

# PARTICIPATORY RAPID APPRAISAL FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

*A Training Manual Based on Experiences in the  
Middle East and North Africa*



**Joachim Theis and Heather M. Grady**

**IIED**  
INTERNATIONAL  
INSTITUTE FOR  
ENVIRONMENT AND  
DEVELOPMENT

 **Save the Children®**

**PARTICIPATORY RAPID APPRAISAL**  
**FOR**  
**COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT**

*A Training Manual Based on Experiences in the*  
*Middle East and North Africa*

**Joachim Theis and Heather M. Grady**

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Joachim Theis and Heather M. Grady  
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## GLOSSARY

coping strategies	plans or actions to overcome difficulties
cross-check	to verify by comparing with parallel or supplementary data
enumerator	data collector who fills in a set questionnaire (as opposed to the interviewer who does not use a fixed questionnaire)
evaluation	assessment of the extent to which the objectives of an activity have been accomplished
feedback	any information about the results of a process (cf. monitoring)
holistic	emphasizing the importance of the whole and the interdependence of its parts
IIED	International Institute for Environment and Development
indicator	a key piece of information which serves as a gauge or standard to assess a situation or a process of change
informant	any person who provides information
monitoring	routine collection, analysis, and use of information about how well an activity is going (feedback system)
NGO	non-governmental organization
offsetting	balancing, counteracting, compensating
opportunity sample	sample based on specific criteria and characteristics and on availability of respondents (sample is usually highly stratified)
overlay maps	maps drawn on transparencies and placed on top of each other showing different aspects of the same location (e.g., maps showing soil types, vegetation cover, and landuse patterns)
PALM	Participatory Learning Method
PRA	Participatory Rapid Appraisal or Participatory Rural Appraisal
probe	a form of cross-checking used by the data collector to encourage greater response or discussion on the part of the informant
proxy	a substitute (e.g., housetype as proxy indicator for wealth)
PRRA	Participatory Rapid Rural Appraisal
RAP	Rapid Assessment Procedures
RRA	Rapid Rural Appraisal
SSI	semi-structured interviewing
stratification	social and economic differences in class, caste, status or privilege
triangulation	a form of cross-checking by approaching the research topic from three or more sides or angles (in terms of team composition, techniques used, and sources of information)
WRI	World Resources Institute

## INTRODUCTION

Over the past ten years rapid appraisal techniques have gained widespread recognition in development research, where they are increasingly used as a complement to more conventional research methods. Rapid appraisal techniques have been applied in exploratory research, project planning, and evaluation in a wide range of subjects including agriculture, natural resource management, enterprise development, and health.

In the last five years the use of research techniques variously known as Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA), Participatory Rapid Rural Appraisal (PRRA), Rapid Assessment Procedures (RAP), Sondeo, Participatory Learning Method (PALM), or Participatory Rural Appraisal has increased greatly. The emphasis on rapidity emerged because commonly-used survey methods generally take too long for data to be collected, analyzed, and disseminated to be useful for community members and development workers to make decisions. The more important emphasis on participation resulted from a disenchantment with information-collection methods which give all key responsibilities to outsiders rather than community members or the community development workers who work with them.

With the growing popularity of these methods many articles, pamphlets, and handbooks have appeared on rapid and participatory research techniques. The purpose of this manual is not to duplicate what has already been done, but to provide guidelines on how to train community development workers and community members in participatory appraisal methods. It is intended to serve as a tool for community development activities. It is aimed primarily at NGOs (non-governmental organizations) but can be used by anyone who needs a training tool for participatory research methods.

The authors assume that trainers using this handbook have attended a workshop or training course on participatory or rapid appraisal techniques. The manual is designed to help someone already acquainted with participatory/rapid appraisal to extend these skills to development workers and community members who are responsible for managing development activities at the community level.

This training manual is divided into two main sections. The first section gives some guidelines on how to organize and prepare a training course in participatory appraisal. The second section describes in detail individual training sessions, including guidelines on how to help a PRA team put the tools they have learned into use. Each session includes examples and practice exercises.

## PREPARING A PARTICIPATORY RAPID APPRAISAL TRAINING

### Who?

A PRA training is best done with 2-3 trainers or facilitators. This distributes the demanding work of PRA training, where anything beyond a half-day orientation training will involve up to 12-hour days for the trainers. An ideal ratio would be one trainer for every 4-5 trainees.

It is important that at least one of the trainers has experience in adult non-formal training techniques, and another has practical experience in participatory/rapid appraisal. Enlist the help of at least one assistant (from among the trainees) for preparation and for the training itself. Assistants may fill the role of team leaders during the fieldwork part of the PRA. Especially well-suited as training assistants are people who have experience in data collection and analysis, whether in formal questionnaire research, RRA, journalistic interview techniques, farming systems research, or ethnographic methods. A development worker with experience in participatory training methods would also be appropriate.

A participatory appraisal team should consist of three to seven people. For the purpose of the training course this figure can be increased with multiple trainers or team leaders. Everyone involved in a PRA should have an interest in the topic of the PRA, with the team usually composed of community development workers or community members. The group of participants should be well-mixed according to gender and professional specialization and/or education. In some cases, however, it may be necessary to break this rule. For example, a women's needs assessment PRA carried out in a society where men are discouraged from talking to women probably should be done exclusively by women.

Involve trainees in preparations for the training as much as possible. This increases the learning experience, prepares them to train others in the future, and helps ensure that examples used in the training are relevant to the needs and experiences of the trainees.

Ideally, the trainers should be familiar with the local situation and understand the local language in order to fully participate in the fieldwork of the training. However, if this is not the case, the trainers should team up with a co-trainer who is fluent in the local language. Alternatively, simultaneous translation can be used. This is not a very desirable option, because some information will always be missed, and training workshops which have to be translated take 30-50% longer. However, if unavoidable, make sure that a good interpreter is used and that written training materials are translated before the training begins.

## Planning and Logistics

The 10 Steps of Planning are a set of questions which will help in preparing a training. As part of planning answer the following questions:

- What is the purpose of the training, and what should the trainees be able to do after the training?
- Why are the questions which the training addresses facing us?
- What skills, knowledge and attitudes are we trying to develop?
- Who are the participants (people, institutions)?
- Who will do the training (people, institutions)?
- When is the training to be held and how long will it last?
- Where will the training be held?
- How will the training be held (methodology)?
- With what will we do the training (budget and other physical resources)?
- Which steps are necessary to follow up, monitor, put into practice, and evaluate the training?

At least three to five days are needed to prepare a full two-week participatory rapid appraisal (training plus fieldwork). A 1-2 day training will usually require 1-2 days of preparation. The less familiar the trainer is with the area, the more time is needed for preparation. The trainers should keep lists of things to do throughout the workshop and enlist the help of trainees in working on these tasks as much as possible.

The training will be most beneficial for the participants and most rewarding for the trainers if all participants stay together at the same place at night rather than returning home after each day's sessions. During the fieldwork the participants should also stay together. This intensive learning and sharing experience is very important for the effectiveness of the training and the appraisal. If this is impossible, at least try to arrange meals together after the daily sessions. Hold the training in a place away from the participants' workplace; otherwise, they are more easily distracted by their daily work. Don't hold the training in the capital city, but in a rural area, if possible.

Schedule the training carefully and allow enough time for rest and relaxation. Take logistical problems like travel into consideration. As a rule of thumb, limit the classroom training hours to the usual working hours of the trainees. Plan for a one- or two-day break in the middle of a 10-day training. In designing a training schedule, make sure you have planned enough breaks and enough time for the sessions; one of the most common pitfalls of trainings is an overambitious schedule. There should always be plenty of time scheduled to discuss the exercises once they have been completed. There is much more benefit from doing and discussing exercises than from theoretical discussions. If you find you did not finish the first day's schedule, you should probably plan fewer sessions for the upcoming days. Much will depend on how quickly the trainees learn as a group, and this cannot be determined until the training has started.

Training workshops almost always start a little later than planned. You can easily plan some "padding" into sessions or breaks to make up for this. It can be very frustrating for the participants if you run out of time or you have to extend the daily training time. Keep in mind ways to shorten the time needed for sessions, for example breaking into three larger groups instead of four smaller ones, so that reporting back to the large group takes less time. In some exercises reporting back to the large group can be skipped if the participants fully understand the activities and there is no need for further discussions.

Rehearse each training session so that you are well-prepared and are sure that you have scheduled sufficient time for the sessions. Practice the tasks you will give to the participants to ensure that they are realistic. Have all necessary materials and handouts ready the day before. Leaving things until the last minute usually does not work. Trainers should not try to improvise in lieu of preparation. Flexibility should be a response to trainees' needs, not a result of inadequate planning.

Try to remember all the participants' names by the end of the first day. This can be done by sketching a seating layout with names written in after the training gets underway.

Let trainees know in advance that they will receive a write-up of the training (or this manual) so they do not have to write down everything that is being said and done. In this way participants can focus all their attention on listening and participating. Trainees also appreciate well-prepared training documents which they can use later as a reference.

### Trainer's Checklist for Workshop Planning

Activity	Who Responsible?	By When?
<i>Before the Workshop:</i>		
Send invitations and workshop agenda to participants		
Arrange documents		
Purchase and test training materials		
Test equipment		
Prepare charts		
Photocopy handouts for each participant		
Rehearse sessions		
Try out exercises		
Visit training site and check suitability of location (including places for large and small group meetings)		
Test wall space for charts		
Check furniture		
Arrange food and beverages		
Arrange transportation		
Arrange accommodation		

Activity	Who Responsible?	By When?
<i>End of Workshop:</i>		
Distribute list of participants' name and addresses		
Collect unused materials		
Return equipment		
Read and analyze evaluations		
Mail follow-up materials		
Pay bills		
Collect outstanding money		

<i>Budget Items</i>	<i>Estimated Cost</i>
Materials	
Transportation	
Food and beverages	
Accommodation	
Services	
Per diem	
Other	
Total	

Note: Trainers can create their own list or adapt this list to their particular needs.

## Content

Choose a topic and a location for the practical part of the training which is close to the work and lives of the participants. Fieldwork should address the needs and issues facing the participants and fit into their program work (e.g., an evaluation of an ongoing project or a needs assessment for a community). This "immediacy" promotes thorough learning by the participants.

PRA training courses differ in one important aspect from most other training courses. They are less controllable (especially during fieldwork) and much is left to chance. The team has to be flexible and adapt. Much depends on the choice of trainers, trainees, team leaders, and the topic for the PRA fieldwork. It is preferable to choose a topic which can be covered adequately during four days of fieldwork to give the team a feeling of accomplishment.

Before the training begins, the trainers should collect relevant secondary data - maps, statistics, project reports, and baseline, monitoring, and evaluation data - which will be used during the training to practice the different research tools and serve as background information for the fieldwork. Involve participants in this collection of material as much as possible.

The PRA tools used during the workshop should also be relevant to the work of the participants. No time should be wasted teaching methods (e.g., certain diagrams) if they are not likely to be used by the participants during the fieldwork. In most cases it is better to concentrate on a limited number of key methods and skills, spending sufficient time practicing and discussing them in depth, rather than introducing all possible methods. Well-trained participants will be able to return to PRA reference materials in the future to utilize other PRA tools or develop and adapt their own methods. Additionally, it is important to convey the importance of using PRA techniques as a "system", and not in isolation, as this does not constitute a Participatory Rapid Appraisal.

Most important, the training should always emphasize *practice of methods, reflection, and more practice*, rather than simply presenting information. Moreover, instead of overwhelming participants with information, let them come up with questions themselves. Two advantages to this are that 1) participants learn better if they have to think and formulate questions, and 2) the kind of questions asked will tell the trainers what and how well the trainees have learned. It is a useful way to tailor the course to the knowledge, skills, and speed of learning of the participants.

And finally, the trainers should keep in mind that all the participants are adults with a wealth of life experience which they will bring to the PRA work. Trainers, and those who later conduct a PRA in the community, will be learning with the others, not just training them.



## Training Materials Needed

The following list is a guideline for what training materials will be needed for a PRA training of 3-5 days and the accompanying fieldwork.

- 2-3 flipchart stands (you can also use an old door with nails and large clips attached to it)
- 100-200 pieces of flipchart paper (or use newsprint or butcher paper cut into an appropriate size)
- 10-15 large markers in different colors
- 1 blackboard or whiteboard plus chalk or markers
- 1 tablet of graph (squared) paper
- 10 large sheets of tracing paper
- 2-3 rolls of masking tape and 1 roll of cello tape
- 1 hole punch
- 1 stapler and staples
- scissors
- glue
- index cards
- erasers
- pencil sharpener
- carbon paper
- 1-3 2-hole box files with topic dividers
- 100 sheets unlined paper.
- 200-300 sheets blank lined paper to record interviews, direct observations, etc.
- 20 overhead transparencies (for maps) and one set of multi-colored erasable pens
- 10-15 manila folders for holding blank forms and filled forms (e.g., direct observation, interview notes, completed ranking sheets, maps)
- 1 "briefcase" type binder for trainer or team leader to keep folders and papers in

You might not need all of these but most will be used at some point during the training. In addition, provide the following for each participant:

- 1 clipboard
- 1 spiral-bound notebook for recording fieldwork notes, problems encountered, lessons learned, etc. (but not for interview results or other completed data sheets, which should be written on loose paper to be returned to the team leader at the end of each day for use in analysis group discussions)
- 1 pen and 1 pencil

Obtain all materials before the training begins and before going into an area where some of the materials are not available (e.g., make photocopies of the handouts before traveling into a remote area without electricity). Use as few machines as possible in the training. Although overhead projectors and video recorders are very useful for certain demonstrations, it is unlikely that communities will have ready access to these machines.

If possible, prepare certificates to give to each participant at the end of the training, signed by the trainers. Certificates are appreciated and provide a good closure to a training course.

The training course is just the beginning of the participants' working with participatory appraisal methods. Only through practice and use of participatory appraisal in the field can this technique develop into a useful tool for community development. A plan for follow-up

should be developed with the participants and the training assistants. This plan should contain strategies for upgrading the participants' skills by doing background reading, corresponding with other people interested in participatory and rapid appraisal, attending other workshops, and using participatory appraisal techniques in their work and community activities (see Session 24 for more information on follow-up activities).

## Evaluation

Evaluations are very important in any participatory training. They enable everyone in the group, even the quietest participant, to comment on the training, and allow the trainers to get an idea of what the trainees feel and think about the training. This form of feedback is very important to obtain suggestions for improvement from the trainees and to revise the upcoming sessions of the workshop. Under no circumstances should a trainer get defensive, especially not during evaluations. It is best if the trainers refrain completely from commenting during the evaluation, except to ask questions if comments are unclear.

Each day should end with a brief evaluation session, and the last day of the workshop should include a thorough evaluation of the entire workshop. Evaluations can be done either verbally in the large group, with responses written on a flipchart, or individually written and returned to the trainers. Written evaluations can be taped to the wall so that the trainees can review the comments of others. Both methods are useful and should be mixed. Typical questions for an evaluation are:

- What was best about today's training?
- What was not good and should be changed or improved? How?
- What should we do differently next time/tomorrow?
- What other comments do you have?

It is important that evaluation feedback be incorporated into the upcoming sessions by the trainers.

## Training Methods

The success of the training depends in large part on the training methods used. Using a wide range of participatory training techniques makes the training as interesting as possible and maintains a high energy level among the participants. Avoid lecturing, and involve participants fully in each session, using the participatory techniques discussed below. PRA, a participatory methodology, requires a participatory training environment for success.

- How do people learn? People learn
  - 20% of what they hear
  - 40% of what they hear and see
  - 80% of what they hear, see and do
  - nearly 100% of what they discover for themselves

### ***Training techniques:***

- brainstorming
- buzz groups (3-4 people)
- cards
- case studies
- charts
- demonstrations
- focus questions
- handouts/reading
- large group discussions
- listening pairs (2 people)
- mapping
- pictures
- role plays
- small group discussions (vary the size and composition of groups)
- stories
- strategic planning/visioning
- transactional analysis
- warm-ups/ice-breakers
- work groups (4-8 people)
- workshop committees

This is only a sample of the many types of participatory training techniques. Occasionally during a PRA training a "lecturette" can be used, for example when introducing the history and background of PRA to a group which is unfamiliar with the topic. However, use participatory techniques whenever possible because these will help trainees learn better. For other training ideas consult the training manuals listed in the Further Reading section at the end of this manual.

### **Warm-Ups**

Warm-ups and ice-breakers are very good ways to make the participants feel relaxed. Every day of the workshop should start with a warm-up, and warm-ups can be used again during the day when reconvening after breaks or when the energy level of the group drops. Warm-ups are activities to focus and energize the group. The best warm-ups are those relating to the context and the people at the particular workshop. It is best if, after the first day of the training, the trainers delegate the task of leading warm-ups to participants (this can be done through a workshop committee). A warm-up does not have to relate in any way to the content of the training, and can be plain fun.

After doing warm-ups with a group of participants who will be training others, take time to discuss what happened during the warm-up, and why. Participants should internalize the principles behind warm-ups, for example that everyone should be included, and that the instructions for a warm-up should be very clear to each participant before starting. By the end of the training, all participants should have developed the intuition to know how and why warm-ups are effective, so that they can develop them on their own.

### *Guidelines for warm-ups:*

- In warm-ups at the start of the day, every person should participate and speak. This makes it easier for shy participants to speak up in the large group later during the workshop.
- Good warm-ups should contribute to the group-building process of the training and make participants feel positive. Make sure that the warm-up is not too competitive, and that participants do not laugh at the expense of others.
- Warm-ups should be planned well. A poorly planned warm-up is worse than no warm-up at all.
- Physical exercise can be a warm-up.
- Warm-ups should make participants relax. It is a good sign if they laugh a lot.
- Instructions for each warm-up should be spoken clearly and, if the exercise is at all complicated, should be written on a flipchart. Before starting, the trainers should ask the group if everyone understands the task.

### *Examples:*

#### *1. Pair Introductions* (useful when the group is not acquainted beforehand)

Ask participants to form pairs to learn about their immediate neighbors, taking a few minutes to find out the other's name, job, reason for attending the workshop, etc. Specify the information to be gathered. Afterwards, have participants introduce their pair-partners to the rest of the group.

#### *2. Good News*

Invite all participants to share with the person next to them the best thing that has happened to them this week/month/year. Give the pairs a few minutes for discussion. Then go around the room and have each pair quickly share their partner's news with the rest of the group. If there are members of the group who don't know each other yet, this warm-up can be combined with pair introductions.

#### *3. Symbols*

Invite each participant or team of participants (no more than 4 to a team) to choose something that they can present as a symbol of their lives, their organization, their work, their community, etc. The exercise can be to create drawings as symbols, or to seek "found objects" which serve as symbols. Participants will need 10-15 minutes for the task.

Afterwards have each person or group explain how they selected their symbol, and what it means to them.

#### *4. Throwing the Ball*

Tear a piece of paper off the flipchart pad, scrunch it into a ball, and tape it together. Toss the ball around between the group members, having participants call out something when they catch it. Examples:

- The most interesting thing they have learned so far.
- The emotion they are feeling right now.
- The concept, feature, or method of participatory appraisal that is most significant to them.

### ***5. Years of Experience***

Have the group stand in a circle. Using the "throwing the ball" method above, or another method to elicit comments in staggered fashion (not in order of the circle), have each person call out the number of years of work experience they have. As each person says a number, write it on a flipchart. After everyone has finished, add up the numbers to get the total number of years of experience in the room. Explain that this is why it will be a group of people learning from each other, rather than just the trainees learning from the trainers.

### ***6. Secrets (useful with a group which is already acquainted)***

Have the group form pairs, and ask each person to tell their pair-partner something about him/herself that no one else in the room knows. Then have everyone take turns sharing their partner's secret with the large group.

### ***7. Gallery Walk***

Invite participants to walk about the room in groups of two or three to review all the charts on the walls from previous days of the workshop. Have each group ask at least one question which arises from this gallery walk.

This is a useful warm-up when a newcomer arrives at the training. It can be varied to have the groups select the most important chart - as an evaluation tool or the best-drawn chart - to stimulate discussion of how to make good charts. This exercise can take up to one hour depending on the questions which arise and the explanations and discussion which follow.

### ***8. Colors (most useful when the group is already acquainted)***

Prepare four swatches of fabric in different colors, and put each set of four in an envelope. Arrange participants in groups of threes, and have them take five minutes to choose their favorite color. Back in the large group, ask each group to tell the color they chose and why.

### ***9. The Telephone***

A trainer writes a short message (about five words is best) and whispers it to the first person in a semi-circle. That person then whispers it to the next, and so on, until the message reaches the other end of the semi-circle. Have the last person state what he or she heard, and then compare the two messages.

### ***10. Pantomime***

Have participants split into groups of three to five. Then ask each group to think of a proverb to pantomime to the large group, which participants in the large group have to try to identify.

## **Visual Aids**

### ***Diagrams and Charts***

Diagrams and charts are important aids in both participatory training and participatory appraisal, because they offer a visual way of representing participants' opinions in which

everyone can share. Good diagrams should stand for themselves without requiring much further explanation. In addition to the diagrams presented in this manual, trainers and/or trainees can design their own diagrams to facilitate explanation of concepts.

### *Flipcharts*

Follow these guidelines in preparing and presenting to a group flipcharts or overhead transparencies:

- write clearly so that even those who sit farthest away can read it
- don't put too much information on one page
- don't necessarily read everything written on the page
- allow questions and answers about the written information
- if flipcharts are used in brainstorming sessions, write down all comments and write them as they were said; don't be selective, and don't reinterpret or reformulate people's comments unless they are unclear
- use different colors if appropriate
- leave some flipcharts on the wall for the entire duration of the training so that the participants and the trainer can refer to them when needed
- once flipcharts are prepared for the following day, number them and put them in order on the stand. If you want to save flipcharts for future use or to compile a report, put them in order and number them at the end of each day, adding flipcharts made during the day.
- be creative

### *Overhead Projection*

The advantages of overhead transparencies are that they take less time to draw than flipcharts, can be used again, and can be duplicated with a photocopier. They are convenient when presenting a series of sample diagrams, as diagrams can be copied directly onto transparencies. Also, overlaying of different transparencies can make complex issues easier to draw and to understand (e.g., maps). The disadvantages relative to flipcharts are that they are expensive, dependent on electricity, should be used only in a darkened room, and often make the facilitators turn their backs to the group. For these reasons, flipcharts will be preferable for most PRA trainings. If using an overhead projector, try it in the training room before the training starts to make sure that the room can be made dark enough, there is a white wall or screen for the projection, and the image can be seen from around the room.

Overhead transparencies may also be used without a projector, especially for drawing overlay maps. Using erasable colored pens allows trainers and participants to alter the maps without having to redraw them.

### *Role Plays*

Role plays are often useful because they are graphic, show motion, and therefore can explain step-by-step sequences. No equipment is needed, and they involve a high level of participation. Role plays are also easily remembered - their messages stay in people's minds long after the training is over. However, they require good advance preparation, and not everyone is good at, or feels comfortable, doing them.

## Tips for Trainers

- Start every day by reviewing the previous day's work. This helps "fix" concepts for the trainees.
- If things don't work well, ask yourself "What did I/we do wrong?" and learn from your mistakes.
- When a task is given to the group as an exercise, present it verbally *and* in written form on a flipchart in very clear language. Always ask if the participants have understood the task.
- When practicing PRA tools in training sessions, do a quick example in the large group before breaking into small groups, to ensure that people understand how to use the tool.
- For most exercises (other than brainstorming) trainers should divide participants into subgroups to do the exercises. Group size is usually related to the type of exercise, and most exercises in this manual include suggestions for subgroup size. In general, having fewer (larger) subgroups saves time in reporting back the results, but having smaller subgroups brings out more participation and raises energy levels because each individual will be able (and expected) to contribute more within their subgroup.
- Be sure to vary the composition of subgroups throughout the training. To vary combinations create subgroups by counting off to the number of subgroups you want. For example, if there are 15 participants and you want three subgroups of five people each, have the circle count 1-2-3-1-2-3 and so on, afterwards grouping all the "ones" together, etc.
- End each session by asking if anyone has any questions or if anything remains unclear.
- Trainers should always be a few steps ahead of the trainees. They will have practiced upcoming exercises, developed a draft research plan, anticipated problems in the field, and so on. They should be able to sense when to step in to give direction and guidance, and when to let trainees work on their own. For this the trainers need experience and some familiarity with the topic of the planned PRA.
- After posing a question to the group, trainers should allow enough time for participants to suggest answers or ideas. If the participants are having difficulty answering, the trainers should rephrase the question or give hints to help them respond, rather than supplying the answer directly. Trainers should be helping the participants to discover information.
- Always be sensitive to the level of concentration and energy of the participants. If it drops, and you feel some of the trainees are not paying attention, it is very important to stop and do a warm-up or take a break. Don't worry about losing this valuable time, because time when people aren't paying attention is wasted.
- Remember that the way the training is being held and the methods used during the training are at least as important as the content. The learning experience of the participants is determined more by how useful the training was for their lives and work than by the amount of information they were presented with during the training course.
- The most important thing to remember is that people learn by doing:  
Learn → practice → reflect → learn.
- Be well-prepared and relax.



## **Schedules for Participatory Appraisal Training Workshops**

The training sessions on PRA techniques included in this manual can be combined freely according to the requirements of a particular PRA. It is very rare that all training sessions will be needed for a single training. The following three suggested schedules for training courses give an idea of the range of training courses for which this manual can be used.

In all three training schedules, go through the first sessions relatively swiftly to provide trainees with an overview, without going into too much detail. Use examples to illustrate new concepts. If introductory sessions are allowed to go on too long, participants may ask irrelevant questions before they have the background information to discuss issues fully. An overview gives a frame of reference and security to move ahead.

### **Example of a Day's Training Agenda**

- I. Greeting
- II. Warm-Up
- III. Brief Review of Schedule for the Day and of Previous Day's Topics
- IV. Overview of a Topic or Tool
- V. Practice Session and Discussion
- VI. Break
- VII. Overview of a Topic or Tool
- VIII. Practice Session and Discussion
- IX. Break  
etc.
- X. Closing Session - Review the Day and Solicit Questions
- XI. Evaluation of the Day

When using Schedule B, the trainers should help the group agree on a PRA topic after the "Expectations" session even though the group will not carry out PRA fieldwork together. Having an agreed topic enables trainees to see how the features and tools of PRA fit together for a particular research topic. For Schedule C the participants should be selected based on their interest in the topic which would be agreed upon before the training begins.



### **Schedule A. PRA Orientation Training for Managers (3-4 hours)**

- What is Participatory Rapid Appraisal? (Session 5)\*
- Background and History (Session 6)
- Features of Participatory Rapid Appraisal (Session 7)
- PRA versus Other Research Methods (Session 8)
- Dangers of PRA (Session 9)
- Overview of PRA Techniques (Session 11)
- Participatory Rapid Appraisal and the Project Cycle (Session 10)

### **Schedule B. Introductory Training in PRA Theory (two days)**

#### **Day One:**

- Welcome (Session 1)
- Warm-Up and Introductions (Session 2)
- Expectations and Objectives of the Training (Session 3)
- Introduction and Review of Agenda (Session 4)
- What is Participatory Rapid Appraisal? (Session 5)
- Background and History (Session 6)
- Features of Participatory Rapid Appraisal (Session 7)
- PRA versus Other Research Methods (Session 8)
- Dangers of PRA (Session 9)
- Participatory Rapid Appraisal and the Project Cycle (Session 10)
- Overview of PRA Techniques (Session 11)
- Review of Secondary Sources (Session 12)
- Direct Observation (Session 13)
- Evaluation of Day 1

#### **Day Two:**

- Review of Day I and Review of Day II Agenda
- Warm-Up
- Semi-Structured Interviewing (Session 14)
- Ranking (Session 15) (practice at least one ranking method)
- Construction of Diagrams (Session 16) (practice drawing of several diagrams)
- Analysis Group Discussion (Session 17)
- Structuring Research (Session 18)
- Evaluation of the PRA Training (Session 26)

\* Session numbers correspond to the following section on "Training Sessions".

## **Schedule C. Participatory Appraisal - Theory and Practice**

(ten days - not including days off)

### **Day One:**

- Welcome (Session 1)
- Warm-Up and Introductions (Session 2)
- Expectations and Objectives of the Training (Session 3)
- Introduction and Review of Agenda (Session 4)
- What is Participatory Rapid Appraisal? (Session 5)
- Background and History (Session 6)
- Features of Participatory Rapid Appraisal (Session 7)
- PRA versus Other Research Methods (Session 8)
- Dangers of PRA (Session 9)
- Participatory Rapid Appraisal and the Project Cycle (Session 10)
- Overview of PRA Techniques (Session 11)
- Review of Secondary Sources (Session 12)
- Direct Observation (Session 13)
- Evaluation of Day I

### **Day Two:**

- Review of Day I
- Review of Day II Agenda
- Warm-Up
- Semi-Structured Interviewing (Session 14)
- Ranking (Session 15) (practice at least one ranking method)
- Construction of Diagrams (Session 16) (practice drawing of several diagrams)
- Analysis Group Discussion (Session 17)
- Evaluation of Day II

### **Days Three & Four:**

- Review of Day III Agenda
- Structuring Research (Session 18)
- Designing a Research Plan (Session 19)
- Designing PRA Tools and Preparing for Fieldwork (Session 20)

### **Days Five to Eight:**

- Carrying Out Fieldwork (Session 21)

### **Day Nine:**

- Final Analysis and Preparation of Results of PRA (Session 22)

### **Day Ten:**

- Presentation of Results of Fieldwork (Session 23)
- Action Plan for Follow-Up (Session 24)
- Writing the PRA Report (Session 25)
- Evaluation of the PRA Training (Session 26)

## TRAINING SESSIONS

### Getting Started

#### SESSION 1: Welcome

**Purpose:** To open the workshop formally and welcome participants.

**Time:** 15 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 1.1: Title of PRA Training Workshop

**Activities:** Trainers formally open the PRA training workshop and welcome the participants.

**Notes for Trainers:** This session gives the workshop an official start and should be done even if the trainers know all the participants.

Chart 1.1

PARTICIPATORY RAPID APPRAISAL

TRAINING WORKSHOP

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATION

Assiut, Egypt

15-26 April 1991



## SESSION 2: Warm-Up and Introductions

**Purpose:** To introduce participants to each other and make them comfortable and relaxed from the beginning of the workshop.

**Time:** 20 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 2.1: Warm-Up

**Activities:** Participants (including the trainers) form pairs to learn about their immediate neighbors. Participants take a few minutes to tell their partner their name, job, etc. Back in the large group each participant introduces his neighbor to the rest of the group.

**Notes for Trainers:** Follow the rules for warm-ups (see section on Training Methods) to ensure that it does not turn into a cold-start instead.

Chart 2.1

### WARM-UP

1. Split into pairs.
2. Learn from your neighbor his or her name, job, and reason for attending this training workshop.
3. Take turns introducing your neighbors to the rest of the group.



### **SESSION 3: Expectations and Objectives of the Training**

**Purpose:** To clarify objectives of the PRA training and the expectations of the participants and trainers.

**Time:** 20 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 3.1: Expectations of Participants and Trainers

**Activities:** Trainers conduct a brainstorming session in which they ask trainees to state their expectations, writing down everything that is said (Chart 3.1). Trainers and participants then discuss their expectations and add other objectives if necessary.

**Notes for Trainers:** This is an important session. It allows participants to express their expectations and ensures that they know what to expect. Mention that the flipchart with the objectives and expectations will be reviewed during the evaluation at the end of the training workshop.

**Cautions:** Lack of clear expectations and objectives could lead to misunderstandings between trainers and participants later in the training workshop. If the expectations of the trainees do not match closely with the training plan, try to adjust the plan to fit better the needs of the trainees.

Chart 3.1

#### **EXPECTATIONS OF PARTICIPANTS AND TRAINERS**

What do you expect from this workshop?

## SESSION 4: Introduction and Review of Agenda

**Purpose:** To introduce, explain, and review the contents of the training workshop.

**Time:** 30 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 4.1: PRA Workshop Program  
Chart 4.2: Day One Agenda

**Activities:** Trainers explain the workshop program and the agenda for Day One of the workshop. The trainees have an opportunity to ask questions and clarify points. If necessary, the agenda can be revised.

**Notes for Trainers:** Leave the workshop agenda on the wall at all times for the participants to see. Review the agenda at the beginning of each new day of the training to illustrate how the various parts of the PRA training fit into a "whole".

Chart 4.1

### PARTICIPATORY RAPID APPRAISAL WORKSHOP PROGRAM

DAY ONE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>● Introduction to PRA Theory</li><li>● Introduction to PRA Tools and Techniques</li><li>○ Practicing PRA Tools and Techniques</li></ul>
DAY TWO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>● Practicing PRA Tools and Techniques</li></ul>
DAY THREE TO FOUR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>● Preparation of Fieldwork</li></ul>
DAY FIVE TO EIGHT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>● Fieldwork</li></ul>
DAY NINE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>● Final Analysis and Preparation of Results of Fieldwork</li></ul>
DAY TEN	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>● Presentation of Results</li><li>● Evaluation of PRA Workshop</li></ul>

### DAY ONE AGENDA

- Welcome and Warm-Up
- Expectations and Objectives of Training
- Review of Agenda
- Introduction to PRA Theory
- Tea Break -
- Participatory Appraisal and the Project Cycle
- Overview of PRA Techniques
- Review of Secondary Sources
- Lunch Break -
- Direct Observation
- Evaluation of Day One



## **SESSION 5: What is Participatory Rapid Appraisal?**

### **A. Background Information**

Participatory Rapid Appraisal (PRA) is a specific form of Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA), a research technique developed in the late 1970s and early 1980s by researchers in international development as an alternative and complement to conventional sample surveys. PRA is a way of learning from, and with, community members to investigate, analyze, and evaluate constraints and opportunities, and make informed and timely decisions regarding development projects. It is a method by which a research team can quickly and systematically collect information for:

- the general analysis of a specific topic, question, or problem
- needs assessments
- feasibility studies
- identifying and prioritizing projects
- project or program evaluations

The approach of PRA owes more to anthropology and ethnographic research methods than to sociology and sample survey research. In other words, its purpose is more to gain an understanding of the complexities of a topic rather than to gather highly accurate statistics on a list of variables. Moreover, in PRA understanding qualitative nuances within a topic is just as important as finding general averages. For example: a study on the health status of a community could use sample survey methodology to obtain accurate statistics on a small number of carefully chosen demographic variables, but PRA methods would be used to obtain a differentiated understanding of the population's attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors towards disease and health care. PRA is applied most effectively in relatively homogeneous rural communities which share common knowledge, values, and beliefs, although it has also been used in more complex urban environments. Its short duration and low cost also make it possible to carry out a series of PRAs rather than having to rely on the results of one large survey.

### **B. Training Guidelines**

**Purpose:** To make participants aware of the different research methods they use in their work and to define PRA and its applications.

**Time:** 30 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 5.1: What Research Methods Do You Use in Your Work?  
Chart 5.2: What is Participatory Rapid Appraisal?

**Activities:** The trainers lead a brainstorming session about the research techniques trainees currently use in their work (Chart 5.1) and ask participants what they know about PRA. Following this the trainers provide a brief overview of PRA using the information presented on Chart 5.2, and answer any questions the participants may have at this stage.



**Notes for Trainers:** This session provides a quick overview of PRA. In the course of the workshop the meaning of PRA will become increasingly clear to the participants. Let the participants discover its meaning by themselves as they go along. Throughout the workshop remind the participants of the importance of their attitudes in PRA. Avoid lengthy discussions about terminology at this stage.

**Cautions:** The participants will become bored with too many facts and details.

Chart 5.1

### WHAT RESEARCH METHODS DO YOU USE IN YOUR WORK?

Chart 5.2

### WHAT IS PARTICIPATORY RAPID APPRAISAL?

Participatory Rapid Appraisal is an intensive, systematic but semi-structured learning experience carried out in a community by a multi-disciplinary team which includes community members. It can be used for:

- needs assessments
- feasibility studies
- identifying priorities for development activities
- implementing development activities where new information needs to be collected
- monitoring or evaluating development activities

It requires attitudes favoring:

- participation
- respect for community members
- interest in what they know, say, show, and do
- patience, not rushing, and not interrupting
- listening, not lecturing
- humility
- methods which empower community members to express, share, enhance, and analyze their knowledge

## SESSION 6: Background and History

### A. Background Information

In the 1950s and 1960s it was widely believed that all it took to improve the economic situation of developing countries was financial inputs and modern technology. The Green Revolution is a typical example of such a transfer of technology from the modern industrialized countries to the poorer nations. In the 1970s, however, it became clear that the transfer of technology did not solve the problems of most people in developing countries. Development workers and researchers began to understand the complex relationship between environment, economy, culture, and politics in rural societies, and began to view and tackle the various aspects of rural life as part of an integrated system. It was realized that a system (e.g., the complex agricultural systems found in most sub-Saharan countries) develops through adaptive change rather than by linear progress, that it is dynamic and its parts interact by influencing each other. It is not possible to effect change in one element of the system in isolation without affecting the other parts. Consequently the system as a whole has to be understood in order to identify and help bring about desired changes.

Along with the emergence of this new development model, new research techniques were developed to achieve a more comprehensive understanding of the complexities of rapidly changing and highly uncertain societies and communities. One of these new research methods was Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA). RRA methods have adopted a number of features from ethnographic research techniques, such as an emphasis on understanding a people's own point of view. RRA embodies the principle that different people perceive and understand reality in different ways. Thus, community members, development workers, and researchers often see and interpret environments in ways that are very different, but equally important. RRA is characterized by an applied, holistic, and flexible approach of progressive learning; conducted by multidisciplinary teams, emphasizing community participation. Having been developed alongside Farming Systems Research, RRA methods have been applied mainly in agricultural development. However, RRA methods by now have found widespread application in many different fields, including research on urban housing problems, impact assessments of natural disasters, and studies of attitudes to health practices.

## B. Training Guidelines

**Purpose:** To provide basic background information about the history and emergence of PRA.

**Time:** 20 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 6.1: Background and History of PRA

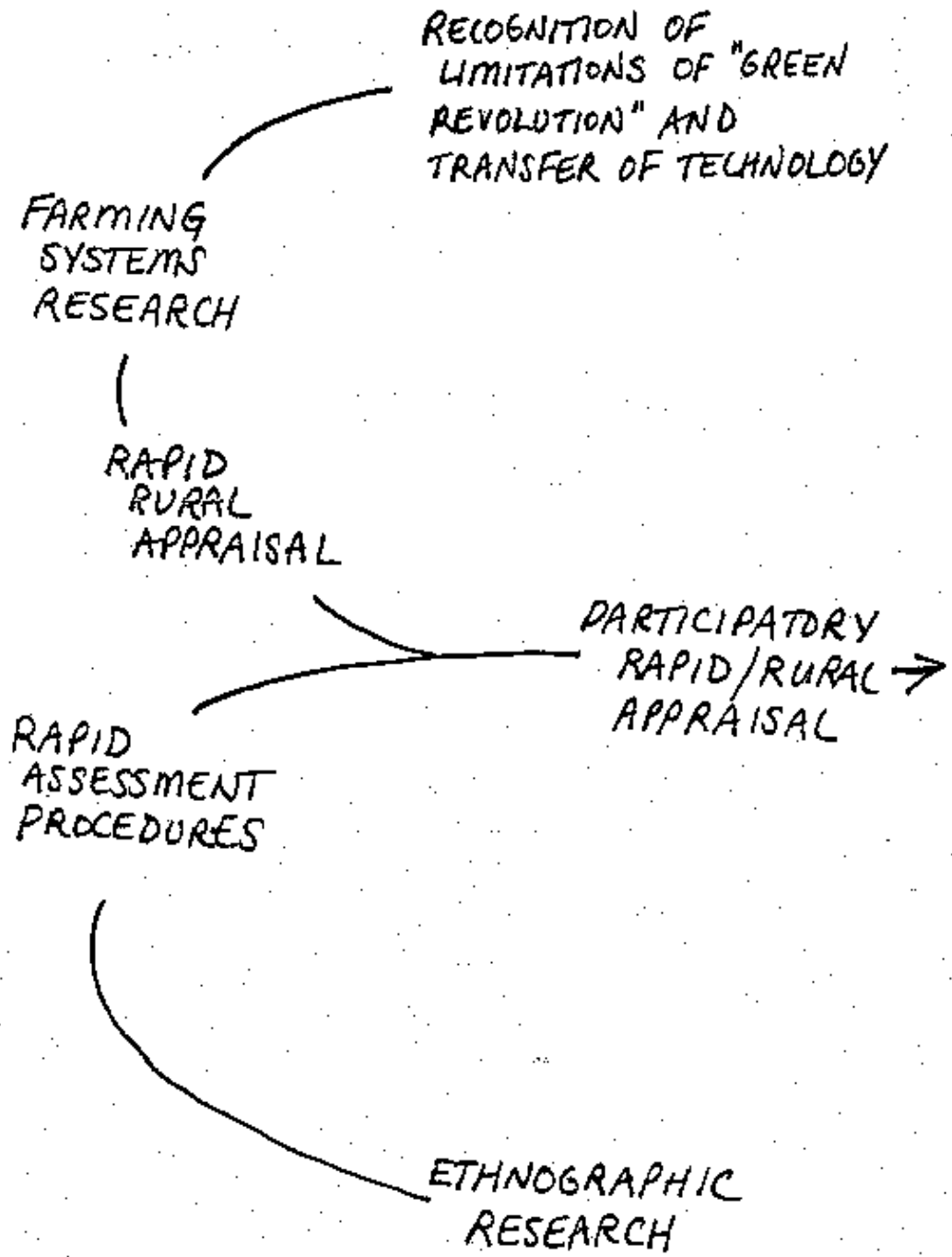
**Activities:** Trainers ask participants what they know about the background and history of PRA. Following this they give a brief description of the main trends in development theories of the last three decades and how these theories found an expression in the attitudes and approaches to development. Trainers and participants discuss briefly. The trainers then pose this question to the group: *"Can anyone think of a development project or technology which was tried here in our environment which failed because the planners did not take a "holistic" view of the local situation?"* After a participant identifies an example the group can discuss it briefly, identifying the local factors which the planners failed to take into consideration.

**Notes for Trainers:** This session allows the participants to put PRA in perspective. Keep this session as short as possible (you may even drop it altogether if it is not very relevant for the participants). Avoid overburdening the participants with information which is not essential, or intimidating the participants with your knowledge. Make sure this session does not become a debating session about which development model is "right" or "wrong".

If the trainees cannot identify an example from the local context on their own, help them along by hinting.

**Cautions:** Depending on the background of the participants this session can fail because trainees do not know enough about development models or because workshop participants get side-tracked into debates on the validity of different development models.

# BACKGROUND AND HISTORY OF PRA



## SESSION 7: Features of Participatory Rapid Appraisal

### A. Background Information

The main features of Participatory Rapid Appraisal are:

**Triangulation:** A form of cross-checking. Accuracy is achieved through diverse information and different kinds of sources of information, not statistical replicability. Triangulation is done in relation to:

- composition of the team
- sources of information (people, places, etc.)
- mix of techniques

**Multidisciplinary Team:** The members of the PRA team should have different skills and backgrounds. The different viewpoints of team members will complement each other and will provide a more comprehensive picture. In this way the team will approach the topic of the appraisal from different viewpoints, which gives new and deeper insights. All members of the PRA team are involved in all aspects of the study: design, data collection, and analysis (not just in data collection as in a conventional survey). The PRA team should always include women and, whenever possible, community members. PRA is a learning experience in which the participants also learn from each other.

**Mix of Techniques:** The PRA techniques are taken from a wide range of possible tools which are tailored to the specific requirements of the study.

**Flexibility and Informality:** Plans and research methods are semi-structured and are revised, adapted, and modified as the PRA fieldwork proceeds.

**In the Community:** The main aspect of the PRA is learning from, with, and by members of the community - PARTICIPATION! The team should empathize with the community members and be able to see their lives and their problems through the eyes of the community members (in anthropology this is known as an emic perspective). Most of the activities are done jointly with community members or by them on their own (e.g., planning, mapping, and analysis). PRAs are generally too short for *outsiders* to become *insiders*. Therefore it is important to have community members (*insiders*) participate in the appraisal. Involving community members can greatly facilitate interpretation, understanding, and analysis of collected data.

**Optimal Ignorance and Appropriate Imprecision:** The PRA team avoids the unnecessary detail, accuracy, and overcollection of data (as in sample surveys) which is not really needed for the purpose of the PRA (this is decided through on-the-spot analysis). The team asks itself: *"What kind of information is required, for what purposes, and how accurate does it have to be?"*

**On-the-Spot Analysis:** Learning takes place in the field and the analysis of the information gathered is an integral part of the fieldwork itself. The team constantly reviews and analyzes its findings in order to determine in which direction to proceed. It builds up understanding and narrows the focus of the PRA as it accumulates knowledge.

**Offsetting Biases and Being Self-Critical:** The PRA team actively seeks out the poorest, women, and other disadvantaged groups in remote areas, during the worst time of the year, at any time of day, and avoids talking only to the well-off, the better-educated, the articulate, and the men. The team also has to be careful to analyze its own biases in order to prevent the PRA from turning into development tourism and collecting of rumors. The team reflects on what is said and not said, seen and not seen, who is met and not met, and tries to identify possible sources of error and how they influence the interpretation of the gathered information. The team must also try to avoid value judgements about others.

## **B. Training Guidelines**

**Purpose:** To introduce the main PRA features and key terms.

**Time:** 45 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 7.1: Main Features of PRA  
Chart 7.2: Triangulation  
Chart 7.3: On-the-Spot Analysis

**Activities:** Option 1: Participants split into two groups. Trainers have prepared two sets of cards for each group. One set shows the titles of the PRA features, the other set has the definitions and descriptions corresponding to each title. The two groups arrange the cards and match titles and definitions for each of the features. Trainers should circulate in the groups to help them if they are having trouble. The two subgroups then compare and discuss their results briefly.

Option 2: Trainers present the information in a lecturette.

**Notes for Trainers:** If you feel that the trainees do not have enough background to do the exercise (Option 1), you should present the information in a lecturette instead. Try to explain these terms as simply as possible and avoid jargon as this would create barriers between you and the participants. Give examples which are relevant to the participants' experience. Use diagrams 7.2 and 7.3 to explain the concepts.

Participants should understand that these PRA features are not optional but an essential part of every PRA. Review these features later during the workshop (e.g., during the warm-up at the beginning of the second day of the workshop).

**Cautions:** Do not spend too much time on these terms but refer to them throughout the workshop to make sure that all participants understand them well and apply them during the fieldwork. Try to convey the idea that PRA requires that researchers and community development workers may have to change their attitudes.

MAIN FEATURES OF PARTICIPATORY RAPID APPRAISAL

TRIANGULATION

- composition of the team (multidisciplinary, includes men and women, insiders and outsiders)
- variety of sources of information (people, places, events, and processes)
- mix of techniques and tools

FLEXIBILITY AND INFORMALITY

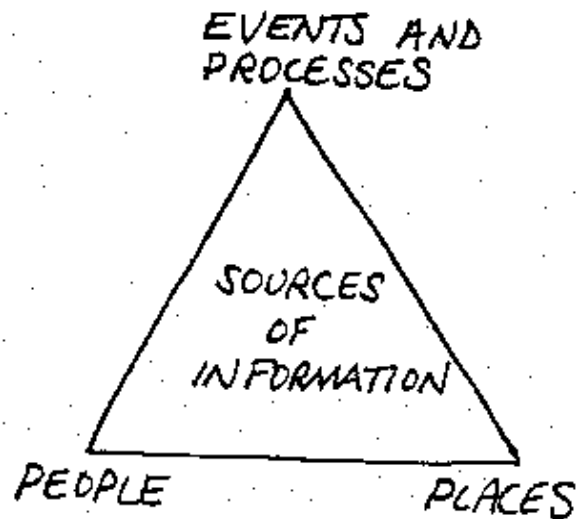
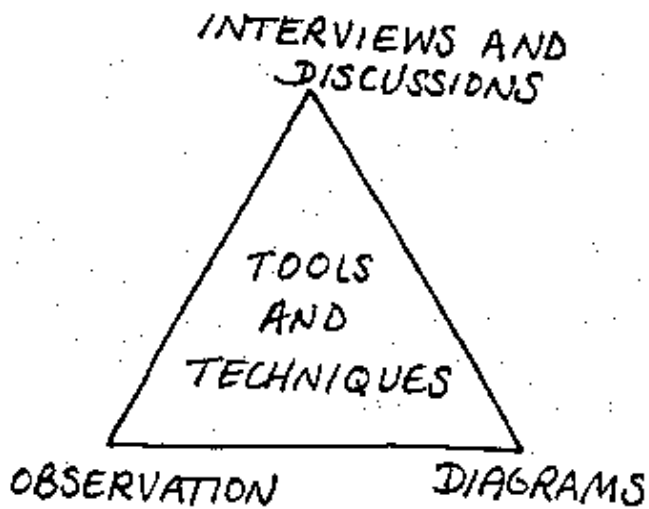
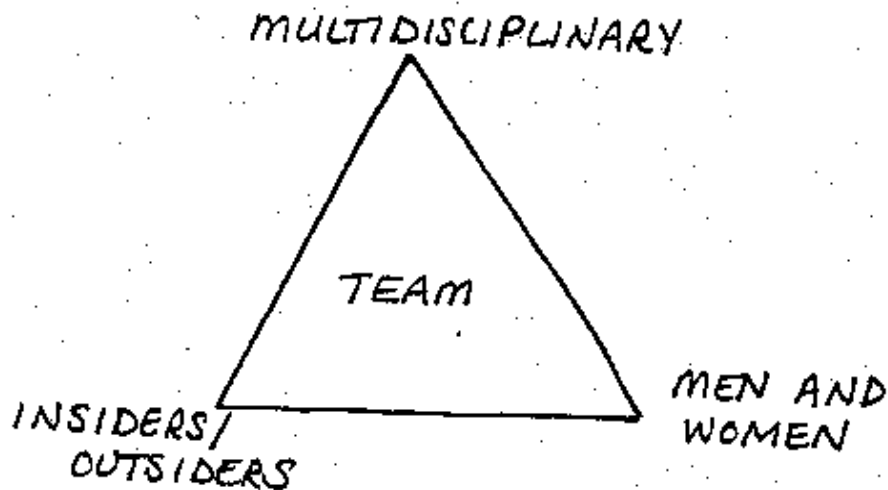
IN THE COMMUNITY

OPTIMAL IGNORANCE AND APPROPRIATE IMPRECISION

ON-THE-SPOT ANALYSIS

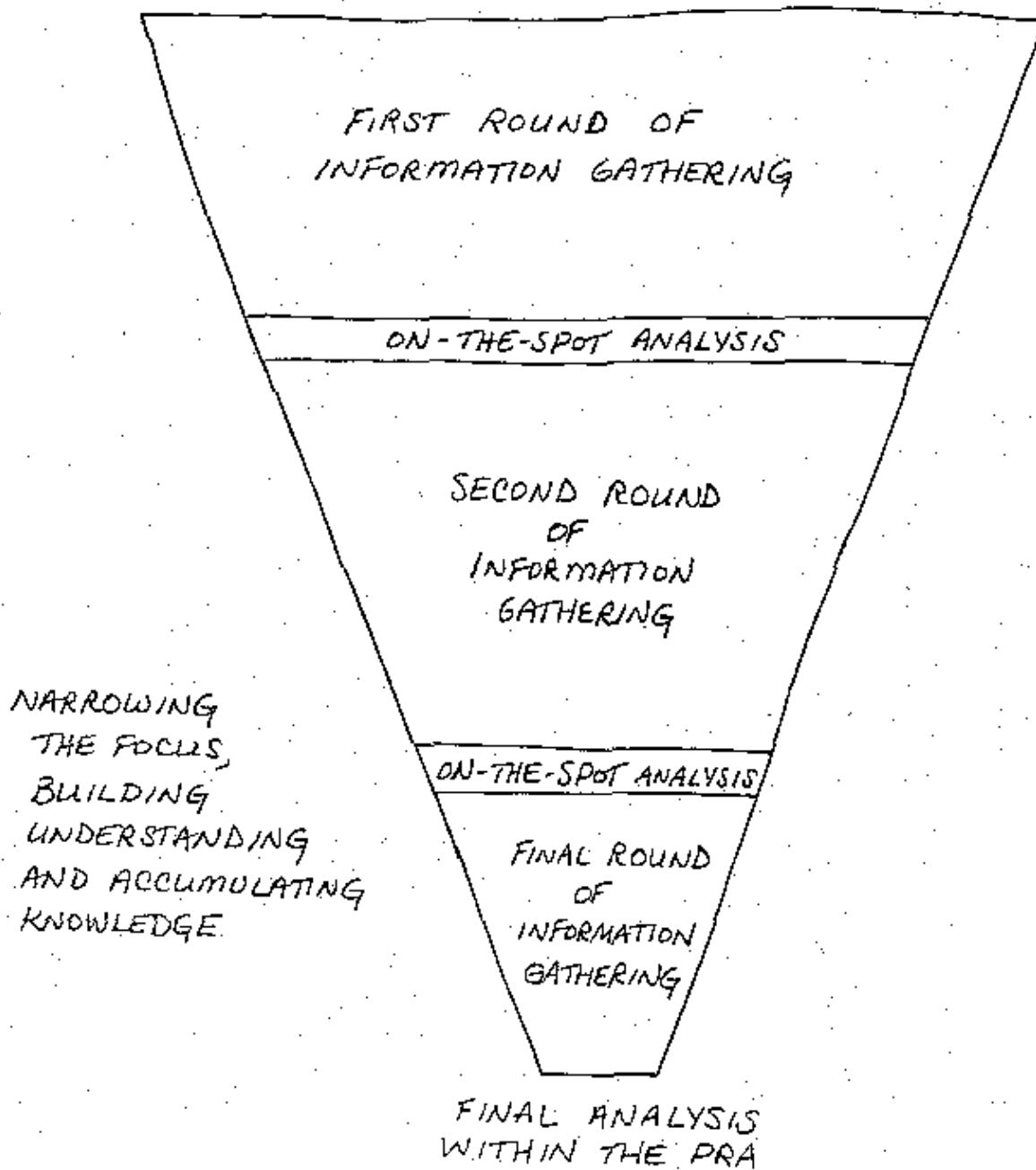
OFFSETTING BIASES AND BEING SELF-CRITICAL

TRIANGULATION





# ON-THE-SPOT ANALYSIS



IF NECESSARY, THE FOCUS CAN ALSO BE WIDENED IN THE COURSE OF THE FIELDWORK.

## SESSION 8: PRA versus Other Research Methods

### A. Background Information

Survey research is the most popular social research method, and is commonly used by universities and research institutions, as well as government and non-governmental organizations. It derives much of its popularity from its formal and standardized research techniques which produce quantifiable, representative, verifiable, and comparable data which can be statistically analyzed. Survey enumerators do not have to make many independent decisions and, if well trained, can collect the data without requiring the primary researcher to take part in the data collection in the field.

The main advantages of PRA over conventional survey research are its level of community participation, short duration, and low costs. While data collection by sample surveys sometimes requires less time, data analysis almost always takes more time. Data must be coded, entered into a computer, and then analyzed in separate steps and at places removed from the research site. Once data collection has been completed it is very difficult and costly to collect missed or wrongly-recorded information as this would require sending the team back into the field. The costs of obtaining information contained in formal surveys often exceed the value of the data. Survey research also suffers from the disadvantages of its inflexibility and potential superficiality. Its predesigned and fixed questionnaires do not allow progressive learning during data collection in the field, and make it difficult to gain a deep understanding of social processes.

Participatory Rapid Appraisal is especially well-suited for application in community development as it involves the field team and community members in all aspects of the study, the design of the research tools, the collection of information, and the analysis of the findings. Only data which will actually be used by development workers and community members in their work is collected, and a high degree of community participation in the study guarantees that the collected information is relevant. On-the-spot analysis ensures that gaps in the knowledge acquired can be filled immediately, before leaving the field. In conventional survey research the different steps (design of questionnaire, data collection, data analysis, writing of report) are segregated hierarchically and done by different individuals or groups. In a quantitative survey every interview has equal weight, whereas in a PRA every interview or observation is more important than the previous one, as the multidisciplinary team continuously builds on its previously accumulated learning experience. PRA raises people's self-awareness, suggests viable solutions, and helps people analyze complex issues and problems.

PRA techniques complement, and in many cases substitute, other research methods, but they do not make redundant more formal and detailed surveys and analyses. PRA methods and quantitative methods do not exclude each other and can be used simultaneously. The choice of methods depends on the kind of information required and the availability of resources (staff, time, funds, vehicles). Particularly when accurate quantitative data is needed, as in a demographic census or a family enrollment, or when sophisticated statistical analysis is required, PRA methods cannot replace more formal survey techniques. On the other hand, if the main objective is to learn about community members' attitudes and opinions, PRA would be the method of choice.

Ethnographic research methods were developed during the first decades of this century. In classic ethnographic fieldwork an individual anthropologist lives in a community for one or more years and learns about all aspects of the community's life (e.g., language, agriculture, religion, politics) through *participant observation*. The researcher becomes an *insider* for a limited period. This method is particularly well-suited for gaining an intimate understanding of a community's self-perception (an insider's perspective). PRA has used some of the elements of ethnographic research and shares its holistic approach but it differs in other ways (multidisciplinary team, short duration, community participation) from ethnographic research. In most cases PRA will not be able to uncover deep insights into a community's more sensitive aspects.



## PRA versus Other Research Methods

	PRA	Survey Research	Ethnographic Research
<i>Duration</i>	Short	Long	Long
<i>Cost</i>	Low to medium	Medium to high	Medium
<i>Depth</i>	Preliminary	Exhaustive	Exhaustive
<i>Scope</i>	Wide	Limited	Wide
<i>Integration</i>	Multidisciplinary	Weak	Weak
<i>Structure</i>	Flexible, informal	Fixed, formal	Flexible, informal
<i>Direction</i>	Bottom-up	Top-down	Not applicable
<i>Participation</i>	High	Low	Medium to high
<i>Methods</i>	Basket of tools	Standardized	Basket of tools
<i>Major research tool</i>	Semi-structured interview	Formal questionnaire	Participant observation
<i>Sampling</i>	Small sample size based on variation	Random sampling, representative	None
<i>Statistical analysis</i>	Little or none	Major part	Little or none
<i>Individual case</i>	Important, weighed	Not important, not weighed	Important, weighed
<i>Formal questionnaires</i>	Avoided	Major part	Avoided
<i>Organization</i>	Non-hierarchical	Hierarchical	Not applicable
<i>Qualitative descriptions</i>	Very important	Not as important as 'hard data'	Very important
<i>Measurements</i>	Qualitative or indicators used	Detailed, accurate	Detailed, accurate
<i>Analysis/Learning</i>	In the field and on the spot	At office	In the field and on the spot

## B. Training Guidelines

**Purpose:** To illustrate the advantages and disadvantages of different research techniques.

**Time:** 20 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 8.1: PRA versus Other Research Methods

**Activities:** The trainers compare different research methods (Chart 8.1) and discuss them briefly with the participants.

**Notes for Trainers:** This session will help you get a feeling for the participants' familiarity with various research methods. If necessary, adapt Chart 8.1 according to the trainees' previous experience with research techniques.

**Cautions:** Don't let this session disintegrate into a heated discussion about the relative advantages and disadvantages of various data collection techniques.

Chart 8.1 <u>PRA VERSUS OTHER RESEARCH METHODS</u>	
<u>PARTICIPATORY APPRAISAL</u>	<u>QUESTIONNAIRE RESEARCH</u>
Short time	Long time
Low cost	High cost
Flexible	Fixed
High participation	Low participation
On-the-spot analysis	Analysis in the office
Little statistical analysis	Heavy statistical analysis
Semi-structured interviews and group discussions	Formal questionnaires
Opportunity sample	Random sample
Multi-disciplinary team	Enumerators
Non-hierarchical	Hierarchical
Best for learning and understanding rural peoples' opinions, behaviors, and attitudes	Best for gathering representative, quantitative data and statistical analysis

## SESSION 9: Dangers of PRA

### A. Background Information

Although the potential applications of PRA are numerous and wide ranging, certain considerations should be taken into account in deciding whether or not PRA is appropriate for particular situations and projects. Perhaps the most important considerations are:

- the availability of appropriate people to conduct the study,
- the degree to which project structure and decision-making are sufficiently flexible to make use of new information, and
- the intended use of the findings.

Experience, qualifications, teamwork, and varied disciplinary perspectives are critical to the success of a PRA. If these attributes are not available, participatory appraisal may be counterproductive and result in questionable findings.

When flexibility is abused it may allow individuals to do anything and call it PRA. If done in a hurry and constrained too much by circumstances, PRA becomes "development tourism" which relies largely on initial findings and merely confirms biases, preconceptions, and stereotypes. Carelessly-done PRAs are not only of questionable accuracy and value, they will also tarnish the reputation of participatory appraisal in general. The key to successful PRA is not to avoid superficiality and error completely, but to control them and achieve cost-effectiveness through optimal ignorance and appropriate imprecision. Good PRA skills can only be developed through practice and through an accumulation of experience in the field.

### B. Training Guidelines

**Purpose:** To alert the participants to potential dangers of PRA.

**Time:** 20 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 9.1: What Are Possible Dangers of PRA?  
Chart 9.2: Possible Dangers and Shortcomings of PRA

**Activities:** Participants brainstorm to identify possible dangers and problems of PRA. Trainers then uncover Chart 9.2 and compare it with the list generated by the trainees.

**Notes for Trainers:** This session introduces only some of the elements participants should watch out for when they use PRA methods. The trainers should refer to possible dangers throughout the workshop whenever participants are contradicting some of the basic features of PRA.



Chart 9.1

WHAT ARE POSSIBLE DANGERS OF PRA?

Chart 9.2

POSSIBLE DANGERS AND SHORTCOMINGS OF PRA

- difficulty of finding the right team
- going too quickly may lead to superficiality
- desire for statistics and quantitative data
- desire for the security of a fixed questionnaire
- difficulty of finding the right questions to ask
- difficulty of finding the poorest and least educated, especially women
- failure to involve community members
- lack of rapport with the community
- failure to listen and lack of humility and respect
- seeing only part of a situation or problem and not getting the full picture
- making value judgements about others
- being misled by myth and gossip
- generalizing based on too little information or too few informants
- overlooking the invisible
- lecturing instead of listening and learning
- raising expectations in the community where the PRA is carried out
- imposing "our" ideas, categories and values without realizing it. This makes it difficult to learn from "them", makes "them" appear ignorant when they are not
- male teams and neglect of women
- if the approach is wrong PRA will not work. The right attitudes and behavior are key to the success of a PRA



## SESSION 10: Participatory Rapid Appraisal and the Project Cycle

### A. Background Information

Planning, monitoring, and evaluation of development projects are frequently treated as separate activities and carried out with little or no input from the project "participants". Projects are planned by outsiders, taken to the village where they are implemented, and after some time the project is evaluated again by outsiders. This top-down approach to development has three main shortcomings:

- projects may not be appropriate to the needs of the community since community members were not involved in planning,
- community members may not fully understand the purpose of the project and not feel ownership or responsibility since they were not involved in designing it, and
- evaluation and monitoring of project activities are often wasteful of time and other resources because they are not treated as an integral part of the project implementation process.

Participatory appraisal offers a wide range of techniques which facilitate involvement of the community in all aspects of project design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. This ensures that the community members are empowered and take a stronger interest and larger role in their development activities.

### B. Training Guidelines

**Purpose:** To introduce the project cycle and how PRA fits in the cycle.

**Time:** 30 minutes

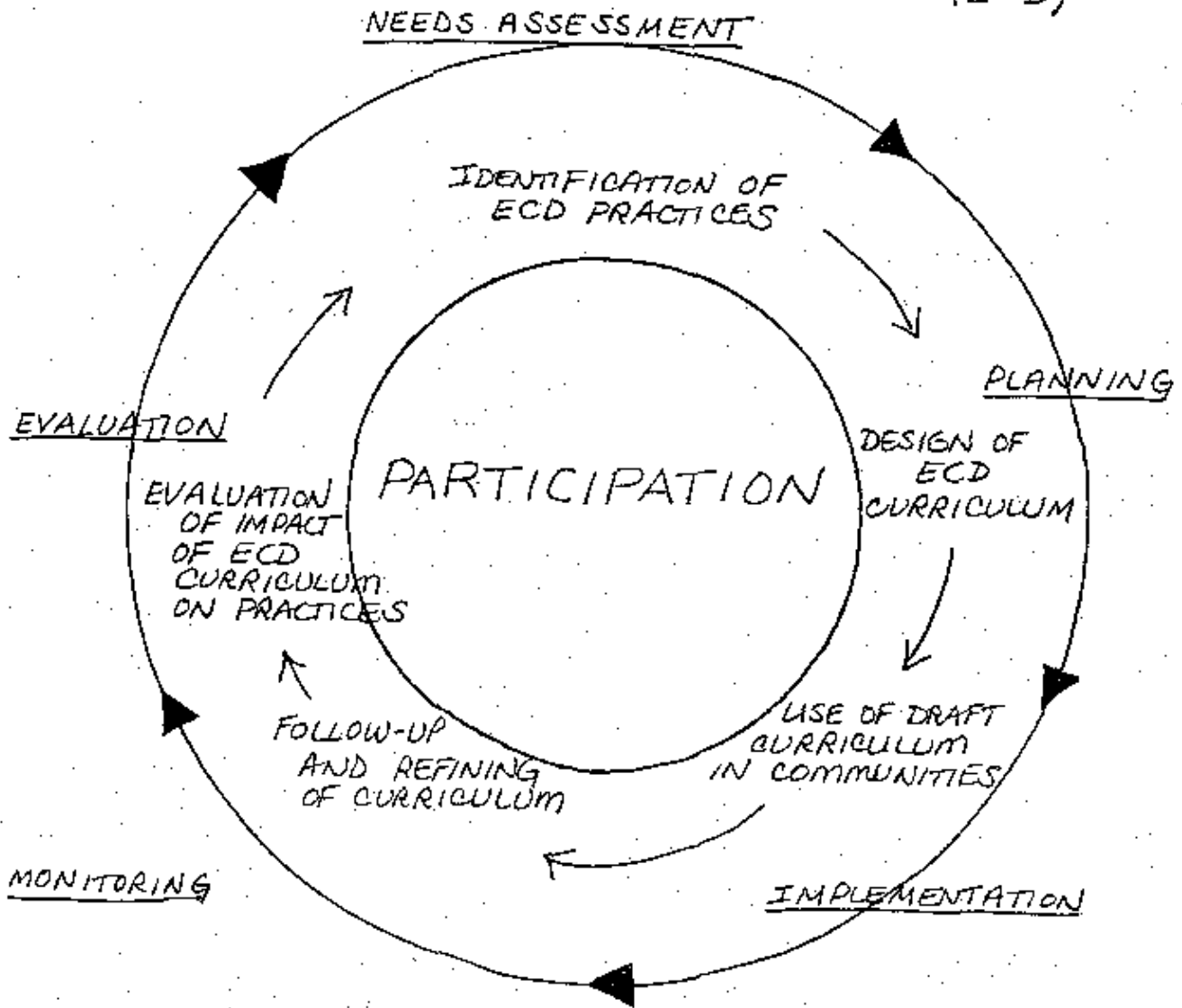
**Materials:** Chart 10.1: PRA and the Project Cycle  
Handout 10.2: PRA and the Project Cycle

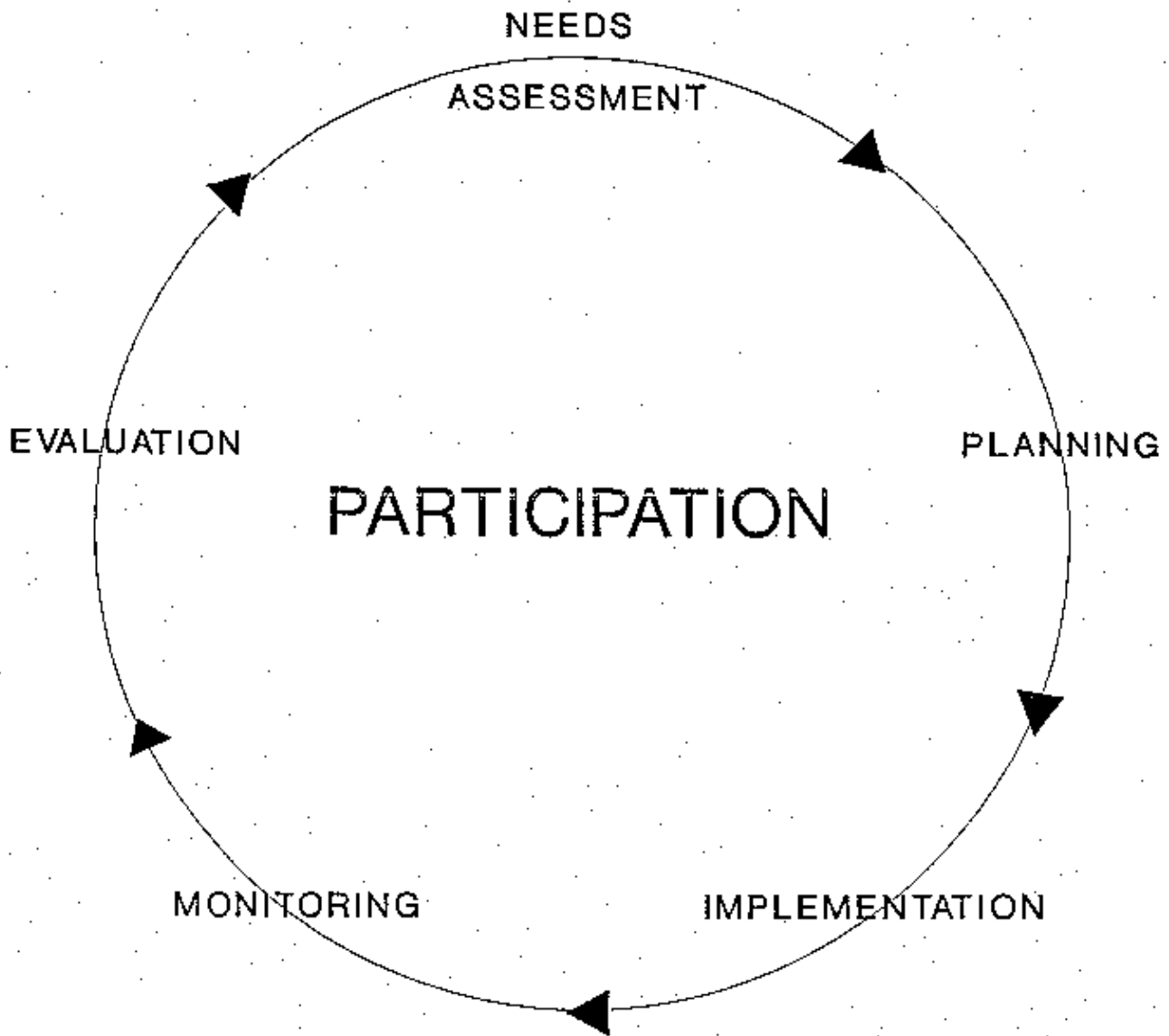
**Activities:** Trainers explain the project cycle briefly using Chart 10.1. Participants split into groups of 4-5. Each group receives one project cycle handout and inserts appropriate activities for each stage of the project cycle for a concrete project. The whole group reviews and discusses the results.

**Notes for Trainers:** This session will indicate how well the participants have grasped the potential of PRA for their work. Refer to the project cycle later during the workshop to check the participants' understanding again. It may be necessary to spend some more time explaining the project cycle and clarifying the differences between monitoring and evaluation. Monitoring is the routine collection, analysis, and use of information about the progress of an activity or project. Evaluation is the periodic assessment of the extent to which the objectives of an activity or project have been accomplished. Make sure the different elements of the project cycle are seen as integral parts of the whole process and not as isolated activities done by different people.

# PRA AND THE PROJECT CYCLE

EXAMPLE: DEVELOPMENT OF AN EARLY CHILDHOOD  
DEVELOPMENT CURRICULUM  
(ECD)





## **SESSION 11: Overview of PRA Techniques**

### **A. Background Information**

PRA makes use of a wide range of techniques including:

- Secondary Data Review
- Direct Observation, Observation Indicator Checklists
- Semi-Structured Interviewing
- Focus Group Discussions
- Preference Ranking and Scoring
- Pairwise Ranking
- Direct Matrix Ranking
- Ranking by Voting
- Wealth Ranking
- Analysis Group Discussion
- Innovation Assessment
- Construction of Diagrams
- Mapping and Modelling
- Participatory Mapping
- Historical and Future (Visioning) Mapping
- Mobility Mapping
- Social Mapping
- Transect (Walks)
- Seasonal Calendar
- Historical Seasonal Calendar
- Time Trends
- Historical Profile
- Livelihood Analysis
- Flow/Causal Diagram
- Venn/Institutional Diagram
- Systems Diagram
- Pie Chart
- Histogram
- Participant Observation (do-it-yourself, learning by doing)
- Oral Histories
- Workshops and Workshopping
- Group Walks
- Stories
- Case Studies and Portraits
- Proverbs
- Indigenous Categories and Terms, Taxonomies, Ethno-classifications

Of course, any given PRA will not use all of these techniques. The research team will select the most appropriate and useful set of techniques each time a PRA is done and should experiment with, invent, and adapt methods as necessary.

## B. Training Guidelines

**Purpose:** To provide an overview of the range of tools used in PRA.

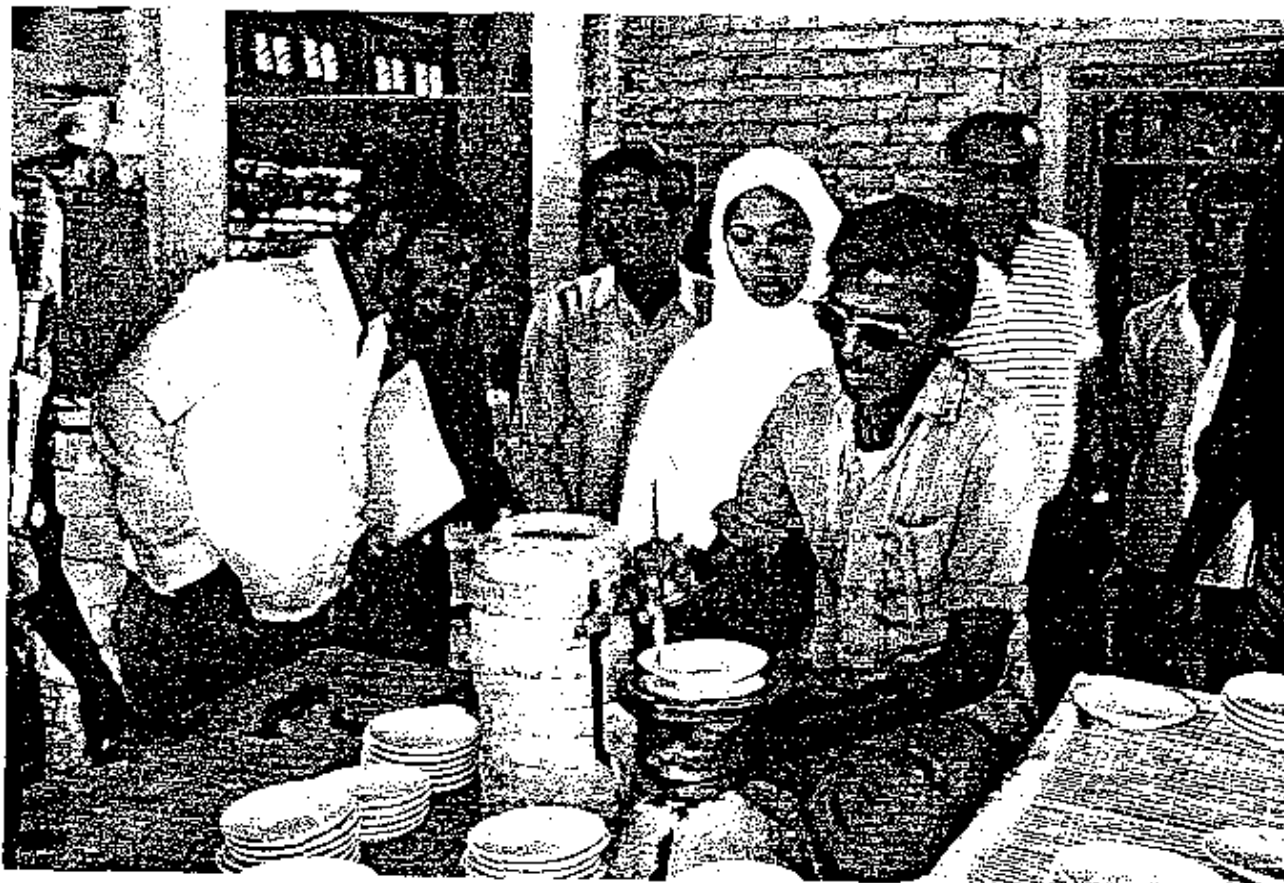
**Time:** 30 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 11.1: Basket of PRA Tools and Techniques

Handout 11.2: Example: Assessing Women's Needs Using PRA Techniques

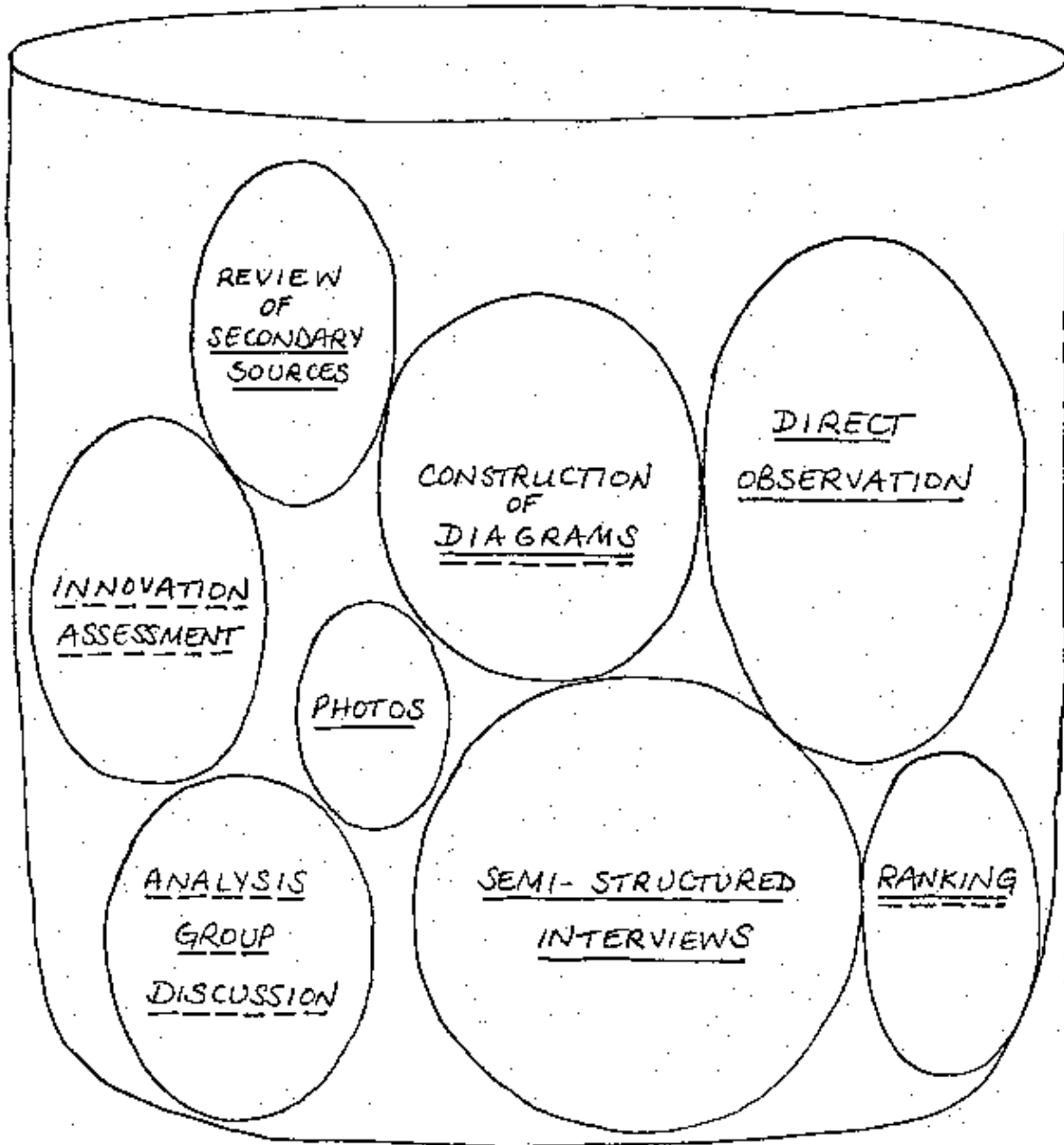
**Activities:** Trainers review the list of PRA tools with the help of Chart 11.1.

**Notes for Trainers:** Explain that some PRA tools are suitable for data collection (direct observation, review of secondary sources, semi-structured interviewing), while others are better for data analysis (innovation assessment). Some tools can be used for both information gathering and analysis (ranking and some of the diagrams). When drawing Chart 11.1 use different colors for data collection and for analysis tools respectively. A number of these tools will be used and practiced during the workshop. There is no need to go into more detail at this point. You may prefer to include only those tools which will be practiced during the workshop or include additional techniques.



# BASKET OF PRA TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES

- TOOLS FOR COLLECTING INFORMATION
- TOOLS FOR ANALYZING INFORMATION



## ASSESSING WOMEN'S NEEDS USING PRA TECHNIQUES

Save the Children (SC) has been implementing development projects in the Gaza Strip since 1978. Like many other NGOs, SC found itself implementing women's activities year after year without paying sufficient attention to women's expressed needs and their own proposed solutions. A broader understanding of the interplay of social, economic, cultural, ideological, and political factors in Gaza was critical to developing more appropriate strategies in response to women's needs. As a result, SC carried out a PRA on women in the Gaza Strip. The purpose was to understand the social and economic roles of women better and to obtain more information to improve women's projects. PRA methods were chosen for the following reasons:

- understanding women's lives and roles was more important than generating statistical data,
- women from the community had to be involved in the entire process of research, and
- informal research techniques were likely to attract less attention in the tense political environment.

The PRA fieldwork itself was done in two areas, a rural area and a densely-populated urban quarter. The sites were chosen because they represented a typical rural and a typical urban community within the Gaza Strip, and because SC already had contacts with these communities and was well-placed to do follow-up work based on the results of the PRA.

### PREPARATIONS

Prior to conducting the PRA training and forming the research team, secondary sources were reviewed, including books, journal articles, and unpublished documents on women in the Gaza Strip and the West Bank. While informative, this review revealed a lack of detailed and reliable data on women's lives in Gaza. Following the review of secondary sources, the trainer conducted semi-structured interviews with key informants to guide in PRA preparation and selection of the research team and tools. The key informants included representatives of women's committees engaged in productive projects, academics involved in development work with women, and businesspeople promoting private women's industries. These interviews were very helpful in framing the terms of reference for the research itself, and highlighted the key issues involved in women's development projects. These issues can be briefly summarized as follows:



**Key Issues:**

- Should women be encouraged to move out of traditional 'women's activities' (like embroidery) or encouraged to continue activities in which they already have experience?
- Should all development projects for women be collective, or should organizations also encourage individual, home-based activities, and why?
- What are the relative advantages and disadvantages of women-only and mixed (men and women) development projects?

**PRA TRAINING**

To form the PRA research team eight women from Gaza with a variety of educational and professional backgrounds were selected, most of whom had some experience in organizing community projects in education or economic productivity. None were academics; some had college degrees while others only had secondary-level education. Only one of the women had prior research experience. Two of the women were from the areas chosen as fieldwork sites. While a nine-woman research team was felt to be relatively large for a PRA, the lack of research experience made it difficult to predict if the participants would be able to carry out the research. By selecting more researchers than necessary it was hoped to offset the lack of experience. During the fieldwork and the analysis sessions the research team was split into two subteams based on relative strengths and weaknesses. In this way members could fill the gaps in others' knowledge or experience.

The PRA began with an intensive three-day training of the research team, with two days for introduction of PRA tools and methods and one day for the preparation of the fieldwork. The two trainers were the team leader, with an extensive background in participatory training techniques but limited experience in research and PRA work, and a co-trainer, an anthropologist with extensive background in research and PRA work.

Participatory non-formal adult education techniques were used during the training and each tool was practiced before being used in the field. The team developed a research plan and designed appropriate tools based on the broad goal of the PRA: *"To understand the social and economic roles of women better, and to give us information to improve our women's projects."* The team-generated research plan is shown in Session 19. The PRA focused on several distinct topics:

**Main Topics:**

- sources of support and community institutions,
- livelihood,
- education/skills/experience,
- decision-making and participation, and
- problems facing women and their communities.

## PRA FIELDWORK

To approach these various topics and sub-topics, the following tools were selected:

### Tools

**Semi-structured interviews** were carried out with about 50 individual women, several key informants, and a few groups of women. The information from these interviews formed the core results of the PRA.

**Direct observation** was critical in cross-checking data obtained through interviews. A direct observation checklist was completed by one team-member during each individual interview. It included a section on perceived relationships among family members which was important in analyzing male-female dynamics in the household.

The seasonal calendar was introduced during the training but was found to be somewhat irrelevant as women's lives did not vary enough seasonally to warrant using a seasonal calendar. Similarly, the team experimented with a women's life cycle diagram, but discarded it.

The trainers created two new tools in response to the requirements of the PRA. The first was a **mobility map** (see Session 16b). Mobility maps were used during each individual interview to determine where, why, and how often women traveled. During the analysis stage these mobility maps guided discussions about women's freedom of movement and allowed the team to produce a picture of the relative independence of women of different locations and socioeconomic groups.

The second new tool was the **daily routine diagram**, which was used to assess the typical daily pattern of women's lives and workloads in rural and urban areas. Like the mobility map, the daily routine diagram was used during each individual interview. While women's daily routine in the rural area was fairly uniform, the pattern in the urban quarter was more diverse. The major difference in women's daily routine depended on whether or not they worked outside the home. The daily routine diagram was also useful in determining the burden of household responsibilities and the appropriate schedule for future community activities, such as training.

The PRA training and fieldwork took a total of three weeks. The final report summarized the research results for the two areas according to: education, health, life in the home and daily routine, agriculture, wealth, income and work outside the home, decision-making and participation in the community, needs, and problems.

The results of the PRA were used to start women's activities together with the women who had participated in the research.

## **SESSION 12: Review of Secondary Sources**

### **B. Training Guidelines**

**Purpose:** To introduce the importance and usefulness of reviewing secondary sources before beginning to collect new information.

**Time:** 30 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 12.1: Review of Secondary Sources  
Chart 12.2: Exercise: Review of Secondary Sources

**Activities:** Trainers introduce relevance of secondary sources (Chart 12.1) or begin by asking participants "*What are secondary sources?*" Participants brainstorm about possible secondary sources for the PRA topic and discuss ways of summarizing these sources.

**Notes for Trainers:** In preparing for the fieldwork the participants will review secondary sources. There is no need to practice review of secondary sources at this stage. Participants should collect and obtain specific secondary sources needed for the PRA (this could be a homework assignment).

Later during the workshop, project records, reports, and baseline data collected by project staff and/or community members over the past years are reviewed to formulate questions and identify subtopics for the PRA before going into the field. Photocopies of secondary source documents should be made in advance. Diagrams, tables, and checklists are prepared to summarize secondary data for easy access during the field visits.

If the participants do not share a common background on the topic of the PRA, secondary sources (books, articles, maps, photos, films, videos) can be used to familiarize the team with the topic.

Chart 12.1

### REVIEW OF SECONDARY SOURCES

Secondary data are sources of information which are relevant to the area or subject of the planned PRA and are available in published or unpublished form (e.g., reports, statistics, maps, aerial photos, films).

Secondary sources form the background information for any information gathering and much time can be saved by knowing which data already exist and do not have to be collected again. Secondary sources are also useful for clarifying the PRA topic and formulating hypotheses by reviewing what has already been said or written about the topic and what has been missed in existing secondary sources.

Secondary sources should be reviewed before the fieldwork and prepared in the form of:

- diagrams
- tables and lists
- brief summary paragraphs
- copies of maps and photographs

Cautions:

- do not spend time on the review of secondary sources which could be better spent in the field
- be skeptical and critical
- look out for what has been missed

Chart 12.2

### EXERCISE: REVIEW OF SECONDARY SOURCES

1. Which secondary sources are available for the purpose of the planned PRA?
2. What information can we get from these sources?
3. How can we summarize these secondary sources?

## SESSION 13: Direct Observation

### A. Background Information

One danger with PRA is being misled by myth, rumors, and gossip. People often have beliefs about their values and activities which do not correspond with reality. It is common to be told about a custom, but probing for the last occasion when it was practiced reveals that it has either lapsed or perhaps was never practiced at all. As a consequence, direct observations of important indicators to support and cross-check findings are essential. The indicators can also be used to generate on-the-spot questions to ask community members without preparing formal questionnaires beforehand.

### Methods for Direct Observation:

- Measurement: use of tapes, scales, or other devices to directly measure things in the field, like field size, weight of harvests, or volume of fuelwood.
- Indicators: any object, event, process, or relationship which can be directly observed and used as an indicator of some other variable that is more difficult or impossible to observe (e.g., housetype as indicator for wealth of a household). Indicators should be valid, specific, reliable, relevant, sensitive, cost-effective, and timely.
- Recording: notebooks and record sheets, diagrams, photographs, collections of samples of objects (e.g., pest-infested crops, children's toys).
- Sites: markets, transportation (buses, taxis, trains), worksites, homes, health post, school/class, times before and after public meetings, places of worship, places of entertainment, hairdresser.
- Use observation checklists to ensure that observation is done systematically and observations from different sites are comparable.
- Use all your senses while observing: smell, listen, touch, taste, and participate/share in the activities in the community.
- When observing a complex event (e.g., ritual celebrations such as circumcisions or sports events), the team should plan and divide roles to provide multiple viewpoints. Different observers could concentrate on different groups of people, such as women, men, children, or tourists.
- Observe variations in dress as this may indicate status, class, wealth, ethnic, religious, or political affiliations.



## B. Training Guidelines

**Purpose:** To introduce and practice direct observation.

**Time:** One hour

**Materials:** Chart 13.1: Direct Observation  
Chart 13.2: Homework Task  
Chart 13.3: Direct Observation Tabulation Sheet  
Chart 13.4: Direct Observation Exercise Review

**Activities:** Trainers introduce direct observation, indicators, and direct observation checklist (Chart 13.1). Participants brainstorm about possible indicators for the wealth of a household in this area (or other topic related to the planned PRA fieldwork). This checklist can be used later during the fieldwork.

After a question and answer session, trainers present the homework task. The participants will present their findings during the warm-up on the following day. As an alternative activity which takes more time, the participants can split into two groups who observe the same thing. The members of the groups develop a checklist before they go out to do their observation. Finally both groups compare and discuss their findings.

**Notes for Trainers:** Direct observation deserves much attention and should be part of any PRA.

**Cautions:** Direct observation should not be used by itself. The unskilled observer and people not familiar with the area may seriously misinterpret what they see.

### Chart 13.1

#### DIRECT OBSERVATION

Direct observation is systematically observing objects, events, processes, relationships, or people, and recording these observations. Direct observation is a good way to cross-check respondents' answers. Use a checklist to do observations systematically.

#### Steps:

1. Think about the objectives and broad topics of your PRA.
2. Identify indicators which you can assess through direct observation.
3. These indicators make up your checklist.

What are possible indicators for the wealth of a household in this area?



Chart 13.2

HOMWORK TASK

You are part of a PRA team doing a study of eating habits in your community. You must use the direct observation method to assess the eating habits of one household - the household where you will eat dinner tonight.

Observe the following:

- number and types of dishes
- number, age, and gender of people sharing the meal
- quality and quantity of food
- way of eating (hands, utensils, sharing of dish...)

Add as many additional observations as you feel will improve the quality of the participatory appraisal. We will present our findings tomorrow morning during the warm-up.

Chart 13.3

DIRECT OBSERVATION TABULATION SHEET

Name of Observer	# & Types of Dishes	#, Age, Gender of People Sharing Meal	Quality & Quantity of Food	Way of Eating

Chart 13.4

DIRECT OBSERVATION EXERCISE REVIEW

- What can we learn from our observation?
- What conclusions can we draw?
- What hypotheses can we formulate?
- What are the dangers of observation?
- How could this observation be improved?



## SESSION 14: Semi-Structured Interviewing

### A. Background Information

**Definition:** Semi-structured interviewing (SSI) is one of the main tools used in PRA. It is a form of guided interviewing where only some of the questions are predetermined. PRA interviews do not use a formal questionnaire but at most a checklist of questions as a flexible guide. In contrast to the formal survey questionnaire, many questions will be formulated during the interview (as in a journalistic interview). If it becomes apparent during the interview that some questions are irrelevant, they can be skipped. Questions usually come from the interviewee's response, the use of ranking methods, observation of things around, and the PRA team's own background and experience.

### Types of Semi-Structured Interviews

**Individual interview:** to obtain representative information. Information obtained from individual interviews is more personal than from group interviews, and is more likely to reveal conflicts within the community since respondents may feel they can speak more freely without their neighbors present.

Interviews are conducted with an opportunity sample of purposely selected individual respondents. An opportunity sample of farmers would include farmer leaders, innovative farmers who have tried recommended technologies or successfully developed improved technologies, women farmers who are both members and heads of households, farmers who represent major cropping systems in the area, poor farmers with very limited resources, and traditional farmers who have resisted new technologies. Interviewing a number of different farmers on the same topic will quickly reveal a wide range of opinions, attitudes, and strategies. The bias of interviewing only men must be avoided. Ask individual respondents about their own knowledge and behavior, and not what they think about the knowledge and behavior of others.

Many communities have at least one "trouble-maker" who disagrees with everything. Responses from these persons can provide valuable cross-checks and reveal useful insights that may not result from the other interviews.

Random interviews with passers-by (e.g., during cross-walks) may also reveal useful information and unexpected viewpoints.

**Key informant interview:** to obtain special knowledge. A key informant is anyone who has special knowledge on a particular topic (merchant on transportation and credit, midwife on birth control practices, farmer on cropping practices). Key informants are expected to be able to answer questions about the knowledge and behavior of others and especially about the operations of the broader systems. While there are well-known risks of being misled by key informants' answers, and cross-checking is necessary, key informants are a major source of information for PRA. Valuable key informants are outsiders who live in the community (like school teachers) or people from neighboring communities (outsiders with inside knowledge), including people who have "married into" the community. They usually have a more objective perspective on affairs in the community than the community members themselves.

**Group interview:** to obtain community-level information. Group interviews have several advantages. They provide access to a larger body of knowledge, and provide an immediate cross-check on information as it is received from others in the group. When groups become too large (more than 20-25), however, management becomes more difficult as the group tends to break into smaller subgroups.

Group interviews are not useful for discussions of sensitive information. They can also be seriously misleading when the questioner is believed to have the power to control benefits or sanctions. Group interviews may reveal people's ideals rather than what actually exists, but triangulation of methods and cross-checking of information will reveal the whole picture. The interviewers should encourage alternative views and opinions and probe to avoid group pressure. Informal conversations after the meeting can be useful to get information from those who were not able to express their opinions during the group interview. Group interviews require more advance planning and preparation than individual interviews.

**Focus group discussion:** to discuss specific topics in detail. A small group of people (six to twelve) who are knowledgeable or who are interested in the topic(s) are invited to participate in the focus group discussion. A facilitator is chosen to ensure that the discussion does not diverge too far from the original topic and that no participant dominates the discussion.

## **B. Training Guidelines**

**Purpose:** To introduce SSIs and do role plays using semi-structured interviewing.

**Time:** Two hours

**Materials:** Chart 14.1: Semi-Structured Interviewing  
Chart 14.2: SSI Guidelines  
Chart 14.3: SSI Common Mistakes  
Chart 14.4: Example of an SSI Guide  
Chart 14.5: Exercise: Semi-Structured Interviewing  
Chart 14.6: Discussion of SSI Exercise  
Handout 14.7: Guidelines for SSIs

**Activities:** Trainers introduce semi-structured interviewing (Charts 14.1 - 14.3). Trainers ask trainees for examples during presentation of charts (e.g., "What are possible topics for group interviews?", "What are leading questions?"). Trainers distribute handouts on SSI guidelines, give 20 minutes to read, and discuss for another 20 minutes to clarify questions.

Trainees split into groups of 4-5. Each group conducts a semi-structured interview on a different topic. The trainers assign roles to each member of the subgroups. Each subgroup consists of 2-3 interviewers, one interviewee and one observer/notetaker (this role could be split into two if necessary). The interviewers take five minutes to identify interview questions. Trainers observe practice SSIs and note the participants' behavior for later discussion. After the role play the large group comes together to discuss the results of the interviews. The observers report their observations and the whole group discusses the way in which the interviews were conducted, which mistakes were made, and how to overcome them in the future.

**Notes for Trainers:** SSIs are critically important tools and enough time should be allocated to the practice session and to the discussions following them to make sure that the participants have some familiarity with SSI techniques, and confidence in using them, before they begin the fieldwork. If necessary repeat this exercise later during the workshop, perhaps during the preparations for the fieldwork. The less experienced the interviewers, the more aids they need (diagrams, checklists, etc.) to conduct successful SSIs. Avoid discussing the contents of the results of the SSI exercise, and instead discuss the process and method.

**Cautions:** Communication skills needed for SSI require much practice. Do not rush this session. If participants do not feel comfortable with semi-structured interviewing they will run into problems during the fieldwork.

Chart 14.1

### SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWING

Semi-structured interviewing is guided interviewing where only some of the questions are predetermined and new questions come up during the interview.

The interviewers prepare a list of topics and questions rather than a fixed questionnaire.

Semi-structured interviews are held with:

- **individuals:** for representative information. Interview a number of different individuals on the same topic (for example, women, men, old, young, participating and nonparticipating farmers).
- **key informants:** for specialized information. Key informants have special knowledge which others don't have (e.g., midwives on birth complications).
- **groups:** for general community-level information.
- **focus groups:** to discuss a specific topic in detail.

Chart 14.2

### SSI GUIDELINES

- The interviewing team consists of 2-4 people of different disciplines.
- Begin with the traditional greeting and state that the interview team is here to learn.
- Begin the questioning by referring to someone or something visible.
- Conduct the interview informally and mix questions with discussion.
- Be open minded and objective.
- Let each team member finish their line of questioning (don't interrupt).
- Carefully lead up to sensitive questions.
- Assign one notetaker (but rotate).
- Be aware of non-verbal signals.
- Avoid leading questions and value judgements.
- Avoid questions which can be answered with "yes" or "no".
- Individual interviews should be no longer than 45 minutes.
- Group interviews should be no longer than two hours.
- Each interviewer should have a list of topics and key questions written down in her notebook.

Chart 14.3

### SSI COMMON MISTAKES

- Failure to listen closely.
- Repeating questions.
- Helping the interviewee to give an answer.
- Asking vague questions.
- Asking insensitive questions.
- Failure to probe (cross-check) a topic.
- Failure to judge answers (believing everything).
- Asking leading questions.
- Allowing interview to go on too long.
- Overgeneralization of findings.
- Relying too much on what the well-off, the better educated, the old, and the men have to say.
- Ignoring anything that does not fit the ideas and preconceptions of the interviewer.
- Giving too much weight to answers that contain "quantitative data" (for example, "How many goats do you own?").
- Incomplete notetaking.



Chart 14.4

### EXAMPLE OF AN SSI GUIDE

Topic: How do people in this area cope with inflation?

Key issues and questions:

- What are the problems caused by inflation (economic, social, etc.)?
- What are the overall coping strategies?
- What are the coping strategies for each problem?

Chart 14.5

### EXERCISE: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWING

1. Split into \_\_\_\_\_ groups.
2. Each group has \_\_\_\_\_ interviewers, one interviewee and one observer/notetaker.
3. Group 1 interviews on this topic: [choose appropriate topic]  
Group 2 interviews on this topic: [choose appropriate topic]
4. The interviewers in each group take 5 minutes to brainstorm about what interview questions and sub-topics to use.
5. The group arranges itself in a circle.
6. Discuss the topic for 15 minutes. The interviewers should solicit the attitudes, opinions, and suggestions of the interviewees. Remember to use the SSI guidelines.
7. Observers keep quiet but note carefully what is being said, whether the interviewers follow the SSI guidelines, and any non-verbal communication.
8. Take 5 minutes to write your results/findings on a piece of flipchart paper to present to the large group.

Chart 14.6

### DISCUSSION OF SSI EXERCISE

- What were the main results?
- Did the interviewers follow the guidelines?
- Which guidelines did they ignore?
- Other observations

**BEFORE THE INTERVIEW:**

- Prepare yourself for the interview. You should be well-informed about the topic to be able to ask relevant questions and show an interest in the interviewees' responses.
- In selecting an appropriate team of interviewers, be aware of the impact that age, gender, class, ethnicity, etc., of team members may have on the quality of the collected information (e.g., in many societies female interviewers are better suited to interview women than males).
- Design a rough outline for the SSI. The outline will be refined during fieldwork. Start with general inquiries on a certain topic and add more detail and depth throughout the fieldwork.
- *Sampling of interviewees:* choose appropriate interviewees for the topic of the PRA based on their knowledge, age, gender, status, ethnicity, etc. Obtain a broad overview of the socioeconomic stratification of a community in the following way: find someone familiar with the community (community member or community development worker) who can draw a map of the community indicating the different quarters and socioeconomic, ethnic, and religious groups. For a more detailed socioeconomic stratification do wealth ranking. Select a number of interviewees from each category (male, female, old, young) based on availability (opportunity sample).
- Keep as low a profile as possible - small team, small notebooks, few vehicles (walk as much as possible). Avoid the "opinion poll syndrome", where the researchers drive up to the farmer in the field and jump out with notebook in hand ready to interview. Blending into the local context as much as possible is the best strategy.
- Be aware of the daily schedule of the community members. Time interviews so they do not interfere with respondents' important activities. Use time between interviews for other PRA activities (e.g., observation, mapping, analysis.).

**DURING THE INTERVIEW:**

- Be sensitive and respectful. Take a seat on the same level as the interviewee, not above, and begin the conversation with locally-accepted polite talk. Indications of contempt or disbelief to responses given by community members, such as smiling between team members or even criticisms of the responses, must be thoroughly avoided. Inappropriate behavior may result in inaccurate information.
- Use the same language as the interviewee (colloquial language) to reduce barriers. Include community members in the team to ensure that questions are relevant and phrased in a meaningful and sensitive manner. Use role plays to find the right language.

- The interview should be a dialogue or process where important information develops out of casual conversation. The quality of the gathered information depends in large part on the rapport between the interviewer and the informant. Build trust by showing interest in what is important for the respondent.
- **Observe:** keep the eyes open for patterns, behaviors, differences, and unusual things. Observe non-verbal indicators such as facial expressions, use of space, body language, tone of voice, touch, and eye contact, as they may reveal a great deal about the respondents' concerns or reservations and provide valuable clues for interpreting the answers. In practice, observation and interviewing will most often be done together. However, in recording your observations together with the responses of informants, clearly distinguish them for easy analysis. This can be achieved by dividing the pages of the notebook into two columns, one for responses, and the other for observations.
- Collect local classifications, terms, drawings (especially from children, who can be asked to draw a certain topic), poems, songs, folktales, sayings, and proverbs (e.g., folklore of a famine experience).
- **Questions** asked can be built around:
  - list of subtopics and key questions
  - existing information on the communities (reports and statistics)
  - maps, aerial photographs, and other diagrams
  - direct observation
- Questions that start with Who? Why? What? Where? When? How? always help to establish the basic situation. Not all of these six need be asked on any given point, but the interviewer should frequently run these over in the back of his mind to make sure nothing of importance is left out. When properly used, the "six helpers" always generate a lot of information for PRA interviewers.
- Questions should always be phrased in such a way that they require explanation (open-ended questions) rather than allowing the interviewee to answer with "yes" or "no".
- Formulate questions clearly and don't ask more than one question at a time.
- Most interviews should be opened with a broad question to allow respondents to discuss the topic in their own terms, not the interviewer's. Narrow questions predetermine the frame in which the topic is discussed and may restrict possible answers. Follow this with a series of specific questions to get more detail and depth. For example, after asking, "Can you give us an overview of the trees which grow in this area and what they are used for?", follow with specific questions to find out more about tree use. However, for sensitive topics or in cases where the interviewee has strong feelings about an issue, opening with a broad question may result in an interview where all subsequent answers are biased according to the first answer. In such a situation start with narrow questions. For example, rather than asking, "What impact did the recent drought have on your life?", ask a series of questions, such as: "What are your present living conditions?", "How did you live before the drought?", and "What happened to you during the drought?"



- Use "why" questions sparingly, because they may put the informant on the defensive and stop the flow of information.
- Make questions short and easy to understand, but aim at consistently drawing out more details.
- Do not ask leading questions, be objective, and avoid value judgements. Leading questions make further probing for details much more difficult and subsequent answers less reliable. (Instead of "Why is it important to immunize children?" ask "What do you think about immunization?"; instead of "Do you plant sorghum in July?" ask "When do you plant sorghum?").
- Avoid making conclusions for the interviewees or helping them to finish their sentences, even when they appear to have difficulty expressing themselves. Keep your own comments, knowledge, and conclusions separate from information obtained from the interviewee. The natural tendency to rephrase the response in one's own words is usually very strong and therefore the interviewer must consciously guard against this.
- Avoid lecturing and advising. The interviewer is there to learn, not to teach. The urge to change roles is particularly strong among health professionals who are tempted to treat patients and prescribe medicine. Such behavior is incompatible with a PRA.
- Carefully lead up to important or sensitive questions. If necessary, visit an informant several times to build up rapport before discussing more sensitive issues.
- Choose *proxy indicators* for sensitive questions (e.g., household expenses and listing of sources of income as proxy indicators for amount of household income):
- *Probe* (cross-check) each subtopic to obtain increasing detail and depth on a subject of study during the interview. In order to probe, listen closely to what is being said, challenge answers (where appropriate), and ask for backup information and more details. If you realize that you failed to probe on certain important issues, go back to those questions until you understand the issues clearly. Probing should be subtle cross-checking, not cross-examination. Experiment with different probing strategies:
  - show interest and encouragement by nodding, or saying "Yes",
  - pause to let the interviewee add more information, but don't make the pauses too long which may cause embarrassment,
  - repeat the question in slightly different ways (e.g., "What are the main dangers facing your children?"; "Which problems do you face in bringing up your children?"; "What do you worry about most when it comes to your children?"),
  - use neutral questions, such as: "Could you tell me more about that?"; "Could you give me an example?"; "Could you explain that to me?"
- Weigh responses and don't rely on too few informants. First impressions are often wrong. Test your understanding of an issue, term, or concept by using or describing it in subsequent discussions and interviews. If you have misunderstood the issue the informant will probably correct you.

- Have a mental checklist of questions but be open to new questions.
- Prepare a list of key questions and key probes which result in a whole series of new questions (e.g., *"What crop varieties have you experimented with in recent years?"*).
- Case studies, stories, household histories, and profiles can be used to analyze how a conflict was resolved, what coping strategies were used in a crisis, etc.
- Use contrast comparisons - ask group A why group B is different or does something differently, and vice versa.
- If you have to use fixed questionnaires keep them short and use them only at end the of an interview for a clear and narrowly-defined purpose.
- Use sequences or chains of interviews (e.g., alternate between group, individual, and key informant interviews).
- For each interview add general information on the informants as a basis for interpreting responses by different interviewees (age, gender, number of children, marital status, religion, socioeconomic status). Add the name of the interviewee, if possible.
- **Notetaking:** Good, detailed, and comprehensive recording is essential for PRA. Number questions and mark answers clearly. Assign one member of the interview team as notetaker (but rotate this task). This allows the other team members to concentrate on the interview and not to be distracted by writing. Design recording tools which facilitate later analysis of the collected data. Examples for recording tools are:
  - blank forms or tables (diagrams) for each tool and topic which can be arranged and sorted by topic/subtopic.
  - field notes written chronologically in a duplicate book (carbon paper). The second copy is arranged by topic/subtopic, the first copy is kept for later reference.
- Record what is being said and what you see; don't mix with your own interpretation.
- Use literal quotations in notes and reports. This is more accurate and gives flair.
- In situations where notetaking is difficult or impossible, write down a few quick notes as a memory aid immediately following the interview or observation. Later, in the evening of the same day, write up complete and detailed field notes. Don't delay this as you will forget quickly.
- Finish the interview politely. Thank the interviewee.

## SESSION 15: Ranking

**Purpose:** To introduce participants to the role of ranking in PRA.

**Time:** 15 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 15.1: What is Ranking?  
Chart 15.2: Ranking  
Chart 15.3: Guidelines for Ranking

**Activities:** Trainers ask questions on Chart 15.1 followed by a brief discussion of Chart 15.2. Trainers ask participants to give examples for ranking.

**Notes for Trainers:** Choose one or more of the following sessions as appropriate for the planned PRA fieldwork. Preference and direct matrix ranking can be done with individuals or in groups. Pairwise and wealth ranking are best done with individuals, and ranking by voting is useful in a group.

Chart 15.1

### WHAT IS RANKING?

- What is ranking?
- What is the purpose of ranking? Give examples.
- What are different methods of ranking?



Chart 15.2

### RANKING

Ranking or scoring means placing something in order. Analytical tools, such as ranking, complement semi-structured interviewing by generating basic information which leads to more direct questioning. They may be used either as part of an interview or separately. Pairwise ranking, for example, helps identify the main problems or preferences of individual community members, and their ranking criteria, and enables the priorities of different individuals to be easily compared.

#### Strengths of ranking:

- useful for sensitive information, especially for income or wealth. Informants tend to be more willing to provide relative values regarding their wealth than absolute figures ("Rank your income sources by importance" rather than "How much do you earn?").
- ranking scores are easier to obtain than absolute measurements.

#### Ranking methods include:

- Preference Ranking (Ranking by Voting)
- Pairwise Ranking
- Direct Matrix Ranking
- Wealth Ranking

Chart 15.3

### GUIDELINES FOR RANKING

- Let people do it their own way
- Use people's own units of measurement
- Use people's own names for whatever is to be ranked
- See if you can adapt local games for ranking
- Probe the reasons for the order of the ranking
- Be prepared
- Be patient

## SESSION 15a: Preference Ranking

**Purpose:** To introduce and practice preference ranking.

**Time:** 40 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 15a.1: Preference Ranking  
Chart 15a.2: Steps of Preference Ranking  
Chart 15a.3: Example of Preference Ranking  
Chart 15a.4: Exercise: Preference Ranking

**Activities:** Trainers introduce preference ranking, participants do the exercise.

**Notes for Trainers:** Adapt the exercise to the local conditions and choose a suitable topic for the exercise, preferably one which is related to the topic of the PRA fieldwork (e.g., "What are the main problems affecting the growth and development of children in Egypt?"). Start the exercise with a brainstorming session to elicit about six items to be ranked. Then, either publicly in the large group (voting) or privately (participants write down their preferences on a piece of paper), the group ranks the items. If the topic of the exercise is related to the PRA fieldwork you may want to repeat this exercise after completing the fieldwork to compare the changes in the participants' opinions.

Chart 15a.1

### PREFERENCE RANKING

Preference ranking allows the PRA team to determine quickly the main problems or preferences of individual villagers and enables the priorities of different individuals to be easily compared. Voting is also a form of preference ranking.

Chart 15a.2

### STEPS OF PREFERENCE RANKING

1. Choose a set of problems or preferences to be prioritized. This could be, for example, farming problems or preferences for tree species.
2. Ask the interviewee to give you her favored items in this set, in order of priority. Get a list of 3-6 items from each interviewee.
3. Repeat for several interviewees.
4. Tabulate the responses.



Chart 15a.3

EXAMPLE OF PREFERENCE RANKINGCONSTRAINTS TO AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

Problem	Respondents						Total Score	Ranking
	A	B	C	D	E	F		
Drought	5	5	3	5	4	5	27	a
Pests	4	3	5	4	5	4	25	b
Weeds	3	4	4	1	3	3	18	c
Costs of inputs	2	1	2	2	2	2	11	d
Labor shortage	1	2	1	3	1	1	9	e

5 = most important, 1 = least important

Chart 15a.4

EXERCISE: PREFERENCE RANKING OF SIX NATIONAL DISHES

1. List six popular dishes.
2. Each of the participants gives his or her preference ranking.
3. Tabulate the results and establish the final ranking order.
4. Discuss the results.

Dish	Respondents						Total Score	Ranking
	A	B	C	D	E	F		

Time: 30 minutes

## SESSION 15b: Pairwise Ranking

**Purpose:** To introduce and practice pairwise ranking.

**Time:** One hour

**Materials:** Chart 15b.1: Pairwise Ranking  
Handout 15b.2: Steps of Pairwise Ranking  
Chart 15b.3: Example of Pairwise Ranking Matrix  
Chart 15b.4: Exercise: Pairwise Ranking  
Handout 15b.5: Pairwise Ranking Matrix  
Handout 15b.6: Ranking Criteria Matrix  
Cards for the ranking exercise

**Activities:** Trainers introduce pairwise ranking. Participants read the handout and practice pairwise ranking of fruits (or anything else).

**Notes for Trainers:** If there are too many items on the ranking list (more than six) the ranking exercise will take a lot of time and the interviewee may get tired and bored, in which case the ranking may be inconsistent and the information will be less valuable. If using real-life samples rather than cards (e.g., real fruits or vegetables) make sure they are of evenly good quality. Otherwise the specific condition of the sample might influence the judgement of the interviewee. Make sure the team is thoroughly familiar with this ranking technique before using it in the field. Like all tools used in participatory appraisal, ranking exercises should be adapted to the specific requirements of the study and the environment.

Chart 15b.1

### PAIRWISE RANKING

Pairwise ranking allows us to determine the main problems or preferences of individual community members, identify their ranking criteria, and easily compare the priorities of different individuals.

### Handout 15b.2: Steps of Pairwise Ranking

1. Choose a set of problems, or preferences, to be prioritized. This could be, for example, farming problems (or preference for tree species).
2. Choose, with the help of the interviewee (or from previous discussions with a key informant), six or less of the most important items in this set (e.g., types of trees).
3. Note down each of the six items on a separate card.
4. Place two of these in front of the interviewee and ask him to choose the bigger problem (more favored preference), and to give reasons for the choice. Mark down the response in the appropriate box in the priority ranking matrix.
5. Ask whether the other of the two problems/preferences is in any respect more important/more popular than the first. Note down the criteria in the ranking criteria matrix.
6. Present a different pair and repeat the comparison.
7. Repeat steps 4 to 6 until all possible combinations have been considered (all boxes of the matrix have been filled).
8. List the problems/preferences in the order in which the interviewee has ranked them by sorting the cards in order of priority.
9. Check with the interviewee whether any important problems/preferences have been omitted from the list. If there are any, place them into the appropriate position in the ranking table.
10. As a useful cross-check to the responses, complete the ranking session by asking the interviewee about her biggest problem (or most favored preference) in the list (e.g., *"If you could grow only one vegetable variety, which one would you choose?"*). This question is also useful if more than one item in the list scores highest.
11. Repeat the pairwise ranking exercise for a number of individuals and tabulate their responses.



Chart 15b.3

EXAMPLE OF PAIRWISE RANKING MATRIX

FAVORITE PASTIMES

TV	REading	sLleep	MUsic	sPport		Score	Rank
	TV	TV	MU	TV	TV	3	B
		RE	MU	RE	REading	2	C
			MU	SP	sLleep	0	E
				MU	MUsic	4	A
					sPport	1	D

Chart 15b.4

EXERCISE: PAIRWISE RANKING

Break into \_\_\_\_\_ groups. Each group has \_\_\_\_\_ "interviewers" and one "interviewee".

The interviewers open their envelopes and pull out cards for fruits. They ask the interviewee which of the fruits he or she prefers, fill in the cells of the matrix, and list reasons why the interviewee finds each fruit favorable or unfavorable.

1. Place two of the cards in front of the interviewee and ask her to choose the fruit which she prefers. Mark the choice in the appropriate cell in the matrix.
2. Ask her why she prefers it.
3. Ask whether the other of the two fruits is in any respect better than the first. Note down the criteria.
4. Present a different pair and repeat the comparison.
5. Repeat steps 1 to 4 until all possible combinations have been considered.
6. List the fruits in the priority in which the interviewee has ranked them.

After each cell is filled, complete the score column by adding up the results. Then complete the ranking column.

Time: 20 minutes

**Handout 15b.5: Pairwise Ranking Matrix**

Date	BAnana	MAngo	GUava	ORange		Score	Rank
					Date		
					BAnana		
					MAngo		
					GUava		
					ORange		

**Handout 15b.6: Ranking Criteria Matrix**

	Favorable	Unfavorable
Date		
Banana		
Mango		
Guava		
Orange		

## SESSION 15c: Direct Matrix Ranking

**Purpose:** To introduce and practice direct matrix ranking.

**Time:** 45 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 15c.1: Direct Matrix Ranking  
Chart 15c.2: Steps of Direct Matrix Ranking  
Chart 15c.3: Example of Direct Matrix Ranking  
Chart 15c.4: Exercise: Direct Matrix Ranking

**Activities:** Trainers introduce direct matrix ranking, participants do the exercise.

**Notes for Trainers:** Adapt the exercise to the local conditions and choose exercises which are relevant to the participants. Instead of food processing, you might rank the relative usefulness of different kinds of household animals (chicken, pigeons, rabbits, goats) or of different garden crops (tomatoes, lettuce, okra, parsley).

To make this exercise more flexible and achieve deeper analysis, a scoring technique can be used. The interviewee receives a fixed amount of counters for each criterion (e.g., 15 seeds for fuelwood) and allocates the counters to the objects (e.g., tree species) according to the relative importance of each object. If the scorer runs out of counters before reaching the last object in the list he will have to rethink the scoring and make changes in the initial allocation of counters. This process allows the interviewee to assess the choices he has made before finalizing his ranking.

Chart 15c.1

### DIRECT MATRIX RANKING

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

Chart 15c.2

**STEPS OF DIRECT MATRIX RANKING**

1. Choose, or ask people to choose, a class of objects which is important to them (e.g., tree species, cooking fuel types, fruit).
2. List the most important items (3-8 items).
3. Elicit criteria by asking:
  - "What is good about each item? What else?" (continue until no more replies)
  - "What is bad about each item? What else?" (continue until no more replies)
4. List all criteria:
  - turn negative criteria into positive by using opposite (e.g., "vulnerable to pests" becomes "resists pests")
5. Draw up a matrix.
6. For each criterion ask which object is best:
  - "Which is best, then next best?"
  - "Which is worst, then next worst?"
  - of the two remaining ask, "Which is better?"
7. Ask: "Which criterion or factor is most important?"
8. Force a choice: "If you could only have one of these, which one would you choose?"

Chart 15c.3

**EXAMPLE OF DIRECT MATRIX RANKING**

Criteria	Tree Species			
	Eucalyptus	Palm	Acacia	Pine
Fuelwood	4	1	2	3
Building	4	1	2	3
Fruit	1	4	2	3
Medicine	4	1	3	2
Fodder	3	-	4	2
Shade	4	3	1	2
Charcoal	2	-	3	4
Total Score	22	10	17	19
Rank	A	D	C	B

If you could plant only one species, which tree would you choose? Eucalyptus

4 = best, 1 = worst

Repeat for a number of interviewees.

Chart 15c.4

### EXERCISE: DIRECT MATRIX RANKING

1. Choose a topic (e.g., different kinds of processed foods, such as cheese, jam, pickles, raisins, or biscuits).
2. Split into \_\_\_\_\_ groups.
3. Each group completes the direct matrix ranking with a different informant (e.g., "producer", "consumer", and "trader" of processed food).
4. Compare the products and criteria of the three respondents.

Time: 30 minutes



## SESSION 15d: Wealth Ranking

**Purpose:** To introduce and practice wealth ranking.

**Time:** Two hours

**Materials:** Chart 15d.1: Wealth Ranking  
Handout 15d.2: Wealth Ranking  
Handout 15d.3: Example of Wealth Ranking Scoring Table  
Chart 15d.4: Exercise: Wealth Ranking

**Activities:** Trainers introduce wealth ranking. Participants receive the handouts, and after reading and discussing them they practice wealth ranking.

**Notes to Trainers:** Wealth ranking is a versatile and flexible tool which can be very useful. But it should be done carefully to produce the desired results. If you cannot do wealth ranking carefully, you may want to use wealth indicators (housetype) or socioeconomic mapping instead.

Chart 15d.1

### WEALTH RANKING

- What is wealth ranking?
- What are different ways of wealth ranking?

There are inequalities and differences in wealth in every community. These differences influence or determine people's behaviors, coping strategies, and views. Wealth ranking allows the PRA team to:

- Investigate perceptions of wealth differences and inequalities in a community.
- Discover local indicators and criteria of wealth and well-being.
- Establish the relative position of households in a community.

This type of socioeconomic community profile may be used as a basis for the sampling of households for later interviews, to identify and target project participants (e.g., the poorest, training candidates), and to see whether families who are project participants improve their scores over time compared with those who do not participate in the project. It is also useful as an introduction to discussing coping strategies, opportunities, problems, and possible solutions.

#### Principles:

- Outsiders and community members have different perceptions of wealth, well-being, and inequality. Local perceptions are crucial for getting a deeper insight.
- Different people in a community (men, women, merchants, laborers) may use different criteria for wealth.
- Investigating the range of socioeconomic situations in a community is useful in PRA.

Wealth ranking is based on the assumption that community members have a good sense of who among them is more or less well-off. It should be kept in mind that this is the community's own perception of the situation. It is good practice to cross-check this with another method (e.g., direct observation checklist) to verify the results.

#### Steps of Wealth Ranking:

- A list is made of all the households in the community and each household is assigned a number. The name of each household head and the number from the master list are written on a separate card or piece of paper.
- A number of key informants who have lived in the community for a long time and who know all the households are asked independently of each other to sort the cards into as many piles as there are wealth categories in the community (using their own criteria). If the informant is not literate, read the name on the card and then hand it to him and let him choose the pile in which to place it.
- Use numbered baskets or small boxes. This helps the sorter remember which is which, and it helps you record the scores without mixing the baskets. Also, shuffle the cards between sorters so that each starts with a random pile of cards not presorted by the previous sorter.
- After sorting ask the informant for the wealth criteria for each pile and differences between the piles. Assure the sorters of confidentiality and do not discuss the ranks of individual families, so as not to cause bad feelings within the community. List local criteria and indicators derived from the ranking discussion and examine differences between informants.

- After the informant has sorted all cards into piles, record the score of each household on a score sheet according to the number of its pile. If a sorter is not able to place a family because she doesn't know them or cannot decide where to put them, leave a blank by that household's name for that informant. Have at least three informants sort all households in the community independently to make sure the results are reliable.
- If the number of wealth categories used by the informants differ from each other, divide each household's score by the number of wealth categories used by the particular sorter and multiply by 100. For example, a household in the third out of five piles would receive a score of 60 ( $3 / 5 * 100 = 60$ ). This procedure is necessary in order to compare the scores of different sorters with each other (unless they all use the same number of wealth categories).
- After the scores of each informant have been recorded on the form, the scores are added up and divided by the number of sorters. For example, if there were four sorters but one did not know one of the households, then that household's total score is divided by 3 rather than 4. Check the sorter scores for consistency. If one sorter's results are greatly different from the others, he may not have understood the directions or gotten the baskets reversed. If this happens, disregard all of that sorter's scores and ask another informant to do the sorting.
- Finally arrange households according to wealth categories. If the informants used a different number of piles take the average number of wealth categories (e.g., if four informants have 4, 4, 7, and 6 piles respectively, divide the community into five wealth groups).
- Using this system, rich households in the community will have low scores while the poorest households will have high scores.

The basic idea of this form of ranking can be used any time the "best" and the "worst" have to be identified. For example, older women can indicate those young mothers who seem to have more problems with their children, or women who might make the best candidates for a vocational training course. This system is most effective in groups or communities of about 50 to 150 members. It requires relatively little time to tabulate and analyze the data, and is very flexible.

#### **Cautions:**

This method of collecting data is simple and can usually be carried out in one day with a great deal of participation on the part of the community. However, it does not work well in heavily populated areas as it is too difficult to get everyone's name and to find sorters who know everyone. Also, the system gets cumbersome with too many names.

Because different groups may have very different self-images, scores between villages cannot be compared. Some relatively well-off communities may rate themselves worse off than communities that are very poor. In communities with an egalitarian ideology, wealth ranking may not be feasible and villagers might object to being divided into different wealth groups. In communities which are accustomed to receiving benefits from a development organization, wealth ranking may not produce reliable answers about the stratification of a community because the sorters may try to play down the villagers' wealth.



Handout 15d.3: Example of Wealth Ranking Scoring Table

Household Number	A	B	Scorer C	D	Average Score	Wealth Groups
39	20	20	11	25	19	richest
33	20	20	11	25	19	
14	20	20	22	25	21	a
40	20	20	22	25	21	
16	20	40	22	25	26	b
12	20	20	44	25	27	
18	20	40	33	25	29	
28	20	40	33	25	29	
24	40			25	32	
41	20			50	35	
21	20	40	56	25	35	c
46	20	40	56	25	35	
42	20	40	44	50	38	
30	20	60	56	25	40	
8	20	40	56	50	41	
9	20	40	56	50	41	
37	40	40		50	43	
31	40			50	45	
22	20	60	56	50	46	
15	40	40	56	50	46	
27	20	60	56	50	46	d
17	20	60	67	50	49	
23	40	60	56	50	51	
36	40	60	56	50	51	
47	40	60	67	50	54	
11	40	60	67	50	54	
20	40	80	67	50	59	
4	40	60	67	75	60	
43	40	60	67	75	60	
6	40	60	67	75	60	
38	20		67	100	62	e
19	40	60	78	75	63	
32	40	60	89	75	66	
35	60			75	67	
25	40	80	89	75	71	
10	40		78	100	72	
7	60	80	89	75	76	f
45	80	40	100	100	80	
48	60	80	89	100	82	
44		80	67	100	82	
5	60	100	89	100	87	
2	60	100	89	100	87	
13	80	80	100	100	90	poorest
3	60	100	100	100	90	
34	60	100	100	100	90	
26	80	80	100	100	90	
1	80	100	89	100	92	
29	100	100	100	100	100	
# of wealth categories	5	5	9	4	5	

Chart 15d.4

EXERCISE: WEALTH RANKING

1. Split into \_\_\_\_ groups.
2. One participant in each group sorts a group of people (e.g., the staff members of their organization, preferably 20-50 individuals) according to their wealth. The sorters must rank the same group of people.
3. The rest of the participants record the wealth criteria and tabulate the results of the ranking exercise.
4. Compare the ranking results of the different groups and discuss.

Time: One hour

## SESSION 16: Construction of Diagrams - Overview

### A. Background Information

**Definition:** A diagram is any simple schematic device which presents information in a condensed and readily understandable visual form. It is a simplified model of reality.

**Purpose:** Diagrams are used to summarize data in such a way that they can be used in all stages of a PRA, for planning, field discussions, and analysis. They are most useful in helping to identify problems or opportunities in specific areas, time periods, or activities, and in clarifying issues in discussions with the team and with community members. Diagrams can be drawn on virtually anything, depending on the situation: paper, overhead transparencies, blackboards, or in the sand. Diagramming is the most inventive, experimental, and dynamic method used in PRA. New diagrams are constantly being developed.

**Example:** Rapid Food Security Assessment - Sudan

*"To help put together a picture of social stratification, we used a plate of sorghum or small stones to represent the village. We could then ask the sheikh (or the group) to estimate what proportion of the village was landless, or female-headed, or from Northern Darfur [area], or whatever, by dividing the grain into piles. This was particularly successful in a group situation and could develop into quite a sophisticated analysis by taking grains or stones away as the village was progressively stratified: first the landless are taken out, then the farmers below 5 feddans [of land], then those from 5-15 feddans and so on. We were able to cross-check the results by repeating the exercise with different groups (for comparison the percentages are recorded in the notebook). On several occasions, the exercise was carried out by drawing a large circle in the sand and taking slices off it" (Maxwell).*

It is important that diagrams (e.g., mapping and seasonal calendars) are done with a number of different people (women and men, young and old, etc.), as they often have different perceptions, viewpoints, and information. Comparing diagrams drawn by different people can lead to a deeper understanding of the diversity of opinions and of decision-making processes in a community.

## B. Training Guidelines

**Purpose:** To introduce the definition and purpose of diagrams.

**Time:** 30 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 16.1: Diagrams

At least 3-4 sample diagrams drawn on flipcharts or overhead transparencies

**Activities:** Trainers display different types of diagrams on flipcharts or an overhead projector and ask the participants to point out the types they have seen, used, or made in their work. The participants then discuss how diagrams are used and the purpose of diagrams.

**Notes for Trainers:** Diagrams prepared for this session can be taken from any source; the purpose is to illustrate what a diagram is. All diagrams drawn during the upcoming training sessions should be relevant to the PRA topic, based on available information from secondary sources, maps, and statistics collected in preparation for the fieldwork. The diagrams will be improved during the PRA fieldwork based on the information collected in the field. The most useful diagrams are those which can be used and changed by the community members themselves. Think about the materials you want to use and about ways to make diagramming as participatory as possible. Develop your own diagrams according to the needs and topics of your PRA.

**Cautions:** Don't waste time practicing diagrams which are not needed for the purpose of the planned PRA. Participants can learn about and practice other diagrams in the future.

Chart 16.1

### DIAGRAMS

A diagram is any simple model which presents information in an easily understandable visual form.

Value of diagrams:

- they greatly simplify complex information
- the act of constructing a diagram is an analytical procedure
- they facilitate communication
- they stimulate discussion
- they increase consensus among team members
- they are an excellent way to involve community members and to discover their views and categories by encouraging them to draw diagrams on their own.

Possible diagrams include:

Concept	Diagram
Space:	map, transect
Time:	seasonal calendar, daily routine chart, time trends, historical profile
Relations:	flow diagram, livelihood analysis, systems diagram
Decisions:	decision tree, Venn diagram

## SESSION 16a: Maps

**Purpose:** To introduce the importance of maps and to practice mapping.

**Time:** Two hours

**Materials:** Chart 16a.1: What Are Maps Used For?

Chart 16a.2: Drawing Maps

Handout 16a.3: Example of a Map

Chart 16a.4: Participatory Mapping

Chart 16a.5: Exercise: Mapping of the PRA Site

Maps or aerial photographs of the PRA site

**Activities:** Trainers ask participants why maps are important, what maps can be used for, and introduce the steps of mapping. Participants map the proposed PRA site(s) using available maps and/or aerial photographs as a basis for the outline map. The map is completed based on the participants' knowledge of the site and on available secondary sources.

If community members take part in this exercise, they should take the lead role in mapping their community. It is preferable not to use existing maps in this case as this could inhibit the community members' creativity. If existing maps of the community are available, compare them afterwards, and make any necessary changes.

**Notes for Trainers:** Be sure that participants understand why maps are an important part of a PRA, and that the choice of maps depends on the purpose and topic of the PRA. Maps can indicate areas with inadequate infrastructure, or highlight differences in socioeconomic level, religion, or ethnicity. In an agriculturally-focused PRA it is important to distinguish areas by soil type and plant cover. Be sure that participants understand how maps can help the PRA team understand a situation, and, potentially, make decisions.

Obtain maps of the smallest scale available (1:10,000 or smaller). Prepare a number of copies of the maps for this session. Experiment with different materials. For overlay maps, transparencies and colored erasable markers can be used without an overhead projector.

Chart 16a.1

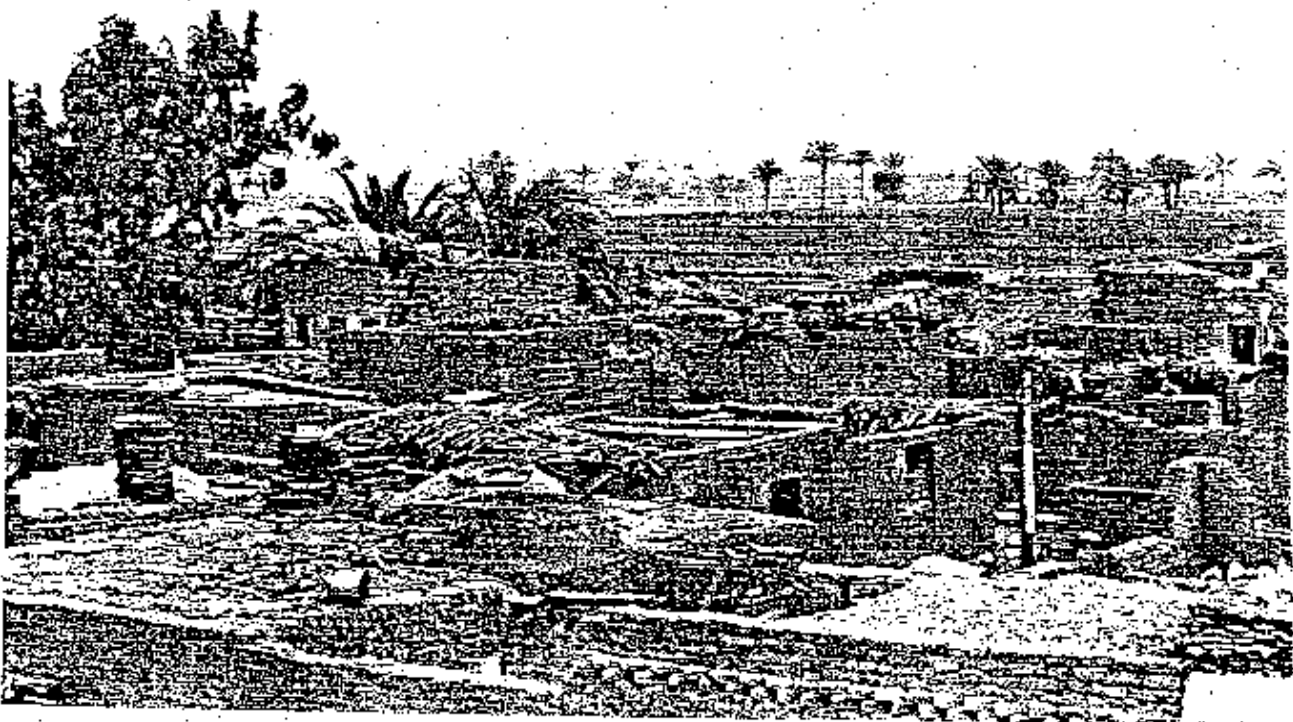
### WHAT ARE MAPS USED FOR?

### DRAWING MAPS

- Before visiting the field obtain maps and/or aerial photographs of the area.
- Prepare simple outline maps showing key features and landmarks.
- Mark in roads, rivers, canals, schools, mosques, churches, government offices, etc.
- In the field obtain a spatial overview through general exploration, a view from a high vantage point (watertank, hill, tree, high building), and group interviews.
- Obtain local place names.
- Revise the maps and add more detail throughout the fieldwork as you receive new information.

Maps can be drawn for many topics:

- demography
- social and residential stratification (wealth, ethnicity, religion)
- a village's use of natural resources
- fields and land use
- spatial arrangement of a house/use of space by different social groups
- mobility
- water
- soils



# VILLAGE IN UPPER EGYPT

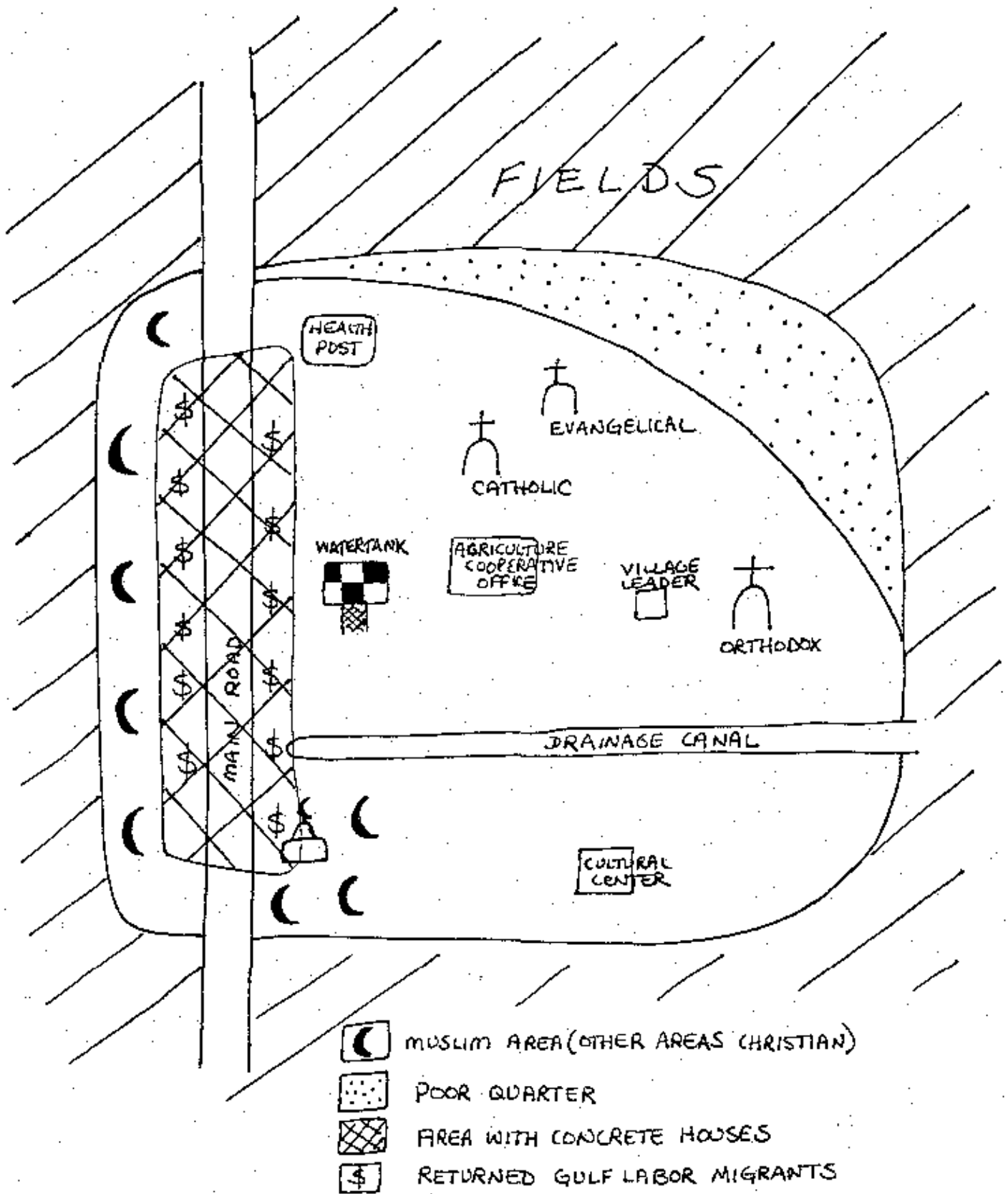




Chart 16a.4

### PARTICIPATORY MAPPING

Participatory mapping allows the PRA team to discover the "mental maps" of community members.

Steps:

1. Decide what sort of map should be drawn (social, natural resources, farm, etc.).
2. Find people who know the area and the topic of the mapping exercise, and who are willing to share their knowledge.
3. Choose a suitable place (ground, floor, paper) and medium (sticks, stones, seeds, pens, pencils) for the maps.
4. Help the people get started but let them draw the map by themselves. Be patient and don't interrupt them. It's their map.
5. Sit back and watch or go away!
6. Keep a permanent (paper) record including mappers' names to give them credit.

Chart 16a.5

### EXERCISE: MAPPING OF THE PRA SITE

1. Split into \_\_\_\_ groups.
2. Draw an outline map of the community in which the PRA will be carried out (use available maps).
3. Show:
  - major infrastructure
  - different residential (ethnic, religious, house type), commercial, and industrial areas
  - landmarks
  - landuse (agriculture, livestock, forest, fishing, etc.)
  - other features related to the topic of the PRA

Time: One hour

Present your results to the whole group and compare the maps.

## SESSION 16b: Mobility Map

**Purpose:** To introduce and prepare mobility maps.

**Time:** One hour

**Materials:** Chart 16b.1: Mobility Map  
Handout 16b.2: Example of a Mobility Map  
Chart 16b.3: Exercise: Mobility Map  
Blank maps for the exercise for each participant

**Activities:** Trainers introduce the definition and purpose of mobility maps. Trainers arrange the participants into 2-3 subgroups based on selected characteristics (e.g., gender, marital status, job, with or without children). Every participant completes a mobility map individually for a certain time period (week, month, or year). The results are compared and "representative" mobility maps are drawn by the subgroups. One person from each subgroup presents the mobility map to the large group. All participants discuss the results of the mapping exercise.

**Notes for Trainers:** The mobility map is both a data collection and an analysis tool. It is important to identify the patterns of spatial mobility for different segments of a community. It takes some practice to be able to see group patterns rather than just isolated pieces of information. This exercise is useful to introduce the participants to some basic analytical methods.

When using flipcharts and markers, different colors can be used for different activities. This map can also be used to show differences in the frequency of mobility by making the lines thicker or thinner as necessary.

### Chart 16b.1

#### MOBILITY MAP

Contacts with the "outside world" and decision-making power in a community are often closely linked. Spatial mobility in many societies can be used as an indicator for a person's contact with, and knowledge of, the outside world and his authority in the community. It may also indicate freedom, wealth, empowerment, education, or consciousness. The mobility map allows us to record, compare, and analyze the mobility of different groups of people in a community (e.g., old men, young men, women, children, educated).

### MOBILITY MAP OF WOMEN FROM QARARA AREA, GAZA

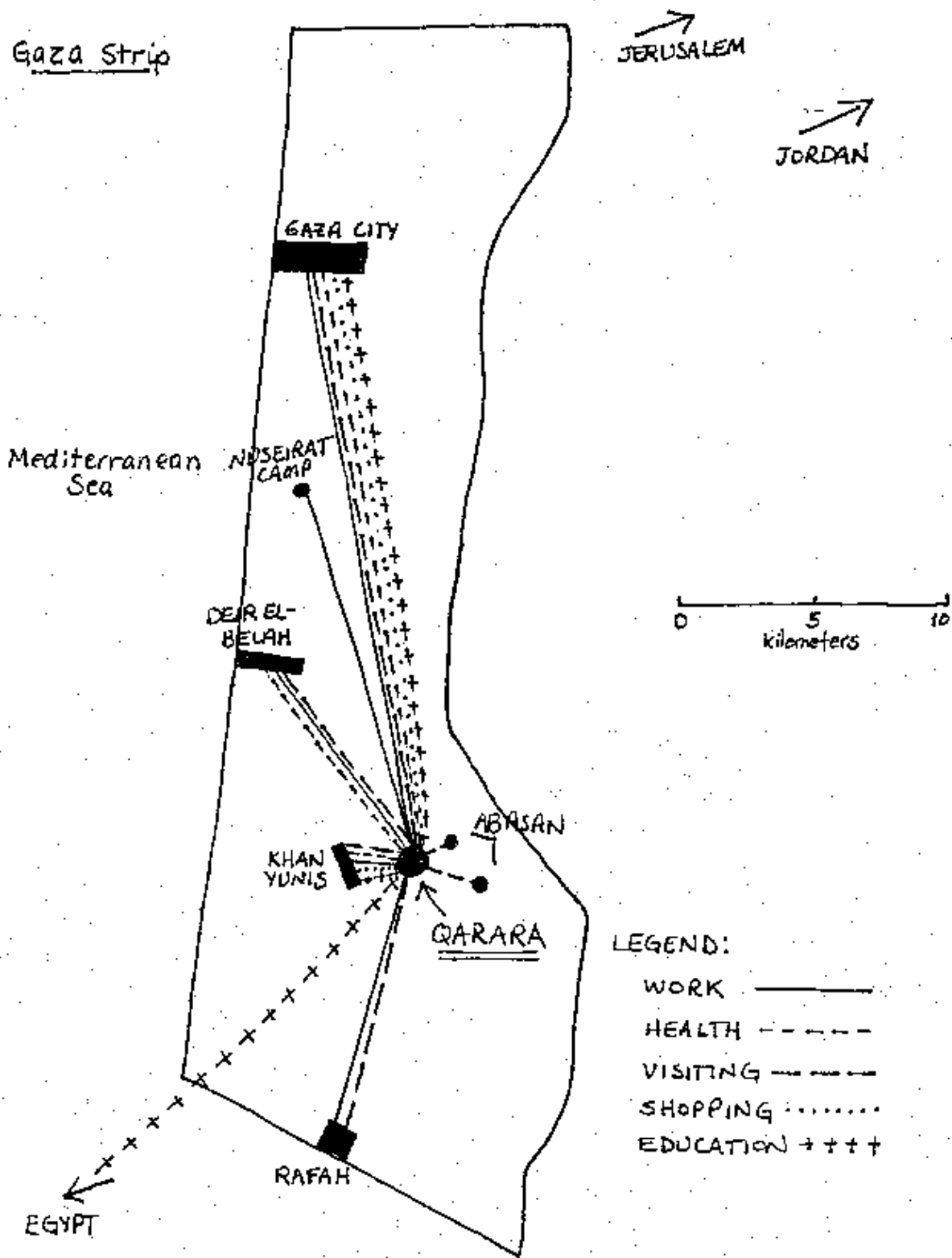


Chart 16b.3

### EXERCISE: MOBILITY MAP

1. Complete a mobility map for yourself for the last week/month/year.
2. Use different colors or patterns for different activities.

Example of legend of mobility map:

Work:	_____
Visiting:	.....
Health Care:	-----
Shopping:	-----
Education:	XXXXXXXXXX

3. Form subgroups based on your gender, job, or marital status.
4. Compare maps in your subgroup and prepare one representative mobility map for your subgroup.

Time: 30 minutes

After finishing, subgroups will present their results.

## SESSION 16c: Transect

**Purpose:** To introduce transects and how to draw them.

**Time:** One-and-a-half hours

**Materials:** Chart 16c.1: Transect

Handout 16c.2: Example of a Transect

Chart 16c.3: Exercise: Drawing a Transect

**Activities:** Trainers introduce transects and, in groups of 3-4, participants draw a transect of a village.

**Notes for Trainers:** Choose a village which the participants know well. Visit the site yourself before the training and do a quick trans-walk. Prepare a transect yourself so that you can compare it with those prepared by the participants. You may want to skip the exercise during the training and do a transect as one of the first activities of the fieldwork instead.

Transects can also be done as historical transects, showing changes in landuse patterns over the last decades.

**Cautions:** Only do transects if they are useful in the context of the training. Do not overburden the participants with tasks which are not directly related to the fieldwork. Also, transects are not very appropriate for urban areas.





## TRANSECT

A transect is a diagram of main landuse zones. It compares the main features, resources, uses, and problems of different zones.

### Steps of preparing a transect:

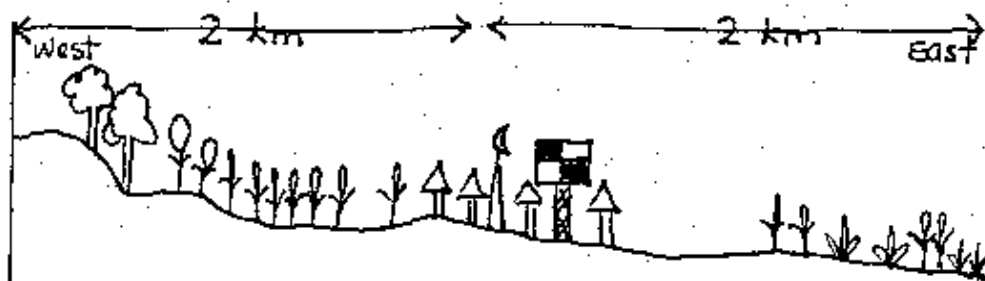
- Find community members who are knowledgeable and willing to participate in a walk through their village and surrounding areas.
- Discuss with them the different factors to be drawn in the transect (crops, land use, trees, soils, etc.) and which route to take.
- Walk the transect.
- Observe, ask, listen (don't lecture).
- Discuss problems and opportunities.
- Identify the main natural and agricultural zones and sketch distinguishing features. For each zone describe:
  - soils
  - crops
  - livestock
  - problems
  - solutions
  - opportunities
- Draw the transect.
- Cross-check the transect with key informants.

### Method:

- use squared paper, and outline topography at the top
- generalize impressions, do not be too detailed
- include a rough measurement of the scale of the transect
- revise the transect throughout the fieldwork

Handout 16c.2: Example of a Transect

VILLAGE OF SIDRA  
KORDOFAN, SUDAN



<u>SOIL</u>	rocky	gravel	gravel	sand	clay
<u>LANDUSE</u>	forest	farmland grazing	village	farmland grazing	farmland
<u>CROPS AND VEGETATION</u>	trees, bamboo	grass, shrubs, millet, sesame		sesame, beans, hibiscus	sorghum, groundnuts
<u>PROBLEMS</u>	erosion	drought, pests		drought, pests, low soil fertility	drought
<u>OPPORTUNITIES</u>	fuelwood, timber, bamboo	pasture, rainfed farming	market, transport, water, credit, health- care, school	pasture, rainfed farming	flood- recession farming



Chart 16c.3

### EXERCISE: DRAWING A TRANSECT

1. Split into \_\_\_\_\_ groups.
2. Draw a transect of \_\_\_\_\_ village.
3. Use flipchart paper and markers (first make a draft on a small sheet).
4. Be creative.

Time: One hour

After finishing, the subgroups will present the diagrams to the large group and discuss the results.

## **SESSION 16d: Seasonal Calendar**

**Purpose:** To show how to present complex information on a seasonal calendar in a simple diagram.

**Time:** Two hours

**Materials:** Chart 16d.1: Seasonal Calendar  
Handout 16d.2: How to Prepare a Seasonal Calendar  
Handout 16d.3: Example of a Seasonal Calendar  
Chart 16d.4: Exercise: Drawing a Seasonal Calendar  
Information sheets from secondary sources for exercise  
Squared paper

**Activities:** Trainers introduce the purpose of seasonal calendars. Participants construct a seasonal calendar in groups of 3-4. The large group discusses the results of the diagrams.

**Notes for Trainers:** Prepare this session very well. Choose examples which relate directly to the work of the participants. Do not make the task overly complicated, as this will frustrate the participants. On the other hand do not make it too simple, because this could bore them. Don't practice seasonal calendars if they are not relevant for the topic of the PRA fieldwork.

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

**Cautions:** If the data sheet handouts are not done carefully enough, are confusing, or contain mistakes, the participants may run into difficulties executing the task of drawing the diagram.

SEASONAL CALENDAR

This is a calendar showing the main activities, problems, and opportunities throughout the annual cycle in diagrammatic form (it really is a series of different diagrams shown on a single sheet). It helps identify the months of greatest difficulty and vulnerability, or other significant variances which have an impact on people's lives. A seasonal calendar can be used to summarize, among other things:

- indigenous seasons
- climate (rainfall and temperatures)
- crop sequences (from planting to harvesting)
- crop pests and diseases
- collection of wild fruits and herbs
- livestock (births, weaning, sales, migration, fodder)
- livestock diseases
- income generating activities
- labor demand for men, women, children
- prices
- marketing
- human diseases
- social events
- types and quantity of cooking/heating fuel
- migration
- income and expenditures
- debt
- quantity or type of food consumed (diet)
- annual holidays

## Handout 16d.2: How to Prepare a Seasonal Calendar

- Use squared (graph) paper.
- Draw a 12-month or 18-month calendar as appropriate. It need not start in January and should reflect the indigenous seasonal categories. Note: Don't impose your calendar. In some parts of the world the Western calendar is not used, and non-monthly intervals are relevant for the indigenous calendar.
- Obtain information from secondary sources and from interviews.
- Obtain quantitative information qualitatively. For example, for labor demand:
  - First determine the four busiest months by asking your informants a series of questions such as:
    - "What is the busiest month?"*
    - "What are you doing then?"*
    - "What is the next busiest month?"*
    - "What are you doing then?"*
    - "How does it compare to the busiest month - is it 3/4, 1/2, 1/4 as busy?"*
    - "What is the next busiest month?"*and so on.
  - Then determine the four least busy months by a similar sequence of questions, starting with the least busy month and working up.
  - Then determine the four 'middle' months by comparisons such as:
    - "How does March compare with May - is it busier, the same, or not so busy?"*
    - "By how much does it differ?"*
- Similarly, if no rainfall data is available, determine the four wettest months, then the four driest months, and then the four middle months.
- An alternative method is to have community members use seeds, small fruits, stones, goat droppings, or other small and reasonably uniform counters to quantify. Sticks can be broken in different lengths and used to indicate relative magnitudes. In this way an entire seasonal calendar can be constructed with sticks, stones, and seeds on the ground.
- Indicate the range(s) of planting and harvesting dates.
- Combine all seasonal patterns into one diagram to show correlations between different variables and identify any problem or opportunity times within the year.
- Cross-check and refine the seasonal calendar throughout the fieldwork. Watch out for seasonal and non-seasonal variations.

NORTH KORDOFAN, SUDAN

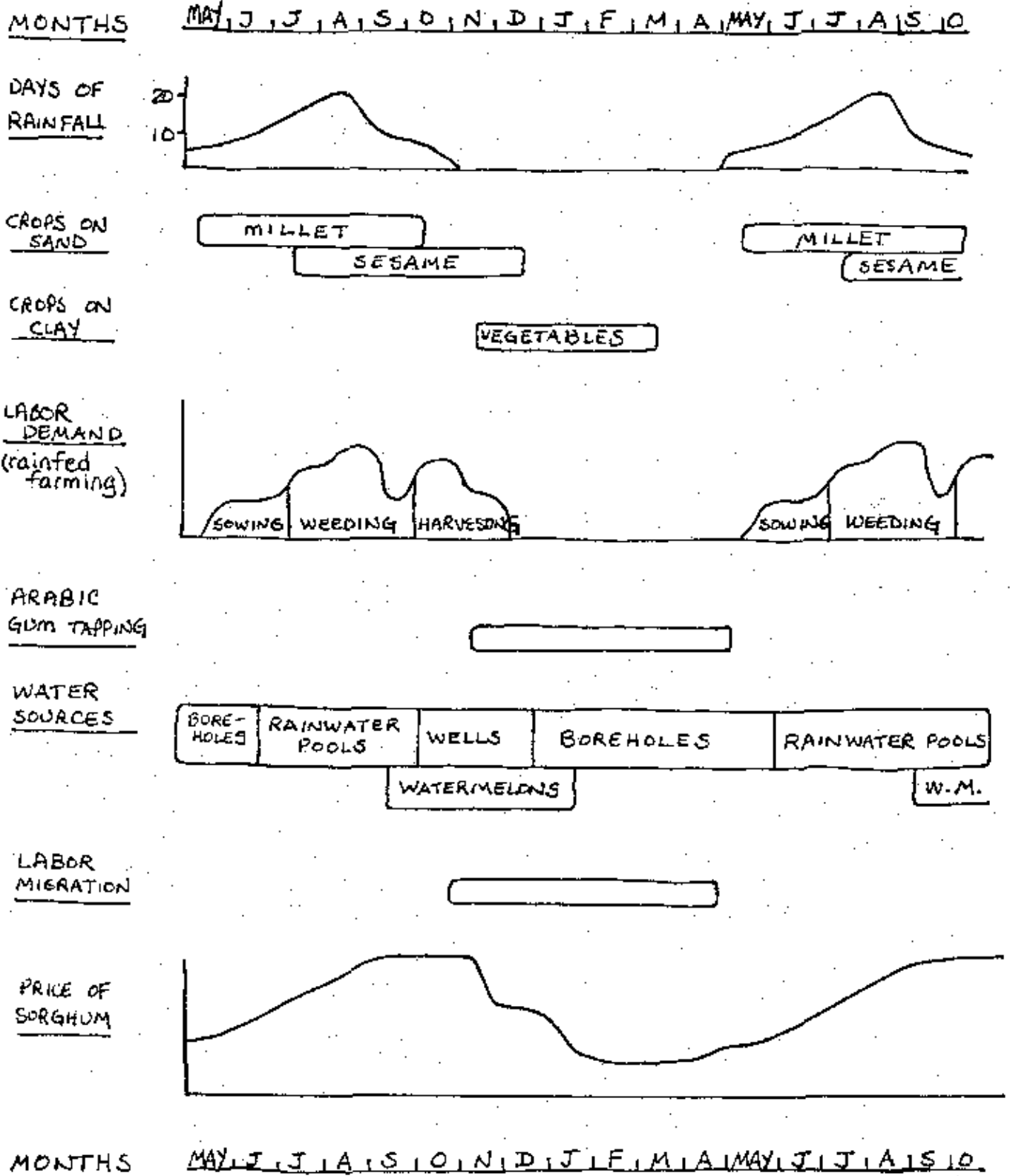


Chart 16d.4

EXERCISE: DRAWING A SEASONAL CALENDAR

1. Split into \_\_\_\_\_ groups.
2. Draw a seasonal calendar based on the information provided on the data sheets.
3. Use flipchart paper and markers (make a draft on a small sheet).
4. Be creative.

Time: One hour

After finishing, the subgroups will present the diagrams to the large group and discuss the results.

## SESSION 16e: Time Trends

**Purpose:** To introduce and practice time trends.

**Time:** One hour +

**Materials:** Chart 16e.1: Time Trends

Handout 16e.2: Example of Time Trends

Chart 16e.3: Example of a Data Sheet

Chart 16e.4: Exercise: Drawing Time Trends

Data sheets from secondary sources for exercise

Squared paper

**Activities:** Trainers introduce time trends and ask participants to give examples of time trends and their uses. Participants then split into groups of 3-4 and, using different data sets, draw time trends based on the data provided on the data sheets.

**Notes for Trainers:** Prepare information sheets based on relevant data available. Encourage participants and community members to experiment with different ways of visualizing changes (e.g., bar diagrams, pie charts, three-dimensional models).

### Chart 16e.1

#### TIME TRENDS

Time trends show quantitative changes over time and can be used for many variables, including:

- yields
- area under cultivation
- livestock population
- prices
- interest rates
- migration
- time and distance to collect fuelwood and fodder
- population size and number of households
- birth and death rates
- malnutrition rates
- project expenses
- rainfall

#### Method:

- use squared paper (or other materials)
- try to obtain data for at least ten years
- plot interactions of two or more variables on the same sheet
- obtain information from secondary sources and interviews
- ask community members to draw their own time trend diagrams
- where numbers are not available, show trends qualitatively or use qualitative methods to obtain quantitative data (see counters and sticks used for the seasonal calendar)

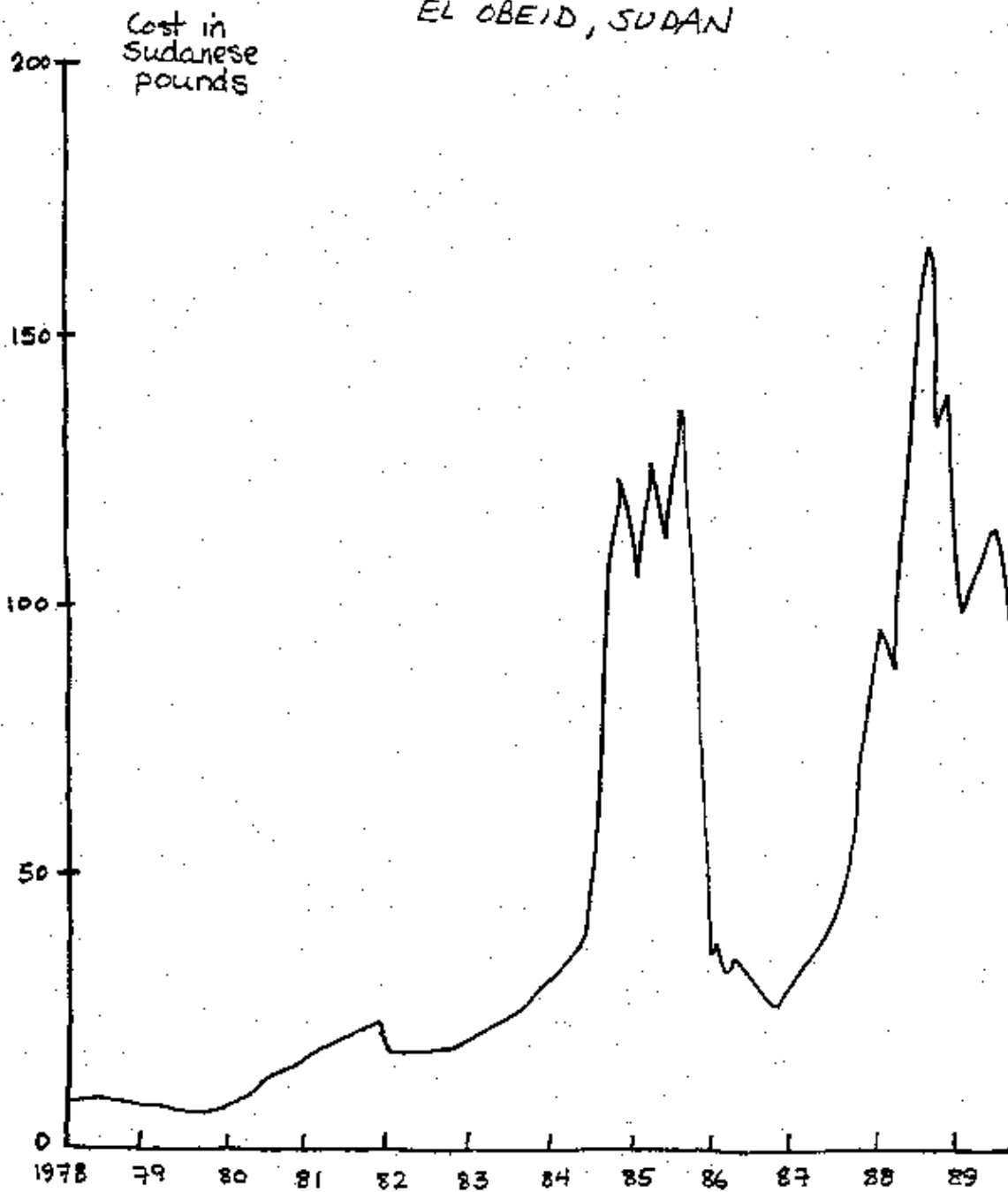


Chart 16e.3

EXAMPLE OF A DATA SHEET

Year	Amount of Rainfall (mm)
1954	370
1955	367
1956	534
1957	356
1958	374
1959	497
1960	346
1961	370
1962	512
1963	503
1964	378
1965	422
1966	321
1967	337
1968	276
1969	281
1970	329
1971	380
1972	275
1973	263
1974	374
1975	398
1976	352
1977	245
1978	407
1979	396
1980	240
1981	337
1982	263
1983	328
1984	66
1985	254
1986	287
1987	263
1988	311
1989	242
1990	175

### GRAIN PRICE FLUCTUATIONS EL OBEID, SUDAN



90-kilo sack sorghum

Chart 16e.4

**EXERCISE: DRAWING TIME TRENDS**

1. Split into \_\_\_\_\_ groups.
2. Draw time trends based on the information provided on the data sheets.
3. Use flipchart paper and markers (make a draft on a small sheet).
4. Be creative.

Time: One hour

After finishing, the subgroups will present the diagrams to the large group and discuss the results.

## SESSION 16f: Historical Profile

**Purpose:** To introduce and practice preparing historical profiles.

**Time:** 40 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 16f.1: Historical Profile.

Handout 16f.2: Example of an Historical Profile

Chart 16f.3: Exercise: Preparing Historical Profiles

**Activities:** Trainers introduce the definition of, and uses for, historical profiles. Participants prepare an historical profile of their own communities or of the area of the planned PRA fieldwork.

**Notes for Trainers:** Historical profiles are useful for sensitizing the PRA team to the importance of the past for understanding the present. They are helpful in starting out interviews with key informants (especially old people) or with groups. Life histories of old people are a specific form of an historical profile.

Chart 16f.1

### HISTORICAL PROFILE

Historical profiles reveal important information for understanding the present situation in a community (e.g., the causal link between colonial land rights and deforestation and erosion). It provides a summary overview of the key historical events in a community and their importance for the present situation. Such events may include:

- building of infrastructure (roads, schools, canals, railroads)
- introduction of new crops
- outbreaks of epidemics
- droughts and famines
- changes in land tenure
- changes in administration and organization
- major political events

Information is collected from secondary sources (books, reports, archives) and from interviews with key informants (e.g., old people, leaders, school teachers).

Handout 16f.2: Example of an Historical Profile

*Village in Northern Sudan*

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

**EXERCISE: PREPARING HISTORICAL PROFILES**

1. Split into \_\_\_\_\_ groups.
2. Construct an historical profile of your own community, using the categories listed on the other chart.
3. Go as far back in time as you can remember.
4. Use flipchart paper and markers (make a draft on a small sheet).

Time: 30 minutes

After finishing, the subgroups will present the diagrams to the large group and discuss the results.



## SESSION 16g: Daily Routine Diagrams

**Purpose:** To introduce and practice preparing daily routine diagrams.

**Time:** One hour +

**Materials:** Chart 16g.1: Daily Routine Diagram  
Chart 16g.2: Daily Activity Profile  
Handout 16g.3: Example of Daily Routine Diagrams  
Chart 16g.4: Exercise: Preparing a Daily Routine Diagram  
Handout 16g.5: Daily Routine Record Sheet  
Handout 16g.6: Daily Activity Profile

**Activities:** Trainers introduce the daily routine diagram and the daily activity profile and conduct a brainstorm on how daily routine information can be used in project planning. Trainers arrange the participants into 2-3 subgroups based on selected characteristics (e.g., gender, marital status, profession, age, with or without children). Every participant completes a daily routine chart individually. The results are compared and "representative" daily routine diagrams are drawn by the subgroups. One person from each subgroup presents the daily routine chart to the large group. All participants discuss the results of the exercise.

**Notes for Trainers:** This exercise is useful for practicing the analysis of collected information. If the participants find it difficult to identify general patterns in the daily routine of different people, the results from the individual daily routine charts could be tabulated. For this purpose take a blank daily routine record sheet and mark all individual charts on this sheet. The more horizontal lines shown in a certain category at a particular time of the day, the clearer is the pattern. People not experienced in analyzing information and in identifying general patterns may see only individual patterns.

The daily routine chart can be made more complex by indicating not just the time but also the size (quantity) of the workload (thicker or thinner bars) or by adding or breaking down categories. For example:

Work in home: feeding children, fetching water, cooking, washing, cleaning, tending the animals, etc.

Focus on what is important. Don't make this diagram too complex. Help the participants concentrate on the general pattern of time allocation and use.

Chart 16g.1

### DAILY ROUTINE DIAGRAM

A daily routine diagram helps us to collect and analyze information on the daily patterns of activities of community members and to compare the daily routine patterns for different groups of people (for example women, men, old, young, employed, unemployed, educated, uneducated) and seasonal changes in these patterns. Encourage community members to draw their own daily routine diagrams.

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

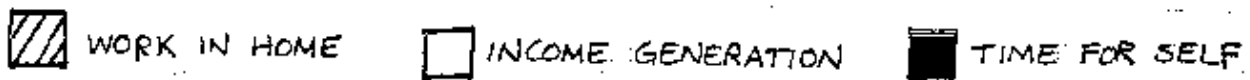
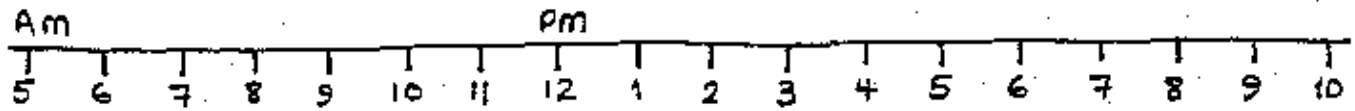
The daily routine for an individual can be completed either through an interview, through direct observation, or both. It is useful to cross-check results by using more than one method.

Chart 16g.2

### DAILY ACTIVITY PROFILE

The daily activity profile adds a spatial dimension to the daily routine diagram and shows a person's mobility during a typical day. Persons who spend most of their time at home plot their activities closest to the time line. Those who spend little time at home plot their activities away from the time line. This allows easy comparison between different people and illustrates their movement in and around the community.

TYPICAL DAILY ROUTINE  
WOMEN IN THE GAZA STRIP



TYPICAL DAILY ACTIVITY PROFILE (WOMEN)

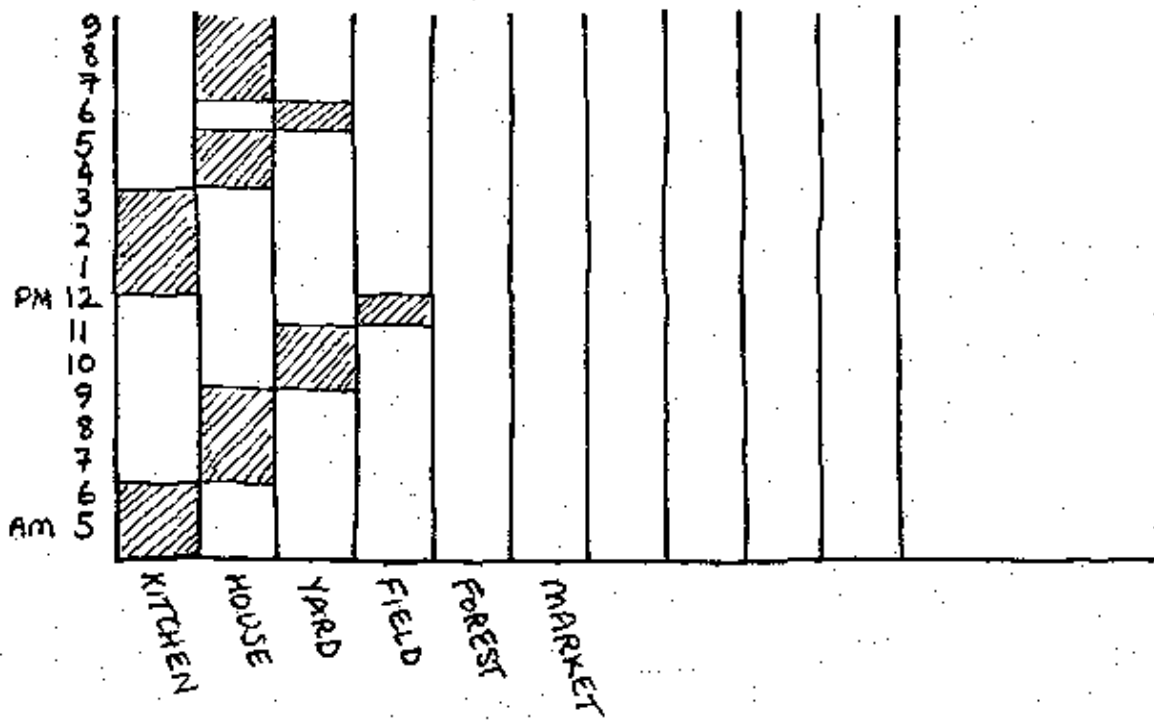


Chart 16g.4

**EXERCISE: PREPARING A DAILY ROUTINE DIAGRAM**

1. Split into two or more groups according to gender, profession, or age.
2. Each participant constructs a daily routine chart for him/herself.
3. Compare the individual charts in your subgroup and identify common patterns. Prepare one representative daily routine diagram for the whole group (if possible).
4. Use flipchart paper and markers (make a draft on a small sheet).

Time: 45 minutes

After finishing, the subgroups will present the diagrams to the large group and discuss the results.



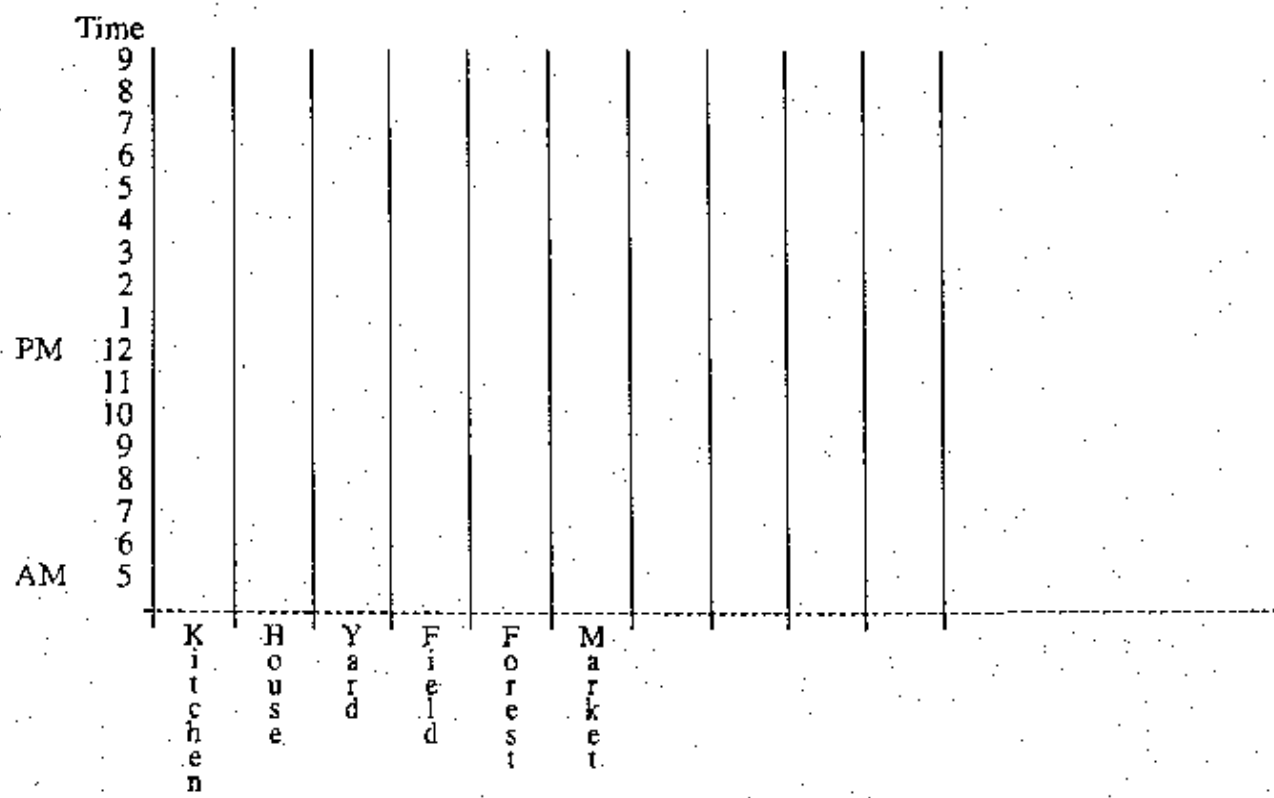
### Handout 16g.5: Daily Routine Record Sheet

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Male: \_\_\_\_\_ Female: \_\_\_\_\_ Age: \_\_\_\_\_

Profession: \_\_\_\_\_ Season: \_\_\_\_\_

	AM	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	PM	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Work in home																				
Income generation in home																				
Income generation outside																				
Time for self/relaxation																				

### Handout 16g.6: Daily Activity Profile



## SESSION 16h: Livelihood Analysis

**Purpose:** To introduce and practice livelihood analysis diagrams.

**Time:** Two hours

**Materials:** Handout 16h.1: Livelihood Analysis

Handout 16h.2: Example of a Livelihood Analysis Diagram

Chart 16h.3: Exercise: Drawing a Livelihood Analysis Diagram

Handout 16h.4: Example of a Data Table for Livelihood Analysis

Squared paper

Information sheets with data for diagrams, or secondary sources containing appropriate data

**Activities:** Trainers introduce the livelihood analysis diagram. Participants construct diagrams in groups of 4-6. Then the large group discusses the results of the diagrams and methods of drawing livelihood analysis diagrams.

**Notes for Trainers:** Prepare this session very carefully. Obtain data from secondary sources (e.g., from a previous household survey done by the participants or their organizations). Choose examples which relate directly to the work of the participants. Do not make the tasks overly complicated as this only frustrates the participants. On the other hand do not make it too simple as this could bore them. Households included in the livelihood analysis could be selected through wealth ranking. Use the data collection table at the end of an interview, not at the beginning!

**Cautions:** If the handouts are not done carefully, are confusing, or contain mistakes (e.g., totals don't add up to 100%) the participants may run into difficulty executing the task of drawing the diagrams.





## Handout 16h.1: Livelihood Analysis

Livelihood analysis diagrams are used to help interpret the behaviors, decisions, and coping strategies of households with different socioeconomic characteristics. For example, a female-headed household with irregular income is likely to have different problems and needs, or spending patterns, than the household of a rich merchant or a government employee, and may adopt different coping strategies in the case of a crisis. Variables for a livelihood analysis may include:

- household size and composition
- number of labor migrants in the household
- livestock and land ownership
- proportion of income by source
- expenditures
- seasonality
- relative income
- credit and debt

### Steps:

- clarify indigenous definition of "household"
- choose variables to be recorded (household size, number of animals, sources of income, type/size of house)
- choose basis of socioeconomic stratification (size of household, amount of land owned, main source of income)
- devise data collection table (see Handout 16h.4)
- produce copies of data table for each team member
- obtain information from interviews with community members. Select informants on a stratified basis through wealth ranking or more informal methods.
- obtain quantitative data qualitatively (see seasonal calendar)
- interview at least 8 individual community members
- cross-check information through direct observation of key indicators
- prepare livelihood analysis diagram
- ask community members to draw their own diagrams. For example, for pie charts: a circle is found, formed or drawn as the basis of the diagram. The circle can be on the ground, on paper, in the form of a plate covered with grain, or any convenient circle that can be found in nature or manmade. Invite people to quantify proportions by drawing lines out from the center of the circle. The segments thus formed represent percentages.

Handout 16h.2: Example of a Livelihood Analysis Diagram

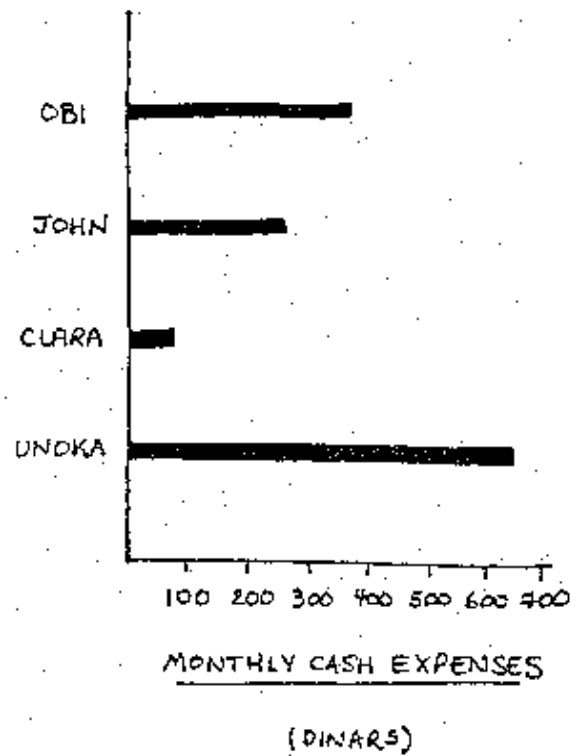
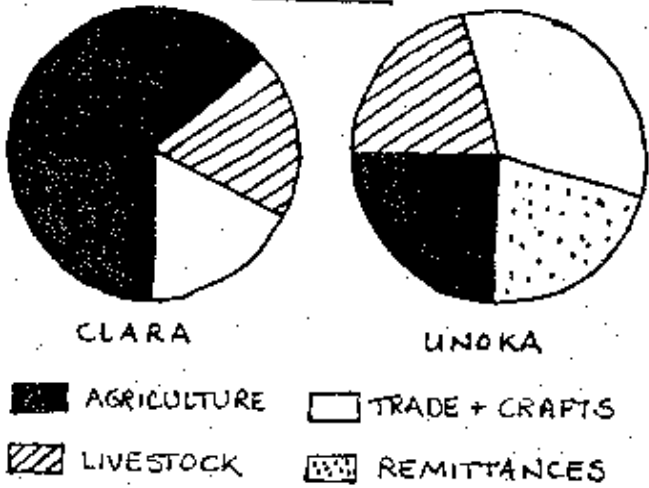
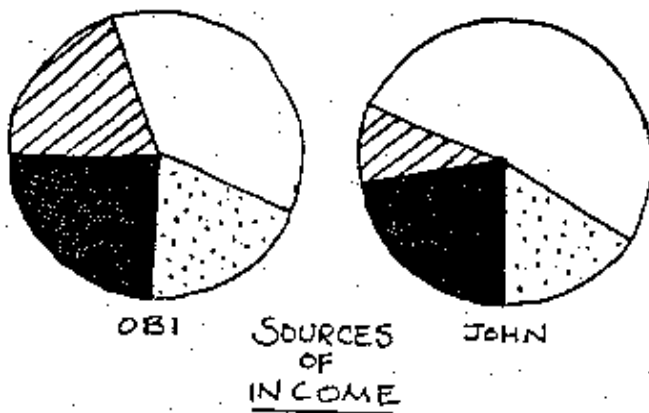
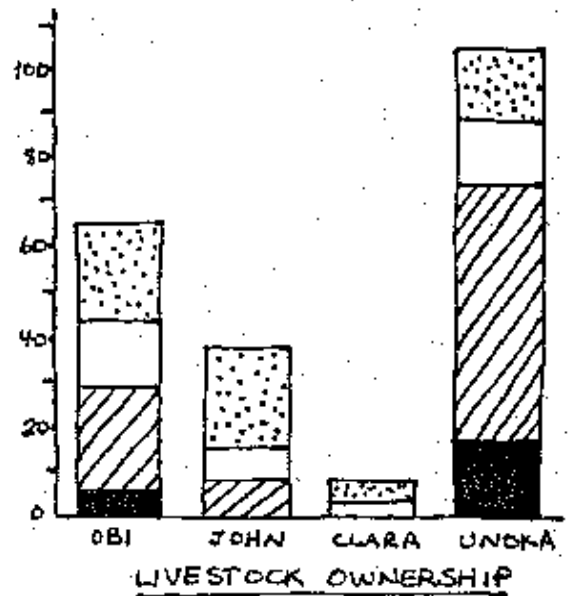
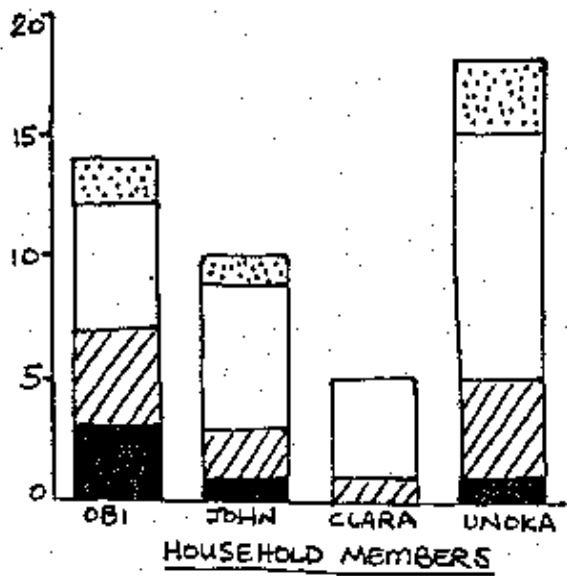


Chart 16h.3

EXERCISE: DRAWING A LIVELIHOOD ANALYSIS DIAGRAM

1. Split into \_\_\_\_\_ groups.
2. Draw a livelihood analysis diagram based on the information provided on the data table.
3. Use flipchart paper and markers (make a draft on a small sheet).
4. Be creative.

Time: One hour

After finishing, the subgroups will present the diagrams to the large group and discuss the results.

Handout 16h.4: Example of a Data Table for Livelihood Analysis

	Households			
	Obi	John	Clara	Unoka
<i>Household members</i>				
Men (number in household)	3	1	0	1
Women	4	2	1	4
Children	5	6	4	10
Labor Migrants	2	1	0	3
<i>Animals owned</i>				
Cattle	5	0	0	16
Sheep	24	8	1	56
Goats	15	7	3	16
Chicken	18	23	4	17
<i>Sources of income</i>				
Agriculture	25%	23%	66%	25%
Livestock	17%	8%	17%	21%
Trade and Crafts	41%	54%	17%	32%
Remittances	17%	15%	0%	21%
<i>Consumption</i>				
Monthly Cash Expenses (Dinars)	380	265	85	650

## SESSION 16i: Flow Diagram

**Purpose:** To introduce and practice drawing flow diagrams.

**Time:** One-and-a-half hours

**Materials:** Chart 16i.1: Flow Diagram

Handout 16i.2: Example of a Flow Diagram

Chart 16i.3: Exercise: Drawing a Flow Diagram

**Activities:** Trainers introduce flow diagrams and review one which has been prepared beforehand. Participants then quickly draw a flow diagram in the large group. Following this, based on the topic of the planned PRA, the participants (divided into subgroups of 3-5) choose or are given a specific problem which they present in the form of a flow diagram.

**Notes for Trainers:** This exercise can be very helpful to analyze a problem, provided the necessary data is available and the problem is clearly formulated. You may want to allow the participants to choose their own topic, perhaps asking them a day in advance to identify a problem.

**Cautions:** It requires a fair amount of experience and practice to draw flow diagrams well.

Chart 16i.1

### FLOW DIAGRAM

A flow diagram shows causes, effects, and relationships between key variables.

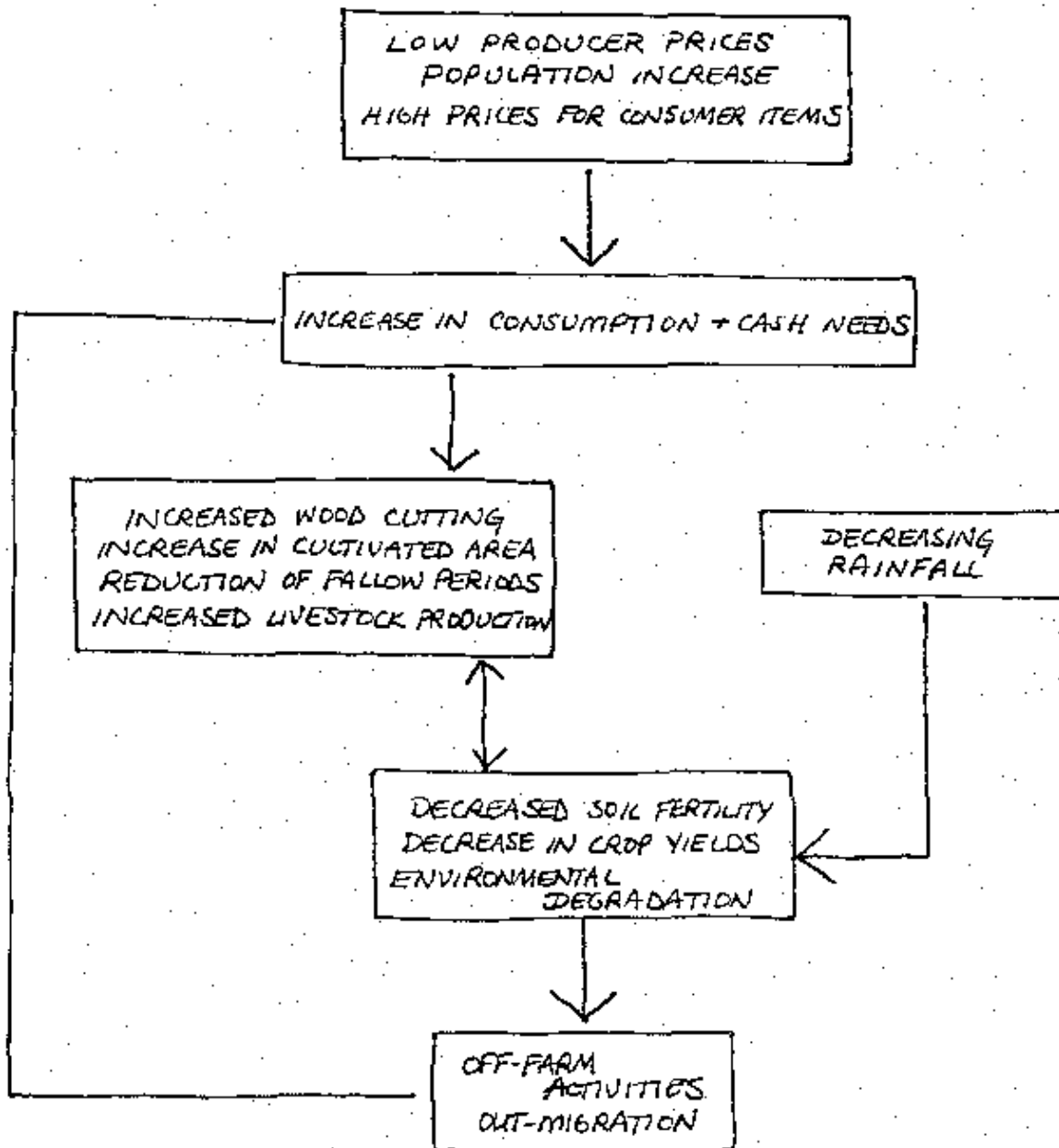
Examples:

- Relationships between economic, political, cultural, and climatic factors causing environmental degradation
- Flow of commodities and cash in a marketing system
- Production cycle for a major commodity
- Effects of major changes or innovations (impact diagrams)
- Organization chart

Steps:

- select processes or relationships to be analyzed
- obtain information from secondary sources and from key informants
- keep diagrams simple, less than 20 boxes
- use boxes for key variables, and arrows to connect boxes
- include prices and/or quantities alongside arrows in production cycles
- use + or - signs in impact diagrams to indicate positive or negative relationships
- ask community members to draw their own flow diagrams

# ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGE IN CENTRAL KORDOFAN, SUDAN





EXERCISE: DRAWING A FLOW DIAGRAM

1. Split into \_\_\_\_\_ groups.
2. Draw a flow diagram on the following topic: \_\_\_\_\_ (e.g., environmental constraints to crop production, marketing system for a particular crop, constraints to women's freedom of movement in public, production process of a particular crop, organization chart of the participants' organization(s), pesticide use chain).
3. Begin by listing all factors which have to be considered related to the problem.
4. Prioritize the list and start with the most important issues.
5. Use flipchart paper and markers (make a draft on a small sheet).
6. Be creative.

Time: One hour

After finishing, the subgroups will present the diagrams to the large group and discuss the results.

## SESSION 16j: Venn Diagram

**Purpose:** To introduce and practice Venn diagrams.

**Time:** One-and-a-half hours

**Materials:** Chart 16j.1: Venn Diagram  
Handout 16j.2: Example of a Venn Diagram  
Chart 16j.3: Exercise: Drawing a Venn Diagram  
Cardboard and scissors (optional)

**Activities:** Trainers introduce the definition and purpose of a Venn diagram and go through an example with the large group. The group then chooses topics for Venn diagrams and splits into subgroups of four to prepare the diagrams.

**Notes for Trainers:** Venn diagrams may be difficult for those who have not been exposed to them before. Be sure everyone in the group understands the concept.

**Cautions:** In order to be valuable, a Venn diagram should include all important and relevant variables (e.g., village institutions). Venn diagrams may become very complex as more and more variables are added.

### Chart 16j.1

#### VENN DIAGRAM

A Venn diagram (named after the man who created it) shows the key institutions and individuals in a community and their relationships and importance for decision-making.

#### Steps:

- identify key institutions and individuals responsible for decisions in a community or organization
- identify degree of contact and overlap between them in terms of decision-making. Overlap occurs if one institution asks or tells another to do something or if they have to cooperate in some way.
- obtain information from secondary sources, group interviews, or from key informants
- cut out (or draw) circles to represent each institution or individual
- size of circle indicates importance or scope
- arrange as follows:

Separate circles	=	no contact
Touching circles	=	information passes between institutions
Small overlap	=	some cooperation in decision making
Large overlap	=	considerable cooperation in decision making

- draw the Venn diagram first in pencil and adjust the size or arrangement of circles until the representation is accurate. When you are satisfied, go over the pencil with a marker for easy reading. Experiment with different materials.
- encourage community members to draw their own Venn diagrams

VILLAGE WATER USE CONTROL  
IN SUOAN

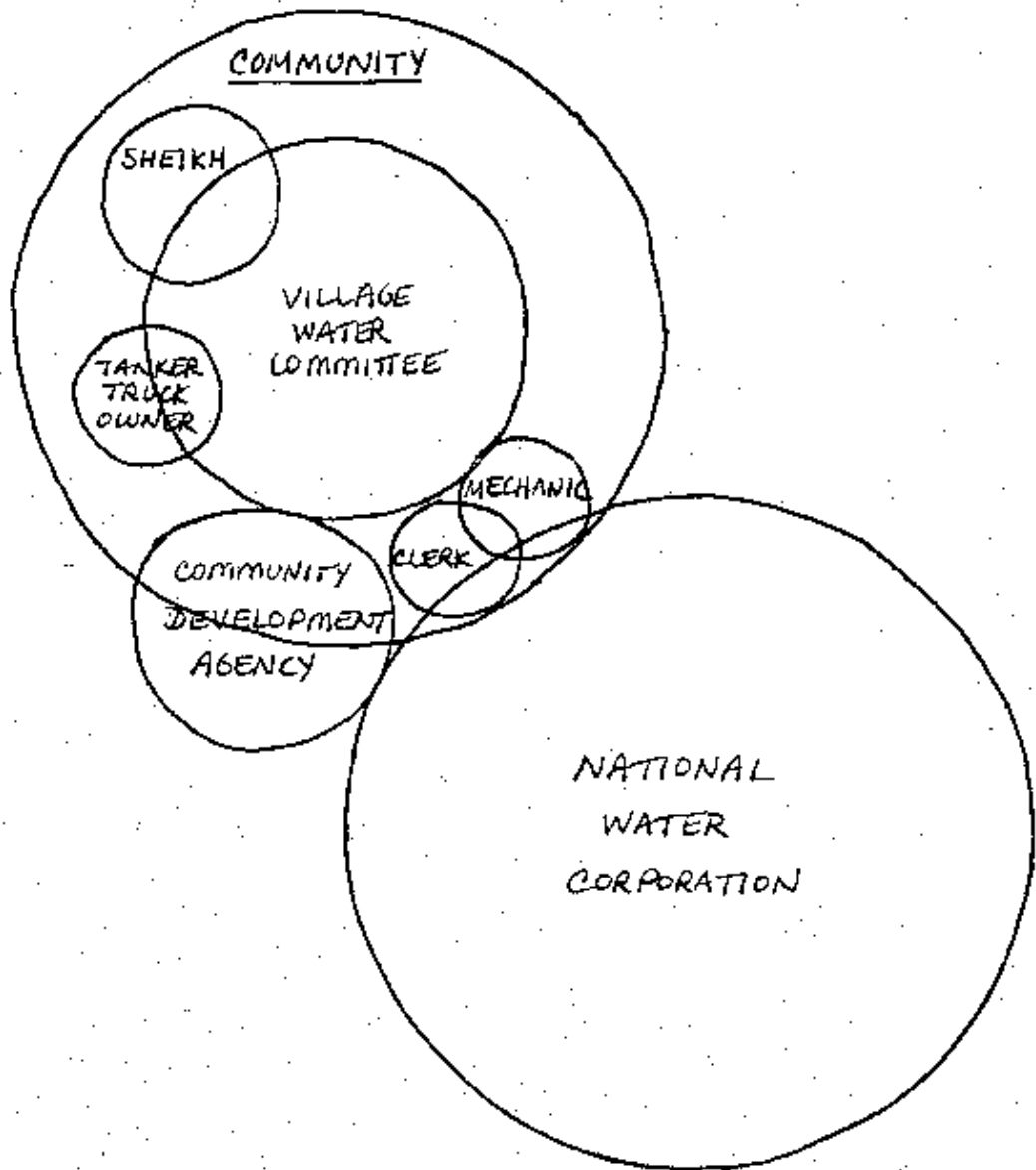


Chart 16j.3

**EXERCISE: DRAWING A VENN DIAGRAM**

1. Split into \_\_\_\_\_ groups.
2. Draw a Venn diagram of \_\_\_\_\_.
3. Use flipchart paper and markers or cardboard and scissors (make a draft on a small sheet). Start with pencil and when final, go over it with a marker.
4. Be creative.

Time: One hour

After finishing, the subgroups will present the diagrams to the large group and discuss the results.

## SESSION 17: Analysis Group Discussion

**Purpose:** To introduce the concept of analysis group discussion.

**Time:** 20 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 17.1: Analysis Group Discussion

**Activities:** Trainers give a short lecturette to introduce the concept of analysis group discussions, leading into Sessions 17a and 17b.

**Notes for Trainers:** Analysis group discussions are particularly useful for getting the PRA team and community members actively involved in decision-making. Advance preparation includes summarizing the findings of the PRA fieldwork by the research team. Before conducting this session consult Session 22 on PRA analysis.

Chart 17.1

### ANALYSIS GROUP DISCUSSION

- is an intensive, semi-structured session in which the information gathered in the field is analyzed and recommendations for further action are made
- is an important tool for actively involving community members in the decision-making process
- involves the field team and, often, outsiders with skills and experience (for example, village extensionist, teacher, midwife)
- makes use of diagrams to summarize findings and to facilitate interaction
- allows people to focus and crystallize their ideas
- allows community members to express their priorities and choices and do their own analysis

Rules for analysis group discussions:

- LISTEN
- LEARN
- FACILITATE
- DON'T DOMINATE
- DON'T LECTURE
- DON'T INTERRUPT
- RESPECT OTHER PEOPLE'S OPINIONS
- Set agenda and prepare discussion by summarizing findings beforehand

## **SESSION 17a: Innovation Assessment**

**Purpose:** To introduce and practice Innovation Assessment.

**Time:** One-and-a-half hours

**Materials:** Chart 17a.1: Innovation Assessment  
Handout 17a.2: Innovation Information Sheet  
Handout 17a.3: Example of a Priority Matrix

**Activities:** Trainers introduce innovation assessment and explain the priority matrix. Participants choose four to six different projects which they want to discuss and compare (projects or innovations could also be selected beforehand). The group completes the priority matrix and ranks the projects according to feasibility. The feasibility scores are compared and, if necessary, weighed, and steps for further action are discussed.

**Notes for Trainers:** Analysis group discussions on the basis of a priority matrix are an excellent way to generate a high level of participation. Often new and unexpected insights can be gained from this discussion. Priority matrices can be changed and adapted to the specific requirements of a topic. In his book *Two Ears of Corn* Roland Bunch presents a very detailed priority matrix for comparing different innovations for increasing milk production.

The priority matrix should be used as a tool to facilitate discussions, and to visualize, analyze, and compare a group of technologies or projects. It should not be used as the only way to decide which projects to pursue. The score should not be taken as absolute, as the results have to be weighed not all categories have the same importance.



**INNOVATION ASSESSMENT**

- is the final stage of the analysis group discussion.
- helps to assess and prioritize possible options for development activities according to:
  - amount of benefit for the community
  - degree of community participation
  - sustainability of the project
  - equitability of distribution of benefits
  - cost to implement
  - time it takes before community benefits
  - technical feasibility

After deciding on the innovations or projects, the team completes an innovation information sheet for each innovation, answering the following questions:

- What is the innovation?
- Why is it important?
- Who will be involved in its implementation?
- Who will benefit from it?
- Where in the community is it to be implemented?
- When is it to be implemented?
- How is it to be implemented?
- How much is it going to cost?
- To rank the criteria a scale of least good, medium, and best is used, represented as +, ++ and +++ (the more plus signs the better). It is completed horizontally, row by row and project by project.
- In this way the assessment remains visually-oriented; participants are able to glance across rows and make comparisons.
- Once the assessment is completed for all proposed innovations they should be ranked in terms of priority for further study or implementation.



**Handout 17a.2: Innovation Information Sheet**

<b>WHAT:</b>	
<b>WHY:</b>	
<b>WHERE:</b>	
<b>WHEN:</b>	
<b>WHO Implements:</b>	
<b>WHO Benefits:</b>	
<b>HOW:</b>	
<b>COST:</b>	

Handout 17a.3: Example of a Priority Matrix

Innovation or Project	Benefit for community	Community participation	Sustainability of innovation	Equitability of benefit	Cost to implement	Time to benefit	Technical feasibility	Feasibility score	Priority
Clinic	+++	++	++	+++	++	+++	+++	18	A
Preschool	++	+++	++	++	++	+++	++	16	C
Well Repair	+++	+++	++	+++	+	++	+++	17	B
Credit Program	++	++	+	++	+	+	++	11	D

## SESSION 17b: Sustainability Analysis

**Purpose:** To introduce and practice project review with the sustainability analysis matrix.

**Time:** One hour

**Materials:** Chart 17b.1: Sustainability Analysis

Handout 17b.2: Example of a Sustainability Analysis Matrix

**Activities:** Trainers introduce the sustainability analysis matrix. Participants choose a number of projects for review. Using the sustainability analysis matrix, the group discusses each project and makes an action plan for follow-up.

**Notes for Trainers:** The sustainability analysis matrix generates a high level of participation. Often new and unexpected insights can be gained from this discussion. The matrix can be changed and adapted if necessary.

Chart 17b.1

### SUSTAINABILITY ANALYSIS

This matrix is useful for the periodic review of development activities. Without additional collection of information this matrix sharpens the group's analytical skills and brings out important issues. It forces the group to ask a number of important questions and leads to decisions regarding the continuation and modification of the activities.

The questions included in the matrix are:

- Activity
- Goals/Objectives
- Output Indicators
- Impact Indicators
- Strengths (what do we do well)
- Weaknesses (where do we have problems)
- What should we continue doing
- What should we start doing
- What should we stop doing

# Handout 17b.2: Example of a Sustainability Analysis Matrix

Activity	Goals & Objectives	Output Indicators	Impact Indicators	Strengths	Weaknesses	What should we continue doing?	What should we start doing?	What should we stop doing?
Crop Diversification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- reduce water consumption of crops</li> <li>- increase income of farmers</li> <li>- increase self-reliance</li> <li>- substitute imports</li> <li>- demonstrate new crop varieties</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- number of seedlings distributed</li> <li>- number of farmers benefiting</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- seedling survival rate</li> <li>- amount of fruit produced</li> <li>- number of seedlings planted without outside assistance</li> <li>- tree nursery established</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- responsive to market changes</li> <li>- 13,000 seedlings distributed</li> <li>- quality control</li> <li>- farmers contribute financially</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- weak monitoring system</li> <li>- some seedlings not suitable for environment</li> <li>- low seedling survival rate</li> <li>- beneficiaries are not poor</li> <li>- work with individuals instead of groups</li> <li>- low rate of replication</li> <li>- small number of seedlings per beneficiary</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- extension technical assistance</li> <li>- follow-up</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- evaluation of project</li> <li>- establish tree nursery</li> <li>- work with groups of farmers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- stop subsidizing seedlings</li> <li>- stop working with individual farmers</li> </ul>

## SESSION 18: Structuring Research

**Purpose:** To train participants in how to structure research time.

**Time:** 30 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 18.1: Structuring Research

**Activities:** Trainers introduce structuring and scheduling of research time and the steps required for doing a PRA, to provide a general outline for the planning and implementation of the fieldwork.

**Notes for Trainers:** Careful scheduling of a PRA will ensure that time for group interaction will be adequate and that a variety of different activities can be covered in a short period of time. This session provides an overview of the steps of carrying out a PRA. As you go through the steps listed in Chart 18.1 you can write next to each step when each step will be done and how long it will take.

Chart 18.1

### STRUCTURING RESEARCH

1. Develop a research plan and design tools for information gathering and analysis.
2. Collect, review, and summarize available secondary sources as diagrams, tables, etc.
3. Prepare logistics for the fieldwork.
4. In the community, contact local leaders and explain the reason for the study. If planned, make arrangements for group interviews.
5. Team splits into groups of two to four and starts interviews, observations, etc.
6. Team meets after the first round of information gathering to discuss preliminary findings and reassign tasks.
7. Team continues with information gathering until enough knowledge is acquired.
8. Team meets and holds an analysis group discussion to discuss, analyze, and summarize the findings of the PRA and to develop a plan of action and to make recommendations.
9. Team writes a brief summary report.

## SESSION 19: Designing a Research Plan

**Purpose:** To design a PRA research plan.

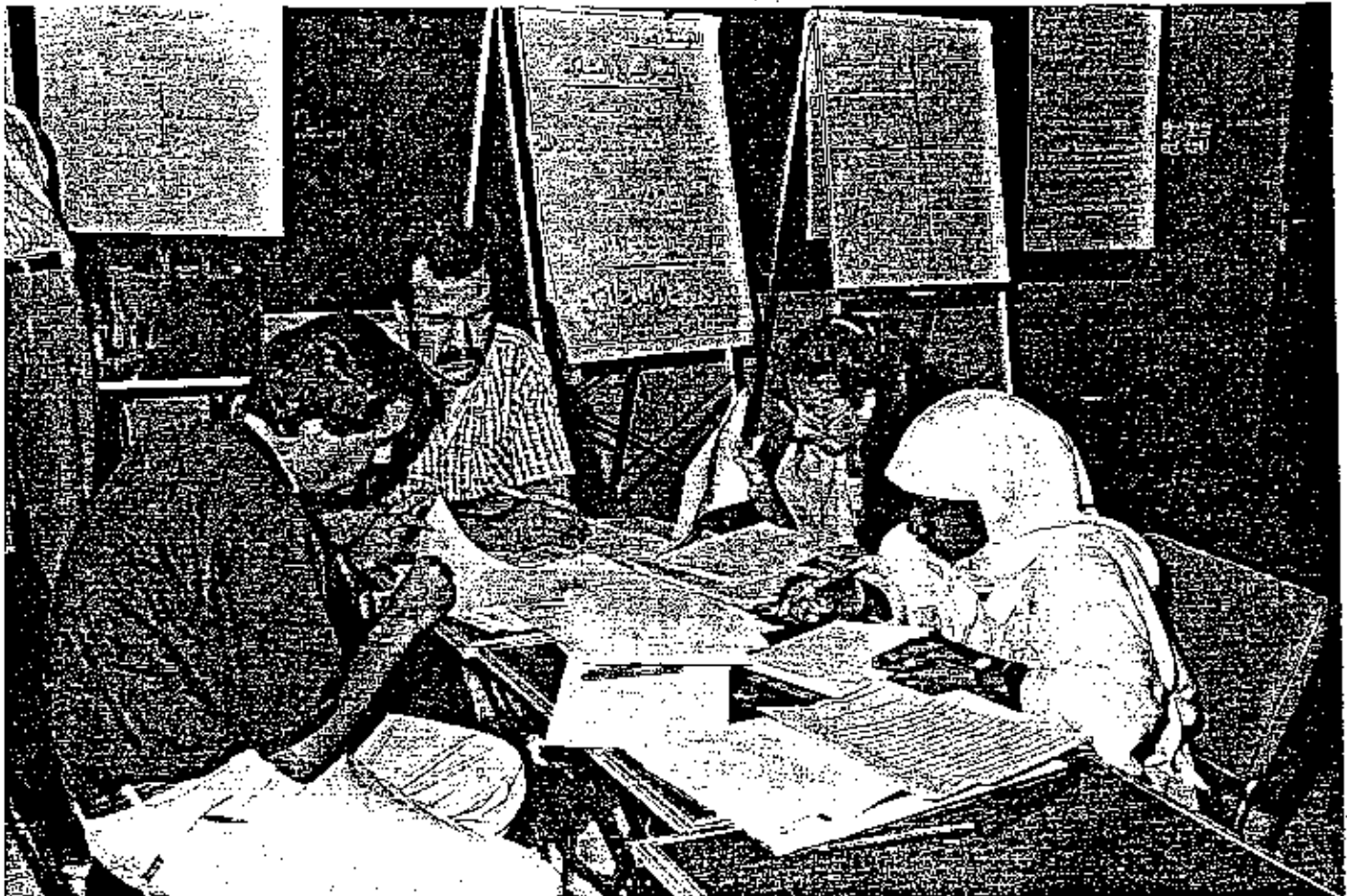
**Time:** One day (or less)

**Materials:** Chart 19.1: Steps of Designing a Research Plan  
Handout 19.2: Example of a Research Plan  
Handout 19.3: Guidelines for Designing a PRA  
Handout 19.4: Guidelines for Monitoring and Evaluation  
Chart 19.5: The Evaluation Wheel

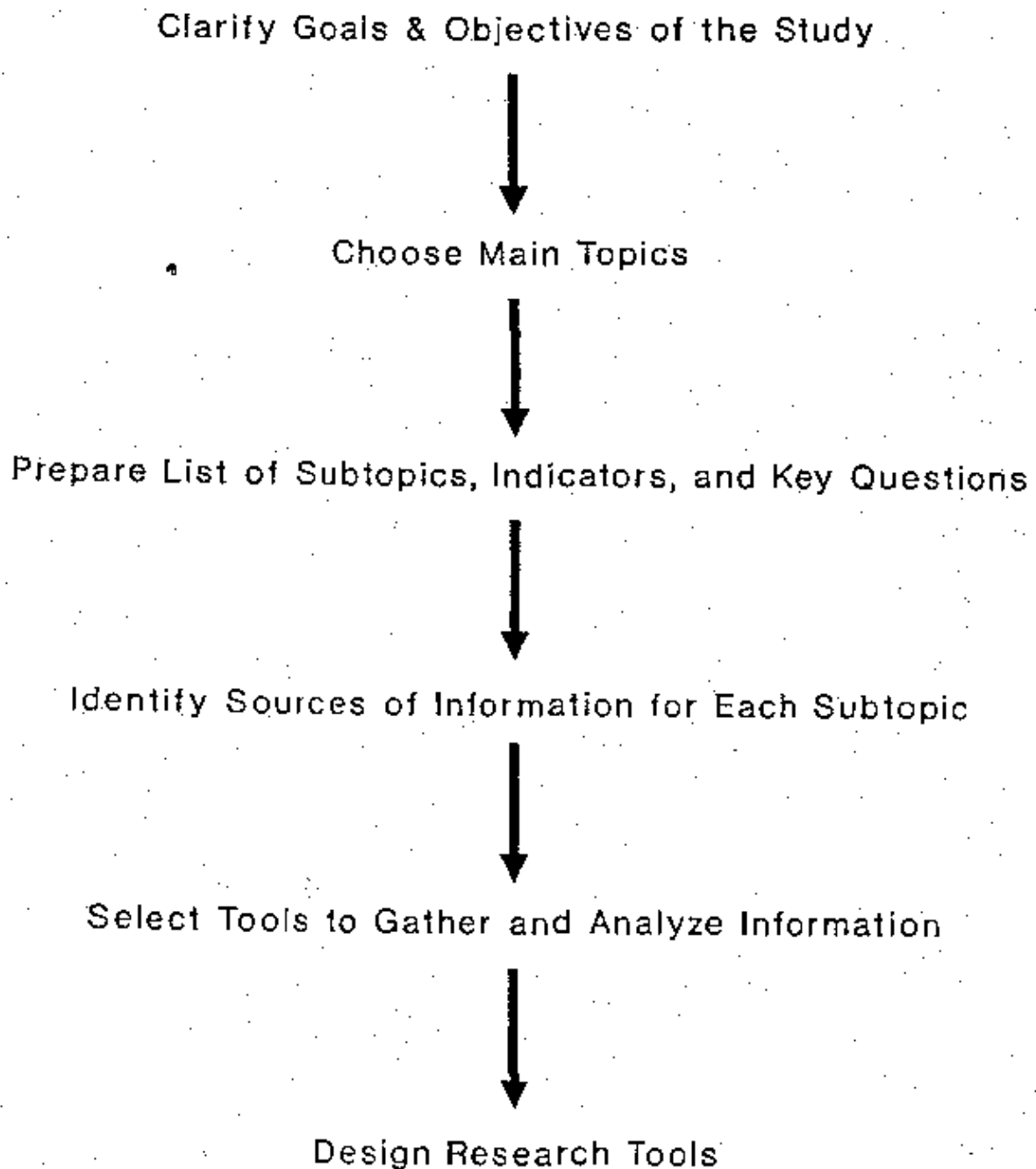
**Activities:** Trainers introduce the steps of designing a research plan. The team then reviews and clarifies the goals and objectives of the PRA, and identifies the broad topics of the PRA. Following this, the participants break into groups of 2-4. These smaller groups identify subtopics, sources of information, and tools for a few topics.

**Notes for Trainers:** Don't rush this session. It is crucial to have a good research plan. It will take at least two hours to decide on the main topics and subtopics of a PRA. At this point in the training participants should understand enough about the PRA tools that they will be able to assess which tools are most appropriate for each subtopic. It is important that the participants develop this plan by themselves. Don't impose a ready-made research plan but offer advice where necessary. You should have drafted a research plan beforehand, but use it only to guide the participants.

Use Handout 19.4 and Chart 19.5 if you do a project evaluation as part of the PRA fieldwork.



## ***STEPS OF DESIGNING A RESEARCH PLAN***





## Handout 19.2: Example of a Research Plan

### RESEARCH PLAN FOR GAZA WOMEN'S PRA

Goal: To improve understanding of the social and economic roles of women in Gaza.

#### TOOLS

Topic	Sub-topics	SSIs with	SSIs with Key	SSIs with	Direct	Secondary	Diagrams
		Women	Informants	Groups	Observation	Sources	
Community Institutions, Services and Sources of Support	- national institutions		X	X		X	
	- UN & external assistance		X	X		X	
	- mosques		X	X		X	
	- neighbors		X	X		X	
	- friends		X	X		X	
	- training centers		X	X		X	
	- preschools		X	X		X	
	- health clinics		X	X		X	
Livelihood	- women's work opportunities	X	X			X	
	- women's activities	X			X		
	- savings & assets	X			X		
	- inheritance	X					
	- income	X					
	- household spending	X		X			
	- home production	X			X		
	- household duties (daily routine)	X					X
- family size & dependents	X						
- division of labor	X						
Education, Skills	- training needs	X	X			X	
	- education & work history	X	X			X	
	- skills	X	X			X	
	- awareness of rights & potential	X	X			X	
	- level of education	X	X			X	
Decision Making & Participation	- household duties	X			X		
	- marriage	X			X		
	- mobility	X			X		X
	- spending in the household	X			X		
	- dress	X			X		
	- child bearing	X			X		
	- working	X			X		
	- education	X			X		
	- all institutions	X	X		X		
- women's institutions	X	X		X			
- women's aspirations	X			X			
Problems	- women's problems	X	X	X		X	
	- community problems	X	X	X		X	
	- family problems	X	X	X		X	
	- lack of confidence	X	X	X		X	
	- dress	X	X	X		X	
	- health	X	X	X		X	
	- occupation	X	X	X		X	
	- home life	X	X	X		X	
	- lack of facilities	X	X	X		X	
	- society & traditions	X	X	X		X	

### Handout 19.3: Guidelines for Designing a PRA

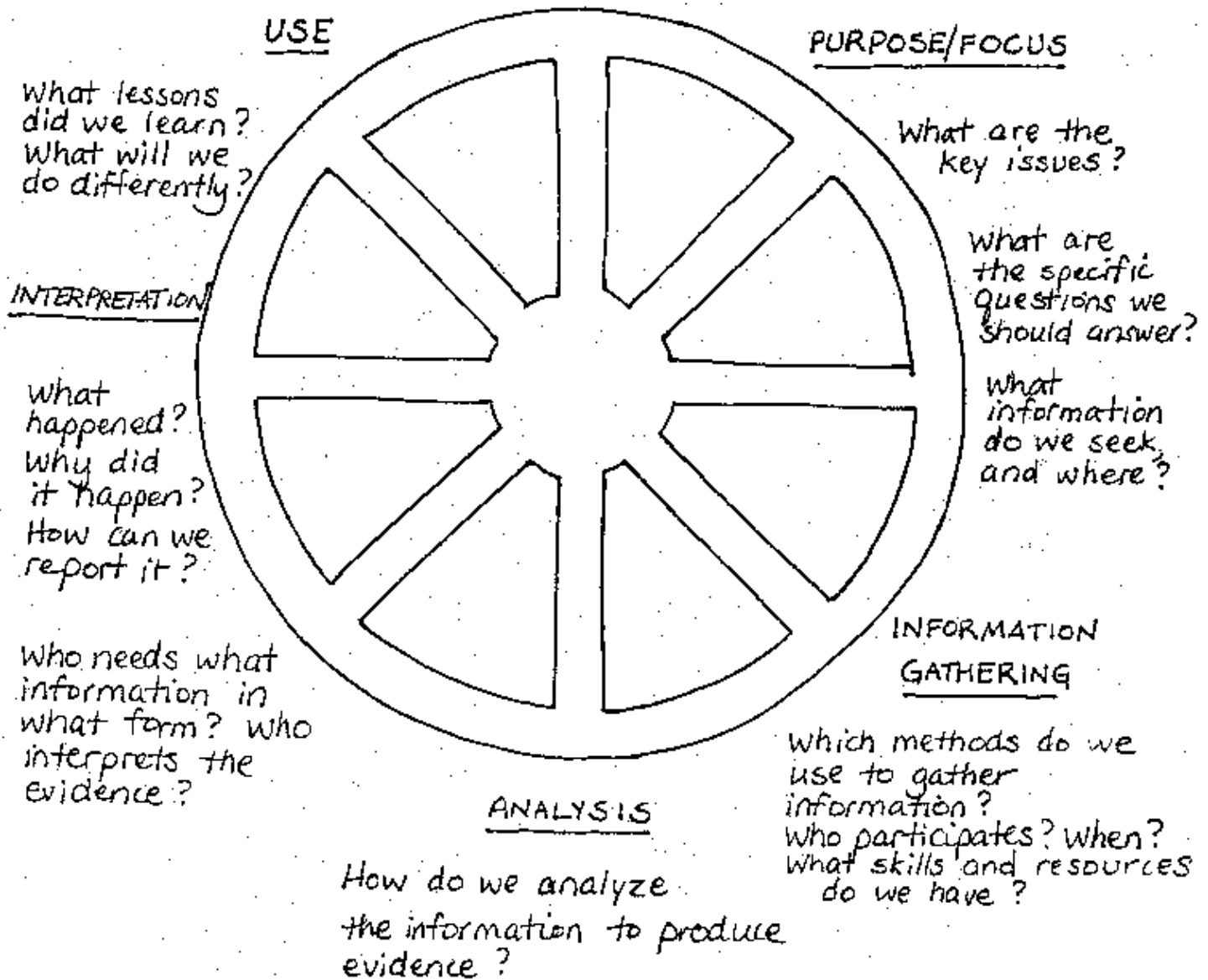
- When something is too complex to be approached in one piece, develop an outline for it, break it down into manageable parts, and deal with each part in turn. But don't lose sight of the overall picture or get lost in details. Regularly switch from these small steps to the overall picture. This method can be used for developing a research plan or research tools, planning, information gathering, analyzing data, or writing a report.
- In developing a research plan distinguish clearly between different levels: topics, subtopics, key questions, and indicators to avoid confusion during the fieldwork.
- Start with something easy, as this makes the team and the informants more relaxed (design the plan and the tools accordingly).
- When clarifying goals and objectives, topics and subtopics, sources of information, and indicators, and when designing the research tools, run through a list of questions starting with: what, why, who, for whom, how, where, when, what for, which, with what. For example, when designing a PRA plan, and when choosing your tools and indicators, ask yourself:
  - "Who needs the information?"*
  - "What are we trying to find out?"*
  - "How will the results be used?"*
  - "What is the scope and depth of information needed to address the research problem?"*
  - "What kind of information do we need?"*
  - "What degree of accuracy is required from the data?"*
  - "How will the information be collected?"*
  - "Who will collect the information?"*
  - "How can community members participate in the appraisal?"*
  - "Who can or should participate?"*
- Review secondary sources, interview key informants, and use your own knowledge to identify the main topics, hypotheses, and key issues of the PRA.
- Move from the general to the specific. Establish a framework of reference which is then filled in with more detailed information like a puzzle. Clarify what needs to be understood before moving to the next level of knowledge (e.g., get an understanding of the available natural resources and land rights before gathering detailed information on specific farming practices).
- Move from material to ideological and from general to specific topics (e.g., natural resources -> sources of livelihood -> household economy -> beliefs, attitudes, values -> problems and possible solutions). Leave discussions of problems and sensitive issues until the end. Structure both the whole PRA and the interviews accordingly.
- Think of analysis early on, using analytical tools throughout the PRA.
- Think of ways to involve community members (especially women and other disadvantaged groups) in the analysis of the collected information as much as possible.

## Handout 19.4: Guidelines for Monitoring and Evaluation

- PRA can be a very useful tool in monitoring and evaluation of development activities. Monitoring is the routine collection and analysis of data to compare the progress of an activity with the implementation plan. Evaluation is the periodic assessment and review of the extent to which the goals and objectives of an activity have been accomplished.
- When designing development activities think about how to monitor and evaluate the activities. Make monitoring and evaluation an integral part of the project cycle and its activities. Evaluation tools should be tailored so that they can be integrated easily into the existing program.
- Keep your data requirements to an absolute minimum. Collect as little data as possible and as much as necessary for project tracking and feedback and for program evaluations. Carefully choose a few, measurable indicators which easily and quickly provide you with accurate, reliable, and believable data. Think about how routine monitoring indicators (for project output and impact) can be used for project evaluations, and base evaluations as much as possible on this information. Don't collect fresh data without first reviewing all existing sources of information on the desired topic.
- Rely heavily on data which can be collected routinely as part of your regular work (e.g., collection of market price data, grain store inventory control, registration of births and deaths in the village). This gives you up-to-date information on the status of project progress and requires much less time and resources than a separate evaluation and monitoring effort. Train community members to do routine data collection and discuss results regularly. Bad records and those which are not used are not only worthless, they are a waste of time and resources.
- Whoever collects information should be involved in analyzing the data. This will increase their motivation by giving them a fuller understanding of the project and the purpose of gathering the data.
- Only collect monitoring data if you have the means and systems in place to use them.
- Only do evaluations if you have concrete plans to use the data for reports, planning, and decision-making and if you have the means and a commitment to implement the recommendations.
- Do evaluations in teams, and always with community members (don't forget women and other disadvantaged groups).

# THE EVALUATION WHEEL

Why do we need to evaluate?  
Who wants it? For what decisions?



(Source: Pfohl, 1986.)

## SESSION 20: Designing PRA Tools and Preparing for Fieldwork

**Purpose:** To design information collection and analysis tools, finalize logistics, select sites, and schedule the PRA fieldwork.

**Time:** One day

**Materials:** Chart 20.1: Preparing for Fieldwork

Chart 20.2: Designing PRA Tools

Diagrams prepared by participants during previous training sessions

Secondary sources (maps, statistics, etc.)

**Activities:** Participants split into groups, each designing one or two tools for the PRA (for example, observation checklist, list of questions, interview guide, blank form for diagram). The team prepares a schedule for the fieldwork and finalizes the logistics (transportation, food, accommodation, materials).

**Notes for Trainers:** Don't spend more than one day on designing the tools. They don't have to be perfect. It is more important that the team gets started on the fieldwork during which the tools will be refined. Assign team leaders for the interview teams if the whole group is too large (more than eight).

### Chart 20.1

#### PREPARING FOR FIELDWORK

- Review secondary sources and summarize as diagrams or tables.
- Prepare checklists of questions and topics for interviews and direct observation.
- Design and make copies of blank diagram forms.
- Choose possible key informants and sites.
- Prepare a schedule for the appraisal and assign tasks to members of the PRA team.
- Finalize logistics.

### DESIGNING PRA TOOLS

- **Selecting tools:** After having agreed on a list of subtopics (usually 2-7 for each broad topic) in the large group, the participants split into smaller groups, each of which selects appropriate tools for a certain number of assigned subtopics.
- **Designing tools:** The groups reorganize themselves so that one member of each of the previous small groups is represented in each of the groups for the next activity to share their information (if necessary, reduce the number of groups). To design the tools follow these steps:
  - write the subtopics, key questions, and indicators for each tool on index cards or pieces of paper and arrange them in logical order,
  - experiment with different sequences of questions before you agree on a written list of questions,
  - prepare direct observation checklists, lists of key questions, interview guides, and blank forms for diagrams,
  - make copies of every tool for all members of the PRA team.

In designing and identifying tools don't get bogged down with details early on. Start with a general outline before discussing specific questions.

## SESSION 21: Carrying out Fieldwork

**Purpose:** To put into practice what participants have learned and carry out PRA fieldwork.

**Time:** At least four days

**Materials:** Handout 21.1: Guidelines for PRA Fieldwork

Notebooks, pens, markers, flipcharts, blank forms, folders

**Activities:** The team carries out the PRA, involving community members as much as possible. Findings and methods are discussed each day throughout the period of fieldwork.

**Notes for Trainers:** This is the most challenging part of the training for the trainers. The fieldwork is an important indicator for the quality of the theoretical and practical training during the previous days. Use diagrams from the previous days as necessary (e.g., use the on-the-spot analysis diagram to remind participants of the process of fieldwork). The trainers and team leaders should concentrate on methodological issues rather than on the findings themselves. The main aim of the fieldwork is to train the participants in the techniques, and not to gather as much information as possible, although this is also important. The team leaders should always be one or two steps ahead of the participants and not appear to be lost.

If the trainers are not familiar with the area of study and do not understand the local language they will be limited in what they can contribute to the fieldwork. The participants will know much more about the local situation than the trainers, who will not be able to understand and interpret correctly and fully what they see and what is being said and done. In such a situation the trainers should assign the task of team leader to someone who is familiar with the local situation and language. In this case the trainers will assume the role of observers rather than team leaders.





- Use at least four days but not more than three weeks.
- Use a small team with a good mix of backgrounds and an interest in the topic.
- Choose a team leader. This person is responsible for guiding the daily work of the team and facilitating discussions. The responsibility of collecting and sorting filled-in forms, and handing out blank forms as necessary, can be done by the team leader or, preferably, delegated to another member of the team.
- Use the information which was collected in advance.
- Triangulate: methods, team, information sources (sites, people).
- At the site of the fieldwork discuss the objectives of the PRA with community leaders and key community members involved in the PRA and make arrangements for group interview(s).
- Start the fieldwork by obtaining broad background information which will form a basis of knowledge for further inquiries.
- Identify a high vantage point from which to obtain a visual overview of the community.
- Start with something simple (e.g., direct observation, key informant interviews, non-controversial issues) before approaching more complex issues and more sophisticated methods.
- Identify and carefully select community members and key informants. Choose informants based on variations and differences (e.g., compare successful and less successful farmers to identify effective farm management strategies, compare sick and healthy children to understand child rearing practices). Choose informants based on their characteristics, their knowledge, and their experience, not randomly. The size of the sample depends on the homogeneity and size of the community and the topic. In complex urban areas a larger sample is needed than in rural communities. But in most cases 20 to 50 interviews should be sufficient.
- Improve the quality of interview information by combining interviews and direct observation. The context of the data is as important as the data itself.
- Improve the quality of direct observation by using key indicators and checklists.
- Use key indicators as shortcuts (e.g., monthly household cash expenses as an indicator for household income, or market prices as indicators for the harvest situation).
- Keep checklists to remind team members of important issues which need further inquiry.
- Make use of the *six helpers* (who, what, where, when, why and how).
- Only ask questions whose answers will provide information you need.

- Adapt to the community members' pace and meet them when it suits them. Don't impose your schedule.
- Conduct interviews with community members and key informants (individually and in groups). Do direct observation. Divide the team in subgroups for the interviews.
- After the first round of interviews and observations (not later than the end of the first day), reserve time to meet as a team and discuss findings. Do a preliminary analysis of the information gathered and the understanding gained so far. The group should already be able to revise the list of topics or questions to be asked, and identify additional information needed and sources for it.
- Do case studies of households to identify variances and analyze them.
- Structure research time to allow for team interaction, changing the agenda, and free (unplanned) time.
- Make a plan for every day of the fieldwork based on an analysis of the collected information. Don't continue collecting data without a clear plan.
- Review fieldwork daily with the team, going over all notes and evaluating the fieldwork and the methods. Discuss what mistakes were made, what lessons were learned, and what needs to be changed. Avoid the danger that team members learn wrong behavior patterns and wrong ways of using tools. Team leaders should keep a list of frequent mistakes made during fieldwork and remind the team to avoid them.
- Shuffle the members of the interviewing groups. Encourage them to rotate roles even though some people will have a natural talent for certain activities (for example, notetaking or interviewing).
- Refine, modify, and experiment with different tools to respond to the changing focus of the PRA as you go along. Discard useless questions, include new ones, stop asking questions about topics you know enough about, but be careful not to generalize based on too little data.
- Combine different methods and experiment with different sequences of methods. Introduce or develop new tools during the fieldwork as necessary.
- Adapt to unpredictable situations and turn constraints into opportunities (e.g., if a group of people gathers during an interview, turn it into a group discussion).
- Have second and third meetings with the same people to get a deeper understanding. Continuously narrow down the focus of the PRA, dig deeper, cross-check, and probe.
- Use analytical tools to summarize findings and to compare information from different informants on the same topic.

- Present your analyses to key informants to confirm and cross-check your findings and conclusions. If your analysis is wrong this will let you know.
- Weigh the relative importance of the gathered information and don't take information at face value; be critical.
- Don't lecture. Look, listen, and learn.
- Don't hide mistakes. Share them and learn from them.
- Be self-critical. Ask yourself: "*Whom do we meet and hear?*" "*What do we see?*" "*Whom don't we meet and hear?*" "*What don't we see?*"
- Be around in the evenings, at night, and in the early morning. Staying overnight in the community brings you closer to the community and is good for team interaction.
- Allow sufficient time for team interaction, for changing the agenda, and for walking around to discover and investigate the unexpected.
- Every day schedule time for writing field notes.
- Think about how and in what form the results will be used.
- Show interest in learning from the people. Respect the community members and their knowledge. Ask for their advice and be sensitive.
- Mix with the community members and join in their tasks to create a sense of equality.
- Experiment with different forms of community participation.
- Include women and children; don't concentrate on only one segment of the population.
- Meet as a team to prepare diagrams or charts to summarize the main findings.
- Hold an analysis group discussion to review and discuss the findings with community members and to identify further steps to be taken.
- Do more field visits in other communities as needed. Where appropriate, invite community members from previous sites to join the team for the following field visits.
- If the conclusions drawn from the gathered information do not reflect the PRA team's professional knowledge and experience, it is necessary to review or revise the interpretation or to collect additional information to support it.
- The findings of the PRA must be believable.

## SESSION 22: Final Analysis and Preparation of Results of PRA

**Purpose:** To summarize the results of the fieldwork for presentation.

**Time:** One day

**Materials:** Chart 22.1: Preparing the Results of the PRA  
Handout 22.2: Guidelines for Analysis of PRA Findings

**Activities:** The team holds an analysis group discussion. It reviews and summarizes the results of the appraisal in the form of diagrams and tables for presentation. The team evaluates the findings and the methods used.

**Notes for Trainers:** Let the participants do this session on their own. Monitor the group work and make suggestions for changes and improvements of diagrams where necessary. Only interfere when asked. Remind the participants to be self-critical.

Chart 22.1

### PREPARING THE RESULTS OF THE PRA

- Decide how to present the results and which diagrams to use.
- Organize the data for each diagram.
- Divide the tasks of preparing diagrams among the team members.
- Discuss the diagrams as a team and make changes where necessary.



## Handout 22.2: Guidelines for Analysis of 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 all data has been collected.
- Prepare a list of key issues and arrange your findings according to this list. Rearrange, break up, and reassemble pieces of data. Sort and sift through information and look for patterns, differences, variations, and contradictions. Weigh the relative importance of the information. Be self-critical.
- Formulate a series of questions based on the research topic (including new questions which may have come up during the fieldwork) and try to answer them with the help of the collected information.
- Discuss each subtopic 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 avoid relying on general impressions rather than facts.
- Check your 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. Two opposite statements cannot be true at the same time. If the findings contradict the secondary sources or other sources you must be able to explain why. Your findings have to be believable.

## SESSION 23: Presentation of Results of Fieldwork

**Purpose:** To present and discuss the results of the PRA fieldwork.

**Time:** Two hours +

**Materials:** Chart 23.1: How to Present Findings  
Markers and flipcharts

**Activities:** Each team member presents a different aspect, topic, or diagram of the PRA to a group of interested guests. For each topic the main findings, recommendations, and plans for further action are presented. The whole group discusses the results of the PRA and methodological issues and answers any questions the guests may have.

**Notes for Trainers:** Assign each team member a role for presenting the findings of the PRA. Make the presentation as interesting as possible, making use of role plays, diagrams, and presenting artifacts and found objects. The participants should have rehearsed their presentations based on guidelines on how to present diagrams (discuss guidelines with the participants). Keep the presentations short but allow enough time for discussions and clarifications. Invite outsiders to attend this session (community members, NGOs, government officials, donors).

**Cautions:** This session has the potential of becoming very long and boring as team members inexperienced in presenting diagrams may go into great detail in their presentations. It should be made clear that this is not productive.

Chart 23.1

### HOW TO PRESENT FINDINGS

Ask yourself:

- Who is the audience?
- What information is the audience interested in?
- What is the best way to present the information?
- Who presents what?
- How long does it take to present the findings?
- Anticipate what information will be controversial and prepare a justification.
- Rehearse the presentation.
- Remember the guidelines for presenting diagrams!

## SESSION 24: Action Plan for Follow-Up

**Purpose:** To prepare an action plan for follow-up.

**Time:** One hour +

**Materials:** Chart 24.1: Action Plan for Follow-Up

**Activities:** Participants discuss ways of using PRA in their work. This action plan may contain plans for further training courses, plans for the next PRA, ideas on communicating with organizations specializing in PRA, a plan for involving community members in participatory appraisal (evaluation, monitoring, needs assessments), and arrangements for writing and disseminating the report and the results of the PRA.

**Notes for Trainers:** Follow-up and continued practice is important to increase the impact of the initial training and to ensure continued quality control of PRAs done by the participants. Without proper follow-up the impact of the training will be significantly reduced. Make sure each participant receives a copy of the action plan.

At the end of this session distribute certificates to the participants if appropriate.

Chart 24.1

ACTION PLAN FOR FOLLOW-UP			
What?	Who is Responsible?	Who Supervises?	By When?



## SESSION 25: Writing the PRA Report

**Purpose:** To write a draft report on the results of the PRA fieldwork.

**Time:** One day +

**Materials:** Chart 25.1: Writing the PRA Report  
Chart 25.2: Report Outline  
Chart 25.3: Steps of Report Writing

**Activities:** Trainers review the rules for writing the PRA report and the report outline with the participants. The participants discuss the needs of the report writing, assign tasks, arrange materials and information to be included in the report, and draft the report.

**Notes for Trainers:** The PRA report should be written immediately after the end of the PRA fieldwork and should be based mainly on the records (flipcharts and diagrams) of the PRA with some additional explanations. The sections may be divided among the PRA team members, or it may be written jointly. It is important that completing the report does not take too long (ideally it should take no longer than one week). Stencils or photocopyers should be used as available to duplicate the report for dissemination.

### Chart 25.1

#### WRITING THE PRA REPORT

##### Ask yourself:

- Who will read the report (community, government, NGOs, donors)?
- What will the report be used for?
- What should the report contain?
- How should the information be presented?
- Who will write the report?

##### Guidelines for the PRA Report:

- Keep it short and clear, and use short sentences.
- Prepare it quickly, as the findings must be timely.
- Make sure it reaches the right people so the results can get factored into decisions.
- Choose a form of communication which catches attention.
- Organize the report in a logical, easy-to-follow outline and make it as understandable as possible. Use subheadings.
- The evidence presented should be convincing.
- Concentrate on what will be used by the community.
- Make full use of charts, tables, diagrams, and illustrations prepared during the PRA.
- Circulate the draft report to all PRA team members and key informants for their comments and feedback before finalizing.
- Team members should write the report in the local language.
- Distribute the report to interested individuals and institutions.

Chart 25.2

REPORT OUTLINE

1. Title/Topic
2. Objectives
3. Methodology
4. Main Findings
5. Recommendations
6. Next Steps
7. Attachments (selected diagrams, maps, statistics, secondary sources, interview notes, etc.)

Chart 25.3

STEPS OF REPORT WRITING

1. Prepare an outline.
2. Organize and arrange the information according to the outline.
3. Draft the report.
4. Review and revise the narrative with *the team and key informants*.
5. Finalize the report.
6. Copy the report.
7. Distribute the report.
8. Implement the recommendations.

## SESSION 26: Evaluation of the PRA Training

**Purpose:** To evaluate the PRA training.

**Time:** 45 minutes

**Materials:** Chart 26.1: Evaluation of the PRA Training

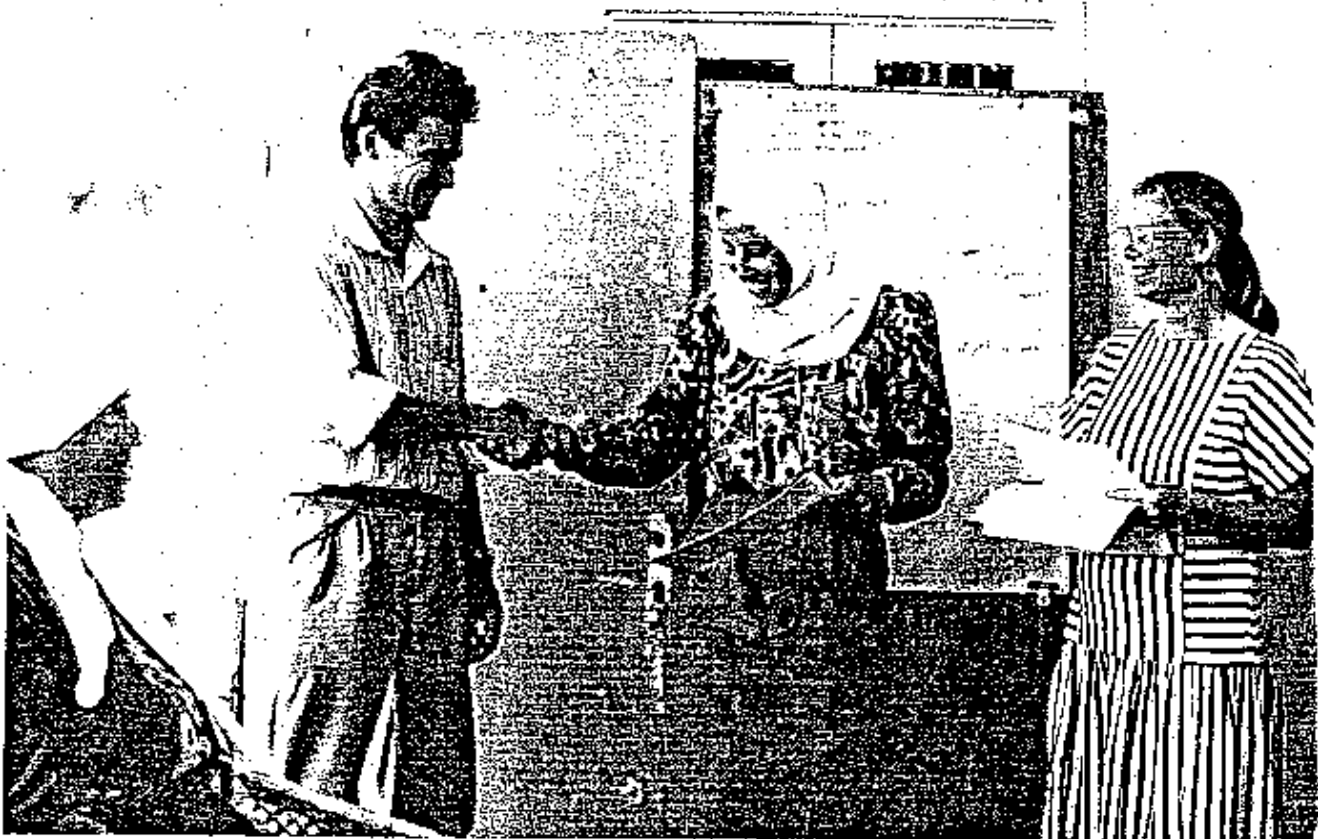
**Activities:** The participants evaluate the training itself, the skills they learned, and make suggestions for improvements. Review the expectations of trainers and participants (Session 3).

**Notes for Trainers:** Follow the rules for evaluations. Design your own evaluation format or invite the participants to choose a format. Adapt Chart 26.1 to your needs.

Chart 26.1

### EVALUATION OF THE PRA TRAINING

- Which tools and topics were most useful?
- Which other aspects of the training were most useful?
- Which tools and topics were least useful?
- Which other aspects of the training were least useful?
- Other comments and observations



## FURTHER READING\*

Abel, N.O.J. et al. 1989. *Guidelines for Training in Rapid Appraisal for Agroforestry Research and Extension*. Commonwealth Science Council, London (c).

Well-illustrated guide with many practical examples.

Annett, Hugh; Rifkin, Susan. n.d. *Improving Urban Health: Guidelines for Rapid Appraisal to Assess Community Health Needs*. Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine (f).

Brief training guide for doing a rapid appraisal of health needs.

Annett, Hugh.; Rifkin, Susan. 1988. *Report of Rapid Appraisal Trial, Mbeya, Tanzania*. Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine (f).

Report on a rapid appraisal training workshop done on community health needs in Tanzania.

Bunch, Roland. 1982. *Two Ears of Corn: A Guide to People-Centered Agricultural Development*. World Neighbors, Oklahoma City (l).

Classic introduction to the theory and practice of community development.

Buzzard, Shirley; Edgcomb, Elaine (eds). 1987. *Monitoring and Evaluating Small Business Projects: A Step by Step Guide for Private Development Organizations*. PACT, Madison, CT, USA (h).

Although this book does not focus specifically on PRA methods it contains a lot of good ideas for monitoring and evaluating projects. A Facilitator's Manual for this book is also available.

Casley, D.J.; Lury, D.A. 1987 (2nd edition). *Data Collection in Developing Countries*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Standard introduction to conventional survey research methods in developing countries.

Chambers, Robert. 1983. *Rural Development: Putting the Last First*. Longman, Harlow (c).

Classic study on rural development.

Chambers, Robert; Pacey, Arnold; Thrupp, Lori Ann (eds). 1989. *Farmer First: Farmer Innovation and Agricultural Research*. Intermediate Technology Publications, London (c).

Collection of a wide range of articles on farmer participation in development and research projects.

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\*The letters in parentheses following the references refer to the address list on page 149.

Feuerstein, Marie-Thérèse. 1986. *Partners in Evaluation. Evaluating Development and Community Programmes With Participants*. MacMillan Education Ltd., London and Basingstokes (c).

Detailed introduction to participatory evaluation.

Freire, Paulo. 1973. *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. Harper & Row Publishers, Downsville Pike, Route 3, P.O. Box 20 B, Hagerstown, MD 21740, USA.

Classic text on non-formal adult education.

Grandin, Barbara. 1988. *Wealth Ranking in Smallholder Communities: A Field Manual*. Intermediate Technology Publications, London (c).

Standard guide for wealth ranking.

Khon Kaen University. 1987. *Rapid Rural Appraisal, Proceedings of the 1985 International Conference, Rural Systems Research and Farming Systems Research Projects*. Khon Kaen, Thailand (e).

Collection of articles on the theory and practice of RRA.

Kumar, Krishna. 1987. *Conducting Group Interviews in Developing Countries*. A.I.D. Program Design and Evaluation Methodology Report No. 8, USAID, Washington (a).

Detailed discussion of the methodology of conducting group interviews.

Kumar, Krishna. 1987. *Rapid, Low-Cost Data Collection Methods for A.I.D.* A.I.D. Program Design and Evaluation Methodology Report No. 10, USAID, Washington (a).

Review of rapid appraisal methods.

McCracken, Jennifer; Pretty, Jules; Conway, Gordon. 1988. *An Introduction to Rapid Rural Appraisal for Agricultural Development*. IIED, London (d).

Standard introduction to RRA.

McCracken, Jennifer. 1988. *Participatory Rapid Rural Appraisal in Gujarat: A Trial Model for the Aga Khan Rural Support Programme in India*. IIED, London (d).

One in a series of RRA reports produced by the IIED.

Miles, Matthew B.; Huberman, A. Michael. 1984. *Qualitative Data Analysis: A Sourcebook of New Methods*. Sage Publications, 2455 Teller Road, Newbury Park, CA 91320, USA.

This practical guide contains a wide range of matrices for analyzing qualitative data.

*MYRADA PALM Series*. MYRADA, Bangalore (g).

Series of practical guides on different participatory research techniques.

Natpracha, Patchanee; Stephens, Alexandra. 1990. *Taking Hold of Rural Life*. FAO - RAPA. Bangkok, Thailand (b).

Introduction to participatory research, planning, management, monitoring, and evaluation.

Narayan-Parker, Deepa. (forthcoming). *Field Manual on Participatory Research*. PROWESS/UNDP, New York (h).

Discussion of participatory research methods for planning, implementing, and monitoring community development projects.

National Environment Secretariat, Egerton University, Clark University, and Center for International Development and Environment of the World Resources Institute. 1989. *Participatory Rural Appraisal Handbook: Conducting PRAs in Kenya*. WRI, Washington (m).

Handbook on PRA methods, focusing on the preparation of village resource plans in Kenya. A training manual is in preparation.

Pfohl, Jacob. 1986. *Participatory Evaluation - A Users Guide*. PACT, New York (h).

Practical introduction to participatory evaluation.

Pretty, Jules N. 1990. *Rapid Catchment Analysis for Extension Agents; Notes on the 1990 Kericho Training Workshop for the Ministry of Agriculture, Kenya*. IIED, London (d).

One in a series of RRA reports produced by the IIED.

*RAP News*. United Nations University Food and Nutrition Programme, Cambridge, MA, USA (k).

Quarterly newsletter on rapid appraisal methods available free of charge.

*RRA Notes*. IIED, London (d).

Periodical on the development of rapid appraisal methods. Available free of charge from IIED.

Rugh, Jim. 1986. *Self-Evaluation - Ideas for Participatory Evaluation of Rural Community Development Projects*. World Neighbors, Oklahoma City (i).

Practical introduction to participatory evaluation.

Schoonmaker Freudenberger, Karen; Gueye, Bara. 1991. *RRA Notes to Accompany Introductory Training Module*. IIED, London (d).

Introduction to RRA based on rapid appraisal training courses held in West Africa (also available in French).

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Introduction to using rapid appraisal in health programs. A short video tape accompanying this book is also available and a companion training manual is in preparation.

Srinivasan, Lyra. 1990. *Tools for Community Participation - A Manual for Training Trainers in Participatory Techniques*. PROWWESS/UNDP, New York (h).

Well-illustrated source book of methods for community participation.

Stephens, Alexandra; Putman, Kees. 1988. *Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation - Handbook for Training Field Workers*. FAO - RAPA. Bangkok, Thailand (b).

Introduction to participatory monitoring and evaluation.

Vella, Jane. 1989. *Learning To Teach: Training of Trainers for Community Development*. SCF, Westport and OEF International, Washington (c/h).

Manual for training community development workers in using participatory methods to train community members.



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**Save the Children Federation (SC)** is a private, non-profit, non-sectarian international development and relief organisation operating in 38 countries, including the United States. Save the Children believes that the most effective way to better the lives of children is to make significant and lasting improvements in the conditions which surround them. SC implements a wide range of community development activities in maternal and child health, agriculture, small-scale enterprise promotion, environmental resource conservation, and skills training.

The **Sustainable Agriculture Programme (IIED)** aims to promote agricultural development that is ecologically, economically and socially sustainable.

*Research for Policy*

The Programme conducts collaborative research to explore key issues in the fields of research, planning and extension.

*Advocacy and Information*

The Programme advocates these findings through publications, lectures and seminars. It publishes two series: the Gatekeeper Series of briefing papers aimed at policy makers; the RRA Notes series aimed at practitioners of Participatory and Rapid Rural Appraisal.

*Training and Methodological Development*

The Programme conducts field-based and workshop-based training courses in PRA and RRA throughout the world.

*Institution Building*

Central to all programme's activities is the support to building of local capacity through networking, publications, training and collaborative research.



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