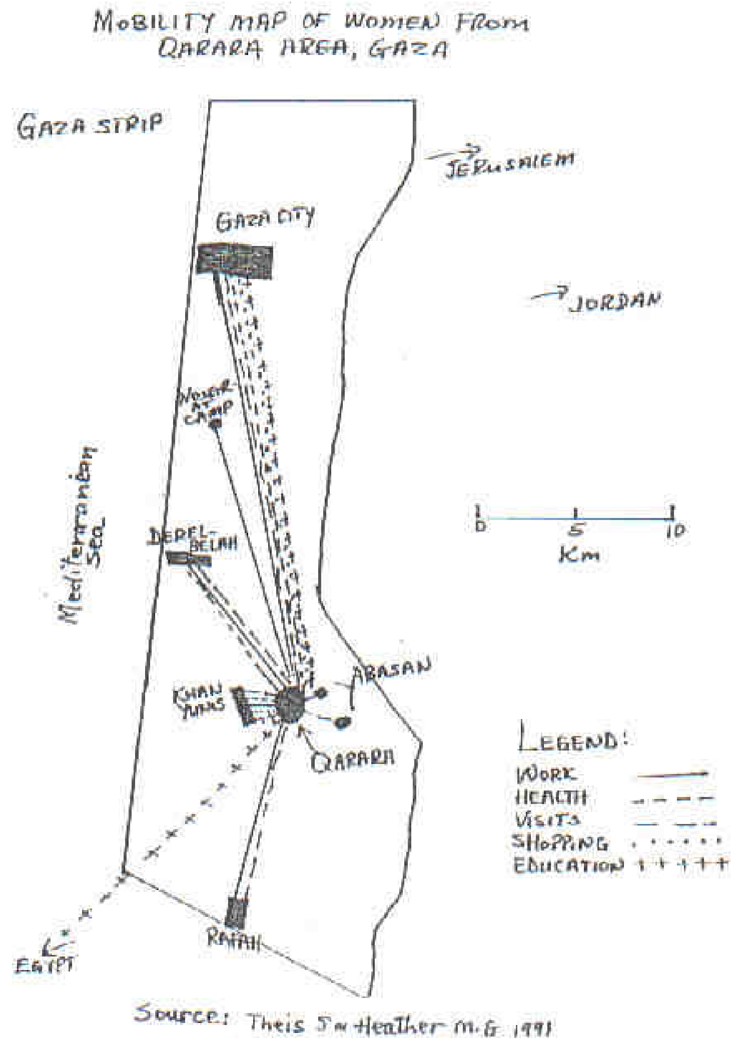
- Where do women /men/youth/boys/girls move, within and outside the village? Why? When? How often?
- Who comes to the community from elsewhere? Where do they come from? What do they do here? How much time do they spend and often do they come?

- What are the good and bad things about people coming in or going out of the village?

Things to note while drawing Mobility Maps

1. Encourage community members to make the map themselves. Neither the facilitator nor any community member should dominate the exercise.
2. Cross-check the information by asking different people about the accuracy of the map.
3. Do not put too much information of the map: try to have people focus on specific issues.
4. Remember to establish a record sheet for each person. Look at the map output below and determine how you want to establish your data sheet hat could lead o such a map .

Example of a Mobility Map:



5.7.4 Transect Walks:

Another tool that may be used for analysing the space around us is the **Transect Walk** method. A "transect walk" is a walk carried out by a PLA team across a section of the community along a predetermined route, seeking to understand different aspects of the community's environment and livelihoods as the team walks through the village. Observation and listening skills are particularly important in the use of this tool.

Transect walks thus allow PLA team members to get a better idea of what resources are available; understand how people behave or live; talk informally about things of local importance; confirm information about a particular situation or problem (for example as a follow up after making maps). They can be used to rapidly collect information regarding land or services use, general hygiene, level of poverty, attitudes and concerns and many other things.

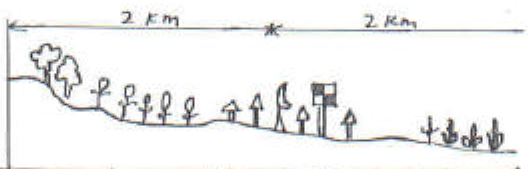
PPA researchers may thus find these two methods useful in the initial stages of their research especially as they get to know more about the community, build rapport and get a better understanding of the state of affairs in which the village is situated.

Steps in making a Transect Walk

(1) Plan what the team will be looking for (for example vulnerable households, land use, settlement, social services, etc)
(2) Prepare the questions that you intend to ask the people you meet? Decide with the whole team the specific topics to be investigated and how team members will find this out (observation? Question? Making diagrams? etc.) Be as specific as possible so you can compare findings at the end.
(3) Agree where each group will walk to, how long the walk will take and, if there is more than one group, where the team will meet again after the exercise?

Example of a Transect Map

VILLAGE OF DURA, KORDOFAN-SUDAN



Characteristics					
Soil	Rocky	gravel	gravel	Sand	Clay
Landuse	Forest	farmland grazing	Village	farmland grazing	farmland
Crops & vegetation	trees, bamboo	grass shrubs millet sesame		sesame beans hibiscus	Sorghum groundnuts
Buildings	none	none	school Huts mosque	Huts	none
Problems	erosion	drought, Pests		drought, Pests, Low soil fertility	drought
Opportunities	fuelwood, timber, bamboo medicines	Pasture rainfed farming	market, transport, water, credit, Healthcare School	Pasture, rainfed farming	flood recession farming

(4) Ensure that the team is gender balanced, that is, make sure there are women as well as men, in equal numbers if possible.

(5) Assign roles to each team member (facilitator, small group leaders, translator if needed, secretary, etc.). Do not forget to prepare for practical needs such as translation.

(6) Plan for the materials that will be needed (notebooks, pens or pencils, etc.).

(7) Try at least to walk from one end to the local area to the other.

(8) On the walk, move with members of the community as part of the group. The group should not be too big as this may hinder participation and is distracting to the people you are observing listen. But keep your eye out for unplanned

discoveries. Stop from time to time at particular points and take relevant notes or make diagrams.

(9) After the walk share your findings with other team members. Relate your findings to the overall objectives of the study.

5.8 Methods for time analysis

Time analysis methods help communities to examine themselves with regards to **how they use their time** (also noting differences among different categories of the population) and **how they are being affected by the changing times**. In the PPA process some attention will, for example, be paid to examining trends of particular aspects of poverty or the impact of, say, particular policies on people's livelihoods over time. The most common tools for time analysis are: the ***calendar of historical events, time trend analysis, calendar of daily activities***, and ***seasonal calendar***.

5.8.1 Calendars

A calendar is a system by which time is divided into fixed periods, marking the beginning and end of the year. It is a chart showing days, weeks, and months in a particular year. In PLA calendars are used to discuss events, burdens, and issues over the year and how they affect the lives of the community. Calendars are used to present complex information in diagrammatic form.

Note that a calendar does not need to start in January or any particular month or time of the year. Community members will always decide when they want their calendar or year to start. As much as possible, also, calendars should reflect indigenous seasonal categories. Team members may in this regard find it useful to establish local names of particular seasons and to establish the meaning, if any, behind such names.

PLA uses a variety of calendars to depict the different aspects of community life and behaviour. These may be on seasons, health, income and expenditure, agricultural, or workload calendars.

Steps in preparing a Calendar:

(1) Ask informants to define a period which they would like to analyse. This may be a year, decade, given historical period, etc.

(2) In case of an annual calendar, ask informants to describe their year: where it starts and where it ends.

(3) Ask one of the community members to draw a long line on the ground showing their year and breaking this into different "segments", months or seasons.

(4) Facilitate a discussion and account of the main "things" that happen in a year. A calendar may also be drawn for things that happened in a particular year or period.

5.8.2 Seasonal Calendars

These are calendars which show the main activities, problems, key linkages and opportunities throughout the annual cycle in a diagrammatic form.

They are a way of representing seasonal variations in climate, crop sequences, agricultural and income-generating activities, nutrition, health and diseases, debt, etc. They can help identify times of shortage – of food, money or time – and the best time of the year for particular kinds of development work.

The calendars thus help to identify months of greatest difficulty and vulnerability of the people, or other significant variations that have impact on people's lives. Seasonal calendars can be drawn in a linear fashion with 12 months to show a typical year or it can be drawn in a circle.

A seasonal calendar can be used to summarise:

(1) Indigenous seasons
(2) Climate (rainfall and temperature)
(3) Disease occurrence
(4) Crop sequences (from planting to harvesting)
(5) Crop and animal pests and diseases
(6) Income and expenditure patterns
(7) Income generating activities, etc.
(8) Labour demand for men, women and children
(9) Prices and marketing
(10) Social events, annual holidays
(11) Migrations
(12) Quantity or type of food consumed (or diet)

Seasonal calendars can also be done as historical seasonal calendars, showing changes in seasonal patterns over the last decades.

How to draw seasonal calendars:

(1) Prepare the materials that you will use in drawing the calendar. Community members may use seeds, stones, goat droppings, or other small and reasonably uniform counters to "estimate a measure of what they are describing". Sticks can be broken in different lengths and used to indicate relative magnitudes. In this way an entire seasonal calendar can be constructed with sticks, stones, and seeds on the ground.

(2) Begin by drawing three (or more) long columns on the ground. The number of columns you draw will depend on the number of variables or things that you want to look at in each month/season (Avoid drawing on sand as sand tends to blur images).

(3) In different rows:
   - show the different months or seasons of the year (first column). It helps if you can find the local names for the months or seasons and what these mean;

- show what happens at a given period, season or month of the year (second column);
- show how people's lives are affected by the particular season or month (third column).

As already noted, you may increase or decrease the number of columns depending on the number of variables you want to examine.

(4) Find out from informants the main characteristics of the different months or seasons. Compare and contrast the months/seasons.

(5) Pay special attention to the differences between different months/seasons and how these differently affect community activities.

(6) Ask such questions as: "How does March compare with May – is it busier, the same, or not so busy? By how much does it differ?"

Other useful questions may be:

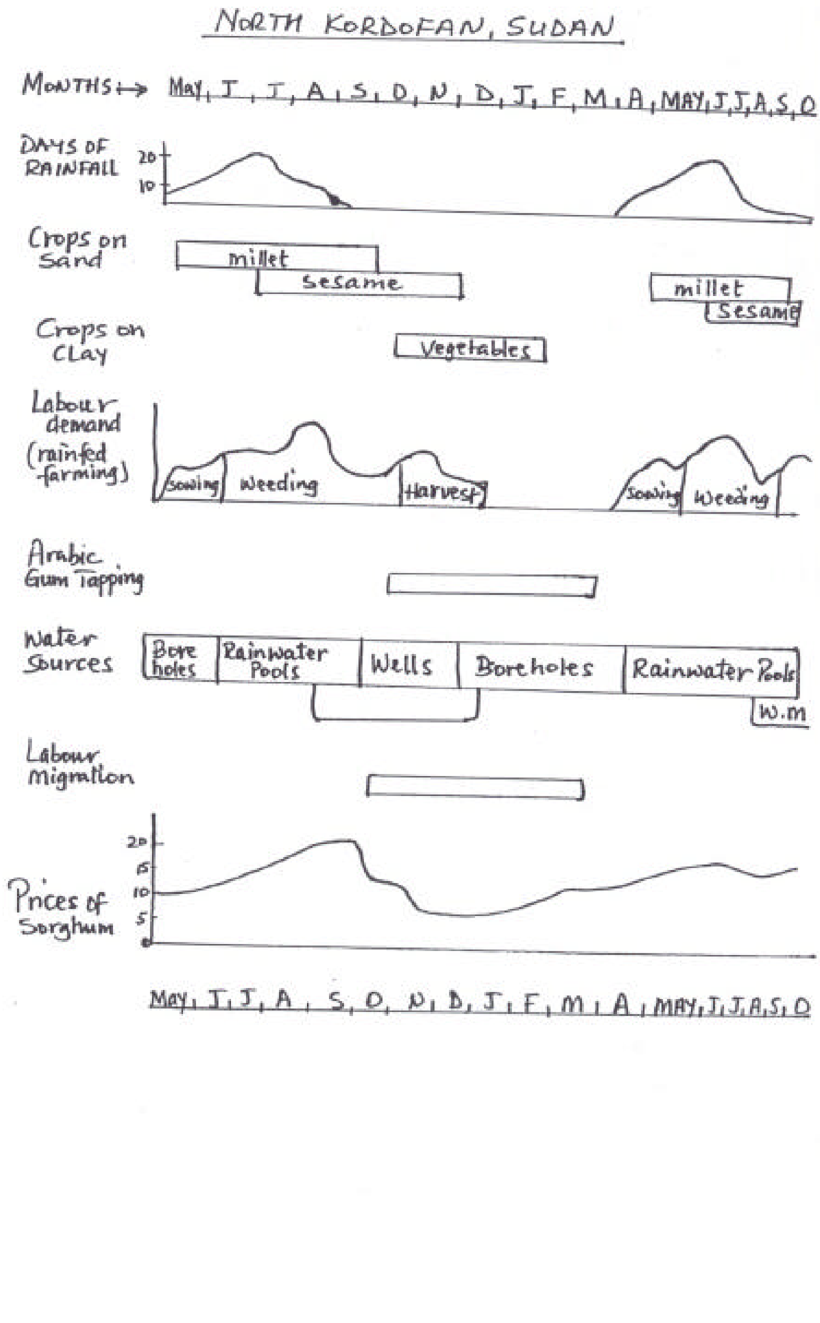
- In which months are vulnerable people most hard pressed? Why
- What is the "best" month, and why?
- What is the "worst" month, and why?
- What is the busiest month?
- What are you doing then?
- What is the next busiest month?
- What are you doing then?
- How does it compare to other months?
- What is the next busiest month? Etc.

(7) Combine all the seasonal patterns in one diagram to show correlation between different variables and identify any problem or opportunity times within the year.

(8) Cross-check and refine the calendar throughout the fieldwork. Watch out for variations, which are due to the seasons, and those, which are not related to the seasons.

(9) Calendars are a lot of fun but a great source of materials that will need your analysis. Do not draw them for granted. You can draw them today and discuss them the following day since you need to have an indepth study of all the variables and their possible relationships.

Example of a seasonal calendar:


NORTH KORDOFAN, SUDAN
MONTHS → MAY, J, J, A, S, O, N, D, J, F, M, A, MAY, J, J, A, S, O
DAYS OF RAINFALL
20
10
Crops on Sand
millet
sesame
millet
Sesame
Crops on Clay
Vegetables
Labour demand (rainfed farming)
Sowing
Weeding
Harvest
Sowing
Weeding
Arabic Gum Tapping
Water Sources
Bore holes
Rainwater Pools
Wells
Boreholes
Rainwater Pools
W.M
Labour migration
Prices of Sorghum
20
15
10
5
0
MAY, J, J, A, S, O, N, D, J, F, M, A, MAY, J, J, A, S, O

5.8.3 Daily Routine calendar:

The main objective of daily routine calendars is to understand the daily patterns of activities of men, women, children, old, young, employed, unemployed, educated, uneducated, etc and seasonal changes in these patterns.

A daily routine diagram is similar to a seasonal calendar in that it helps identify time constraints (shortages) and opportunities. For example, it can help in identifying the most appropriate time in the day for a women's training course.

The daily routine for an individual can be completed either through an interview , through direct observation, or both. It is useful to cross-check results by using more than one method.

Steps in making a Daily Calendar

(1) Decide with the whole team which group you will focus on (women, teachers, health workers, farmers, the elderly the unemployed, etc.).
(2) Decide if there is a specific topic or problem to focus on (for example time spent by older women on household chores).
(3) Develop an appropriate list of questions for the exercise.
(4) Bring the community together and explain the purpose of making calendars (to help them and you understand daily constraints and opportunities, and to make individual, focus group and community plans.
(5) Form a circle around a bare spot of ground where a calendar can be drawn. Draw with a stick or place a stick lengthwise or make a line of stones on the ground to indicate the times of day (e.g. hour by hour or by early morning, sunrise, morning, midday, evening and night) Let the people help you decide how their days are divided.
(6) Pass on the stick to an individual and ask, "Can you show us at what time in the day you typically do what task?"
(7) Stand back and let People complete their own calendars. Use the questions your prepared in advance to encourage them, e.g. "When do you eat meals?" Encourage the use of stones, seed, sticks and other local objects indicate time of day, workload tasks etc.

Examples of questions in making Daily Calendars

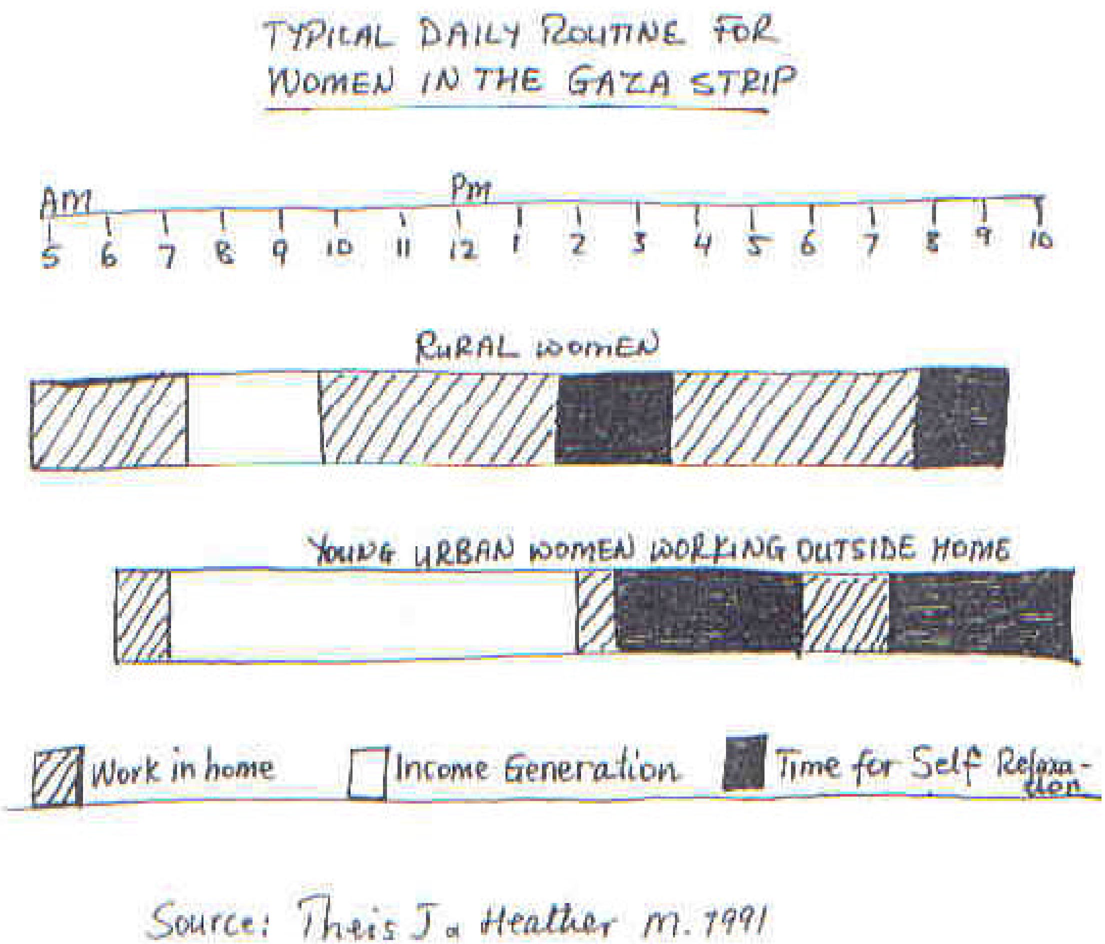
- On a typical (or average) day, what do you do starting from the time that you rise up to the time that you go to bed?
- How much time does each activity take?
- What are the biggest problems you face in carrying out some of the important tasks?
- When do you find time to do unexpected things and what are these activities (such as care for a sick child, help prepare a funeral, come to a community meeting, etc.?)

- What changes do you note from time to time in this calendar? See figure below)

Things to note:

1. Encourage people to explain why they might do certain thins at times of the day (e.g. when they bathe or visit friends, etc.
2. After the calendars have been completed. Look at the general picture it makes and encourage discussion of obstacles and opportunities (e.g. Where do you think that you spend most of your time and why? Where would you prefer to spend less time and why?)
3. If you have helped different groups make daily calendars (e.g. men and women) bring them all together to compare calendars. Encourage the community to see where some members are more burdened at more times of the day than others.
4. Encourage the people to think of what could be done by the community to solve problems related to the daily work routine.
5. Ask a member of the community to copy the calendar from the ground onto paper for the community to use and keep. Make an extra copy for the team.

Example of a Daily Routine Calendar:



5.8.4 Oral history and historical profiles

People can be asked to talk about the history of a place or a particular situation, or of their own lives, and the results used to build up a picture of what has happened over time. Profiles can also be made where simple lists, giving a summary overview of the key historical events in a community and their importance for the present, are compiled.

5.8.5 Timelines

A time line is a line or flow chart with dates or events along it showing things that happened in the past up to the present day. Several time lines can be shown together to see how events influence each other, for example, how changes in particular policies (such as liberalisation) may have influenced prices and crop production.

A time line is therefore a tool to help the communities understand the past better in order to analyse present conditions. It can be used to try to predict how things may change in the future. Time lines help people remember how the bad and good things have influenced their lives, how they coped with their problems in the past, perhaps why the current situation exists and what the future may hold.

Time lines are very useful for planning. By indicating what happened in the past, the people may be able to see what they need to do to change or reverse a bad situation, or preserve a good trend. Time lines can also be used to capture changes in the life of a programme.

Steps in making a time line

(1) Discuss the purpose of the exercise, what people hope to learn about the past and how information will be collected or written down. Note that to make a time line, you may choose to make maps showing what the village was like years ago, or take a transect walk while asking key informants what things were like in the past, or hold large or small group meetings where questions are asked about the past.
(2) Decide with the whole team the specific topic or problem to be investigated and how this will be brought out. Think of questions ahead of time. Be as specific as possible so that the history can help answer the main research questions.
(3) Assist community members to draw a long line on the ground with one end representing the past and the other end the future.
(4) Ask the people to indicate the main events in the village related to the topic. For example if the people are concerned about agriculture, perhaps major droughts, the first arrival of chemical fertilizer, the demarcation of land, etc. if their concern is about schooling, perhaps the advent of Universal Primary Education, the building of a particular school, disruption of school during wars, etc. Use symbols or local materials to represent what is said.
(5) Encourage people to explain the causes and effects of the events (e.g. why large numbers of children may have died at certain time, etc.
(6) Help keep the discussion on the topic by asking what importance a historical event may have had on the topic (e.g. a new government, a war, etc.).

(7) When the time line is completed, have as many people in the community as possible look at it. Ask someone to explain what they have learned from their own history.

Things to note:

1. Take time to think about the purpose of the exercise: help community members look for reasons certain events are important, and their causes and effects on different members of the community.
2. Encourage people to think "What will the future be like based on how the past was and how it is now"?
3. It is not important for people to remember actual years and dates. Instead, help them relate events to important times like Independence, word wars, political regimes, their childhood, etc.
4. Do not insist on people relating events in the order they happened. The order will emerge as you proceed.
5. Get as many people as possible to participate, men and women from different interest groups: one person's view alone may be based or inaccurate

Example 4 : A Timeline or Historical profile

Village in Northern Sudan

1907	Railway line constructed
1925	Land registration carried out
1927	Private irrigation scheme established Mango trees planted
1935	First citrus trees planted
1946	Severe flooding
1956	River shifted, pump site moved for irrigation scheme
1960	Asphalt road constructed
1970	Nationalization of private irrigation scheme
1970-75	Irrigation scheme under Land Reform Administration
1972	Severe drought
1975-85	Irrigation scheme under Agricultural Production Administration
1976	Construction of irrigation pipeline
1978	Seleit Animal Fattening ranch opened: brought water, employment, fodder, and animal diseases
1984	Drought: first permanent settlement of nomads, first arrival of migrants from Western Sudan
1985	Irrigation scheme under Department of Horticulture
1988	Locusts destroy sorghum crop Flood destroys houses, kills all banana tress

Possible questions to help develop Time Lines

Education

- What has changed in the quality and access to education in the last 10-15 years?
- What impact have the changes had on children, parents, girls, boys, etc?
- What indicators are there to show that the changes are happening?
- Who have gained from the changes and who are the losers?
- What were the unexpected changes?

Agriculture

- Was agriculture different in your parent's time, in what ways?

- Have farming practices changed since you were a child?
- What is different? Is this a good or bad thing?
- Has the available land or the condition of the soil changed?
- Is it getting easier or harder to be a farmer now compared to the past?
- If things continue this way, what will it be like when your children inherit the land?
- What can be done to prevent/preserve this?

5.8.6.Trend Analysis

The main objective of trend analysis is to observe particular factors and to see how these may be changing over time, including what impact the changes may be having on communities.

In order to successfully carry out an exercise in trend analysis, it may be useful if in the first place a group of people are identified who remember far back and can give a good account of the changes that have been taking place with respect to particular factors. In a number of instances such groups are constituted by elderly members of society.

To proceed:

(1) Get together a group of people who can remember far back.
(2) Find a place which gives participants enough room on the ground
(3) Identify a topic or topics whose trend you and community members want to analyse (In order to avoid confusion, only one topic should be discussed at a time in the initial stage, but more than one topic can eventually be handled, in particular to allow for comparison of trends on different issues).
(4) Facilitate a general discussion on the chosen topic: what community members think about it, why they want to analyse it, how understanding the trend may be useful to them as a community, etc.

(5) Ask one of the community members to draw a long line on the ground.
(6) Take the chosen topic, and ask participants to plot at the beginning of the line the "magnitude" or "intensity" of the factor they are analysing. They may do this by putting a number of stones, circles, or other materials.
(7) They should then proceed with the rest of the line, allocating the stones (against a named period or time) and in relation to their perceived magnitude of the changes over time.
(8) At all stages, community analysis should be sought on **reasons why** and on **impact of changes.**
(9) Looking at the trends of various issues (e.g.. Water, populations, trees) will allow analysis across these - as some things increase and others decrease. Remember NOT to go into complicated quantification – use words such as "more of" or "less of".

5.9 Methods for prioritising and ranking

Ranking or scoring means **putting things in order** and it reveals differences within a population. It helps to identify the main problems or preferences of people, and the criteria they use when deciding in what order to place things. Further, it enables the priorities of different people to be compared.

Ranking exercises can be used in interviews or on their own and they can lead to more direct and revealing questions (for example, Why is corruption a more serious problem than illiteracy?). Tools such as ranking are very useful especially if they are used to complement semi-structured interviewing. They may be used either as part of an interview or separately. ***Pair-wise ranking***, for example, helps identify the main problems or preferences of individual community members, and their ranking criteria, and enables the priorities of different individuals to be easily compared.

Ranking can also be useful for collecting sensitive information, especially on income and wealth. Informants tend to be more willing to provide relative values regarding their wealth than absolute figures.

There are several types of ranking. The most common ones are:

(1) **Preference ranking** – Where people vote to select priorities.
(2) **Pair-wise ranking** – Where a matrix is drawn to compare which is the preferred of two options.
(3) **Direct matrix ranking or scoring** – A way of identifying criteria for choosing certain objects. It can be used as a means of understanding the reasons for local preferences for such things as tree species or crop varieties. The criteria are likely to change from group to group. Women and men may also use different criteria.
(4) **Wealth ranking** – Where the communities classify themselves into various categories of well-being, giving reasons for classification as well as how people move into or out of particular categories.

5.9.1 Preference Ranking

The main objectives of preference ranking are:

- To determine the main preferences of individuals and groups within a set of items.
- To compare the priorities of different groups.

Steps of Preference Ranking

(1) Choose a set of problems or preferences to be prioritised. This could be, for example farming problems or preferences for domestic animals.
(2) Ask each respondent to give you her/his favoured items in this set, in order of priority. Although there is no limit to the number of items each respondent can handle experience shows that about 6-7 items would easier to manage. Beyond this the exercise becomes cumbersome for most respondents.
(3) Repeat the exercise for several respondents
(4) Tabulate the responses.

Table 1: Example of Preference Ranking of Selected Crops

	Maize	Coffee	Beans	Simsim	G/Nuts	Potatoes
Good market price	5	8	4	7	5	5
Provides good food for the family	6	0	8	10	5	5
Sort growing season	7	0	8	6	8	8
Resistant to drought	8	7	1	6	2	3
Not much labour needed	7	8	5	4	5	4
Seeds readily available	7	9	6	8	7	9
Resistant to pests	8	3	6	5	4	4
The yield is good	9	8	6	8	6	6
Does not deplete soil fertility.	6	7	8	5	4	2
SCORES	64	58	52	62	46	46

5.9.2 Pair-wise Ranking

This is one form of preference ranking. Pair-wise ranking allows the PLA team to determine the main problems or preferences of individual community members, identify their ranking criteria, and compare the priorities of different individuals.

Steps in pair-wise ranking:

(1) Choose a set of problems, or preferences, to be prioritised.
(2) Choose with the help of participants (or from previous discussion or from a key informant), a reasonable number of the most important items in this set[5].
(3) Note down each of the selected items on a separate card.
(4) Place two of the cards in front of the respondent/informant and ask him/her to choose the bigger problem (or more favoured preference) giving reasons for the choice. Mark down the response in the appropriate box in the priority ranking matrix.
(5) Ask whether the other of the two problems/preferences is in any respect more important/more popular than the first. Note down the criteria in the ranking criteria matrix.
(6) Present a different pair and repeat the comparison.

[5] Although there is no specific limit to the number of items one may work with, a number of PLA practitioners find large numbers of items rather cumbersome to use.

(7) Repeat steps 4-6 until all possible combinations have been considered (and all boxes of the matrix have been filled).
(8) List the problems/preferences in the order in which the respondent has ranked them by sorting the cards in order of priority.
(9) Check with the respondent whether any important problems/preferences have been omitted from the list. If there are any, place them in the appropriate position in the ranking table.
(10) As a useful cross-check to the responses, complete the ranking session by asking the respondent about the biggest problem (or most favoured preference) in the list (e.g., "If you could grow only one crop variety, which one would you choose?"
(11) Repeat the pair-wise ranking exercise for a number of individuals, and tabulate their responses.

Table 2: Example: Pair-wise ranking of selected crops

	Millet	**G/Nuts**	**Simsim**	**Peas**	**Beans**	**Score**	**Rank**
Beans	Beans	Beans	Dura	Beans	XXX	3	2
Peas	Peas	Peas	Dura	XXX	XXX	2	3
Dura	Dura	Dura	XXX	XXX	XXX	4	1
G/Nuts	G/Nuts	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	1	4
Millet	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	XXX	0	5

5.9.3 Direct Matrix Ranking

Direct Matrix Ranking allows the PLA team to identify lists of criteria for a certain object. It allows the team to understand the reasons for local preferences for such things as tree species, or crop varieties. The criteria are likely to change from group to group, and women may have different criteria for certain trees from that of men.

Process guidelines:

(1) Ask community members to select a set of items/objects that are important to them and which they want to rank (Examples: animals, tree species, crops, fruits, etc.);
(2) List the most important items (not too many);
(3) Find out criteria by asking:
  - "What is good about each item? What else? (Continue until there are no more replies)".
  - "What is bad about each item? What else? (Continue until there are no more replies).
(4) List all the criteria. You may wish to turn "negative" criteria into "positive" ones by using the "opposite" expression, for example "vulnerable to pests" becomes "resistance to pests".
(5) Draw up a matrix. For each criterion ask which object is best:
  - "Which is best, then next best?"
  - "Which is worst, then next worst?"
  - Of the two remaining ask, "Which is better?"

Table 3: Example of direct matrix ranking

Criteria	Tree Species			
	Eucalyptus	**Palm**	**Acacia**	**Pine**
Fuel-wood Building	4 4	1 1	2 2	3 3
Fruit	1	4	2	3
Medicine	4	1	3	2
Fodder	3	-	4	2
Shade Charcoal	4 2	3 -	1 3	2 4
Total score	**22**	**10**	**17**	**19**
Rank	**A**	**D**	**C**	**B**
Key: 4=Best; 1=Worst				
Q: If you could choose only one species, which tree would you choose? A: Eucalyptus				

(6) Ask: "Which criterion or factor is most important?
(7) Force a choice: "If you could only have one of these, which one would you choose, and why?"

5.9.4 Wealth (or well-being) ranking

This tool can be used to investigate perceptions of wealth differences and inequalities in a community, to discover local indicators and criteria of wealth and well-being, and to establish the relative wealth of households in the community. It can be useful if, for example, one is interested in identifying who the poor people are and how they may currently be targeted.

Wealth ranking is done by making a list of all households and asking different people to sort them into categories according to their own criteria of 'wealth'. The term 'well-being' is often used, since perceptions of wealth usually include non-economic criteria. Often only three categories are needed: the poorest, middle and richest (or much better-off). However there is no "right" number of categories, and communities should always be left to determine their own categories using their own criteria.

Steps in Wealth Ranking

(1) Identify a group of people who are knowledgeable about the well-being of the community and who represent different categories and shades of the population (men, women, youth, educated, non-educated, etc). These will serve as your community representatives.
(2) Explain the purpose of the exercise (for example to understand more about the different categories of well-being or wealth in a community with a view to recommending action or targeting).
(3) Ask the community representatives to list on cards all households in their village. Only one name should be written per card. Remind the

team that no household should be missed in the listing (including those for people who may be single, widows, or those without a home).

(4) Begin with a general discussion on poverty: how it is perceived in the village, who is affected by it, how it has been changing over time, and how it affects different people differently.

(5) Ask the team you selected to identify the main categories of well-being in the village, and to spell out the specific characteristics for each of the categories. A start could be three or four categories.

(6) Explain how the exercise will be carried out: one person reading cards of household members and others assigning the card to a given category.

(7) Follow up the assigning of cards with the question: "Why is s/he in this category and not in another?" As the reasons unfold, add to your list of characteristics. As the exercise progresses it may dawn on the community that there are actually more categories than they had previously defined. Add more categories as the need may arise.

(8) After all the cards have been assigned, ask the community members whether they wish to make any changes to their allocations. If they do, find out REASONS WHY. Following this ask them to count the cards in each category.

(9) Find out whether in the last 5-10 years (period may vary) some people have moved from one category to another – "upwards" or "downwards". Establish the nature of movement (sudden? Slow? Other?) and the reasons for the movement.

(10) Establish with the community whether more people have been moving "upwards" or "downwards" and the reasons why.

(11) Ask one of the community members to transfer the results of the exercise to a large paper. A pie-chart representing different categories of well-being may be one way of representing the outcome of the exercise.

Things to note:

(1) Well-being analysis can be a sensitive exercise. Teams should way the pros and cons before embarking on its use. Good rapport with the community is always important for a successful well-being exercise.

(2) A lot of "side discussions" take place during the process of well-being ranking. These are very important as they tend to bring out peculiar or "uncharacteristic" issues and comments. Listen very carefully, especially, to the silent voices.

(3) In undertaking well-being analysis you may find it necessary to separate men from women, as there are sometimes likely to be different perceptions of indicators of poverty.

5.10. Livelihood analysis

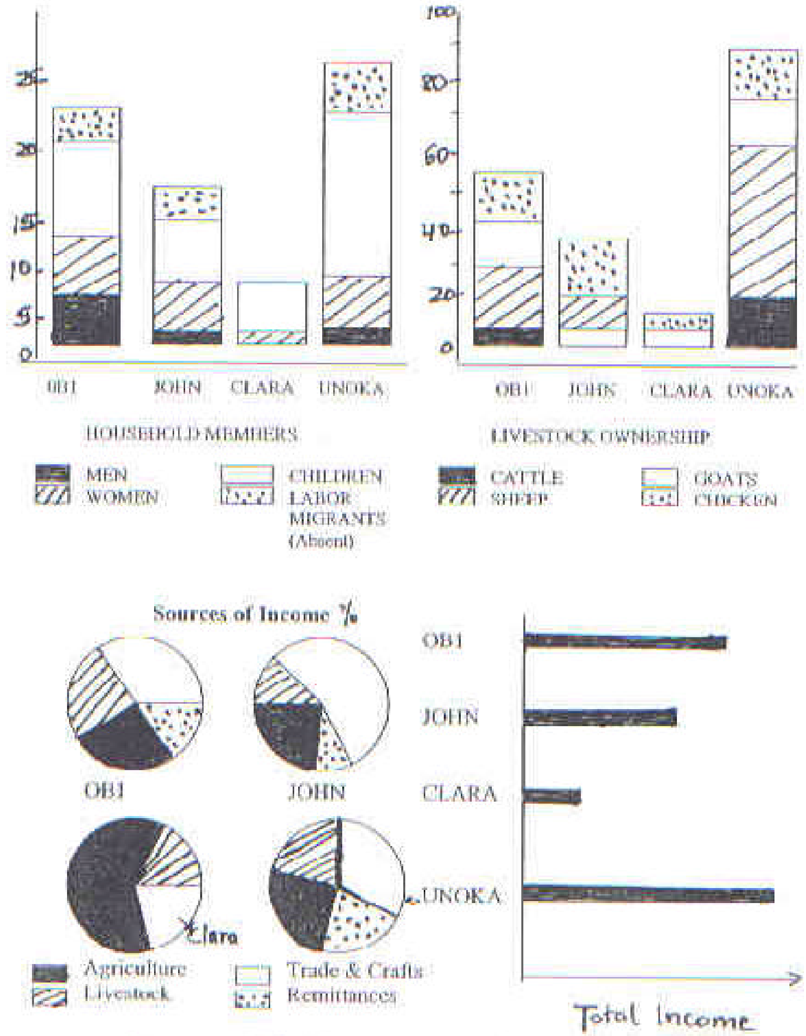
Livelihood analysis is a method of making detailed examination of the way that an individual, a household or a given community lives and survives. The analysis helps communities and researchers to have a better understanding of how they cope and why they make certain decisions: how they spend money and what their priorities are. It also helps people to think about their sources of income versus expenditure, and to look for opportunities and plan ways to solve their problems.

PPA researchers may find this tool relevant in the understanding of how particular individuals, households or communities survive or how they make their decisions.

Steps in making a Livelihood Analysis

(1) Identify the individual, household or category of people that you want to undertake a livelihood analysis with (these could, for example, be peasant farmers, the poorest category of the community, women-headed households, HIV/AIDS household, etc).
(2) If a Wealth Ranking exercise has been done previously it may be helpful in identifying particular categories for whom livelihood analysis may be carried out. You may also consider such indicators as income sources, household size and composition, expenditure, livestock, etc.
(3) Agree on the specific questions that you will be asking, who will visit which household, how the information will be recorded and how you will give feedback (information as to what has been found) to households who participate, and to the community?
(4) At the chosen household explain what the purpose of the livelihood analysis. This is to enable the community to understand how they are surviving, so that together plans can be made to alleviate their problems.

Examples of livelihood analysis drawings:



Source: Theis J a Heather M 1991

(5) Draw a large circle to represent a household.
(6) Ask community, household or individual members to indicate the various "things" on which they survive. Use local materials (stones, seeds, leaves, fibres, etc) especially if the community that you are working with is not literate. The number of, say, stones or seeds could be used to indicate the quantity of income or expenditure.
(7) Ask the respondents to explain in which way the indicated how the identified factors are related to household, individual or individual survival.
(8) If you are interested in knowing about people's perceptions on how they could survive better, discuss with them any knowledge you have regarding time schemes, income generating activities, assistance from NGO's, CBOs, etc. Ask them their opinion regarding obstacles and opportunities.

Example of questions for Livelihood Analysis

- Who lives in this house or homestead (by age, sex)?
- Which members contribute to the household income (in cash, credit, food, barter labour or goods, land, loan of agricultural equipment, home ownership, supply of seed, fertilizer, etc.)?
- Which other people outside the household contribute to income (family, friends, community organisations, etc.)?
- What are the household expenses (for food, clothing, rent, tools, seeds, school fees, loan payments, recreation, etc.)?
- To what extent does household income meet the expenses?
- How are livelihoods affected by seasons? Which times or seasons are better or worse? How does one manage?
- What in recent times has helped you or your household to survive better or to meet your expenses better?
- What in the recent past has made it more difficult for you to survive or meet your expenses?
- In your assessment what would help you better cope with your expenses?

5.11. Focusing on Gender

In the context of the PPA, gender refers to the socially ascribed roles of men and women. The concern for the research teams here will be with identifying and discussing differences in vulnerability among men and women, and how what are "normally" called male and female tasks and behaviours relate to these. As will be observed from the research, women men, girls and boys perform different roles. They also face different problems and opportunities because of those roles. Socially defined roles are learnt over time and vary from culture to culture. However, in most cultures women and girls have lower positions and less power than men and boys. This may have both direct and indirect implications of poverty on women.

PPA will thus lay special emphasis on deepening understanding of gender and poverty relations. Focus on:

- the ways men and women experience vulnerability to poverty, including causes and manifestations
- the role of intra-household inequalities and processes in determining poverty
- the part played by power relations in the community and wider society
- gender issues among specific categories of the poor (youth, disabled, etc.)

The following questions may also be a useful guide:

- *Why* do men's and women's priority concerns seem to be different?
- How much inequality and deprivation on different dimensions is hidden when the focus is on poor and rich *households* or *communities*?
- Are women's lives made poorer mainly by their own husbands, by particular circumstances? If so, which are these?
- In terms of vulnerability, what does it mean to be both disabled and female, or a youth and female, or elderly and female, or a member of an ethnic minority and female? etc.
- Are the gender issues different among people experiencing different livelihoods, such as pastoralists or cultivators? etc.
- How do institutions and policies help or hinder women's efforts to improve conditions for themselves and their children?

5.12. Tools for Gender Analysis

Three of the better known PLA tools to help communities understand better how men, women, boys and girls relate in society and how this promotes or retards development are:

(1) **activity profiles;**
(2) **access and control profiles; and**
(3) **and influencing factors.**

5.12.1. Activity profiles and their purpose

Activity profiles are similar to calendars, for gender analysis. Different activities performed by women are compared to men and boys to girls. Details are analysed showing where, and how frequently the activities are done. The analysis forms the basis of identifying who has a heavier workload or responsibilities and why?

Steps in making Activity Profiles

1. Bring the community together and explain that the purpose of making activity profiles is to help in understanding and comparing workloads and responsibilities between men, women, boys and girls.
2. Decide as a team if there is a specific topic or problem that you would like to focus on in doing the activity profile, for example, fishing, cattle-keeping, farming, etc.

3. Decide, again with the team, if you need to subdivide the men and women into further categories (e.g. elderly and youth or children and adults).
4. Form a circle around a bare sport of ground or put a large sheet of paper where everyone can see it. Ask the group to list all the activities men, women, boys and girls do in an outside the home. Have them use different local materials to represent different tasks: or have them use symbols, or write on the chart paper.
5. Allow the discussion to progress by itself, with minimum interruption. From time to time use the questions you prepared in advance to encourage community members to identify activities that they may have forgotten or simply ignored. Key questions here may be: "What else do only women or only men do? How much time does this take? How often must it be done?"
6. Encourage people to explain why only men or only women or only boys or only girls must do these tasks (e.g. custom, superstition, strength etc.).
7. After the profiles have been completed, look at the general picture it makes and encourage discussion of equality, burdens and opportunities (e.g. "which group or sex does more work than the other? Why should this be so?).
8. Bring the groups together to compare profiles. Ask whether any group underestimated the others activities? Discuss whether men or women boys or girls have more less or equal burdens. Also encourage the people to think about what all this means and what could be done by the community to solve problems related to gender roles.
9. Identify a member of the community to help copy what has been done from the ground onto paper for the community to use and keep. Make an extra copy for the field research team.

Things to note:

- Assign roles to each team member (facilitator, small group leaders, translator if needed, recorder, etc.) and plan how you will each help guide community participants in using the activity profile, the access and control profile and the influence factors tool.
- Discuss whether you need to translate difficult terms into the local language (e.g. "gender", "analysis", "profile" access, etc.) and agree on the terms.
- Plan for what local materials you may need to carry out the exercise, for example sticks stones, leaves, seeds, etc.
- Listen carefully to the discussion that goes on as the activity profile is being developed. This may give you some insights into the reasons why roles are ascribed in one way or the other.

Examples of possible questions in making activity profiles

- What are typical activities (jobs, work, responsibility) that women alone do in the community? What activities do men alone do? What activities do boys do? What is done by girls? What is typically done by either sex?
- How frequently and when are these activities done (by season, proportion of the day or month, etc.?)

- What are the problems faced in undertaking these activities?
- Why are these activities done exclusively by men, women, boys or girls

5.12.2. Access and Control Profiles and their purpose

The main objective of Access and Control profiles is to enable communities and researchers to look at the resources that are required for undertaking the activities that are shown in the activity profile by men, women, boys and girls. The access and control profile helps the communities to examine the difference in who has the right to and who has control over resources, as well as which group benefits from the named activities.

By making access and control profiles, the communities may become more aware of the inequality in power between groups. It may help them identify constraints faced by men, women, boys and Girls just because of their gender.

Steps in making access and control profiles.

1. First, agree with team members or the community if there is a specific topic or problem on which analysis of the access and control profile needs to be made (this will naturally follow from the activity profile that was described above).
2. Develop an appropriate list of questions for the analysis.
3. Bring the community together and explain the purpose of making access and control profiles (to help communities and researchers to understand who is control of the resources needed for specific activities).
4. Divide into smaller groups of men, women, boys and girls as was the case with preparation of the activity profile.
5. Review the list of activities from the activity profile. This time ask the group to list all the resources that men, women, boys and girls need in order for them to carry out their different activities.
6. Then ask, “Who controls the resources that are needed?”
7. Stand back and let the people complete their own access and control profile. Use the questions you prepared in advance to encourage and keep on the subject.
8. After making the access and control profile, discuss the results with community and team members.

Possible questions to help with development of access and control profile:

- What resources (money, time, tools, credit, transport, labour, permission of making decisions, machinery or Equipment, food, etc) are needed to do the activities that women do?
- What resources are needed to do the activities that men and boys do?
- For each resource, who has control over the resource?
- How does lack of access to the resource by the person who needs it affect the activity?
- Why are some resources not in the control of the person who needs to use it?
- What have been the changes in access and control over the last 10-15 years?

5.12.3. Influencing Factors

Influence is "the power which people have over others to behave in a particular way. In gender analysis the tool of influencing factors enables us to understand people, events or situations that have caused differences in what men and women do and how they behave.

With the influencing factor tool, researchers and community members can become more aware of the existence and origins of gender roles, how roles, access and control have evolved or changed over time, and what possibilities exist for change in the future.

Steps in looking for influencing factors in Activities, Access and Control.

1. After making Access and Control Profiles, team members should develop a list of questions to bring out the influencing factors on gender activities, access and control.
2. Bring the community together and explain the purpose of looking at influencing factors on gender activities, access and control.
3. Divide the community into smaller groups of men and women (and by age if needed).
4. Review the lists of activities from the activity profile. This time ask the group what activities did only men or only women do in the past, what control did they have, etc? What changed over time, and why?
5. Stand back and let the group complete their own influencing factors list.
6. After the different groups (men and women) have completed, bring them together for a discussion of changes over time and the reasons why.
7. Bring the men and women's groups together to compare their ideas. Compare whether men reported more or less the same as women or were their ideas different about the past?
8. Encourage the people to think of what could be done by the community to solve problems related to gender related activities, access and control.
9. Ask one community member to copy the visual from the ground onto paper for the community to use and keep, and make an extra copy for the research team.

Examples of questions to help identify influencing factors

- What roles or activities did only men perform in the past? What roles or activities did only women perform in the past?
- What access and control did only men have in the past? What access and control did only women have in the past?
- What roles/activities and access/control are different now?
- What has contributed to this change?
- What problems have these changes caused? What opportunities have these changes caused?
- To what extent are roles and activities changing for today's youth, either for better or for worse?

Analysis of gender relations

a) The collected data should help you to arrive at some logical conclusions. The above questions were exploratory. Analysis helps you to arrive at conclusions from many of the diagrams you have drawn so far.
b) You proceed to ask what does it mean for a man to work for much less hours than his wife daily? How many hours cumulatively per week, month and year? What does that mean income wise and power elations?
c) You proceed to help men to challenge themselves as to whether this is actually how they want to be understood by their families and their government or whether it is a problem they need to deal with? Etc.

5.12.4. Well Being Analysis and its purpose

Well-being Analysis (sometimes simply referred to as Wealth Ranking) can be used to investigate perceptions of wealth differences and inequalities in a community, to discover local indicators and criteria of wealth and well-being, and to establish the relative wealth of households in the community. The term 'well-being' is often used, since perceptions of wealth usually include non-economic criteria.

The tool is done by making a list of all households and asking different people to sort them into categories according to their own criteria of 'wealth'. There is no "right" number of categories, and communities should always be left to determine their own categories using their own criteria. However it is unlikely that such categories will be more than five at the most.

A well being analysis is thus a participatory tool to help communities and researchers identify their most disadvantaged members. It is useful in identifying local indicators of well being, and planning for different levels of support needed for different groups people.

Steps in making a Well Being Analysis

1. First, the research team working together with selected Key informants from the community should constitute themselves into a Well-Being Analysis team. The key informants should have a general knowledge of their neighbours, such as members of households, their average incomes, what they own, and their problems. Key informants should be men and women, and from different social and economic levels.
2. Assign roles for the team (facilitator, group leader, recorder, key informants, etc), and discuss whether during the exercise translation will be needed.
3. Plan for what local materials will be used (sticks, stones, leaves, seeds, etc.) and/or "imported" materials (cards or small pieces of paper, marking pens, notebooks, etc.).
4. Explain to the key informants what the purpose of a well being analysis is. Explain that to identify the most disadvantaged households, and to make

development plans they will need to look at the relative well being of households in their community.

5. Make a list of all households. Write the names of the heads of households on separate cards or pieces of paper, or use local materials to represent each household. Use information provided by key community informants and cross referenced to the social map where this exists.
6. Ask the key informants to identify indicators of "well being" or "wealth" (e.g. "What are your measures for how well off a household is?"). In a few instances the key informants might need some prompting on, say, signs of being well off in the community (Examples: land, vehicle, shop, household size and composition, cash income, expenditure, access to loans, livestock, plot size, number of wives and children, etc.)
7. For each indicator, ask the informants to identify a different local material, or write a symbol or word on a chit of paper to represent it.
8. Ask the key informants to group the households into the categories that they agreed earlier, such as "very rich", "better off/wealthy", "well to do/middle class/OK" and "poor". Allow them to make adjustments as needed.
9. Discuss: "What makes the difference between households in each category? Is it possible for households from one category to "travel" to another) become wealthier or poorer)? What are the common causes for travelling downwards into poverty? What does the community need (both material and non-material) to enable households to travel upwards and become better-off?"
10. Establish what the trends have been like in the last 10-15 years.

Things to note:

- Do not rush to engage the community in a Well-Being Analysis before adequate rapport has been established. Wait until you have gained the trust of the community before using the tool.
- Do not equate "poverty" with "laziness" or "dirtiness" or anything judgmental!

- Be sensitive and confidential in asking about wealth and poverty.
- Accept local key informant's ideas about what constitutes "well being

5.12.5. Venn diagrams and their purpose

Venn diagrams can be used to show the key institutions and individuals in a community and their relationships and importance for decision-making. Different circles indicate the institutions and individuals. When they touch, information passes between them. If they overlap a little there is some cooperation in decision-making. If they overlap a lot there is considerable cooperation in decision-making.

A Venn diagram is a PRA tool to help people understand how organizations in their community are related to each other to help with common issues. Examples of organizations include church groups, youth groups, co-operatives, Women Councils, Local Councils, etc.

Thus the diagrams can be used to reveal the most important and least important organizations in the community, their responsibility for and their ability to help the community with specific issues. They can also show relationships among community organizations and the relationship between the community and outside organizations.

Steps in making a Venn diagram

1. Discuss the purpose of making a Venn diagram, namely to help community members and researchers to look at local and outside community institutions, and see to how they do or don't work together to meet the community's needs.
2. Assign roles to each team member (facilitator, translator if needed, recorder, etc)
3. Agree with the community what specific topic or issue that you want to focus on, and develop a list of questions. For example a Venn diagram may be drawn for development of an agricultural programme in a community, or for planning a community water project.
4. Find out from the community "Which organizations, in and outside the community are responsible for (for example: supplying seedlings, providing agricultural extension services, marketing, etc).
5. Establish which of these are "more important" or "less important" organizations and why.
6. Explain that a circle will represent each organization they have mentioned. The more important the organization, the larger the circle should be.
7. Ask a community member to draw a large circle on the ground and label it with the name of the most important organization.
8. Ask, "Which is the next most important organization? How important is it? Does this organization work with, report to or communicate with the first one? A lot or a little?" Remind people that the size of the circle shows how important the organization is. Explain that where organizations or people are related to each other, their respective circles should be shown touching: the more they co-operate in taking decisions, the more their circles should overlap. If there is not communication or collaboration, the circles should not be shown touching each other.
9. Ask, Which is the next most important organization? How important is it? Does this organization work with the first one? A lot or a little?"
10. Keep asking this until all organizations have been drawn.
11. Allow community members to change the size and position of the circles on the ground as needed, and as they go along.
12. After the diagram is completed, ask the people "Who has the biggest and smallest voice regarding the issue? Is this good or bad?" ask, "Are the linkages between the organizations too much or too little? Why is this so? Can anything be done about this?"
13. Ask one of the community members to copy the diagram from the ground on to paper for the community to use and keep. Make an extra copy for the research team.

5.13 Sequencing Methods

In order to obtain maximum benefit from any participatory research, serious consideration should be given to not only the tools or methods

Table 4: Key stages in the research process and examples of possible methods

Stage(Broad objective)	Comments	Examples of Possible methods
Introduction	• Team is still at the beginning of the research process • Main objective is for team to introduce itself to the community • Team begins to know about the community setting, dynamics, etc.	• Observation (structured) • Community Meeting (i.e. with all community members) • Social and Resource Mapping • Focus Group Discussions (for example with village leaders)
Preliminary investigation (Exploratory stage)	• This stage immediately follows the introduction. • Stage at which "leads" picked from the introductory community meeting are followed up. •	• Focus Group Discussions (with groups identified at the initial community meeting) • Transect Walks • Picture codes
Detailed investigation	• A stage when more sensitive information is beginning to emerge (after good rapport and trust have been built with the community). • Cross-checking information is important at this stage.	• Well-being analysis (can be modified for use as "vulnerability analysis") • Preference Ranking • Pairwise Ranking • Gender profiling and analysis
Analysis	• This is the stage during which deeper meaning is given to the emerging findings of the study. • At this stage, also, linkages between key factors and features identified by the research team are made.	• Institutional Analysis (Venn Diagramming) • Flow Diagrams • Decision and Problem Tree Analysis • Stakeholder Analysis
Feedback	• This is a stage for sharing back with community members key findings and conclusions of the study. • This stage is also	• Socio-drama • Community Meeting • Posters

	reserved for final verification of the correctness of collected and analysed information.	

that are used, but also to how these methods are sequenced – or the order in which the methods are applied.

Just as the rationale for using one method or another to a large extent depends on the type of information that is required so does sequencing depends on the broad objectives of key stages in the participatory research process.

For ease of discussion the participatory research process may be divided into five main stages, namely: introduction, preliminary investigation, more detailed investigation, analysis and conclusion. By its very nature each of these stages invites the use of a particular set of methods, as is shown below.

Table 5: Example of how research days can be divided among key activities

Day	Activity
Day 1	• **Meeting with district officials to introduce the research and confirm sites.** • **Discussions with Service Providers at the district level** • **Communication to the site regarding the research process.** • **Identification and collection of secondary materials.** • **Arranging for accommodation and other practical needs.** • **Compile Field Activity Reports**
Day 2	• **Settling in into the community** • **Initial meeting with village leaders to introduce the research to the village.** • **Community meeting (Resource/Social Mapping?)** • **Compile Field Activity Reports**
Day 3	• **Transect walk/s across the village** • **Community meeting (split between men and women?)** • **Focus Group Discussions (various groups)** • **Compile Field Activity Reports**
Day 4	• **Focus Group Discussions.** • **Key Informant interviews** • **Compile Field Activity Reports**
Day 5	• **Focus Group Discussions.** • **Key Informant interviews** • **Compile Field Activity Reports**
Day 6	• **Joint Analysis with the team** • **Cross-checking information and filling gaps**

Day 7	• **Synthesising Field Activity Reports to Site Reports**
Day 8	• **Writing up**
Day 9	• **Writing up (and furthr gap filling)**
Day 10	• **Feedback to community members.**

In a real research situation the stages outlined above are not always as clear-cut as has been depicted. Often there are overlaps between stages and hence in the use of methods. Overall, however, the logic is that the first stages of the research will be introductory, followed by exploration and detailed analysis, followed by conclusions and drawing of summaries.

On a day-to-day basis different teams will allocate different amounts of time to the key stages in the research process. The following example is only an illustration of how, say, time could be allocated for a 10-day field exercise. Each team should agree on how much time they wish to allocate to key activities.

6.0 ANALYSIS OF FIELD FINDINGS

Analysis may be described as:

- Piecing together information
- Sorting information basing on usefulness
- Pooling information together
- Synthesising information to make sense out of it.
- Having a critical look at information basing on values, objectives, models, attitudes and agendas.
- Seeing how things are related or what triggers what?
- Making interpretation of data from different stand points
- Makings sense of the sequence of events, information to make it applicable
- Further understanding of the problem.

Common challenges in analysis that the research teams will need to be continuously aware of include:

- Having too much or too little data
- Having poor sets of data
- Lacking analytical skills and not knowing how to make inferences from available information.
- Having biases and/or prejudices.
- Not allocating adequate time for analysis, etc.

It is important that all research teams invest adequately in analysis and also ensure adequate allocation of time for the process.

The following key questions may be useful to research teams:

- **What does it mean?** (For instance if a respondent says: "I am poorer than I was last year." What does it mean? What was the situation before? What has changed? Why has the change affected him/her? Who else is in a similar situation?
- **Why?** Why is the respondent saying that he is poorer this year than last year? Try to ask **why** seven times.
- **What are the consequences/ implications of the information collected?** What is the perspective of the respondents on this? What is the researchers interpretation of the said consequences?
- **What are the unexpected?** What in the findings is contrary to "normal" expectations? What are the contradictions between what is expected and the reality on the ground.
- **What is unique?** Researchers should ask what makes the respondent, sub-county, district etc…different from the others. What are the unique features?
- **What is important**? This refers to prioritization. What are the key issues that are coming out?

How to enhance Analysis?

- Use the six "helpers": what, why, when, how, where, who?
- Provide time for analysis. Do not rush
- Do the analysis as and when information becomes available. The longer you postpone doing the analysis the more difficult it becomes.
- Do analysis collectively to guard against biases. Two heads are better than one. Putting heads together leads to better quality analysis.
- Develop a working hypothesis as you go along and revise the checklist accordingly.
- Use all opportunities for cross-checking. If necessary go back and re-interview the same respondent.
- Record the important points carefully
- Add unsolicited responses.
- Have a holistic view. Link questions and answers. Have the research question in mind all the time. Look for the relationships between different responses.
- Draw preliminary conclusions with the respondents. Use triangulation, observation and ask more than one question all the time on the same issue.
- Do not rush to conclusions and do not generalize issues.
- Try to interpret the data correctly. Understand the local language and the way people use and understand certain terms.
- Use open-ended questions. Probe. Do not simply take "Yes" and "No" for an answer.
- Have good listening skills
- Build good rapport with your respondents.
- Record all relevant information with as much clarity as possible

7.0 RECORDING AND WRITING REPORTS

7.1 How will the information be captured?

As noted already, information from PPA fieldwork will be captured at five main levels, namely:

- The field level: in comprehensively written field notes
- Field activity reports: the reports that will be coming from each interview.
- Site reports: A synthesis of all Field activity reports.
- District reports: A synthesis of all site reports.
- The national report: A synthesis of the district reports.

Research teams will initially focus attention on the first four levels.

7.2 In the field: Recording your notes

Taking notes is important, before, during and after the formal fieldwork activities and interviews. During the fieldwork write as much as possible in your note books, and ensure that this is finally written up immediately after field exercises. Be as comprehensive and as clear as possible. As a general rule, facilitators should not take notes themselves, but leave this to other team members. This will enable them to concentrate on the subject they are facilitating. It is also important to take notes sensitively and with due courtesy.

At the outset of the process, the facilitator should explain why it is important to record the discussion and also explain how documented information will be used. Notes may include the fieldworker's own observations, the important things that are said in the course of a group activity that may or may not be reflected in the formal outputs of the activity, pieces of testimony casually provided outside of the formal encounters, etc.

It is always important to record exactly participants' discussion and analysis. Note especially insightful remarks or analysis by participants, and record them precisely. However, be selective – not everything can be written down. Remember, also, that a few authentic quotations enhance the impact of a PPA synthesis report.

When	Steps	Notes
During the Exercise	Record as much discussion as possible	❑ You will probably need to make abbreviated notes ❑ All team members present should assist the information recorder in writing down discussions that they hear ❑ Be fast, be alert, be aware and LISTEN! ❑ If in doubt, check with other team members

7.3 From field notes to Field Activity Reports

After the exercise	Getting your notes and memories together	❑ All team members should consolidate their field notes or write-up what they heard but could not record during the exercise ❑ Avoid your own thoughts and analysis
	Discussing the process and information generated.	❑ Information recorder to read their notes to the team. Other team members to add missing information and discuss key points from the exercise. Discussion is key ❑ Discuss process and how this affected the information recorded. ❑ A team effort - Do this as soon after the exercise as possible
	First draft of field activity report produced	❑ Information recorder to write up the field activity report
	Finalise field activity report into final version	❑ Another team member should check the write-up of the field activity report

For each activity that is carried out in the community, there should therefore be an field activity report which captures the information shared during that session. Each field activity report should have the following:

1. A description of the process and how this affected information
2. Information notes (including quotes)
3. A visual output (if this is available). The visual should be on Normal A4 sized paper.

4. For diagrams:
   - Use only white (unruled) A4 or A3 paper
   - For seasonal calendars use graph paper for better output
   - Draw and write neatly
   - Leave a clear border around the outside
   - Include keys or scales needed to understand the diagram
   - Include other explanatory notes

5. Each field activity report should show**:**

   - Heading of the field activity
   - Date and time of day
   - Approximate duration of field activity
   - Number and nature of participants
   - Names of PRA team members (and the writer)

   Please also ensure that you write on one side of the paper, keep papers in order, and keep the sections of field activity reports together.

7.4 From Field Activity to Site Reports

The process of writing Site Reports should start at the very beginning of the fieldwork, as soon as the team has a few Field activity reports to get started with. Do not wait to "accumulate" Field activity reports before you get started.

Take care in the organisation of your field activity reports so that they do not get mixed with those from other sites.

7.5. Report writing

Report writing is going to form an essential part of PPA researchers' task. Sufficient attention will therefore need to be paid by all members of the research team to this. However well the field exercise will have been, all will come to naught if the findings are not clearly articulated for the others to take note of.

Although some people find report writing quite easy, for the large majority this is a very difficult task. In the second PPA this task is even going to be more challenging than was the case in PPA1. The number of sites that are going to be covered will be much larger and the issues that PPA intends to cover are expected to be more complex. Yet the expectations of good quality reports are quite high, thus necessitating some special effort in report writing.

One way in which we can improve our report writing skills and thus become more confident about writing itself is by considering the processes that other writers employ. Overall, experienced writers rely on **five key steps** in writing. One can move more than once through any of these steps for more information, better organisation, or a more developed draft.

The key steps are:

- **Prewriting**: Deciding on the subject, considering the needs of the reader, and gathering information.
- **Planning**: Choosing a preliminary thesis and organisation.
- **Drafting:** Writing a first draft to develop the main ideas and discover new ones.
- **Revising**: Making changes in the thesis, structure, content, paragraphing, and sentences.
- **Finishing**: Proofreading for grammar, consistency, spelling errors, and preparing the final copy.

(1) Prewriting **(can also be used in actual writing)**

Step 1: Clarify your topic, theme or subject before starting to write your report.

Try to answer the following questions:

(1) What is the assignment that we have been researching about and for which we need to write a report?
(2) What should we write about the assignment?

(3) How can we keep our topic within manageable limits?

(4) What is our purpose in writing about this topic?
(5) Who will be the readers of our report?
(6) What is our role as a writer/s?

Step 2: Make **reminder lists** of:

- topics
- sub-topics
- themes
- interesting findings, issues, points, etc
- quotes

Step 3: Take each of the topics that you want to write about and then **use the six "helper" questions** to begin developing your report:

- What was it?
- Who was involved in it?
- When did it happen?
- Where did it happen?
- How did it happen?
- Why did it happen?

Step 4: Develop **organisational patterns** for the report

You may use the "traditional" methods for presenting information, such as narration and comparison, to develop new perspectives on the subject that is being written on. The following format may be useful:

- **Description**: How would you describe it? What are its traits? What are its physical or other characteristics? How does it look, feel, sound, etc?
- **Narration**: How did it come about? What history does it have?
- **Comparison:** What is it similar to or different from? Can it be compared to something more familiar? How is it like or unlike that similar/dissimilar example?
- **Examples:** What examples illustrate your topic/point?
- **Cause and effect**: What caused it? What effects has it created?
- **Process**: How does it occur? What processes does it involve? How is it used?

(2) Planning: The process could be achieved in three stages as follows:

Stage 1: Choose the main idea or thesis

A **thesis** is a sentence that **presents the main idea or set of ideas of the report**, an idea that every fact and detail should support (a thesis may change after a first draft of the report has been written – if the evidence from the research is contrary to the thesis).

The thesis has two qualities:

- It states the **paper's topic**
- It states a **specific opinion or attitude concerning the topic**.

The thesis also helps to establish the purpose of the report.

Example:

Topic	**Thesis statement/s (Topic + Opinion or Attitude)**
Vulnerability among fishermen	• Over-exploitation of fish stocks from the sea off the coast of Bagamoyo (due to the policy of liberalisation of fishing, trade and markets) has led to heightened vulnerability of local fishing communities and to a serious decline in fishing livelihoods.

Stage 2: Choosing an organisational pattern

After collection of information and the writing of the preliminary thesis statement/s the next step now is to organise ideas. This process continues throughout the rest of the drafting. A possible guide (list) for shaping the report may include:

- **Chronological:** telling the story; explaining the evolution of a problem; and describing the order in which something happened.
- **Description**: describing the layout of a place; the situation of poverty in a given locality; trends, the complexity of policy and planning, etc.
- **Simple to complex:** moving from an overview of a situation to specific details concerning it.
- **Thesis/support:** stating a general judgment and then explaining it in smaller units. Here logical evidence is useful.
- **Order of importance**: formulating an ordered list of goals to be achieved, tasks to be accomplished, or points at issue
- **Checklist**: presenting items to consider, in order, before performing a certain action.
- **Process**: presenting the steps involved in accomplishing a certain goal.
- **Comparison:** judging between two or more alternatives.
- **Cause and effect**: considering the causes of a problem as well as its effects. This is usually a challenge that makes PRA\PLA claims of less value.
- **Problem solving**: making the decisions necessary to move from a current situation to a desired situation. This has implications for policy.

- **Pros and cons**: reviewing good and bad points about an issue and then making recommendations.
- **Persuasion**: arguing for a change of belief or action – useful for advocacy.

Stage 3: Creating a plan for the report

It is now time to work on the structure of the report. Note, however, that decisions may change as you write, but a preliminary plan still helps to direct your work. Read over your pre-writing materials and your thesis, and attempt using the following approach:

(a) **Developing clusters, topic outlines and key statements: Moving from Field activity reports to Site Reports**

The following steps can help us in writing up information that the team now has in the form of Field activity reports. This is only a suggested approach. There are many other approaches. Team members should familiarize themselves with the process and understand the rationale behind each of the steps.

Step1: Silent reading

Copies of all field activity reports should be made available to each team member, who should in turn read each report silently, taking note of key points, including process, findings and tentative conclusions.

Step 2: Loud reading

Each Field activity report is read out loudly by one of the team members. All the other team members **listen actively, taking note of the most important information in the Field activity report.** Keep your fieldwork notebooks handy. You may need them for reference.

Step 3: Card Writing

At the conclusion of any reading of a Field activity report each team member writes down on cards the key points that they discern from the listening exercise. These could be process points, findings, analysis, conclusions, etc. Specific quotes can also be written onto cards verbatim. Agree as a team the format and codes that you wish to use before writing commences. Only one point should be written per card (refer to the card writing notes for details of how to write cards). After cards for all Field activity reports have been written, they should now be posted onto a wall or other large surface.

Step 4: Clustering and/or categorizing of cards

The team should now proceed to cluster or categorise cards according to common issues, themes, etc. The clustering exercise is iterative and interactive. Initial emphasis should be on creating broad categories or clusters. This will then be followed by sub-categories and later by a definition of possible linkages and relationships. Give appropriate titles to the clusters and sub-clusters (e.g. Coping Strategies of IDPs).

Step 5: Write short statements

Using a flip-chart you should now write short statements that describe the issue/s, findings, conclusions, unanswered questions, etc. Keep the message simple and clear. This should in due course give you a number of paragraphs – the first building blocks for your Site Report. Find appropriate visuals, quotations and pictures to illustrate the story behind the writing. After writing the statements check both the cards and the Field activity reports (and possibly also your notes) to confirm that no important piece of information has been left out.

Step 6: Assign draft statements parag raphs to structure

Assign your draft paragraphs to your pre-determined structure, being flexible enough to cater for any need to modify structure.

Step 7: Time to check

Check for correctness, consistency and validity of what you have written. Ensure that the statements logical sense, are not repetitive, and appropriately respond to your thesis. This is also one of the final opportunities for the team to see if there is information that was not recorded in the Field activity reports or vital information that was recorded but has not been captured in the draft report. After checking, give the draft to a peer (or colleague) to read and give you feedback on content, style, process, etc.

7.6 Drafting

Step 1: Practical arrangements

- Identify an appropriate place (where you normally feel comfortable writing from);
- Choose an appropriate set of tools: pens, pencils, calculator, computer, etc.

Step 2: Start your first draft

When you are ready to write:

- begin the drafting process by reviewing the results of your research and planning.
- Put your thesis, analysis,, and outline on one sheet of paper.
- Group your notes so that they reflect your intended order of writing.
- Write your draft – at this time not worrying about your starting point – it could be at the beginning, with a conclusion, or in the body of the report.

Step 3: Write quickly

- Write quickly, following your outline. If new ideas come outside of your outline write them down too so that you do not forget them later.
- Get down on paper every point that supports your thesis, and fulfils your objective of informing, analysing and advocating.
- Explore creative options – nothing that you write can be wrong.

- Ignore the following possible voices inside you: “it is too short”, “this sentence does not make sense”, “this paragraph is not clear” – **revising and proofreading will come later!**

Step 4: Do not get stuck

- Do not allow yourself to get stuck!
- If you do not have enough information about a particular point:
  - leave a dash, and continue with the rest of the report.
  - write down the question that you will need to answer later - and then continue.
  - Return to the prewriting and outline notes.

Step 5: Wrap up your draft writing

Now that your first draft is nearly ready:

- make some notes to guide your revision.
- jot down points that need more research or possible changes in organisation.
- Jot down any new good ideas for inclusion in the second draft.

7.7 The structure of the report

Structure means the manner of building, construction or organising; the arrangement or interrelation of all the parts of a whole; the manner of organisation or construction.

Why do we need a structure?

When we read a document, we expect to be able to navigate through it with ease, finding information presented in a readable way, so that when we put it down we have got the message.

Readers will need to know what the report is about, why they should read it, and what action is expected of them as result. They do not want to be daunted by a threatening layout containing large volumes of information without headings, visuals, table of contents, etc.

Overall, the report should have:

(a) An introduction – giving background information, outlining methodology, and stating the main thesis.
(b) A body – detailing the findings and relating these to the objectives and thesis of the study.
(c) A conclusion – which includes a summary statement of implications of the findings.

The key structural components that are proposed for Site Reports are:

(1) Title
(2) Subtitle
(3) Originator/Publisher
(4) Table of contents
(5) Introduction/Rationale/Purpose
(6) Chapters, Sections/Parts

(7) Headings and subheadings.
(8) Numbering systems.
(9) Bullet points
(10) Visuals.
(11) Appendices.
(12) References
(13) Index.

The following tips/questions could be useful when one is developing a structure or its contents:

- **Identification**: Have you identified where, when, and with whom the research was done?
- **Objectives**: Have you spelt out what the research set out to do in the field in the first place?
- **Methodology**: What process was followed? What methods were used? What did the process and methods help to bring out? What limitations did you encounter with the process and methods? How were they overcome?
- **Findings**: What were the most important findings of the research? How did the findings help answer the research questions? How did they differ from expectation? What lessons do we learn from these?
- **Conclusions and Recommendations**: What are the main conclusions from the study? What implications do these conclusions have for different stakeholders but particularly for policy? What recommendations do you make from the study?

8.0 TEAM ACTIVITIES AND ROLES:

There are four key activities or roles during a PRA exercise. In the ideal situation, you could have one person for each key activity or role. However, in reality this is not always possible as certain situations may require the team to split. The key roles are: facilitator, process observer, information recorder and translator.

Facilitator	• Introduces the exercise • Interacts with community and draws out views from various people • Facilitates the field exercise, linking interview objectives to overall research objectives.
Process Observer	• Deals with "special" or "difficult" community members • Observes and records the process • Informs facilitator if things are going wrong • Observes how other team members are coping with their tasks, and organises help if this is needed.
Information Recorder	• Records information raised during discussion • Copies Visual output

Translator	• Translates between facilitator & community & other members • Helps identify areas of context that other team members may not be familiar with • Helps interpret on request (to convey meaning)

Local mobilisers should be able to assist with translation, mobilising the community, facilitating logistics, identifying local-level information, building rapport and linking up the team with people and institutions at the local level.

APPENDIX 1

Glossary and List of Acronyms[6]

Analysis: The process of breaking up a whole thing into smaller parts in order to study its logical make up.

Assets of the poor: An asset is a useful or valuable quality, skill or person. Assets of the poor include**:**

- **Natural capital** (land, forests, water, marine and wild resources);
- **Produced capital**, (like physical infrastructure and credit);
- **Human capital** (nutrition, health, education, local-knowledge and skills);
- **Social capital** (the benefits from a dense pattern of association);
- **Financial capital (the financial resources);** and,
- **Political capital** (power or powerlessness).

Attitude: A manner of acting, thinking or feeling that shows ones disposition or opinion

Accountability: Being answerable for resources, responsibilities, etc.

Behaviour: The way a person acts or conducts themselves, their manners.

CBO: Community Based Organization

Community: A group of people living within the same geographical area sharing common resources and comprising of different categories of people with common but also different needs and interests.

Communication: A two-way process of sharing information.

Cross-check: To ensure that something is true by checking several times, from different sources and sometimes using different teams or people.

Facilitate Guide, support and create a friendly environment to allow people do things themselves.

Gender Roles: What men or women do that is determined by their socialisation.

Key Informant A person who serves as an important source of information

Marginalized A group of people kept within a lower limited place in life; people who are left out of the decision –making process.

[6] The glossary should be read in the context of the participatory poverty assessment (PPA). Some of the words and phrases listed here carry a more technical or intrinsic meaning when used elsewhere in a different context.

Mobilize To put into motion; to organize for action.

NGO Non-Governmental Organization

Objectives: One's goals, aims or target

Opportunity a change or solution that is available to solve a problem

Ownership to feel as if one owns something; to have the legal right of possession

Participate: To be included, take part, share, contribute and be involved

PLA: Participatory Learning and Action

Policy: A set of ideas or plan of what to do in particular situations that has been agreed officially by Government. It is a guide to decisions and behaviour intended to stimulate, support or guide actions in a desired direction towards an objective.

Principles: Main beliefs, ethics, values or philosophy.

Resource: Availability of money, property or assets that can be drawn upon; a means of accomplishing something; a source of strength from within oneself.

Skill: Great ability that comes from training, practice or natural talent.

Symptom: A sign or indication that shows that some root cause is present; not the direct reason for a problem.

Team: A group of people working together in a co-ordinated effort.

Tool: A method or instrument used to get the job done.

Technique: A way of using basic skills.

APPENDIX 2

Example of research plan

<u>Research objective</u>: past experience with development projects in village 1.

Topic	Sub-topic	Semi-Structured Interview (SSI) Work Group	Focus group SSI	SSI with resource persons	Other PRA tool
Identity of past project	• History, nature • Location • Level of participation	√ √ √	√ (women)	√ Village Committee √ Local leaders/ teachers)	Historical profile Resource map
Performance of community Institutions	• Village council • Religious communities • Groups		√ (women) √ (women) √ (groups)	√ Village leaders √ Village leaders	Venn diagram " "
Evaluation of Current situation	• Usefulness to worse off people • Usefulness to women • Problems • Solutions proposed	√ √ √ √	√ (poor) √ (women) √ (poor women) √ (poor women)	√ (priests) √ (women council) √ (all above) √ (all above	Wealth ranking, services & opportunities map Services & opportunities map Pair wise ranking