

Key Participatory Rural (Rapid) Appraisal Methods and Tools

PRA work requires broad methodological knowledge, communication skills, intercultural competence and sufficient professional experience to allow flexible reaction in line with requirements on the spot. The Essential features of PRA are its flexibility, simplicity and speed. It is not limited to a particular environment and it has no fixed sequence of activities in its use. This thus requires being creative and proactive.

Each of the methods described herein uses a combination of tools. These are the tools with which to encourage and enable stakeholder participation. While some tools inspire creative solutions; others are used for investigative or analytic purposes. One tool might be useful for sharing or collecting information, whereas another is an activity for transferring that information into plans or actions.

A successful PRA activity moves through the following stages:

1. Preparation. This involves decision on and preparation of PRA tools (guidelines questions) to be used, meeting with stakeholders, discussion of work plan and definition of tasks, selection of community or commodities, inventory of operations and identification of main actors in those areas.
2. In field work there is need for selection of key informants, approaching actors and carrying out surveys, drafting of daily information and evaluation with team, completing data collection, discussion of findings with actors and key informants, analysis of constraints and opportunities for improvement, and discussion of hypothetical feasibility of options with selected actors and informants.
3. Evaluation, documentation and presentation that revolves around verification of field data, assessment of influences in the chain and causes thereof, identification of entry points for intervention, writing of report, presentation of conceptual framework at policy planning level (both method and finding), and evaluation and adjustment.

The Concept of Participation

The term participation has gained increasing currency over the last two decades. It is now undisputable that local people benefit most when projects meant to benefit them in the first place has taken care to fully involve them in all the stages of the project right from the initial planning up to monitoring and evaluation. There are also many programmes that purport to be "participatory" at least in project documents but in practice they may be participatory only to a degree as illustrated below.

A scale of participation

Co-option:	tokenism or manipulation	action on local people
Co-operation:	tasks and incentives given	action; for local people
Consultation:	external analysis of local opinion	action for / with locals
Collaboration:	local and external responsibility, External facilitation.....	action with/by locals
Co-learning:	sharing of knowledge and planning, External facilitation.....	action' by local people

The idea to strive for is that scenario whereby the local people are able to think for themselves, rely primarily on themselves and make the decisions on all the issues that affect them. In the short term however, it is perfectly possible for you to attain that position of co-learning with the local people whereby the people are finally responsible for what actions they finally decide to take. This can only be achieved if the people are given the unreserved opportunity to participate as fully as possible in all the stages of development interventions. In the field look out for possible barriers to participation- for instance:

Example of the barriers to women participation:

- i. Lack of time due to heavy workload and family responsibilities
- ii. Lack of experience and confidence
- iii. Lack of education, training and access to information
- iv. Lack of mobility

- v. Difficulty in talking to outsiders
- vi. Lack of familiarity with procedures
- vii. Difference to men
- viii. Fear of retribution e.g. physical violence
- ix. Cultural constraints

Overcoming the barrier

- Choose staff carefully
- Train staff in gender awareness
- Choose time, venue of meetings carefully
- Provide for child care create time for mothers
 - Spend time explaining concepts
 - Confidence building training for women
 - Work with men to increase their understanding of the need for women's involvement

Barriers to participation of people with disabilities:

- i. Being forgotten in activities that do not specifically deal with disability
- ii. Lack of information about the disabled and their problems
- iii. Isolation due to cultural attitude
- iv. Not knowing how to involve them
- v. Physical access to buildings
- vi. Transport solutions

Solutions:

- Work through organizations for the disable
- Suitable transport and venues
- Include disabled, their pictures in all training materials
- Develop disability resource Centre
- Provide disability awareness session for staff

Barriers to participation of ethnic groups

- i. Personal prejudice
- ii. Language difference
- iii. Considered as second class citizens

Solutions

- i. Suitable communication channels and language
- ii. Language and literacy training
- iii. Adopt training materials
- iv. Take into account different traditional practices
- v. Awareness training for staff
- vi. Involve ethnic group members on all programmes

In order to ensure that all people are involved and their views incorporated in development interventions, it is necessary to be conversant with participatory methods and tools developed over the years. What they are and why they were developed are subjects of our next discussions and indeed this course.

The Background to Participatory Appraisals

What is Participatory Appraisal?

Participatory Appraisal or PA can be described as: "a growing family of approaches and methods used to enable people to analyze and share their knowledge of life and local conditions. Through PA, both local people living in rural and urban areas are able to identify their own priorities and make decision about the future"

Why did PRA develop?

PRA grew out of dissatisfaction with traditional development theory during 1980s. Before then, it was believed that development in the third world could come about through economic growth based on technology transfer and finances. By the 1970s it was clear that this approach to development was a failure. In particular the problems that existed in the methods then used to "find out" information from communities and to direct projects, such as rural development tourist and questionnaires > Rapid rural appraisal was a response to this.

(a) Rural Development Tourism

A process by which development experts" or outsiders would pay a short visit would be base project decisions on this visit. This visit would be based by a number of aspects, including:

- Time of day – usually only around midday, on day trips from a city base
- Time of year- rarely in the rainy season when access is difficult or uncomfortable
- Roadside- generally arriving in cars and seeing areas only close to the roads
- Income- visits would be made only to the wealthier households, not poorer ones
- Gender- usually only men often the leaders
- Project bias- showcase village or technology is shown to all outsiders to create an impression of success.

(2) Questionnaires

A process that generally involves asking local people questions designed beforehand. The information is statistically analyzed by experts and average values or answers determined. Although there can be a role for sensitively designed questionnaires, it is generally accepted that these are also potentially subject to biases.

- Enumerator bias, commitment and interest
- Phrasing of questions, restrictions of answers accepted
- Creating averages, hiding diversity
- Statistical analysis is time consuming and costly, in administration and analysis time
- Verifying the information is not easy

The questionnaire designer determines the questions in advance yet they cannot know which issues are important for the local people. Many contextual issues that could help clarify issues are too often ignored. The enumerator himself may be ill trained and may prompt answers.

Because of the above flaws in the conventional approaches, development practitioners began experimenting with alternatives. One of the very first alternatives was RRA. In the 1980s, several other approaches that all rely on the investigation and analysis by the local people themselves came into being.

Examples include:

PAR	-	Participatory Action Research
PALM	-	Participatory Analysis and Learning
PRAP	-	Participatory Rural Appraisal and Planning
PTD	-	Participatory Technology Development
RAT	-	Rapid Assessment Techniques
DEALT	-	Development Education Leadership Team
PRA	-	Participatory Rural Appraisal
MARP	-	Methodes Accelere de Recherche Participative

These alternative systems of learning may have different names and applications but they all share certain common features:

- Outsiders and local learn from one another leading to action
- Diversity of views, evaluation of situations are encouraged
- Flexible and adaptable

- Experts just facilitate the process

The PRA approaches and method are more than simply a tool that can be used by outsiders in order to learn more about the realities of local people lives. It is also a process, which enables local people to conduct their own analysis, in a way which is meaningful to them.

What does PRA do?

- Focuses on visual methods of communication, which are not exclusive and enable those whose voices are rarely heard to actively participate. Information is shared
- Allows comparisons and relative values to be discussed and does not depend on specific measurements or quantification of results
- Seeks diversity, recognizing that peoples lives and ideas are diverse and complex, and does not create averages or demand homogeneity
- Encourages group work as well as individuals, to enable discussion, expressions of difference and checking or correction, also transparency.
- Actively engages people in the process of analysis, planning and ultimately monitoring and evaluation.
- Moves from closed ownership of information extracted by experts to public ownership of the process and the outputs
- Empower local people to control the process and set their own agenda

In PRA, the importance of facilitators' skills in enabling appraisal, discussion and planning to occur are recognized. information is shared, and, both the local people and the outside facilitator are seen to have strengths and complimentary access to knowledge. An advantage of an external facilitator is that they should not have a hidden local agenda, and should not re- enforce local power structures

Innovation and application

Although PRA had its origins in South Asia, it is now being widely applied in many areas, on a world – wide basis. It came to East Africa in the late 1990s. The range of contexts in which PRA is being used is expanding with a broad range of different types of organisation adopting PRA, for instance it is being used in:

Natural resource management, Agric, L/stock, forestry, irrigation, drainage, soil and water conservation, Poverty programmes, Health and well-being, Urban development, Adult literacy, Emergencies, early warning, refugees, Gender analysis, Institutional analysis, Etc.

Features of PRA

1. Triangulation – a form of cross-checking by ensuring the right composition, use of different sources, mix of techniques and a multidisciplinary team
2. Flexibility and informality
3. In the community- learn from, with and by the community members
4. Optimal ignorance with respect to detail, accuracy and bulk of information
5. On-the-spot analysis and learn progressively
6. offsetting biases and being self-critical

Advantages of PRA

- Involve local people- empowerment
- Use local classifications and terminology
- Ownership and analysis by local people
- Range of circumstances explorable
- Each issue can be explored in many ways
- Multidisciplinary backgrounds and experiences
- Personal critical awareness

- Possible discovery of new perspectives in tackling problems
- Applicable to different fields

Disadvantages

- Time consuming collecting and analyzing information
- Can raise expectations of local people
- Gender biased
- Need lot of resources- staff and money
- Difficult to find right questions to ask
- Difficult to find the poorest people and to get them to share and analyse information
- A few people e.g. opinion leaders, can dominate the discussion

Dangers of PAR Rushing

- Routinisation
- Forced- or one-off use
- Faddism
- Jumping on the bandwagon
- Rhetorical adoption only
- Inadequate training
- Use of methods only, not approach
- Institutional claim to “ownership” of PRA.

BEHAVIOUR AND ATTITUDES REQUIRED DURING PRA

The behavior and attitude of the ‘outsider’ is the key to the PA process.

- True participatory work cannot be carried out without appropriate behavior and attitudes. Facilitators should continually assess their own behavior and attitudes.
- PA is not a “ tool” - it is an approach, and the tools cannot be used in isolation.
- The participatory “ ethics “ is an important as the methods, they are complimentary skills.
- Behavior and attitudes are paramount, and should be considered throughout the whole PA process

Facilitators should:

<i>Show respect</i>	<i>Watch, listen, and learn</i>	<i>Support and share</i>
<i>Establish rapport</i>	<i>Learn from mistakes</i>	<i>Be honest</i>
<i>Abandon preconceptions</i>	<i>Be self critical and self aware</i>	
<i>Handover the stick</i>	<i>Be flexible</i>	

Facilitators need to strike a balance and neither under-nor over – facilitate the process.

“ Self critical awareness”

Throughout the process the facilitator should remain aware of all aspect of their behavior and attitudes, and frequently attempt to analyse and improve this.

“Embracing error”

If outsiders are continually aware of and assessing their performance and the process, then there is the opportunity to learn from all that is taking place. This includes both positive and problematic experiences. This recognition of our mistakes, and their use as part of the process of continual learning is a fundamental part of our behavior and attitudes. It is important to recognize when things have gone wrong, for example if the setting of mapping exercise was inappropriate or if facilitators failed to hand over the stick, and to attempt to improve on this next time.

“ Sabotage” and “ dominance”

The idea of a saboteur or a dominator as some one who disrupts the PRA process is an important one since it affects the degree of local participation.

- o Both are usually unconscious.
- o Both are best managed by involvement.
- o “ Sabotage the saboteur”, before they sabotage the process.
- o Do not allow a dominator to take control – isolate but involve.
- o Facilitators can also be saboteurs and dominators, again this is usually unconscious. Teams of facilitators should agree on ways to remind each other about sabotage and dominance – i.e. in a team contract.

In team discussions:

- Wave a yellow card if one person is dominating or side – tracking make a joke of it!
- Give each person a finite number of match sticks (‘live’) one must be given up each time a person talks until that person lives are finished and they can no longer speak – each input into the discussion is considered and relevant!
- Analyse dynamics by recording each time individual team members speak, along with the duration of the speech and whether they were interrupted or did the interrupting!

During field work:

Others in the team can try “shoulder tapping” a team member if he or she is being dominant, asking leading questions, lecturing not listening or not handing over the stick.

PRA and the Project Cycle

As a community development worker the development activities or project you and your community members will be involved in can be viewed as proceeding in a cycle.

People should be involved not only in the implementation of projects but also in all the other stages.

A project is simply a set of activities designed to solve a problem (s) within a period of time.

The stages involved in the project cycle can be described as;

1. Information collection (Needs Assessment)
2. Project identification stage (Possible activities to meet the identified needs)
3. Planning stage – What, how, by whom, when, using what resources, at what costs.
4. Implementation stage – actual work
5. Monitoring – information about progress

6. Evaluate – final analysis, lessons learnt and recommendations involving the community members in all these stages will ensure success

Participation will yield the following benefits:

1. Ownership of the project
1. People's interest in and commitment to the project will be proportional to their sense of ownership, i.e., the extent to which they can influence decisions and feel that their needs are being addressed
2. Relevance of the project
3. By drawing on the experiences and views of different people, the true nature of the problems they face and the solutions to those problems will become more attuned to the prevailing local circumstances
4. Sustainability of the project
5. Access to the project benefits
6. Through participation different people are aware of the project and that the project and its output does not discriminate against some people on the basis of gender, disability, caste, age, education, etc.

The first activity of the project is needs assessment. There are several participatory tools one can use to collect information from and with the communities. But first, the PRA team needs appropriate communication skills to develop rapport, trust and friendship of the community members.

- 1) *Approach the community members with respect and humility*
- 2) *Shown respect and keen interest in their knowledge*
- 3) *Be prepared to listen to them and to put their ideas to use*
- 4) *Don't think, conclude and plan for them. They are capable of thinking and planning for themselves*
- 5) *By sharing information and ideas and working together what will eventually accomplish will be more effective*

Methods

- *Access to resources.*

A series of participatory exercises that allows development practitioners to collect information and raises awareness among beneficiaries about the ways in which access to resources varies according to gender and other important social variables. This user-friendly tool draws on the everyday experience of participants and is useful to men, women, trainers, project staff, and field-workers.

- *Analysis of tasks.*

A gender analysis tool that raises community awareness about the distribution of domestic, market, and community activities according to gender and familiarizes planners with the degree of role flexibility that is associated with different tasks. Such information and awareness is necessary to prepare and execute development interventions that will benefit both men and women.

- *Livelihood analysis*

This analysis

- Helps to understand better how H/Hs cope with day to day realities.
- Helps to establish the size, composition of H/Hs, their sources of income, their patterns of expenditure, their access to land and livestock etc.

- *Force field analysis.*

A tool similar to one called "Story With a Gap," which engages people to define and classify goals and to make sustainable plans by working on thorough "before and after" scenarios. Participants review the causes of problematic situations, consider the factors that influence the situation, think about solutions, and create alternative plans to achieve solutions. The tools are based on diagrams or pictures, which minimize language and literacy differences and encourage creative thinking.

- *Service-seeking behavior.*

A culturally sensitive tool for generation of data about service related activities. It produces qualitative data about the reasons behind certain practices as well as quantifiable information about beliefs and practices. This visual tool uses pictures to minimize language and literacy differences.

- *Logical Framework or LogFRAME.*

A matrix that illustrates a summary of project design, emphasizing the results that are expected when a project is successfully completed. These results or outputs are presented in terms of objectively verifiable indicators. The Logical Framework approach to project planning, developed under that name by the U.S. Agency for International Development, has been adapted for use in participatory methods such as ZOPP (in which the tool is called a *project planning matrix*) and TeamUP.

- *Needs assessment.*

A tool that draws out information about people's varied needs, raises participants' awareness of related issues, and provides a framework for prioritizing needs. This sort of tool is an integral part of gender analysis to develop an understanding of the particular needs of both men and women and to do comparative analysis.

- *Role playing.*

Enables people to creatively remove themselves from their usual roles and perspectives to allow them to understand choices and decisions made by other people with other responsibilities. Ranging from a simple story with only a few characters to an elaborate street theater production, this tool can be used to acclimate a research team to a project setting, train trainers, and encourage community discussions about a particular development intervention.

- *Secondary data review.*

Also called desk review, an inexpensive, initial inquiry that provides necessary contextual background. Sources include academic theses and dissertations, annual reports, archival materials, census data, life histories, maps, project documents, and so on.

- *Surveys.*

A sequence of focused, predetermined questions in a fixed order, often with predetermined, limited options for responses. Surveys can add value when they are used to identify development problems or objectives, narrow the focus or clarify the objectives of a project or policy, plan strategies for implementation, and monitor or evaluate participation. Among the survey instruments used in Bank work are *firm surveys*, *sentinel community surveillance*, *contingent valuation*, and *priority surveys*.

- *Tree diagrams.*

Multipurpose, visual tools for narrowing and prioritizing problems, objectives, or decisions. Information is organized into a treelike diagram that includes information on the main issue, relevant factors, and influences and outcomes of these factors. Tree diagrams are used to guide design and evaluation systems, to uncover and analyze the underlying causes of a particular problem, or to rank and measure objectives in relation to one another.

- *Village meetings.*

Meetings with many uses in participatory development, including information sharing and group consultation, consensus building, prioritization and sequencing of interventions, and collaborative monitoring and

evaluation. When multiple tools such as resource mapping, ranking, and focus groups have been used, village meetings are important venues for launching activities, evaluating progress, and gaining feedback on analysis.

- *Workshops.*

Structured group meetings at which a variety of key stakeholder groups, whose activities or influence affect a development issue or project, share knowledge and work toward a common vision. With the help of a workshop facilitator, participants undertake a series of activities designed to help them progress toward the development objective (consensus building, information sharing, prioritization of objectives, team building, and so on). In project as well as policy work, from preplanning to evaluation stages, stakeholder workshops are used to initiate, establish, and sustain collaboration.

Tools

1. Interviews

1a Semi-structured Interviews

This technique is also called conversational interviews, guided, non-standardized, less structured or non-directive interviewing. Semi-structured interviews do not have pre-defined structured but are interviews that are partially structured by a flexible interview guide with a limited number of preset questions. This kind of guide ensures that the interview remains focused on the development issue at hand while allowing enough conversation so that participants can introduce and discuss topics that are relevant to them. These tools are a deliberate departure from survey-type interviews with lengthy, predetermined questionnaires. They are comparatively easy to conduct and can provide good qualitative data on all kinds of topics.

The starting point of semi-structured interviews is the checklist containing 10 to 15 questions. New complexes of questions may arise during the interviews. Topics are always dealt with as they arise. It is often more efficient to interview groups, but individual respondents, like key informants, also play a major role. Depending on interviewed persons, the following distinctions can be made:

1b Group Interviews

May involve randomly encountered people or systematically selected groups. These may involve specific target groups or representative of certain segments of society, like women. The size would not exceed 10 persons so that all group members have a chance to talk. In the country studies, the term 'informal group discussion' has been used for interviews with farmers and farmers' associations, women's group, other village community members and grain traders.

1c Community Interviews

Involve all interested people may be useful for collecting information and ideas for planning, implementation and evaluation purposes.

1d Focus Group Interviews/meeting

This is a relatively low-cost, semi structured, small group (four to twelve participants plus a facilitator) consultations used to explore peoples' attitudes, feelings, or preferences, and to build consensus. Focus group work is a compromise between participant observation, which is less controlled, lengthier, and more in-depth, and preset interviews, which are not likely to attend to participants' own concerns. It concentrates on specific problems areas. The members should not be dependent on one another and should participate voluntarily. Farmer-scientist focus sessions are an efficient method of two-way learning.

1e Key Informant Interviews

Involve persons representative of certain categories (farmers, traders, etc.) or viewpoints, who are able to provide necessary information. They are useful tool for the analysis of post-production operations or for the collection of regional data.

The interviewed person, place and time must be selected carefully. Conduct interviews in conducive surroundings and at the time that do not interfere too much with daily working routines. Two interviewers are needed. The first one leads the discussion and the second one takes notes. Ask two neighbours the same questions about themselves and their neighbours and compare the answers.

The typical sequence of a interview is as follows:

1. Greetings and introduction of the interviewers and the people interviewed.
2. Explanation of the objective of the interview
3. Dialogue using open questions (why? Who?, What?, Where?, When?, How?...) and following the checklist (or interview guide) prepared beforehand.
4. Expression of thanks

2. Observation

2a Direct Observation

Direct observation means an intensive and systematic capturing of phenomena and processes that are observable on the spot. This includes the livelihood of the community, etc. The result should be crosschecked with other information like that obtained from interviews with key informants in order to verify their correctness. The result should be properly documented (written reports, videos, photos, drawings, etc.).

It may often be helpful to observe very early or late in the day or in places where the main action does not take place (e.g. Meeting-places, bars) in order to obtain "Unfiltered" information. Permission must be obtained from the local people for the use of aids like tape recorders, cameras or notebooks.

2b Participatory observation

Participatory observation provides avenues for collecting qualitative and quantitative data that leads to an in-depth understanding of peoples' practices, motivations, and attitudes, and understanding of the local community through participation in its every day activities. This technique entails investigating the project background, studying the general characteristics of a beneficiary population, and living for an extended period, say at least a two to three months, among beneficiaries, during which interviews, observations, and analyses are recorded and discussed. The documentation is done by taking notes on all observations made and on the outcome of all conversations every evening.

3. Resource and social mapping

3a Mapping.

This is a method of gathering in pictorial form baseline data. It provides a good starting point for participatory work because the people involved create a visual output that can be used immediately to bridge verbal communication gaps and to generate lively discussion. Maps are useful as verification of secondary source information, as training and awareness raising tools, for comparison, and for monitoring of change. Common types of maps include *health maps*, *institutional maps* (*Venn diagrams*), and *resource maps*.

A map is drawn in a group work that shows the resources and the social structure of a village or neighborhood. Such maps can provide information about public infrastructure (roads, water supply, utilities, etc.), other resources like mills or processing plants, residential structures and conditions, and the social situation of households. Resource maps can give useful information about the existing infrastructure for post-production operations in a given location.

- Enhances understanding local realities and how people perceive them.

- Helps as good communication aids even to the illiterate members of the community.
- Promotes active participation from local partners and foster their active implications in discussion about local resources, problems and opportunities.
- Once copied on a sheet of paper, it can be used for a long period to have constructive dialogue with local partners on various issues.

- 1) **Social maps** -To show where people live. Can be combined with wealth ranking to reveal socio – economic disparities. It is community drawn indicating community names, location and other important information concerning households. It may take about 1 hr to do it for 70 HH. Useful to gather information composition of HH, who attends school, who has been vaccinated, who is rich/poor/sick etc
- 2) **Mobility maps** -Movement of different groups and indicator of a person’s contact with outside world. This contact is closely linked to decision-making power in many societies. It may also be an indicator of freedom, wealth, empowerment, and education on consciousness.
- 3) **Daily routine diagrams**-Compare daily routines of different people and seasonal changes in routine.

3b Seasonal diagrams or seasonal calendars.

Seasonal calendars are drawn up in-group work on the basis of interviews and decisions. It shows the major changes and relationships that affect a household, community, or region within a year, such as those associated with climate, crops, labor availability and demand, livestock, prices, and so on. In this way changes over the year and connections between climate factors, cropping sequences, workload and many other topics can easily be visualized. It also highlights the times of constraints and opportunity, which can be critical information for planning and implementation.

3c Transects.

Transects analysis is called cross-section mapping. In PRA, transects are the most important techniques after guided interviews. Transects are used to expose the physical layout and problems of an area. The study area is systematically traversed together with the local informants on a route including all the important land type/uses. All observations are discussed and recorded. Transect are represented in simple maps in which different micro zones or units like field/ forest/ village can be distinguished. Very often, transects are used to assess agriculture related problems. Combined with a presentation or relevant resources they may also be considered as a way to tackle post-production problems.

On the basis of conversations with key persons, historical transects can also be drawn up to show what the situation was like at the various times in the past and to highlight the changes. However, avoid excessively detailed information. Indicate approximate distances. Give information about soil; land use, crops, problems areas, development potentials, etc.

Process of the transect walk

- Formation of sub groups make 4 sub groups if the territory is diverse.
- Determine the transect axis.
- Decide on the point to start the transect walk and make observations / answers of the questions.
- At the end each sub group makes a clear drawing of the transect conducted.
- Presentation of drawing to the community to discuss.

3d Timelines/trend

Timelines are also known as historical profiles or socio-cultural profiles- for they use oral history. Profiles include data about the type of communities, demographic characteristics, economy and livelihood, land tenure and natural resource control, social organization, factors affecting access to power and resources, conflict resolution mechanisms, and values and perceptions. It provides detailed information of the social, cultural, technical, economic, and environmental issues required in the preparation of policy and project work i.e., a

participation plan. It therefore helps ensure that proposed projects and policies are culturally and socially appropriate and potentially sustainable.

Timelines are used to visualize key historical events and major perceived changes. They consist in a simple listing of events according to date (often approximate). Natural resource factors (e.g. soil erosion, population growth or climatic changes) should be included. The decisions of local people are often strongly influenced by historical experiences. Therefore it is important for outsiders to take account of these facts. Timelines are developed during group discussions.

3e Diagram Representing Institutional landscape

Organisational setups can be well described and clearly depicted using diagram known as Venn or Chapatti diagrams. Venn diagrams require group sessions. They give an overview of the 'institutional landscape'. Key institutions groups or even persons within the community are drawn as circles of different sizes on big sheets of paper. The size indicates the relative importance attributed to them. Their relationships can be shown by the closeness or intersection of these circles or by arrows of different boldness that connects them. Two overlapping circles, for example, show that the institutions or groups represented by them have some members in common. Circles that are connected with bold arrows show strong relationships and fine arrows show less developed relationships. It goes without saying that the arrows may point in one or other or even both directions depending on the nature of the relationships.

3f Manufacturing models

Simple small-scale models can be used to resolve conflicts in decision-making on, for instance, the setting up of village processing unit or the layout of a village market. They enable people to envisage the consequences and implications of decisions and to negotiate alternatives. They allow people who otherwise have little say to participate in decision-making processes.

Models should be large enough (at least 2x3 m) and made from cheap and locally available materials like wood, stones, mud, straw, seeds, and sand.

3g Visual forms of presentations

In all kinds of workshops, including planning and evaluation sessions, visual presentations are required. In PRA and PRA flip-charts, blackboards, pinboards with cards, posters, photos, videos, overhead transparencies and local materials like stones and seeds are useful tools. Their use has many advantages such as:

- Information presented can be easily grasped
- A common language is quickly established
- Focus for discussion and debates
- Facilitation of group analysis
- Use of local classifications and perceptions is possible
- Good to help probe
- Can lead to new exercises
- Empowering of the target group
- Pleasant work

The final result of any PRA or PRA study must always be developed in a participatory workshop using visual techniques so that the actors, if necessary can analyze the findings, corrected.

- *Pocket charts.*

Investigative tools that use pictures as stimuli to encourage people to assess and analyze a given situation. Through a 'voting' process, participants use the chart to draw attention to the complex elements of a development issue in an uncomplicated way. A major advantage of this tool is that it can be put together with whatever local materials are available.

4. Ranking and Scoring Techniques

4a Ranking of preferences

Preference ranking (also called direct matrix ranking) is used to identify problem areas quickly and to compare individual assessments. The units to be ranked are either collected in a group session, for example by brainstorming or derived from information collected from key informants. The preferences are identified by assigning scores (e.g. from 5 = most important to 1 = least important). Ranking allows participants to understand the reasons for local preferences and to see how values differ among local groups. Understanding preferences is critical for choosing appropriate and effective interventions. Do not exceed 5 or 6 units to be ranked at a time.

- Quick to identify the preference of a group(s) of people.
- Similar to voting.
- Involves asking each respondent in turn to rank his/her preference about a particular topic.
- Give chance to give reasons for these choices.

4b Ranking by pairs

A maximum of five or six selected units are noted on cards and shown to the interviewed persons two at a time. The persons are asked to indicate the proffered unit or the biggest problem unit all combinations have been gone through. The interviewed persons are also requested to explain their decisions briefly.

4c Matrix ranking and Matrix scoring

In matrix ranking a class of object is evaluated by applying different criteria and assigning a value from 5 (well suited) to 1 (poorly suited). In matrix scoring the weighting criteria is not fixed on the scale but is left to the people doing the analysis. Matrix scoring has become more common than matrix ranking in recent years. Matrix scoring was very useful in the country studies for selecting commodities to study.

4d Wealth Ranking (Social Stratification)

In every community, there are inequalities in wealth. These inequalities determine behaviours, views and activities the individual will engage in.

Wealth ranking allows the PRA team to; -

- Investigate perceptions of wealth differences in inequalities in a community.
- Discover local indicators and criteria for wealth ranking.
- Establish the relative position of households in a community.
- It is based on the assumption that the community as a whole will have a good sense of which members is more or less wealthy. Remember, however, that, this is the perception of community. It could therefore be useful to cross – check, for using direct observation, to verify the results.
- This exercise can form a basis for the evaluation of the impact of a programme. It can also be a useful introduction to the discussion of coping strategies, opportunities, problems and possible solutions.

Wealth ranking is also known as well-being ranking or vulnerability analysis, a technique for the rapid collection and analysis of specific data on social stratification at the community level. It is employed to capture differences in living standards as perceived by people. As the criteria differ from place to place, they should be defined by the local community under study.

This visual tool minimizes literacy and language differences of participants as they consider factors such as ownership of or use rights to productive assets, lifecycle stage of members of the productive unit, relationship of the productive unit to locally powerful people, availability of labor, and indebtedness.

Wealth ranking starts with number list of households. Each household number is copied on to a card. Key informant familiar with all the households are asked independently of one another to place the cards on stacks corresponding to certain categories based on their criteria. The result is visualized in a matrix.

Wealth ranking may be used to describe socio-economic situation of the actors in the post-production system analysis.

Some problems that can be encountered in wealth ranking are:

- It does not work in densely populated areas with a high turnover of residents
- It becomes unmanageable if more than 100 to 150 households are involved
- It can be problematic in communities with an egalitarian orientation
- Information can be deliberately distorted in the hope of receiving subsequent support

5. Other methods

5a Identifying key area and using key indicators

Key questions are asked in order to identify the central problems and study areas. (E.g. "Which problems most affects your farming activities?"). Then a study plan is drawn up and techniques for individual study areas are identified

Criteria are identified for phenomena that cannot be observed directly, such as aspects relating to political and social structures. Some of these criteria (e.g. standard of living) are assessed using indicators that are simple to observe (the condition of houses, granaries, equipments, tools or clothes, for example, reflects the living standard). These assessments are made by the locals themselves using ranking/rating/sorting techniques.

The proper use of key indicator requires some practice. It is recommended that local indicators reflecting people's criteria for assessing living standards etc. are used to start with. Local indicators may differ greatly from those assumed by outsiders for a given phenomenon. For example, in Africa rural societies the standard of living is not necessarily reflected by the size and condition of the house, clothes, and school attendance etc. but may be expressed through the numbers of wives of the family heads, the size of a cattle herd or other local indicators.

5b Local Knowledge and classification

The full integration of existing local know-how is decisive for project success. Local classification and categories may be more precise and appropriate than the one used by outsiders. This factor plays, for example, an important role in the use of crop varieties, processed products and dishes or in the use of units for marketing. The use of local classifications facilitates communication with the target group.

As far as the documentation is concerned care should be taken to relate local classifications to internationally known and accepted ones so that conversion can easily be made by anyone.

5c Farming systems analysis

- Helps to understand how the vast majority of our partners survive.
- Helps to understand in details the inputs (Labour, seeds manure) to produce crops, livestock, building materials, firewood) etc on a farm.
- Help to know the inputs, outputs, relationship between the farm and external (off-farm) people e.g. laborers, agric. Extensionists or traders – markets, water sources.

- Helps to understand the main constraints that our partners meet in their daily activities.

Source: World Bank Participation Sourcebook and A. Bell, F. Mazaud, O. MÜck -FAO/GTZ- 'Guidelines for Analysis of Post-production System'.

Gender Analysis Matrix

Gender refers not to women or men *per se*, but to the relations between them. Gender is not determined biologically, or as a result of sexual characteristics of either men or women, but is constructed socially. It is the central organising principle in society and often governs the processes of production and reproduction, consumption and distribution.¹ Gender as distinguished from sex, therefore, denotes a social-structural feature² - thus gender is a property of individuals, culture and social institutions -that is a cultural gloss superimposed on the foundation of sex.³

Consequently, there are various roles (reproductive, productive and community based), behaviour, and expectations assigned to men or women in a given society and at a given time on the basis of various factors (social, cultural, ideological, religious, ethnic, economic, political, etc.). Interestingly, in nearly all societies, these role allocations specify a subordinate position for women. For instance, in many Ugandan societies women are considered as visitors without any place both in their parental homes as well as in their marital homes. They are treated as voiceless people who also have no right to ownership, inheritance, child custody and, in most cases, without a name.

This inequality makes women (wife, mother, sister and daughter) invisible and irrelevant⁴ thus they become defined as 'appendages of men—husband, son and father [to whom she is attached]. Men, therefore, use these to perpetuate power imbalance⁵; a situation worsened by the property relations now that subordinate women's identity as a housewife and mother.⁶ As a result women have been owned as properties, subjected to violence, and denied their human rights, among others. This case has been noted in the report to Women Empowerment Programme by an experience story of one of the trainees in the adult education programme:

After living in marriage for 23 years, we totally realised that we were not meant for each other. My husband was a drunkard, polygamist, irresponsible, ... and a wife beater. My daughters were forced into teenage marriage, all our crops in the gardens were usually sold and the proceeds used in drinking, etc. and the only way out was to call it quit when he nearly killed me with an arrow. I went to my father's home with my youngest children [who were grabbed away at the age of 7]... he [collected his bride wealth and] grabbed away all the household assets: gardens, livestock and house wares. I started a new life again⁷.

¹ www.fao.org/News/1997/introG-e.htm

² Kerstan Birgit, "Gender-Sensitive Participatory Approaches in Technical Cooperation - Trainer's Manual for Local Experts", (Eschborn: GTZ), 1996, in Doris Günter and Elke Zimprich, *Gender- Orientation in the Post-Harvests Sector*, (Eschborn: GTZ), 2000.

³ Tony Bilton, et al, *Introductory Sociology*, 3rd Edi., (Hong Kong: Macmillan Press) , 1996.

⁴ Jonathan H. Turner, *The Structure of Sociological Theory*, 6th ed., (USA: Wadsworth Publishing Co.), 1998.

⁵ Ibid, (Theories of Gender Inequalities and Stratification)

⁶ See Stevi Jackson, *Women and the Family* in Diane Richardson and Victoria Robinson, ed., *Introducing Women Studies: Feminist Theory and Practice*, (Hong Kong: Macmillan), 1993.

⁷ Alfred Lakwo and Charles Mutalya, *Report on Women and Legal Rights Discussions held in Women Empowerment Programme (WEP) - Women Action Centres (WACs) between 19th - 21st September 1999*, WEP, (Nebbi, u.p), 1999.

Culture has played a leading role in entrenching this patriarchal status. As a way of life, culture has given rise to cultural traits; complexes and patterns that have made women subordination seem universal. Gender roles through socialisation and internalisation has perpetuated masculinity and femininity in individuals and the society, trapping individuals in social stereotype that malign women.

It is, therefore, common knowledge that in both the private (domestic and personal) and public (political and economic) dichotomy, women have been subjects of physical, psychological and sexual oppression. The gendered division of labour render women uneconomical/unproductive due to the non-, un- and under-paid labour structure within which they have been confined. This has placed women as economically dependent on men.

However, the centre of it all is the power relations in regards to *'who has what?; who is able to give what?; and who control and benefits from what?'* The deconstruction of gender difference and the move towards gender equality now demands a gender difference reversal with a strategic public and domestic politics to create an egalitarian society, households, and a non-sexist environment, while ensuring equity between sexes in all spheres of life.

The Analysis Process

- Helps to understand social difference between men and women
- Can predict how community members will participate in activities, whether these will be effective and how men and women might benefit from them.
- It looks at mainly the activity profile, productive activities and community activities.
- It also looks at the access and control over resources.

Trace:

- The living conditions in the community (infrastructure, culture, wealth, village development)
- Family structures and status of men and women (rights, roles, material well-being, family stability, effects of death on a spouse)
 - Who does what?
 - How is the work organized?
 - What terms are associated with the work?
 - How long is it always done?
- Livelihood activities
 - Main activities and its calendar
 - Division of labour within the family and its calendar
 - Access to, control over and benefit from
 - what factor of production?
 - what support services?
 - use of household products?
 - decision making processes?
 - ownership of valuable assets?