Training Manual

on

Participatory Rural Appraisal

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1. INTRODUCTION

The PLA/PRA approach is used with the following assumptions:

1. Rural communities form active foundation for rural development
2. Communities need committed local leaders to stir up their development
3. Communities have knowledge and information but it needs to be organized
4. Communities have resources but they need to be mobilized. They can introduce projects, acting primarily on their own resources.
5. Community organizations are among the many, which are under utilized resources available for development efforts.
6. External units such as Government technical experts and extension workers, NGOs, and international organizations often can provide substantial technical, financial or managerial assistance that is critical to rural communities.
7. Thus, PLA/PRA brings together on the one hand, development needs defined by the community members and on the other, skills of Government, donor agencies and NGOs. It integrates traditional knowledge systems and external technical knowledge in the development process.

PRA helps communities to:
- Mobilize their human and natural resources
- Define problems
- Consider previous successes and failures
- Evaluate priorities and opportunities
- Prepare a systematic and site specific plan of action (CPA)

The objectives of the PRA workshop:
The content included in the PLA/PRA training are simple and do not require high caliber or mathematical thinking. But require minds which are prepared to accept a new way of learning, a new of doing things and that we have limited knowledge of something. The ultimate aim of PLA/PRA workshop is:
1. To build up a permanent "people first" attitudes in the minds of the participants. To show that "people are capable agents to change their own lives" but require limited out side assistance.
2. To establish a notion of "respect" to the people's knowledge in the life of professionals and their institutions.
3. To provide simple analytical tools to analyze rural situations.
4. To show some of the analytical tools to the community in the field setting and understand their suitability to farmer situation.
5. To enhance participant's ability to plan with the community.

2. PARTICIPATION
2.1 Definition
*   The involvement of significant number of persons in situations or actions which enhance their well-being, i.e. their income, security, self esteem.
*   Giving more attention to decentralized development.
*   Recognition of the need to understand and use local approaches to development.

Other examples of definitions:
A)   Participation is considered a Voluntary Contribution by the people to one or another of public programs supposed to contribute to national development, but the people are not expected to take part in shaping the program or criticizing its content.
B)   Participation means . . . in its broadest sense, to Sensitize people and, thus, to increase the receptivity and ability of rural people to respond to development programs, as well as to encourage local initiatives.
C)   With regard to rural development. . . participation includes people's involvement in decision making processes, implementing programs . . . their sharing in the benefits of development programs, and their involvement in efforts to evaluate such programs.
D)   Popular participation in development should broadly understood as the active involvement of people in decision-making process in so far as it affects them.
E)   Community involvement means that people, who have both the right and duty to participate in solving their own problems, have greater responsibilities in assessing their needs, mobilizing local resources and suggesting new solutions, as well as creating and maintaining local organizations.
F)   Participation considered to be an active process, meaning that the person or group in question takes initiatives and asserts his/her or its autonomy to do so.
G)   The organized efforts to increase control over resources and regulate institutions and movements of those hitherto excluded from such control.

2.2 Typology of participation

Typology	Characteristics of each type
1. Passive or Participation	People participate by being told what is going to happen has already happened. It is a unilateral announcement by an administration or project management without listening to people's responses. The information being shared belongs only to external professionals.
2. Participation in	People participate by answering questions posed by extractive researchers

Information Giving	Questionnaire surveys or similar approaches. People do not have the opportunity to influence proceedings, as the findings of the research are neither shared nor checked for accuracy.
3. Participation by Consultation	People participate by being consulted, and external people listen to views. These external professionals define both problems and solutions, and may modify these in the right of people's responses. Such a consultative process does not concede any share in decision-making, and professionals are under to obligation to take on board people's view.
4. Participation for material incentive	People participate by providing resources, for example labor, in turn for food, cash or other material incentives. Much on-farm research falls in this category, as farmers provide the fields but are not involved in the experimentation or the process of provide the fields but are not involved in the experimentation or the process of learning. It is very common to see this called participation, yet people have not stake in prolonging activities when the incentives end.
5. Functional Participation	People participate by forming groups to meet predetermined objectives related to the project, which can involve the development or promotion of externally initiated social organization. Such involvement does not tend to be at early stages of project cycles or planning, but rather after major decisions have been made. These institutions tend to be dependent on external initiators and facilitators, but may become self-dependant.
6. Interactive Participation	People participate in joint analysis, which leads to action plans and the formation of new local institutions or the strengthening of existing ones. It tends to involve interdisciplinary methodologies that seek multiple perspectives and make use of systematic and structured learning processes. These groups take control over local decisions, and so people have a stake in maintaining structures or practices.
7. Self-Mobilization	People participate by taking initiatives independent of external institutions to change systems. They develop contracts with external institution for resources and technical advice they need, but retain control over how resources are used. Such self-initiated mobilization and collective action may or may not challenge existing inequitable distributions of wealth and power.

Participation must . . .

* Contribute to the quality of project
  - Add value
  - Have a multiplier effect

- Have a long lasting effect
- Improve the status of participant

* Involve
- Leading from behind
- Clarifying objectives
- Learning together
- Making sure no one is left behind

* Organize
- Ensure order, sequence
- Ensure self government
- Show direction

* Empower
- Help all to listen to the smaller voices
- Facilitates sustainability
- Provide for "Letting go"

Empowerment implies control of
- Technology
- Information
- Material resources
- Money
- Decision-making

Participation may tend to be passive but control over the above is liberating!!

3. PARTICIPATORY RURAL APPRAISAL,

The origin of PRA (as coined by Robert Chambers) as an approach to development planning and as a method of investigation evolved from many different sources. Some of the sources were modified to be utilized in a participatory mode, and the others were taken up as they were used for investigation and planning. Some of the few critical sources of the PRA methods presented in the workshop were the following.

3.1 Biases of rural development tourism
Development plans of the past focused on potential area and resourceful people development. The purpose of development was to increase productivity on potential areas with the introduction of new techniques and technologies and to concentrate efforts on limited section and supply surplus to the markets. The professionals briefly pay visit to those potential areas often closer to the main road and urban locations, where inputs could be easily distributed. An increase in production on those fertile lands would not have been however difficult.

The investigation and planning experts visit men who are living in a better condition and do not visit women, spend more time discussion with elites than the poor.

Even if visits have been done, it was in the dry and cool weather than hot and wet season. The situation investigated in reality was that of a single season,

gender and resource biased. PRA realizes rural complexity and people heterogeneity. Farm systems consist of several elements, which are affected by seasons. During rainy season, the system becomes productive and in the dry season crop cultivation stops, etc. The poor and marginalized people live on meager sources and are neglected.

PRA believes in that, if opportunities are given, then poor people can create circumstance to change their own situation. Outsiders should support them with their skills so that they become creative.

3.2 Shortcoming (defects) of questionnaire methods

Rural /Urban situation were investigated using questionnaire prepared by experts. The target population under study does not influence survey process and is ignorant about what is going to be done. Because, the process is controlled by experts.

Some of the defects of questionnaire surveys and the changes made by PRA were the following.

Questionnaires methods	PRA Methods
- Questionnaires formulated by researcher	- Checklist prepared by a team
- Enumerator conduct the interview	- Multidisciplinary team facilitate and open dialogue
- Close ended questions used	- Open ended themes + questions
- Fixed sample frame	- Purposive sampling
- Each informant is asked the same set of questions	- Guiding to discussion visualization
- The same question for all segment of population	- Triangulation; sources of information change, men, women, different questions
- Researcher does not observe events	- Observation of even & taking notes
- Analysis takes time	- On the spot analysis
- The process is not influenced	- Informant ask questions, open discussion, two way communication

In PRA method groups meet together and make analysis of situations. Discussion groups cold be deliberately selected individuals, or key informants of specialized group in this case the group takes the led in visualization and analysis of situations with limited facilitation of experts.

3.3 Activist participatory Research

In the late 1960s and 70s Catholics in Latin America realized the situation of the poor and marginalized people. The people were politically suppressed, economically destitute, socially marginalized. The church decided to involve in change of material life of the people as well.

The poor and marginalized people were invited to come together and discuss on their problems and find out their own solutions. The poor people were perceived as the means of making up of their own lives.

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The church organized massive training programs for facilitators or change agents. The agents lived with the people and organized various functional groups.

Researchers and other development operators took up the idea. Many participatory action groups were formed for research and development purpose.

Three perspective ideas were taken up from the participatory work in Latin America.
1. Poor people are creative and capable and can and should do much of their own investigation, analysis and planning.
2. Outsiders have roles as convenors, catalysts and facilitators.
3. The weak and marginalized can and should be empowered.

3.4 Applied Anthropological Surveys
Anthropologist is study societies from their own perspective. They use local knowledge and experiences as their basis of analysis.

Anthropologist stays in the community for longer period and closely observes social interactions, record behaviors, and roles. Conducts open and free discussions on values and experiences with group or people who are knowledgeable. Through experience an appreciation to the richness and validity of rural knowledge was developed.

Some of the many insights and contributions coming form and shared with social Anthropologists have been:

- The idea of field learning as flexible art rather than rigid science.
- The value of field residence, unhurried participant-observation and conversation.
- The importance of attitude, behavior and rapport.
- The insider-outsiders distinction.
- The validity of indigenous technical knowledge.

3.5 Agro-ecosystem Analysis
Late 1970x a group of researchers in Thailand introduced visualization and the use of simple local materials for resource analysis. Local people activity participated in the analysis of farming systems. Checklists, opposed to questionnaire methods were used and developed. The period for study and the amount of cost involved was low. The experience led to the use of PRA tools and techniques for rural participatory analysis and planning purpose.
Contribution of Agroecosystems analysis to PRA involvement:-

- Transect walking for resource assessment –systematic walks and observations with local informants.
- Informal mapping-sketch maps drown on site depicting locations of physical resources and social and economic infrastructures.

- Diagramming-drawing seasonal calendars, flow and causal diagrams, bar charts, venn diagrams on the group using local materials to open a detailed discussion with people.
Innovation assessment: scoring and ranking different actions and preferences of people.

3.6 Farming systems research (FSR)
Farming systems research used methods, which contributed to PRA expansion. Researchers worked with people considered their problems and diversity of the environment.

- They used holistic and iterative approach for farming systems analysis and development.
- They involved farmer in an on farm research
- Investigated farmer decision-making criteria for adopting a new introduction.
- Linked development efforts to real felt problems of the people and worked within the capacity of farmers and their resource endowment.
- Used many classical techniques of extensive survey and field experimentation.

However, principal methods used such as extensive surveys and on-farm trials were still controlled by outsiders and were costly and time consuming. Thus PRA practitioners innovated PRA tools and techniques to reduce time and cost involved in the data collection and analysis before planning takes place. PRA proponents put the people in a position of controlling all planning process and implementation.

PRA as an approach and a method evolved from many sources, which were participatory in nature. It is taken as a method, which puts together a theoretical and empirical knowledge, and coined as a working method. The PRA methods were already independently applied by wider audience for various purposes. It was not difficult to introduce them for diversified group of people.

4. RAPID RURAL APPRAISAL

RRA is a semi-structured activity carried out in the field by a multi-disciplinary and is designed to quickly acquire new information on, and new hypothesis about rural life. In contrast to this PRA was defined as an investigation tool of the rural realities. But, sources of PRA were partly dealing with attitudes and behavior of the people; outsiders and discipline. Most of all appreciated rural technical knowledge about their environment and capability to plan and act with limited guidance from out side. Therefore, it was defined as:

"A family of approaches and methods to enable
rural people to present, share and analyze their
knowledge of life and conditions to plan and act,"
(Robert Chambers 1994)

4.1 Comparison of PRA and RRA

Both are systems of collecting and analyzing information about rural life in order to improve decisions.

Both consist of an approach and a set of techniques. The approaches are different; the techniques are almost the same.

RRA helps the outsider to have a better, more sympathetic understanding of rural life, thus improving his/her decisions.

PRA empowers the local community to analyze its situation and to improve its decisions. PRA is a close relative to **RRA**.

4.2 PRA principles and features
- Respecting people's knowledge and learning from them.
- Listening to the disadvantaged: Respect
- Optimal ignorance: Do not collect data, which you do not need.
- Flexibility: PRA does not stick to fixed plan to action.
- Visualization: All data collected from the people are visualized by them
- Triangulation
- It involves a team of people working with a community for several days.
- Analysis is done in the field
- Continuity

4.3 PRA has three pillars.
Development operators have got some practical and theoretical knowledge of realities. All knowledge is extractive. Nobody knows every thing of something. One has to be ready to learn from all kinds of people. Our learning basically are limited to one aspect of life. The pillars of learning say,

1. Unlearn yourself: learn to give up what you know when you come to learn. From the people listen carefully.
2. Use your own best judgment at all times: Be critical of what do learn.
3. Do it yourself: PRA is a method, which every one should try on one, has to facilitate PRA process in the field and comment on the approach.

4.4 Methods and role reversals
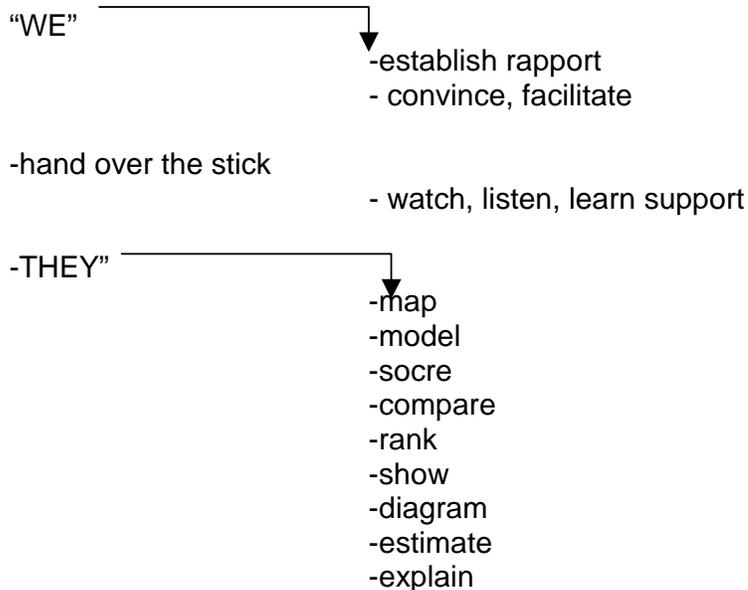PRA practice requires changes in the conventional way of working. The changes introduced were the following:

Methods reversal

Conventional method	PRA method
• Closed • Individual • Verbal	• Open • Group • Visual

• Counting	• Compare
Relationship	
• Extracting • Distance	• Empowerment • Rapport
Experience	
• Boredom • Frustration	• Fun/enjoyment • Relaxed

ROLE REVERSAL

"WE"

-establish rapport
- convince, facilitate

-hand over the stick

- watch, listen, learn support

-THEY"

-map
-model
-socre
-compare
-rank
-show
-diagram
-estimate
-explain

4.5 Scope of PRA and types of PRA

The scope of PRA: PRA tools and techniques could be used at all levels of project formulation and implementation. It could be used by all communities, all experts, people at all levels and living conditions. It could be used to identify, formulate, implement, monitor and evaluate projects So far many sectoral projects have been prepared and implemented.

There are three types of PRA:
Exploratory: PRA tools and techniques were widely used to diagnose the current situation such as farming system, health and health facilities, hygiene and sanitation, gender analysis livelihoods etc.
Topical: Application of PRA to specific area of concern i.e. soil fertility survey, water, specific disease, diet income sources etc. detailed studies.
Problem solving: Diagnosis of problems and suggestions of solution with participation of people.

The most important step in the PRA process is "handing over the stick" to the people. The people analyze their own situation. Plan actions and implement. People are creative and capable, and can and should do much of there won

investigation, analysis and planning. Outsiders have roles as convenors, catalysts and facilitators.

The second important part of a PRA is its techniques and methods innovated for field data collection and analysis. The data is collected and analyzed using a basket of tools" which help representation of realities in unusual form. The tools help to observe facts on the diagrams lead to best estimates; indicate peoples preferences and priorities etc. The PRA techniques and tools presented in the workshop situation were the following.

5. PRA TECHNIQUES AND METHODS

The most common methods are the following:

Diagramming, Mapping and Modeling:
- transects
- maps (resource, social, farm)
- venn diagrams
- seasonally analysis
- historical analysis (time lines, trend lines, activity profiles)

Ranking and scoring
- pair wise ranking
- matrix ranking
- matrix scoring
- well-being analysis and wealth ranking
- proportional piling
- pie charts (injera charts)

Problem analysis
- identification and specification
- causal chaining
- prioritization

5.1 Maps and Models – Diagrams

Spatial data is analyzed through diagrams, maps and models. The techniques are pictorial or symbolic representation of information.

The purposes of diagrams are:

- a tract and focus attention of discussion group
- represent objects on processes
- stimulate an open discussion
- provoke an effective group work
- facilitates education and information exchange
- assist in decision making
- help remember important points

- help in monitoring and evaluation

5.2 Community Sketch Maps

The purposes of community sketch map or a model: is a visual representation of what the community perceives as their community space. This include showing the shape (appearance) of the community, boundary and all the major features as understood and known by the community.

The map shows where resources, activities, problems and opportunities are located, as well as the dimension and scope of issues to be investigated. It is critical to understanding the boundaries and characteristics of the community involved.

Topographical data (elevation, slope, drainage etc.) Topographical data are basic when drawing a map of community, so is information on soils, vegetation, water availability, road, schools, health facilities etc.

There are different sketch maps known for different purposes. Some of them include:

A. Social maps: Specific type of topical map representing households according to certain indicators.
- Indicates where people live and how many people live in an area
- Social and residential differences in status and wealth
- Buildings where people live or work, uses of space in a house

B. Physical and resource maps: drawn by the people to show natural resource of an area, location and use of natural resources.
- fields and land uses
- physical land features
- water location, quality and use
- soil types, uses, location

C. Topical maps: specific topic maps are drawn to draw attention to a particular type of information of the area, example:-
- location of forest resources
- soil types
- different crops grown
- houses and the number of people live in
- social & economic infrastructures etc.

D. Farm sketch: Making a farm or compound sketch highlight details that would otherwise be lost in a smaller scale maps.

Procedures for collecting spatial data

Who draws the maps?

The community members of their representatives together with the PRA team and the local extension field staff undertake this exercise. The various parties having different but complementary ideas to the process.

HOW?
The community members are the best experts of their area. While it is tempting for a team member to take charge and save time by drawing the map, it is advisable to let ordinary villagers draw the map on the ground. Literacy is not necessary in order to draw a map of one's place. The PRA team should explain the process clearly. The sketch map is drawn using their fingers, sticks and other locally available materials such as pebbles, leaves, and flowers. The community should be guided through questions to draw the map of their community territory of application.

Community sketch map helps in defining micro-zones, knowing about disparities in wealth, differences in land use. This exercise provides to locate areas where particular problems are thought to be prevalent.

The map is also used to lay the transect route. While the map is still on the ground the community members mark the most representative cross section of the community.

How should one proceed to sketch maps or models?
Before:- Decide what type of map you want
- Bring people together who will have some knowledge about the area and can contribute
- Choose suitable time and place
- Bring materials with you on which you can copy a map drawn on the ground.

During: Try to minimize your own participation be an observer?
- Encourage by asking op0en questions
- Encourage the use of different materials, i.e. flowers, twigs, sticks etc
- Be patient!

After:
- Maker a copy of the map or model, including mapper's names
- Try drawing the same type of map with different groups of people.
       i.e. one group of women, a group of old men and the young
- Keep it simple
- Orient it appropriately
- Cross-check the map, compare with what you see
- Draw it in the area of study with the local people.

5.3 Transect walk

A transect is a walk or a series of walks through an area with local informants to learn of the range of different condition, problems and opportunities in each of the area. It shows a cross section of the area as observed by the walk.

Purpose?

Transect provides mapping information beyond that collected during the initial reconnaissance and verifies the information on the sketch map. It adds detail on specific characteristics (slope drainage, vegetation, water, soils other sources) that further verifies the PRA team's understanding of the area.

What?
The transect should include more detailed and specific information than the sketch map, such as data on cropping pattern, trees, vegetation, farm size, problems and opportunities.

Who?
The PRA team, community representatives, and local extension staff take charge of this exercise. People encountered along the route should casually be interviewed to provide information on other observed conditions.

How ?
PRA team uses a simple technique of reviewing the community sketch map to estimated the line of greatest diversity. When the community members. Complete drawing of the sketch map, while the map is still on the ground, they debate, with the guidance of the PRA team about which route to take. The transect walk following the agreed route could be done on the same day the map is drawn: while walking:

-Assign responsibilities for observations and note taking to team members, for instance the agriculture should note soils, cropping patterns etc. the water officer should be responsible for water points, scope, and drainage, the social scientists should observe socio-economic indicators etc.

-The transect route can be subdivided and assigned to two or three smaller team so that a single team need not to walk the entire length

-Proceed along the designated route taking time for brief and informal interviews of residents in each of the ecological zones, time to discuss the critical issues already identified in the transect.

- At the end of the exercise, complete detailed notes and construct a chart similar to the example shown below.

Application
Information gathered will help to verify the information on the sketch map. It will help the community and the PRA team to identify and related opportunities. It will also show the most pressing problem, which may require a thought feasibility study and additional technical data.

The information displayed in the transect will be used during the development of the community action plan and to organize stratified sampling for further studies.

5.4 Mobility diagram

The community can get goods and services from different places. Some resources will be available with in the PA, others on the boundaries of the community. People daily, weekly and occasionally fetch for those resources in and out of their area. Therefore they travel long distances under difficult situations.

Purpose

The diagram is used to understand the places traveled, resources collected and to identify the persons travailing. The resource centers could have problems and the road and means of transportation may not be appropriate, PRA team needs to know the critical goods and services that people travel to fetch for.

What?

The community center and the places of goods and services are listed. The pull factors and the reasons for not having the resource at the center are recorded. The team tries to understand the condition of the resources, and opportunities to establish with in the community.

The community members may face difficulties on the road and may also be inconvenient to get goods and services at the destination.

Who?

The PRA team identifies individuals or groups who travel to other places on a purpose. Discussion with men and women travelers can give a clue about resource scarcity.

How?

- Select informants who travel for resources
- Write down as many places as possible visited and resources the most wanted.
- The difficulties faced on the way and at the destination discussed
- The informants mark on the ground the starting point and destination for different resources or services.

Application

The PRA team and informant record resources in short supply and the reasons for not having in the community. The community action plans include ways and means to get critical resources in the future. The difficulties faced on the road and at the resource center (destination) taken due consideration for improvement.

5.5 Venn Diagram (Institutional analysis)

Venn diagramming is a method to find out who, what person or organizations are important in and for a community.

Purpose

To identify groups and institutions operating in the community and to show how they interact with each other

To show the degree of their cooperation and involvement in development programs. To discover their important or influence on decision making in the community.

What?
Venn diagrams have been used with in PRA in institutional context to discuss:
- The role and significance of various institutions
- Levels of communication between organizations
- The role of project bodies and their intervention
  Improving missing links between existing organizations,
- Potential for working through existing organizations, which ones and with which links.
- Potential roles for new organization
- Formal and non-formal groups and their levels of cooperation
- Communities perceptions of the institutions, always

Who?
The PRA team, key informants as elders, religious leaders, extension staff and other knowledgeable person take the responsibility of listing and evaluation of individuals and institutions influencing decision making of the community.

How?
List institutions in the community and discuss importance of each institution and what they do.
Make different sized circles and not which circle represents each institution i.e. big circle very important and decision maker, small circle with little importance.

During overlapping the circles, the size of the circle indicates the importance of the institution, the distance between the circles indicate the degree of contact between institutions. For instance a large overlap high interaction. No overlap distant relationship.

Application
Identify individuals, groups or institutions. Important in the lives of people and establish close relationship with them. Provide the necessary support and effectively utilize their skills and experiences.

5.6 Time related data analysis

5.6.1 Time Lines
A list of key events in the history of the community that helps identify post trends, events, problems, and achievements in its life.

Purpose

The time line helps the team to understand what local or national events the community considers to be important in its history. The time line is prepared through discussion wit a small groups or elders. The significant events in the history of the community hitherto kept in oral form are now documented.

What
The time lines go back as many generations as villagers can recall. Time line records could include, forest history, diseases, diets etc. These discussions provide a good opportunity to ask elders about previous trends and traditional responses, as well as about possible opportunities to resolve current problems.

Time lines are recorded by the community elders and any other long term resident. The team can only assist by asking proving questions. The composition of the community institutions, such as church groups, self-groups, political units or the local administrations. Both women and men should be included.

How
Group discussions are preferred to interviews of key individuals because they encourage dialogue among the community members and Addis, helping them remember events form the distant past.

The elders should be asked to identify that shaped and influenced individual and the community activity large sheets of paper and felt pens should be used to write in large letter in the local language.

If there is difficulty in establishing dates for particular events, try to relate them to a renown event.

Application
This data re-in forces the community's perception of the evolving problems and the possible opportunities to be considered in the preparation of the CAP.

5.6.2 Trend Lines

Trend lines are helpful to understand the resident's perception of significant charges in the communities over time.

Purpose
Trend analysis will help the community to and PRA team to:

- Learn from the community how it views change over time in various sectors
- Integrate key changes into a village profile, which well simplify problem identification and
  - Begin to organize the range of opportunities for the community to consider.

What

Information could be collected on trends over the past ten to forty years in the areas that support the community. A core set of trends should include changes in water availability, soil loss and fertility, deforestation and tree planting, grazing, employment rates food production and population.

Trend lines can be discussed with community representatives including elders, long term residents, leaders of church groups, women groups, and self help groups. If possible, all ecological zones in the study site should be represented.

How
The following steps are important for proper generation of trend lines.

1. PRA team should carefully explain the measuring of trend lines to the community groups.

2. Explain the concept of trend lines using simple graphs. Demonstrate the meaning of the two lines. Show them how time moves form left to right along the horizontal axis, and how the rate of increase/decrease in resource use is indicated on the upright vertical axis.

3. When the community members have understood the concept, ask one of them to draw the two lines on the ground. Once this is done, years should be indicated at equal intervals along the horizontal line.
4. Use the discussion of trends to probe for explanation of the changes. This will help identify underlying problems and traditional activities to correct the situation. Find out what solutions have been tried in the past and how well they have worked.

Application
Trend lines provide useful baseline information for researchers operating on micro level follow ups of such aspects as population, food availability, school enrollment etc. It forms the basis upon which problem identification and options assessment is made during the preparation of the community action plan.

Group work: Population and land use changes over time.

Crop Production trends
Group work: Crop production trend analysis by year
(Cultivated area in %)
(Bedeno woreda)

Crop	1950 - 1966	1967 - 1975	1976 - 1983	1984 – 1991

Maize	26	27	27	30
Sorghum	37	18	4	9
Wheat	-	9	23	15
Coffee	15	20	21	26
Chat	7	10	15	17
Barley	11	9	-	3
Beans	4	7	-	-
	100	100	100	100

Changes in cropping area cultivated in a given period of time.

5.6.3 Seasonal calendar

The seasonal calendar attempts to establish regular cycles or patterns of activities and occurrences within a community over 12 months.

Purpose

A seasonal calendar helps present large quantities of diverse information in a common time frame. It compares community activities. Month by month, across sectoral boundaries. It identifies cycles of activity that occur within the life of community on a regular basis, and helps determine whether there are common periods of excessive environmental problems of opportunities over the course of normal year. These yearly cycles are important in determining for example; labour availability, timing for project activity, potential absorptive capacity for new activities, times of diseases and food shortage and variation of cash flow.

What

The actual themes to be recorded will vary from community to community some of the more commonly used topics include annual rainfall, water availability, cash and food crops, livestock, labour demand, food shortages, and human, crop and animal diseases. The calendar should show times when problems may be acute, variation in labour demand by gender and age etc.

Who

Data for seasonal calendars should be collected from community groups. If a community has two or three distinct ecological zones, groups should be selected from each so that differences in cycles are reelected in the calendar. Efforts should be made to diversify informants from community groups i.e. men and women, informal leaders, young and old residents.

How
Preparation:
Before:
-   Identify what type of seasonal pattern you wish to learn.
-   Find one or more people able and willing to share their knowledge and their views
-   Find a suitable space, enough space and shade
-   Explain the purpose of exercise carefully

During

- Ask when their year starts
- Ask how they divide the year
    - Use local calendars
    - Religious festivals
    - Agricultural operation
- Have the informant mark the unit on the ground, floor or a paper
- Probe
- Compare quantities
- Ask the participant to mark which month is or are the most extreme
- Continue comparing each month with extreme until the whole year is completed

Materials
- Any kind of material can be used to indicate the duration or amounts i.e. seeds, stones, beans, soil, sand, leaves, pods, ash etc.

After
- Make a permanent record
- Analyze the information from different calendars
- Compare the months to identify periods of stress and comfort

Application
Information collected during the drawing of the seasonal calendar is very rich, not only in terms of what is put down by the community, but also in what comes out from the discussions during the process. For example seasonal calendar data provides information on opinions and attitudes of the community towards certain activities. These include attitudes towards gender allocation of labour, gender ownership and control of resources, etc. such information helps the PRA Team and the community to prepare the community action plan.

5.6.4 Gender daily calendar
Purpose
Most daily activities in traditional rural, societies are managed along gender lines. There are activities that are specifically performed by women, men or children.

In some communities gender role divisions are still pronounced. In such cases it is necessary for the PRA team to be aware in order not to be seen as interfering with the community cultural norms specific gender roles so that new programmers are not introduced to overburden an already overworked group.

Introducing gender awareness in PRA helps a community to begin examining itself.

Who
Community members both men and women, young and old should be in attendance. PRA team members, men and women and local extension staff in the analysis of gender roles and responsibilities.

How
It is better if the community is allowed to lead gender related discussions. The PRA team facilitates discussions through a neutral process of mapping out a gender daily calendar. Men and women discuss on each daily activities on agreed season (raining or dry season). The groups on their timetable, from the time they wake up in the morning to the time they got to sleep in the evening.

Application
Gender daily calendar provides a clear picture of who does what in the community. It will help in the formulation of the community Action Plan. The community will become aware that unless some changes in gender relations are effected rural development will not proceed as quickly as they would like it to be.

Daily Routine of Women in Bedeno Wereda
(Ethiopian Time)

12:00 -	Wake up time
12:00 – 2:00	Breakfast preparation
2:00 – 4:00	Making tea cleaning house
4:00 – 8:00	Fetching water
8:00 – 9:00	Preparation of lunch for husband
9:00 – 12:00	Collecting firewood
12:00 – 3:00	Supper preparation
3:00 – 5:00	Milking cows, pre-preparation for tomorrow's breakfast and sleeping

Total working hours 17 hrs

5.7 Ranking and scoring

Presentation:
A way in which various kinds of things can be compared according to different qualities people value. It places in an order of what is more or what is less important.

Purpose
Ranking methods allow us to see individual and group priorities among a number of alternative problems or solutions. It helps to generate reasons why people choose one item from the other.

What
People could use three different ways to generate a criteria for comparison and make up their choices.

> (1) preference ranking
> (2) pairewise ranking
> (3) direct matrix ranking
> (4) and direct matrix scoring

Preference ranking method helps to quickly get a good idea of what people think are the priority problem or preferences. The criteria attached to make up a choice is used to consider in the action plan. Individuals or groups vote on the items from most important to least important item. The choices could be between crop varieties, water points, food diets, livestock species, problems, solutions and many different issues, which require preferences. Paire wise ranking is used to compare between two items and make up a choice. It is more useful for exploring the reasons why people prefer one possibility over another. The moment a preference is made lots of criteria are explored to compare items using a group of criteria before a choice.

Direct matrix ranking is used to list items to be compared along horizontal line and criteria on the vertical line to rank choices from most important to least important (i.e. 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th etc) In this case frequency of the items valued as the 1st choice helps to make up a final decision.

Direct matrix scoring helps to attach a score to a comparable items against each criteria listed before a choice. A comparison could be made out of a score of 10(for instance) a comparison could be made between many items against one criteria set, and attach a score out of a maximum of 10 to items to be chosen. The frequencies of the highest scores (closer to 10) attached against many criteria helps to make up a decision for preference.

Who
Ranking and scoring could be done with individuals, households, community members deliberately selected and with mixed group of men, women, traditional leaders, local officials, extension workers etc. The group combination depends upon the issues to be ranked. Who should decision on the issues to be compared? Leads to the choice of informants.

How
The groups for discussion lists items to be compared. Let them generate either directly or thorough pair wise comparison criteria for ranking. Putting in an order of importance or ranking could be done through ranking order, scoring or key voting, from the most to least important. Thorough courting frequencies list in ranked order the items to be compared and make up a decision. The final choice could be made through group of criteria or a single but most important critieria.

Some times, the period for ranking (emergency) or vested need to the item may influence decision-making procedures. While listing criteria, do not mix up. PRA teams criteria with those of the informants. Use positive criteria for comparison

Application
Community action plans are developed on the basis of peoples preferences. The problems, solutions technical inputs etc are arranged on the interests of the users.

5.7.1 Pair wise ranking
Choice of a crop for package
Bedeno woreda

	Maize	Sorghum	Coffee	Wheat	Score	Rank
Maize	X	S	C	M	1	3
Sorghum	X	X	S	S	3	1
Coffee	X	X	X	C	2	2
Wheat	X	X	X	X	0	4

Sorghum was number one crop selected.
Pair wise ranking helps to generate criteria for direct matrix ranking and scoring. Criteria could be generated through direct listing as well.

Criteria generated by pair wise comparison of crop was used for ranking exercise.

Example 1: Food security at household level

Prioritization of options

1. Inputs provision (physical access, purchasing power
2. Reducing human pressure on limited resources, i.e. transformation of rural society to wage earners
3. Cooperatives formation
4. Agro-industries establishment – employment generation
5. Improving animal husbandry

Example 1: Ranking against criteria

Criteria / Options	1	2	3	4	5
Duration	1	2	3	4	5
Resource availability	2	4	3	5	1
Skilled manpower	1	4	3	5	2
High participation by the people	1	3	4	5	2
Rank	1	4	3	5	2

The solution preferred was inputs provision.
Example 2: Direct Matrix, Ranking

Criteria	Maize	Sorghum	Coffee	Wheat
Used for long period	3	2	1	4
High income	4	3	1	2
Short processing	4	1	2	3
Drought resistance	3	2	1	4
High nutrition	2	1	4	3

Not perishable	4	2	1	3
Intercropping (poss.)	1	2	3	4
Low labour input	2	3	4	1
Fodder production	2	1	4	3
Fuel for fire	2	1	3	4
House building	3	1	2	4
Market preference	3	1	2	4
Less vulnerable	3	4	1	2
Rank	**3**	**1**	**2**	**4**

Sorghum was still selected for extension programme.

5.7.2 Wealth Ranking

Presentation:
Wealth ranking is a method to understand relative wealth with in a specific area and community. It is a method to learn about local criteria of well-being.

Purpose
Wealth ranking provides a way to identify information form different social and economic groups to produce a baseline against which future intervention impact can be measured.

The PRA team differentiates community members between socio-economic classes. The team identities problems and needs of each group. The discussion group provides parameters of differential for each entity, which helps as a baseline against which future intervention impact can be measures.

The entities could have different patterns of livelihood systems and vulnerabilities. An early evaluation of dangers and opportunities will help to build up mitigation systems within the community.

Who
Wealth ranking is a sensitive issue to discuss with every member of the community. It should be done after couple of days of other PRA field exercise in the community. The team should build up a close relationship with the people. Later in the survey, PA leadership, religious and traditional leaders, women representatives, extension staff and other elderly men get together in a quiet place and discuss on the categorization of the community members. The discussion group should be able to know the persons and their possession to be ranked.

How
The discussion group follows different systems to categorize community members.

Method 1: Draw a social map on the ground and locate every house using symbols. List their physical possessions and other sources of income to put

together those with similar upon their similarities. You may find 4 to 6 different symbols or marks which indicates various entities.

Method 2: Card sorting method
Make a list of all households to be ranked. The list could be obtained from the PA office rosters or directly list in the meeting.

Write the name and number of each household on a separate card. Find informants who knows the community well. Informants put cards into piles of different categories. When sorting name cards, informants discuss one ach individual livelihoods and place house holds in difficult piles according to perceived wealth. Make as many piles as possible until all households are put into piles.

Informants should list parameters for each pile and build up on wealth criteria for all communities. Make note of key parameter which is used for households differentiation.

Repeat with two or more informants group the same households for accuracy.

Application
PRA team focuses on category of people (rich, middle level or rich), among wealth groups, and target them for intervention. Development plans should be geared towards a category of people who could similarly benefit from the efforts to be made. Some could be useful for research subjects, others for extension, the marginalized and the weak (women) for rehabilitation and / or subsidizers and free gifts.

5.7.3 Proportional piling
Proportional piling is a simple method that helps to obtain data from respondents in percentages. It shows relative values of items to be compared. By how much is an item lower or higher than the second? It is a measure of relative importance of an item for certain uses.

Purpose
Proportional piling is used to obtain qualitative values of comparable items. It shows relative shares or proportions of things to be compared. The values could be calculated out of the whole i.e. 100 or other scores.

What
In a community where less number of people are literate, information's are obtained in qualitative values and estimates. In a situation where there is not information, estimates are given in relative proportion. Informants take certain number of countable materials i.e. beans, pods, stones etc. and share into relative proportions. For instance rural community is reluctant to provide information on income and expenditure, the amount of food distributed among households, proportions of land use types etc. If mass of materials are proportionally allotted to different items, then the most or the least element could be identified.

Who

The best information could be obtained form the class of people concerned i.e. sometimes the issue could be related to women, or to households, or a group of elders or leadership. Thus, depending upon the information required, the kind of informants is selected.

How
Proportional piling is applied in the middle of discussion to probe additional responses. We do not start discussion with materials of proportional piling. Two situations could be mentioned.

(1) Use of grain seeds, small stones and sand piles. If you want to compare between 5 – 10 items, then you should divide the materials into proportion of their importance. The result is thus, 1st 2nd . . . 10th important.
(2) "Hundred seeds methods" to simplify an arithmetic problem, issue 100 seeds if grain etc to the informants. Let hem proportionally allocate the seeds. Then you come up with percentages (20%, 60% etc) out of the proportions pie charts could be constructed.

Application

Proportional pilling is relatively applied to all kinds of information's required to be produced in proportions. The method, which indicates magnitude of importance and uses.

	M	F	Tot.
Attending	20	4	24
Not attending	25	50	75

5.8 Semi structured interviews (SSI)

SSI is a guided interview here the major topics and a few key questions are formulated before the interview. But many new additional are asked during the interview based on answers to the key question.

5.8.1 Types of SSI

1. The individual interview

- Get representative information about the society form individual informants
- Ask individuals at a time

2. The key informant interview

- Get specialized information from one or group of persons about the community
- Informants with specialized knowledge

3. Group interviews:

- Useful for obtaining general information about the community
- Better for cross checking information
- Group interviews require very careful preparation
- The ideal group is 8 – 15 people

5.7.1 Direct observation

- Observe a particular topic or theme for a particular piece and time
- Record observations as soon as possible
- Guidelines for making observation
- Decide on the major theme or topic to be observed
- Decide before hand where observation will take place. When and how long you will observe

5.7.2 Using secondary sources
- Secondary sources of information include previously written documents maps, diagrams, tables etc
- Review secondary sources before beginning field survey is census data, aerial photos, marketing reports, etc.
- In reviewing secondary sources, you should keep summary notes, in the form of short paragraphs, diagrams, charts, etc
- In reviewing secondary sources, you should keep summary notes, in the form of short paragraph, diagrams, charts, etc.
- Be as critical as possible in reviewing secondary sources
- To develop understanding of local livelihoods
- Short period of time

5.7.3 Interview guides and checklist
- Formulate open – ended question and themes for free discussion
- Explore what farmers think about the theme
- Allow two way communication
- Learn as you go along rather than to answer specific questions of limited range
- Use the six helpers What? Why? How? Who? When? Where?
- Use simple questions with single idea
- Probe to explore more in depth, to stimulation
- Avoid ambiguous, leading, dead and direct questions scheduling and arrival
- Select open person to lead or control the interview
- Be sensitive to farming work or other work schedule
- Try not to disrupt working activities
- Agree on a team contract: what time to begin work cash morning? Who will take notes? (Write this in your notebook)

5.7.4 Beginning the Interview
- Will the team stand or sit on chairs with the informant sitting on the ground?
- Sit down in a suitable place & shade

-   Begin with the traditional greeting in the local manner
-   Explain who you are. Describe the purpose of your visit do not imply any promise
-   If the informant is busy ask when it would be appropriate to return
-   The team should say we are here to learn and mean it
-   Spend some time in casual conversal
-   Begin your questioning by referring to something or someone visible.
-   Deal with more sensitive issues when confidence is built.

5.7.5 Directing the flow of Interview
-   Do not interrupt each other
-   Write down new questions to ask latter on
-   Ask one question at a time
-   Take your time, allow your response to answer completely before moving on.
-   Probe explore

5.7.6 Recording the interview
-   Record during an interview
-   Ask permission from your informants before you start writing things down or tape recording the discussion
-   What to record

The interview setting

-   Where was the interview held?
-   Who was interviewed?
-   Was it a group or individual?

Record what you see

-   The condition of the farmers field
-   Type of a house, possessions, access to water; indicators of wealth, health

Record what is said

-   The details of an interview
-   Do not attempt to analyze responses in your head and record an interpretation
-   Record the conduct of the interview
-   Assign an interview observer

Was it:

A Fact: Something definitely known to have occurred or be true
An opinion: judgment or belief base on grounds short of proof
A rumor: general talk, report of doubtful accuracy.
-   Was the interview relaxed and open?
-   Was it dominated by any individuals?

- Did the interviewer bias the response
- Judge the responses quickly
- Cross – check by comparing responses against other sources of information
- "Look wonder, questions"

5.7.7 Closing the interview

- Summarise the discussion briefly
- Look around the homestead or farm
- Ask respondents, if they have other issues to be looked in to
- Thank respondents graciously
- Take a few minutes with your colleagues to reflect on the interview and compare thoughts and impressions
- Make any additional notes you feel are necessary
- Fill in the blanks in your notebook while the interview is fresh in your mind
- Once done move on to the next household; or groups

6. PARTICIPATORY PROBLEM ANALYSIS

Purpose
This is a method of participatory community need assessment and problem analysis. It used the illustration of a rough road, which is like the progress of the community. The progress in the village is like traveling on a rough road. The road is not so good and there are many holes, rocks and fallen trees which mean we cannot move along fast. In the same way the village has many problems with its activities that hinder their progress.

The meeting is designed to find out more about all the things we enjoy, and particularly see what are the things hindering our progress in the village

Materials:
None; although symbols of the issues and voting material (Stones, Leaves, Maize Grains) will be gathered by the participants during the meeting the process should also be documented in a notebook or a case-file

Procedure
Step 1
Briefly give an introduction to the purpose of the meeting: that is we want to discuss with them about the issues which prevent a development process in the village and what can be done to improve the situation. Explain that you want just to share these problems with them and what the result will be used for.

Step 2
The n to further get the meeting started, we tell people that we would like to consider tow questions.

- What are the activities in our village that we enjoy?

- What are the activities in our village that we are suffering form?

Make sure that the two questions are understood by all members of the community, including women. Have the questions repeated by community members, both men and women.

Step 3
Ask the group to divide in sub-groups according to gender or age (e.g. young/old, men/women, elders)

For each activity they enjoy, a symbol should be found (e.g. if they enjoy 3 activities, they should have three symbols) an object which represents the activity or issue they have discussed. They should also have symbol for each of the activities or issues they have discussed. They should also have a symbol for each of the activities or issues they suffer from. During subgroup discussions, the facilitator moves around to each group making sure that the task is understood and the discussion goes on lively. The facilitator should not lead their discussion.

Step 4
After a good time of discussion, the subgroups get back together. Each group gives it's report (Start with one of the more shy groups, usually the women. Then continue according to the community hierarchy with the headman and his elders being the last to report).

Firstly, all groups report about the activities they enjoy and put down their symbols for each (arranged in a block or cluster). Reflect briefly on why we enjoy these activities.

Step 5
Next briefly tell the story about progress in the village being like progress along a rough road where it is difficult to move. So there are activities, which we suffer, form which hinder the progress of our community. Have all groups report about the activities which they are suffering from and place the symbols in a line (like obstacles on a rough road).

Step 6
Each person gets some stones (Leaves, Maize & Grains) to place on those symbols of activities they are suffering from and which they think are the most serious for the entire community. (Only one stone on one problem) Have women voting first and chiefs and elders last.

Step 7
Identification of the three major problems by counting the stones. This should be done by or with the assistance of the community.

Step 8

Try to understand the different aspects of the 3 priority problems.
For each to the 3 problems prioritize, reflect briefly on:
- How does it happen that they are facing this situation now?]
- How was the situation before?

Be aware to build linkages between identified problems where appropriate.

Step 9
Probe more to get some insight on possible options/solutions that may came up from farmers when specific actions are going to be agreed upon. Ask:

*   What have we tried in the past and what was the outcome?
*   What have we seen done elsewhere (other communities, regions . . .)
*   Whether there has been any positive experience made by individuals in coping with the problem.

Step 10
Thank to the people for sharing their thoughts. Stress that you have learnt a lot form them and that you would like to deepen the discussion started. Fix a successive meeting to find out what actions the community would like to undertake to overcome the problems, which have been presented.

7. GUIDELINES FOR FIELD PRA

7.1 Steps in participatory planning
PRA has steps of planning:

1.   Defining the objective of PRA
2.   Site selection and clearance form local administrative officials. Fro programmed implantation (or) problem solving purpose. For site selection, use-ranking methods with local people and outsiders; then select the sites for intervention.
3   Preliminary visit
    - Survey team visit
    - Extended discussion with local leaders
    - Agreement to do a PRA
    - Sharing responsibilities with the people
4.   Data collection
    - Local people and survey team collect information
    - The data includes:
        - Spatial data
        - Time related information
        - Data on institutions and social structures
        - Technical information
5.   Data analysis
    - PRA team spends days organizing information
    - Make large charts and tables of trends, maps transects etc
    - Compile a list of all the problems mentioned
    - Summarized the problems
6.   Ranking problems
    - Present to the community data collected in a large meeting

- Include line department staff DA s etc
- Rank the problems by discussion and voting

7.   Formulate and rank opportunities
   - From discussion groups on the solutions of the problems
   - Obtain advise from the technical officers on:
     - Feasibility
     - Sustainability
     - Productivity
     - Equity of the solutions
   - Rank opportunities
   - Set an action plans
8.   Adoption of action plans
   - Look for technical information to develop a comprehensive plan
   - Specific expert join PRA team
   - Line ministry departments take part in the implementation
9.   Implementation
   - All partners in development contributes to activities as:
     - Manpower allocation
     - Materials needed
     - Time needed
     - Funds required

7.2 Field Exercise and Presentation of findings

This is the last day of the workshop, which is used to consolidate classroom as well as field learning. Participants present findings from their field exercises.

Lots of questions for discussion are raised. Their initial expectations are reviewed and satisfactions are expressed in the evaluation format. Evaluation results are very good indications of previous days learning.

7.3 Guidelines for Analyzing PRA findings

* Analysis is a continuous process of reviewing the information as it is collected, classifying it, formulating additional questions, verifying information, and drawing conclusions. Analysis is the process of making sense of the collected information. It should not be left until al the data have been collected.

* Prepare a list of key issues and arrange the findings according to this list. Rearrange, break up, and reassemble pieces of data. Sort and sift though information and look for patterns, differences, variations, and contradiction. Weight the relative importance of the information. Be self-criteria.

* Create a series of questions based on the research topic (including new questions that may have come up during the fieldwork) and try to answer them with the help of the collected information.

* Discuss each subtonic in turn summarize the results, and draw conclusions based on the information gathered during the fieldwork.

* Use diagrams, matrices, ranking methods, and other analytical tools.

* For further clarification, tabulate the information. Tabulating pulls out key information from interviews and observations, and allows comparison of differences between individuals. Tabulating also helps the team to avoid relying on general impressions rather that fact.

* Check findings and conclusions by presenting them to key informants or to a group of community members.

* Be self-critical

* Findings have to be consistent and must not contradict each other. If the findings contradict the secondary sources or other sources you must be able to explain why. Your findings have to be believable.

7.4 PRA are good for:

- Providing basic information in situations where little in known
- Identifying and assessing problems
- Appraising, designing, implementing, monitoring, and evaluation programs and projects
- Getting a better picture of needs and organizations' ability to meet them
- Developing and transferring appropriate technologies
- Appraising emergencies
- Planning projects that are more relevant, restructuring administrations, assisting in decision-making and policy formation
- Generating hypotheses, ruling out inappropriate ones
- Providing guidelines for survey designs and assessing the applicability of their results to other places.
- Fleshing – out complementing, interpreting, or giving depth and context to information obtained through other methods.

7.5 PRA is not very useful for:

* Working in situations in which the problem is not usefully addressed at the local or group level, for example, in situations where large-scale structural reorganization is necessary (but even then, local views may help to shape the change).