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P.R.A. - Participatory Rural Appraisal
Concepts
Methodologies
and Techniques

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INDEX

1. PRA - participatory rural appraisal

1.1. Introduction to PRA.

What is participatory rural appraisal?

***Appraisal* –** The finding out of information about problems, needs, and potential in a village. It is the first stage in any project.

Participatory – Means that people are involved in the process – a "bottom-up" approach that requires good communication skills and attitude of project staff.

Rural – The techniques can be used in any situation, urban or rural, with both literate and illiterate people.

PRA is intended *to enable local communities to conduct their own analysis and to plan and take action* (Chambers R. 1992). PRA involves project staff learning together with villagers about the village. The aim of PRA is to help strengthen the capacity of villagers to plan, make decisions, and to take action towards improving their own situation.

Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) is considered one of the popular and effective approaches to gather information in rural areas. This approach was developed in early 1990s with considerable shift in paradigm from top-down to bottom-up approach, and from blueprint to the learning process. In fact, it is a shift from extractive survey questionnaires to experience sharing by local people. PRA is based on village experiences where communities effectively manage their natural resources.

PRA is a methodology of learning rural life and their environment from the rural people. It requires researchers / field workers to act as facilitators to help local people conduct their own analysis, plan and take action accordingly. It is based on the principle that local people are creative and capable and can do their own investigations, analysis, and planning. The basic concept of PRA is to learn from rural people. Chambers (1992) has defined PRA as an approach and methods for learning about rural life and conditions from, with and by rural people. He further stated that PRA extends into analysis, planning and action. PRA closely involve villagers and local officials in the process.

Similarly, Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) reflects the new thinking about development, needs, and people oriented responsibilities. It is a process that is highly systematic and structured, relying on interdisciplinary teamwork and special strategies for data collection and analysis such as triangulation, probing, and iteration. Some critics consider RRA to be a quick and dirty technique.

There are a wide range of participatory tools and techniques available. People can use these tools and techniques according to their situation or needs. Generally, the application of different tools may vary from one situation to another. However, the process for conducting RRA/PRA remains the same.

There are five key principles that form the basis of any PRA activity no matter what the objectives or setting:

1. **PARTICIPATION -** PRA relies heavily on participation by the communities, as the method is designed to enable local people to be involved, not only as sources of information, but as partners with the PRA team in gathering and analyzing the information.

2. **FLEXIBILITY -** The combination of techniques that is appropriate in a particular development context will be determined by such variables as the size and skill mix of the PRA team, the time and resources available, and the topic and location of the work.
3. **TEAMWORK -** Generally, a PRA is best conducted by a local team (speaking the local languages) with a few outsiders present, a significant representation of women, and a mix of sector specialists and social scientists, according to the topic.
4. **OPTIMAL IGNORANCE -** To be efficient in terms of both time and money, PRA work intends to gather just enough information to make the necessary recommendations and decisions.
5. **SYSTEMATIC -** As PRA-generated data is seldom conducive to statistical analysis (given its largely qualitative nature and relatively small sample size), alternative ways have been developed to ensure the validity and reliability of the findings. These include sampling based on approximate stratification of the community by geographic location or relative wealth, and cross-checking, that is using a number of techniques to investigate views on a single topic (including through a final community meeting to discuss the findings and correct inconsistencies).

1.2. RRA - Rapid Rural Appraisal

RRA is a social science approach that emerged in the late 1970s. The basic idea of RRA is to rather quickly collect, analyse and evaluate information on rural conditions and local knowledge. This information is generated in close co-operation with the local population in rural areas. Therefore, the research methods had to be adjusted to local conditions, i.e. they had to meet the communication needs of illiterate people or people who are not used to communicating in scientific terms.

Tools like mapping, diagramming and ranking were developed or improved in order to gather information for decision-makers in development agencies. One of the key principles of RRA is the visualisation of questions and results by using locally comprehensible symbols. A main reason for developing RRA was to find shortcuts in the search for relevant information on rural development issues in order to avoid costly and time consuming research procedures.

In most of the cases RRA is carried out by a small team of researchers or trained professional in one to three days in a kind of workshop. The role of the local population in RRA is to provide relevant local knowledge for research purposes and development planning. The RRA team manages the process and maintains the power to decide on how to utilise this information.

What are the differences between PRA and RRA?

Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA)	**Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA)**
Learning rapidly and directly **from** villagers, Project staff learn and obtain information, take it away, and analyze it. It is *extractive* (information is gathered and used according to the needs of the project staff).	Learning **with** villagers Facilitate local capacity to analyze, plan, make decisions, take action, resolve conflicts, monitor, and evaluate according to the needs of the villagers.

RRA is an extractive research methodology consisting of systematic, semi-structured activities conducted on-site by a multi-disciplinary team with the aim of quickly and efficiently acquiring new information about rural life and rural resources.

(Compare Schoenhut/Kievelitz 1994)

PRA is a growing combination of approaches and methods that enable rural people to share, enhance and analyse their knowledge of life and conditions, to plan and act and to monitor and evaluate. The role of the outsider is that of a catalyst, a facilitator of processes within a community which is prepared to alter their situation.

(Compare Chambers 1995 and 1997)

1.3. Some Principles that are shared by PRA and RRA:

· **Offsetting biases** through different: perspectives, methods and tools, sources of information, people from different background and places, background of team members (spatial, person, gender, age groups, interest groups, key informants, wealth groups, seasonal, professionals, disciplines)

· **Rapid and Progressive Learning -** Learning with villagers: where they live, face to face. Learning physical, social, and technical knowledge. Learning rapidly and progressively: explore, be flexible, look for opportunities, and improvise.

· **Be Gender sensitive** at all times.

· **Reversal of roles** (Learning from, with and by local people, eliciting and using their symbols, criteria, categories and indicators; and finding, understanding and appreciating local people's knowledge)

· **Focussed Learning:** (not finding out more that is needed and not measuring when comparing is enough. We are often trained to make absolute measurements and to give exact numbers, but often relative proportions, trends, scores or ranking are all that is needed for decision making and planning of activities).

· **Seeking for diversity and differences:** People often have different perceptions of the same situation!

· **Be aware of biases:** be relaxed. Do not rush. Ask questions and listen. Be humble and respectful. Look for opportunities for representations from the poorest, women, and powerless.

· **Crosscheck by using different methods (triangulation).**

· **Attitude:** In order to make the PRA or RRA workshops an success it is most important build a positive relationship with local women and men. Outsiders must have an attitude of respect, humility and patience, and a willingness to learn from the local people.

1.4. Role Descriptions of PRA Team Members:

A group of people as an interdisciplinary team is required to perform an exercise before and during fieldwork while using PRA tools and techniques. The team members must identify topics or sub-topics or checklists on which to build questions before going to the fields. It is recommended that the team members stay together until the end of the process to make working objectives achievable. There are guidelines on how to proceed in conducting PRA and in using specific tools and techniques before and during the field works.

Selection of interdisciplinary team

PRA methods are considered good when they are carried out by a team consisting of especially trained interdisciplinary persons. The team approach is necessary in this method because a great deal of diverse information is generated rapidly where a single person may not be able to sort it out and understand it effectively. A single person may not be perfect in all areas. Therefore, an interdisciplinary team approach is recommended for this method.

Experience shows that a small interdisciplinary team consisting of three persons is the best for conducting PRA methods. Furthermore, the team is considered to be the best if it consists of a sociologist/anthropologist, and an agriculturist for conducting the study on natural resource management since, usage of forest and agriculture resources are fundamental to rural life. Similarly, a basic understanding of the society in relation to resource uses/practices is necessary. Therefore, it is highly advantageous to include broadly based researchers/practitioners with the knowledge or experience in different disciplines. Grandstaff et al (1995) proved some examples of different types of membership in a team for conducting the following study:

(1) An PRA team studying wood fuel flows consisted of a general forester, a forest hydrologist and a statistician, supported by two anthropologists as advisors.

(2) A team studying cooperative labour in rural areas was composed of an agronomist, social scientist and development planner/economist.

(3) A team studying charcoal making was consisted of an ecological anthropologist, agricultural economist, and an animal scientist.

As we believe, there is a professional bias in the field and each professional will seek information from his/her point of view. A small team facilitates close cooperation and organize team members for role sharing. The role, who does what should be discussed among the members and also should be agreed by all while assigning the roles. The role of the ‘facilitator’ and the ‘gatekeeper’ may be rotated depending on their agreement and understanding. The other roles including taking one’s turn at questioning, taking notes, listening etc. may be shared among the members.

PRA-Facilitator, Note-taker, PRA Team-leader

1. Role description of PRA-Facilitator

The PRA facilitator is the man or women who facilitates a focus group, the drawing of a map or any other PRA tool.

Activities:

- Introduces the PRA tool to the group
- Facilitates the event
- Moderates the process
- Acts as a catalyst between the individuals of the group
- Finds ways of integrating dominant and quiet people and makes sure that all group members are able to express their opinions
- Makes sure that the group keeps to the topic but is also flexible in handling additional important information
- Repeats in own words what people say in order to confirm that there is a good understanding of the discussion
- Takes care of time management
- Supports the note-taker in gathering all relevant information and assists him in filling the documentation sheet after the group work has finished
- Is responsible to the team leader

Attitudes:
· Has flexibility, patience and a sense of humour
· avoids to use complicated terms and words
· He/she talks the local language
· Encourages people and motivates them
· "Hands over the stick" to the community group as much as possible
· Keeps a low profile during the event
· Listens carefully to any group member and does not teach,
· involves quiet and marginalised people

2. Role description of Note-taker

When drawing a map, developing a seasonal calendar or applying any other PRA tool, one person from the PRA team is the note-taker who writes down all important information and relevant observations.

Activities:

- Brings along the necessary material
- Observes the event from the background
- Writes down all important information. It would be helpful to have a checklist showing relevant topics!
- Notes who is talking. Is there an equal participation of all or do some people dominate the process? Do women talk?
- Assists the facilitator in an indirect way by giving signs, e.g. shoulder tapping .
- Supports the facilitator directly by asking questions, if the situation requires it.
- Takes care that participants copies any visualised subject (map, diagram etc.) on a sheet of paper immediately after the event.
- Observes and facilitates the copying, ensures that the copy resembles the original, has a legend, a date, place and names of drawers
- Sits together with the facilitator and discusses the notes while filling the documentation sheet after the end of the event.

Attitudes:
· good observer
· The role of the note-taker during the event is more of a passive one. Nevertheless he/she has the main responsibility for transforming the notes into useful results and for visualising them to the whole team

· familiar with the language used
· is able to visualise and present results to the PRA team briefly and precisely

3. Role description of: PRA Team-leader

Every PRA team has one person who serves as the team leader during the PRA field workshop.

Activities:

- Is responsible for the PRA team.
- Is responsible for all organisational and logistical matters concerning the PRA workshop.
- Moderates the PRA workshop and evaluation meetings during the evening
- Introduces the PRA-team to the community (or organises it)
- Assists the sub-teams if they have any problems
- Co-ordinates the village workshop events and facilitates the group presentation
- Facilitates the summarising and documentation process of the smaller teams, that have used a PRA tool
- Stays in close contact with link persons and the opinion leaders during the whole workshop (e.g. in order to know who participates in the different events)

Attitudes:
· well organised
· kind and patient at all the time, keeps a cool head if things go wrong
· Sense of humour
· keeps low profile
· listens, observes, consults

2. Some PRA techniques

2.1. Methodological Principles

1. Visualisation - Verbalisation - Documentation
Diagrams, maps are created by the people by using symbols they develop or define.
This helps them to understand the product and to modify them if necessary in a creative way.
One main principle of PRA is to find a way how the…

2. Sequencing
Different PRA tools are combined in a specific order to achieve the goals of the PRA process: building relationship with the people, empowering the people, increase their analysing and problem solving capacities and validation of the data. Semi-structured interviews, village mapping can be supplemented by farm maps and flow charts.

3. Optimal Ignorance
This means not trying to find out more than needed and not trying to measure what does not need to be measured (appropriate imprecision), or not measuring more accurately than is necessary for practical purposes. Therefore in PRA instead of exact measurement ranking and scoring are preferred.
The main reason is that it is easier and more cost effective to get such information, which are enough for decisions.
Sometimes people are also not willing to give exact information about sensitive areas like wealth, income, land size, or give wrong information.
The results of PRA sessions cannot be compared with the results of time intensive ethnographical research or socio-economic surveys.

4. Triangulation
The time spent in PRA is short, the people and the facilitators may rush through the topics and the answers given may represent partial picture of some informants. One of the major problem of PRA results are their validation.
Triangulation is a principle employed in choosing different methods, locations, interviewees, team members (often a minimum of three, thus the term ”triangulation”) in order to improve the accuracy of the picture generated by the learning process.
To do the triangulation in a systematic way variables influencing the topic or subtopic have to be hypothesised. The team members are mixed to increase the synergy effects through mixing team members and their different perspectives. Depending the topic the disciplines, gender, field experience of the team members has to be considered.
Often PRA tools are mixed instead of repeating the same tool with more respondents to reduce bias generated through the tools and secondary data sources can be used to crosscheck the information gained through PRA sessions. For e.g. village mapping is precise enough to get an overall picture of the bio-physical and socio-economical situation of the village, but to know this more in detail transect or farm mapping may be necessary.
Sites are selected to elaborate at various levels in the examined system. Transects of three regions with different soil types may be interesting for agronomical purposes. For fishing projects suitable sites for direct observation / informal interviews may be the places of fish marketing, fish processing and fishing. For an erosion project may be three different villages with different problems / solutions with erosion may be selected.
Again the selection has to be according to the hypothesized variables regarding.

2.2. PRA techniques:

- ***Direct observation*** -- Observations are related to questions: What? When? Where? Who? Why? How?

- ***Do it yourself*** -- Villagers are encouraged to teach the researcher how to do various activities. The researcher will learn how much skill and strength are required to do day-to-day rural activities, gaining an insider's perspective on a situation. Roles are reversed: villagers are the "experts" and attitudes are challenged.

- ***Participatory mapping and modeling*** -- Using local materials, villagers draw or model current or historical conditions. The researcher then interviews the villager by "interviewing the map." This technique can be used to show watersheds, forests, farms, home gardens, residential areas, soils, water sources, wealth rankings, household assets, land-use patterns, changes in farming practices, constraints, trends, health and welfare conditions, and the distribution of various resources.

- ***Transect walks and guided field walks*** -- The researcher and key informants conduct a walking tour through areas of interest to observe, to listen, to identify different zones or conditions, and to ask questions to identify problems and possible solutions. With this method, the outsider can quickly learn about topography, soils, land use, forests, watersheds, and community assets.

- ***Seasonal calendars*** -- Variables such as rainfall, labor, income, expenditures, debt, animal fodder or pests, and harvesting periods can be drawn (or created with stones, seeds, and sticks) to show month-to-month variations and seasonal constraints and to highlight opportunities for action. An 18-month calendar can better illustrate variations than a 12-month calendar.

- ***Daily-activity profiles*** -- Researchers can explore and compare the daily-activity patterns of men, women, youth, and elders by charting the amount of time taken to complete tasks.

- ***Semi structured interviewing*** -- A semi structured interviewing and listening technique uses some predetermined questions and topics but allows new topics to be pursued as the interview develops. The interviews are informal and conversational but carefully controlled.

- ***Types, sequencing, and chain interviews*** -- Individual, pair, and group interviews are combined in a sequence to take advantage of key informants and specialist groups.

- ***Permanent-group interviews*** -- Established groups, farmers' groups, or people using the same water source can be interviewed together. This technique can help identify collective problems or solutions.

- ***Time lines*** -- Major historical community events and changes are dated and listed. Understanding the cycles of change can help communities focus on future actions and information requirements.

- ***Local histories*** -- Local histories are similar to time lines but give a more detailed account of how things have changed or are changing. For example, histories can be developed for crops, population changes, community health trends and epidemics, education changes, road developments, and trees and forests.

- ***Local researchers and village analysts*** -- With some training, local people can conduct the research process (for example, collect, analyze, use, and present data; conduct transects; interview other villagers; draw maps; make observations).

- ***Venn diagrams*** -- To show the relationship between things, overlapping circles are used to represent people, villages, or institutions; lines are added to reflect inputs and outputs.

- ***Participatory diagramming*** -- People are encouraged to display their knowledge on pie and bar charts and flow diagrams.

- ***Wealth and well-being rankings*** -- People are asked to sort cards (or slips of paper) representing individuals or households from rich to poor or from sick to healthy. This technique can be used for crosschecking information and for initiating discussions on a specific topic (for example, poverty). The technique can also be used to produce a benchmark against which future development interventions can be measured or evaluated.

- ***Direct-matrix pair-wise ranking and scoring*** -- Direct-matrix pair-wise ranking and scoring is a tool used to discover local attitudes on various topics. People rank and compare individual items, using their own categories and criteria, by raising hands or placing representative objects on a board. For example, six different shrubs can be ranked from best to worst for their fuel, fodder, and erosion-control attributes. Other resources can be ranked in terms of taste or marketability. Wealth ranking can be used to identify wealth criteria and establish the relative position of households.

- ***Matrices*** -- Matrices can be used to gather information and to facilitate or focus analyses and discussions. For example, a problem opportunity matrix could have columns with the following labels: soil type, land use, cropping patterns, and available resources; and rows with the following labels: problems, constraints, local solutions, and initiatives already tried.

- ***Traditional management systems and local-resource collections*** -- Local people collect samples (for example, of soils, plants). This can be an efficient way to learn about the local biodiversity, management systems, and taxonomies.

- ***Portraits, profiles, case studies, and stories*** -- Household histories or stories of how a certain conflict was resolved are recorded. This can provide short but insightful descriptions of characteristic problems and how they are dealt with.

- ***Key probes*** -- A question addressing a key issue is asked of different informants, and the answers are compared. The question might be something like "If my goat enters your field and eats your crops, what do you and I do?"

- ***Folklore, songs, poetry, and dance*** -- Local folklore, songs, dance, and poetry are analyzed to provide insight into values, history, practices, and beliefs.

- ***Futures possible*** -- People are asked how they would like things to be in 1 year and to predict what will happen if nothing is done or if something is done. People's desires, wishes, and expectations are revealed.

- ***Diagrams exhibition*** -- Diagrams, maps, charts, and photos of the research activity are displayed in a public place to share information, facilitate discussions, and provide an additional crosschecking device. The exhibition can inspire other villagers to take part in research activities.

- ***Shared presentations and analysis*** -- Participants are encouraged to present their findings to other villagers and to outsiders, providing another opportunity for crosschecking, feedback, comment, and criticism.

- ***Night halts*** -- The researchers live in the village during the research process. This facilitates all interactions between the outsiders and the villagers, invites change in the outsiders' attitudes, and allows for early-morning and evening discussions, when villagers tend to have more leisure time.

- ***Short questionnaires*** -- Short and issue-specific questionnaires can be useful if conducted late in the research process.

- ***Field report writing*** -- Key findings are recorded before "leaving" the village. (This assumes that the community has consented to having the research data leave the village.) Brief summaries are made of each diagram, model, and map, as well as of the process involved in creating them.

- ***Survey of villagers' attitudes toward PRA*** -- To improve the PRA process and techniques and maintain realistic expectations, the researcher asks the villagers what they expected and what they learned from the PRA research process.

- ***Intriguing practices and beliefs*** -- Indigenous practices and beliefs are noted, even if they are based on myth or superstition. Even practices that are unusual or don't fit in with conventional scientific thinking are worth exploring because they are meaningful to local people.

2.3. Organization of PRA

Topic

1. Selection of PRA team members
2. Objectives
3. Formation of sub-topics
4. Selection of methods, designs and respondents
5. Interview
6. Sub-team meeting
7. Whole team meeting
8. Report writing

A group of people as an interdisciplinary team is required to perform an exercise before and during fieldwork while using PRA tools and techniques. The team members must identify topics or sub-topics or checklists on which to build questions before going to the fields. It is recommended that the team members stay together until the end of the process to make working objectives achievable. There are guidelines on how to proceed in conducting PRA and in using specific tools and techniques before and during the field works.

There are some rules of PRA which should be followed by the team in order to get precise and reliable information. It is important to understand the rules while conducting PRA. The main rules are:

a. Do not interrupt - do not interrupt when someone is talking in his/her turn at interviewing or probing for information. And also do not interrupt the respondent.

b. Do not assume - do not assume either that you know the answer or that an information is wrong about something.
c. Do not lead or give clues - do not lead or give clues to the respondent with your preconceived ideas. Stay neutral while asking questions so that you do not lead the respondent.

If the rules are not followed by each of the team members, it may mislead the information. Therefore, the team must be careful with the above mentioned rules while applying different tools and techniques of PRA.

Before fieldwork

There are some step switch need to be followed by the team members in order to collect reliable and precise information. The steps for before fieldwork are:

Use of secondary information

Secondary data are important for background information and basic assumptions of fact that the rural people provide. Therefore, a careful review and assessment of the secondary data are necessary from secondary sources before fieldwork. It may be helpful in developing topics, sub-topics or checklists to be used in acquiring information. The team must know why they are in a village.

Selection of interdisciplinary team (See chapter 1.4.)

Developing sub-topics

Generally, a brainstorming session is organized for developing topics or sub-topics. A number of experienced people, not necessarily team members are invited in the session to generate specific issues on a particular area. The raised issues in the session are listed in flip chart or board, depending on the availability. The issues are repeatedly discussed in the session relating to the practical situation and are finalized as guidelines for collecting required information. For example, if we are seeking information on wood fuel production the following could be the sub topics. These sub-topics were developed during a brainstorming session in the training on PRA (Balla pers comm. 1988):

See annex 1 for check list of sub-topics.

The team members should also discuss how to carry out field works, especially tools to be applied for collecting the required information. Generally, the choice of tools depends on topics and expected output. The team should consider the situation and select the tools which fit better for collecting reliable and precise information. Therefore, it is the team that decides which tools and techniques fit better for a particular area.

It is preferable to go for a short field visit to identify key informants, to observe the initial site and to try out the tools. This preparation may be assigned to a single team member, probably someone who is familiar with the locality. Based on the short field visit, the pre-designed tools may have to be changed or modified.

During fieldwork

The field work is people-oriented. It seeks information on indigenous knowledge, local customs and practices. Therefore, the team should begin analyzing and evaluating data at the very start of the work and continue on throughout the fieldwork.

Rapport building

Rapport building is an important task for the team for collecting reliable information. It is usually done to develop communications and to establish working relationships with the local people. Generally, rapport building is initiated immediately as the team enters a village. This may help the team to bring closer to the village people. The team should follow the following steps suggested by Pokharel et al (1997) for conducing PRA in rural areas:

- Start talking to the rural people saying "*local Hello*" whenever you meet them, for example, on the trail, agricultural fields, tea shops, homes etc.
- Treat and respect rural people as per their local custom
- Ask the knowledgeable people about a subject or area in a village
- Try to meet with local leaders and officials before starting work in a village
- Clearly explain reasons for coming to the area
- Show genuine interest in the local issues
- Choose time and venue that are convenient for the local people

Maintaining protocols

Maintaining protocols in the team is the basic rule in PRA methods. Grandstaff et al (1995) defines protocols as a set of rules governing how people act in a given situation, a code of conduct. They further elaborated that PRA protocols are rules of interpersonal behaviour by which an PRA team agrees to operate. The followings are the protocols suggested by Messerschmidt (1991) for conducting PRA in the rural communities:

- A facilitator (from the team) controls the interview process by singling start, filling gaps etc.;
- Each team member pursues a sub-topic, following one's own line of questioning and reasoning;
- The order of interviewing sequence (who starts, who follows, who finishes) predetermined, members take notes during each other's turn;
- Unanticipated questions that arise out of turn are held for later;
- Unwanted persons (e.g. drunks, trouble makers etc.) are politely diverted by a team member (a pre-chosen gate keeper); and
- After each day's sessions, the members debrief as a group, discuss findings to verify and also incomplete information are noted down for recollection.

Data collection by applying tools and techniques

Start collecting information by applying appropriate tools and techniques once the rapport is developed in a village. Also, apply probing and iterating techniques for collecting more in-depth and reliable information. Some techniques for collecting information are:

Semi-Structured Interviewing (SSI)
Semi-structured interviewing is the principal method used in RRA. It is conducted using the sub-topics to guide the specific questions thought up by the researchers during the interview. SSI is conducted with key informants, who have good knowledge about the history of the village and its resources, and others using pre-selected sub-topics as guidelines. In this method, actual questions are created during the interview. Questions should be precise and easy to understand. Leading questions should not be used while conducting interviews.

Iteration
Iteration is one of the techniques for collecting information in PRA methods. In this technique, the same question is repeatedly asked in different situation for conforming the given information. A very high pay-off from flexibility of the methodology through iteration occurs in

the ability to reform questions and formulate new questions, especially within the interview itself (Grandstaff and Grandstaff 1989)

Probing
The main function of a probe is to encourage the respondent to answer more fully and accurately. Furthermore, it also helps to structure the respondent's answer and make sure that all topics of interest are covered. Always start questions with who, what, why, when , who and how (the 'six helpers') for helping to establish the basic situation.

Observation
This is also used as a technique especially in the social sciences since a long time. In this technique, related indicators are used in the field to verify the collected information or to generate questions. For example, if the dung is used for cooking purposes, it means that there is a scarcity of firewood in the area.

Similarly, there are a wide range of participatory tools available which can be used according to the situation or needs. The most common PRA tools and techniques are: (See chapter 2.1.)

Debriefing session

Debriefing sessions and discussions are important during the fieldwork. The team members review their field notes after their fieldwork since, delay causes significant loss of memory and may seriously affect the results.

After fieldwork

A discussion should be carried out by the team about the collected information and going back for more should be arranged if it is necessary. Each team member is assigned tasks and results are meld by group members consensus. The findings are also presented in workshops or seminars for the comments. The comments/suggestions are taken care of and are incorporated in the final reports.

3. PRA Tools

PRA offers a "basket of techniques" from which those most appropriate for the project context can be selected. The central part of any PRA is semi-structured interviewing. While sensitive topics are often better addressed in interviews with individuals, other topics of more general concern are amenable to focus group discussions and community meetings.
During these interviews and discussions, several diagrammatic techniques are frequently used to stimulate debate and record the results. Many of these visuals are not drawn on paper but on the ground with sticks, stones, seeds, and other local materials, and then transferred to paper for a permanent record.

3.1. Semi-structured interview (SSI)

Purpose : To gain information from an individual or small group on an issue.

Description : Semi-structured interviews are guided conversations where broad questions are asked, which do not constrain the conversation, and new questions are allowed to arise as a result of the discussion. This is different from questionnaires and surveys where there are very structured questions that are not deviated from. A semi-structured interview is therefore a relatively informal, relaxed discussion based around a predetermined topic.
A semi-structured interview is a PRA method that engages villagers in a conversation through a series of guide questions (not structured questionnaire) relevant to the villagers. Important information is generated by talking with villagers about topics that interest them. SSI can be used with individuals, key informants, interest groups or other small groups of villagers (i.e. women's groups).

It is usually best to conduct such interviews in pairs with the person doing the interview and one taking detailed notes. The process of a semi-structured interview involves the interviewer presenting the context of the study and its objectives to the interviewee or interview group (such as a family or household). The set of questions are prepared but open, allowing the interviewees to express opinions through discussion. Questions are generally simple, with a logical sequence to help the discussion flow. Interview questions should be tested prior to interviews. Training people to conduct a semi-structured interview is important and practice is required to become an effective interviewer. Training needs to address team preparation, interview context, sensitive listening, sensitive questioning, judging responses, recording the interview and self-critical review (Pretty et al. 1995).

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS involve the preparation of an interview guide that lists a pre-determined set of questions or issues that are to be explored during an interview. This guide serves as a checklist during the interview and ensures that basically the same information is obtained from a number of people. Yet, there is a great deal of flexibility. The order and the actual working of the questions is not determined in advance. Moreover, within the list of topic or subject areas, the interviewer is free to pursue certain questions in greater depth. The advantage of the interview guide approach is that it makes interviewing of a number of different persons more systematic and comprehensive by delimiting the issues to be taken up in the interview. Logical gaps in the data collected can be anticipated and closed, while the interviews remain fairly conversational and situational. The weakness of this approach is that it does not permit the interviewer to pursue topics or issues of interest that were not anticipated when the interview guide was elaborated. Also, interviewer flexibility in wording and sequencing questions may result in substantially different responses from different persons, thus reducing comparability.

<u>What are the procedures in using a semi-structure interview (SSI)?</u>
1) Prepare a checklist of topics and guide questions for discussion and record these in a notebook.
2) Select individuals, key informants, interest groups, or other small groups of villagers to interview. Get a good representation of the villagers- spatial, gender, wealth class, etc.
3) Observe proper interviewing techniques.
4) Use the checklist of topics and guide questions (see sample) but allow flexibility in the conversation so that issues can be explored as they arise.
5) Probe (use relevant follow up questions as needed).
6) Ask questions that are relevant to the villagers being interviewed (individual or group).
7) Use open-ended questions (not answerable by yes or no).
8) Record the important points in each interview in a notebook.
9) Modify the checklist of topics and guide questions as new issues arise during the conversation.

3.2. Maps

Participatory mapping is one of the most versatile tools and is powerful in generating pictures on any aspect of the physical reality. These maps cannot be compared with the geographical maps, exactly reduced representations of geophysical structures.
Maps can be produced for big regions (movement of animal herds of pastoralists), villages, farms or even of a single plot, depending on questions people are interested in.
The products of participatory mappings are documentation of mental maps and can be different for different groups of people of the same village (e.g. men, women, children).
Usually mapping is used to depict infrastructures, natural resources, land ownership, settlement pattern, soil types, cropping pattern etc.
If possible it is preferable to draw the map from a high vantage point so that the PRA team can relate the map with direct observations. Usually the maps are drawn on the ground using on the spot available materials. The location of the mapping session should be freely accessible to all groups of the community (e.g. different casts, men and women, rich and poor, etc.).
Maps can be also used according to a timeline like the village 30 years back and now. A future model can be drawn to discuss peoples vision of the future how it will be or how they want it should be. Such historical maps help to discuss the roots of present situation and possible future developments.

3.2.1. Social mapping

What is social mapping?
Social mapping is a PRA method that involves the sketching/drawing of houses and other social facilities and infrastructure (i.e. temple, stores, rice mills, school, pharmacy, trails and roads, water pumps, irrigation and recreation facilities) in a village. These features have usually not been well specified in the village vision setting and village land-use maps. It helps to visualize and situate the location of households and other social facilities/infrastructure in a village. It serves as a baseline for planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of village development activities (including selection of village organizing strategy).

<u>Objectives:</u>
To learn about the social structures in the village and the differences among the households by ethnicity, religion and wealth.
To learn about who is living where.
To learn about the social institutions and the different views local people might have regarding those institutions.

Key Questions:
1. What are the approximate boundaries of the village with regard to social interaction and social services?
2. How many households are found in the village and where are they located?
3. Is the number of households growing or shrinking?
4. What are the social structures and institutions found in the village?
5. What religious groups are found in the village?
6. What ethnic groups are found in the village?
7. Which are the female Headed Households and where are they are located?

How to facilitate:
- Ask the participants to draw a map of the village, showing all households.
- Discuss whether the total number of households has increased or shrunk during recent years. If there were any changes ask why the number has changed and whether this has caused any problem for certain families or for the community at large.
- Ask the group to also show institutions, buildings and places that offer some kind of social service or which are popular spots to meet and discuss. Example: schools, churches, health service, traditional healers, community administration, community leaders, local shop, kindergarten, places where people frequently meet, water point etc.)
- Encourage the group to discuss and show on the map which different ethnic groups are living in their village. Using a common symbol, mark those households in which the minority ethnic groups live.
- Encourage the group to discuss and show on the map which different religious groups are living in their village. Using a common symbol, mark those households in which the minority religious groups live.
- Ask the group to indicate with a symbol on the map all households that are female-headed. Make sure that everybody has the same understanding of what the characteristics of a female headed household are!

See annex 2 and 3 for legend and mapping

3.2.2. Resource Map

Description: The Village Resource Map is a tool that helps us to learn about a community and its resource base. The primary concern is not to develop an accurate map but to get useful information about local perceptions of resources. The participants should develop the content of the map according to what is important to them.

Objectives: To learn the villagers' perception of what natural resources are found in the community and how they are used.

Key Questions:
1. What resources are abundant?
2. What resources are scarce?
3. Does everyone have equal access to land?
4. Do women have access to land?
5. Do the poor have access to land?
6. Who makes decision on land allocation?
7. Where do people go to collect water?
8. Who collects water?
9. Where do people go to collect firewood?
10. Who collects firewood?

11. Where do people go graze livestock?
12. What kind of development activities do you carry out as a whole community? Where?
13. Which resource do you have the most problem with?

<u>How to facilitate:</u>

The Village Resource Map is a good tool to begin with. It is easy and fun for the villagers to do. It helps initiate discussion among the community and with the PRA team. All team members should observe the mapping exercise because it provides an overall orientation to the features of the community and its resources.

In our PRA, we would like to do this map with separate groups of men and women in the village. This is because women and men may use different resources. The women will map the resources they think are important (like water sources, firewood sources, etc). The men will map the resources they think are important (like grazing land, infrastructure, etc). Maps may include: infrastructure (roads, houses, buildings, bridges, etc); water sites and sources; agricultural lands (crop varieties and locations); soils, slopes, elevations; forest lands; grazing areas; shops, markets; health clinics, schools, churches; special places (sacred sites, cemeteries, bus stops, shrines, etc)

See annex 4 for example of resource map.

3.3. Timeline (Historical Mapping)

The facilitators meet small groups of villagers and discuss with them the most important events in the community's past and prepare with the information a historical timeline which serves as the base for further work. It is important to involve different groups of the communities to get their usually different perspectives.
The timeline with basic events can be used for focussed discussions on problems, social and technological innovations or on communities history of co operations and activities which helped them to solve in past problems successfully.

Fig. 1: Example of time line

3.4. Time chart or Seasonal calendar

What is a seasonal calendar?
A seasonal calendar is a PRA method that determines patterns and trends throughout the year in a certain village. It can be used for purposes such as rainfall distribution, food availability, agricultural production, income and expenditures, health problems, and others.
The seasonal calendar can also be used to collect information on how villagers allocate their time as well as their labour in various activities within the village (see handout).
A time chart or seasonal calendar is prepared by drawing a two-dimensional matrix and writing the time period (i.e. month, year) on an axis and the different village activities on the other axis. Villagers are encouraged to fill in the matrix of the chart/calendar by marking the grid or by placing stones or other objects on the matrix.

Type of group: mixed group for women and men

<u>Objectives:</u>
To learn about changes in livelihoods over the year and to show the seasonality of agricultural and non agricultural workload, food availability, human diseases, gender-specific income and expenditure, water, forage, credit and holidays.

<u>Key Questions:</u>
1. What are the busiest months of the year?
2. At what time of the year is food scarce?
3. How does income vary over the year for men and women?
4. How does expenditure vary over the year for men and women?
5. How does rainfall vary over the year?
6. How does water availability for human consumption vary over the year?
7. How does livestock forage availability vary over the year?
8. How does credit availability vary over the year?
9. When are holidays and how many days in which month?
10. When are most agricultural work carried out by women?
11. When are most agricultural work carried out by men?
12. When is most non-agricultural work carried out by women?
13. When is most non-agricultural work carried out by men?
14. Which could be the most appropriate season for additional activities for men and women?
15. What time constraints do exist and for what reason?

<u>How to facilitate:</u>

1. Find a large open space for the group. The calendar can be drawn on the ground or an very big sheets of paper.

2. Ask the participants to draw a matrix, indicating each month along one axis by a symbol.

3. It usually easiest to start the calendar by asking about rainfall patterns. Choose a symbol for rain and put/draw it next to the column which participants will now use to illustrate the rainfall. Ask the group to put stones under each month of the calendar to represent relative amounts of rainfall (more stones meaning more rainfall).

4. Move to the next topic and ask people during which month the food is usually scare. Discuss the reasons why it is scarce and make sure that the different kind of food donations that people receive are discussed and that this information is shown in the map.

5. Go on like this, meaning topic by topic. After finishing all the columns your matrix should have covered the following 14 topics:

(1) Rainfall
(2) Food scarcity (many stones means less food available, indicate during which time people receive food donations (e.g. food for work))
(3) Income (cask and kind) for women
(4) Income (cash and kind) for men
(5) Expenditure for men
(6) Expenditure for women?
(7) water availability for human consumption
(8) livestock forage availability
(9) credit availability
(10) number of holiday days
(11) agricultural work load for women
(12) agricultural work load for men
(13) non-agricultural work load for women
(14) non-agricultural work load for women

6. After the calendar is finished ask the group which linkages they see among the different topics of the calendar. Encourage the group to discuss what they see on the calendar.

7. Make sure that your copy of the seasonal calendar - has a key explaining the different items and symbols used on the map.

See annexes 5, 6 and 7 for more details.

3.4.1. Labour Schedules

Such calendars can be further modified to analyse labour demand for different agricultural activities and to discuss gender related issues. Labour schedules are drawn to understand in detail how labour is utilised in management of resources . Such schedules can be used to visualise the situation of individuals (men, women, children of a household), family households (agricultural family, fishing family etc.) or the general pattern of labour usage in village level.
Depending the topic which is elaborated with seasonal calendar there are usually key environmental or socio-economic features which dictate activities are demand.
The relationship between seasonal cropping patterns, labour engagements, biophysical/socio-economic features is analysed to plan activities of service providers or to design a tailor-made deliver of services according to the needs of the people.
Nice examples are credit institutions, plan of community work or extension campaigns.

3.4.2. Daily Routines

Apart from seasonal pattern of a year daily routines or schedules can be prepared if necessary. Usually daily labour schedule of family members reveals the routine activities among different household members and the time of the day.
Such information are sufficient enough to identify critical times for peak labour usage and gender related issues related to overwork of women.

See annex 8 for examples

3.5. Wealth ranking

What is wealth ranking?
Wealth ranking is a PRA method that determines the economic attributes of households in a village. It shows information on the relative wealth and well-being of households in a village. It helps in determining the social and economic status of households in a village.
The information generated by the wealth ranking exercise helps in identifying the poor households in the village. Ranking is done by villagers themselves. It serves as baseline and as an opportunity to identify indicators for planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of village development activities (including selection of village organizing strategy).

What are the procedures in using wealth ranking?
The PRA method of wealth ranking is conducted by a number of selected key informants (include women) within the village. The steps in conducting a wealth ranking are as follows:

Step 1**:** Be able to identify wealth indicators or the differences and features/ description of the households in each category or grouping .
Step 2: Categorize the households into rich, average, and poor (or into whatever categories that will emerge). The closeness of resulting average scores will determine the number of groupings which should however not exceed the number of piles given by the key informants.
Step 3: Take notes of the processes, particularly the difficulties encountered. Also note new learning taking place in conducting the wealth ranking exercise .

Table 1: example of wealth criteria

Sample of criteria used by key informants in wealth ranking of household

Rich household	Average household	Poor household
House w/ iron roofing House w/ wooden wall Own a rice mill Own a motor boat Own 10 cows or more Own 10 buffaloes or more Own 3 ha of rice paddy or more	House w/ wooden roofing House w/ bamboo wall Own a paddled boat Own 5-10 buffaloes Own 5-10 cows Own 2-3 ha rice paddy	House w/ grass roofing House w/ dried leaves wall Own 1-2 buffaloes Own 1-2 cows Own 1ha or less

3.6. Wenn diagram on Institutions

Description:
The Venn Diagram on Institutions shows institutions, organisations, groups and important individuals found in the village, as well as the villagers view of their importance in the community. Additionally the Diagram explains who participates in these groups in terms of gender and wealth. The Institutional Relationship Diagram also indicates how close the contact and cooperation between those organisations and groups is.

Objectives:
· To identify external and internal organisations/groups/important persons active in the community
· To identify who participates in local organisations/institutions by gender and wealth
· To find out how the different organisations and groups relate to each other in terms of contact, co-operation, flow of information and provision of services

Key Questions:
· Which organisations/institutions/groups are working in or with the community?
· Which institutions/groups do the villagers regard as most important, and why?
· Which groups are addressing household food security and nutrition issues?
· Which organisations work together?
· Are there groups which are meant for women or men only?
· Are some particular groups or kind of people excluded from being members of or receiving services from certain institutions?

How to facilitate the process?

1) If time allows it will be good to form separate focus groups for women and men. Make sure that also the poorest and most disadvantaged join the group.

2) Explain to the participants the three objectives (see above) of the Venn Diagram on institutions.

3) Ask the participants which organisations/institutions/groups are found in the village and which other ones from elsewhere are working with them. Make sure that they also think of the small not formal groups like e.g. neighbourhood committees. These questions will be useful to ask:

> What kind of ways of assisting each other do exist among people? Which local groups are organised along environmental issues (water, grazing, arable land), economic issues (saving, credit, agriculture, livestock), social issues (health, literacy, religion, tradition, education, sport). Are their political groups? Who makes important decisions in the Village?

4) Ask one of the villagers to write down all the institutions that are mentioned and to give each organisation a symbol which everybody can understand.

5) Ask the participants to draw a big circle in the centre of the paper or on the ground that represents themselves.

6) Ask them to discuss for each organisation how important it is for them. The most important ones are then drawn as a big circle and the less important ones as smaller circles. Ask the participants to compare the sizes of the circles and to adjust them so that the sizes of the circles represent the importance of the institution, organisation or group.

7) Every organisation/group should be marked with the name or symbol.

8) Ask them to discuss in which way they benefit from the different organisations.

9) Ask them to show the degree of contact/co-operation between themselves and those institutions by distance between the circles. Institutions which they do not have much contact with should be far away from their own big circle. Institutions that are in close contact with the participants and which whom they co-operate most, should be inside their own circle. The contact between all other institutions should also be shown by the distance between the circles on the map:

largely distanced circles:	no or little contact or co-operation
circles close to each other:	only loose contacts exist
touching circles:	some co-operation
overlapping circles:	close co-operation

10) Ask them which institutions are only accepting women or men as members. Are their any institutions or groups that do provide services either only for men or only for women? Show the answers by marking the circles with a common symbol for men or women.

11) Ask them to discuss in which organisations poor people do not participate and why. Ask if there are any services of certain organisations from which the poorer people are usually excluded. Mark these institutions on the map by using a symbol for poor. You might also ask if there are other groups of people that usually are excluded from some of these institutions or services.

12) Ask the participants which institutions/groups are addressing household food security and nutrition issues. Ask them to discuss in which way they address these issues? Mark the mentioned institutions with a common symbol.

See annex 9 for example

3.7. Pair-wise ranking

<u>What is pair-wise ranking?</u>
Pair-wise ranking is a PRA method that helps villagers to set priorities (i.e. problems, needs, actions, etc.). Ranking can be undertaken with key informants or group of villagers that represents a good mixture of interests. It can also be conducted based on gender to determine different preferences between men and women. For simple issues (i.e. problems), villagers can rank them during the semi-structured interview. For complicated issues, ranking can be undertaken using pair-wise ranking in order to determine the villagers' preferences.

<u>Ranking</u>
Ranking means placing something in order. These methods are useful to learn from the people about their categories, criteria, choices and priorities.

<u>Pair-wise Ranking</u>
In pair-wise ranking items of interest (trees, food, solutions etc.) are compared pair by pair, informants are asked which is preferred of the compared two and why? The reasons given by the respondent reveal the reason for the preferences of different persons / groups. The criteria are likely to change between groups (youth and old, men and women, etc.) to the criteria used to select between the items of interest.

<u>Matrix ranking</u>
In matrix ranking criteria's are used for the rows in a matrix and items for columns, people fill in the boxes for each row. The items are ordered for each of the criteria and people put in piles of stones, seeds for scoring relative values.
Ranking exercises are not only relevant with villagers as participants, but often they are also very useful for planners and development practitioners.
To work with illiterate farmers, problems have to be symbolised with pictures or objects.
Ranking was used to identify the importance of agricultural problems. The problems had been identified in informal interviews during the preparation phase for the workshop.

<u>What are the procedures in using pair-wise ranking?</u>
1) Look for key informants or other knowledgeable villagers who are willing and able to participate in the ranking exercise. Get good representation of the villagers in terms of spatial distribution, gender, wealth class, etc.

2) Explain and agree on the purpose and objectives of the exercise before starting. Brief the villagers on how to conduct the exercise. Discuss expected outcome and its usage.

3) Ask the villagers to identify and prepare a list of issues (i.e. problems) to be ranked.

4) Prepare a matrix on a large sheet of paper or blackboard. Indicate the issues on the top left side of the matrix.

5) To get the villagers' preferences (through voting), facilitate the comparison of issues with one another. The first issue listed on the left side of the matrix will be compared with all the issues listed on the top. Repeat the process until all the issues have been covered.

6) Note (write down) the number of times each problem was preferred. Make a summary of the preferences and rank them accordingly.

7) Encourage discussions while the exercise is being conducted to enhance probing and cross checking of information. Ask the villagers' reasons for their choices and note these reasons.

8) Give enough time to villagers to discuss. Do not rush the exercise.

9) At the end of the exercise, briefly discuss, analyze, and summarize the results together with villagers.

See annex 10 for example

3.8. Structured Direct observation

What people say and what they do may be two different things. Sometimes people idealise a situation and tell things which are more a description of how things should be than how things are. Other reasons for this difference is that while talking about routine activities a person is only able to give information about some aspects of this activity.
One reason for this is that these activities are often routines and done without reflection and they have been learned by observation and by doing. Usually farmers do not talk much about their routine activities, like selection of seeds, preparation of seed mixtures etc., they simply do it.
Farmers, like others, often say things, which do not correspond with reality. What people tell in interviews is not a picture of the reality, but their mental construction of the activities. Direct observation allows a cross-check of findings of what people tell. Direct observation can also be used to generate on-the-spot questions in direct interaction with the farmers. This helps farmers to explain things which are grounded in their activity and not on their remembrance of the activity. On the other hand it helps scientists to generate questions.
Structured direct observation is better conducted by a team to minimize individual biases. Always the observation has to be discussed with the people to gain an insider's perspective.

3.9. Key informant interview

Depending on the nature and scope of an inquiry, the investigator identifies appropriate groups from which the key informants may be drawn, and then selects a few from each group. People belong to groups, e.g. families, castes, villages etc. Farming practices and decisions are often discussed in families with friends and relatives. Farming or fishing practices, unlike other knowledge domains e.g. medicine, are common knowledge.

Basic data about numbers of families or clans in the village, number of animals, fishing grounds, land ownership, location of wells, soil types, and the microenvironment of the village are known to almost everybody within the village.

Often there are, however, specialists with deeper and more detailed knowledge about some topics. For example, barbers in India know well about the family size of households; shepherds know much about animal structure within the village and development of animal herds over time; old women engaged in agriculture may be specialists regarding seed selection, old men know much about the history of the village and mythological stories related to production activities. Such specialists for special knowledge domains are selected as key informants for interviews. A key informant is an individual, who is willing to talk and has a great depth of knowledge about a specific
field. The main difference to semi-structured interview is that key informants are asked about others or give information about the community including them.

How to identify the key informants for discussions or simulation exercises? Villagers are asked about persons, who can give detailed information about a certain topic. In addition literature reviews give indications about social organisation of the culture and provide hints in identifying the relevant specialists.

The accuracy of information obtained from key informant interviews depends mainly on developing a suitable interview guide, training of the interviewers and the selection of the informants.

The information received from the key informants has to be cross-checked through group discussions and interviews with other people.

4. CONCLUSIONS

PRA is linked with a distinctive behaviour, attitudes and approach. "We are not teachers or transferors of technology, but instead convenors, catalysts, and facilitators. We have to unlearn, and put our knowledge, ideas and categories in second place. We enable local people to do their own investigations, analysis, presentations, planning and action, to own the outcome, and to teach us, sharing their knowledge. We "hand over the stick" and facilitate "their" appraisal, presentation, analysis, planning and action, monitoring and evaluation. They do many of the things we thought only we could do - mapping, diagramming, counting, listing, sorting, ranking, scoring, sequencing, linking, analysing, planning....monitoring and evaluating.
"A PRA" is a term which many PRA practitioners and trainers consider should be reserved for a process which empowers local people.
Three common elements found in a PRA approach are:
* individual responsibility and judgement exercised by facilitators
* a commitment to equity (especially the excluded, deprived, women..)
* recognition and celebration of diversity
Enough. You can add to this list, using your own best judgement.

The Core of PRA? (but make up your own)
PRA, as has evolved, is all this and more. Some of the "more" is:
* facilitating - they do it: empowering and enabling local people to do more or all of the investigation, mapping, modelling, diagramming, listing, counting, estimating, ranking, scoring, analysis, presentation, planning...themselves, and to share and own the outcome. Analysis by them, shared with us.
* our behaviour and attitudes: for this, the primacy of our behaviour and attitudes, and of rapport, more important than methods, - asking local people to teach us, respect for them, confidence that they can do it, handing over the stick...
* a culture of sharing - of information, of methods, of food, of field experiences(between NGOs, Government and local people)
* critical self-awareness about our attitudes and behaviour; doubt; embracing and learning from error; continuously trying to do better; building learning and improvement into every experience
(Source: IDS)

The eight stages in Problem solving with PRA

Rapport formation
The objective of this phase is to form a relationship in which the villagers feel comfortable with you and your role as facilitator. No progress is possible if you fail to establish a good and clear relationship at the beginning.
A sign for this is when the client starts to tell you about the problem with a level of honesty and depth which goes beyond that which you would usually expect from your normal relationship.

Understanding
The objective of this phase is to understand the problem from the perspective of your partner, and for the partner to know that you do. You can find out when you have achieved this objective by asking the partner. Without such an understanding any attempt to move forward will be resisted by the client.

Reframing
Your objective in reframing is to be critical partner in reflecting the situation and the problem. You encourage the client to see the problem from a perspective that makes its management

possible. When the partner is in a more manageable perspective they will be ready to move to the next stage.

Solution searching
The objective of this stage is to identify a type of solution. You will arrive at this point having explored various solution types. Progress to the next stage depends on the partner being committed to a particular type of solution.

Solution planning and commitment development
After identifying a type of solution your objective in this stage is to plan a specific solution and to see it through to a successful conclusion. The actors have to express their commitment to the solution.

Implementation
The obvious objective is to carry out the plan generated in the previous stage.
Specifically your role here is to help the people with their motivation, focus and persistence.

Evaluation and adjustment:
Whether you are pushed into this stage through the situation or your partner, the time will come when the implementation as planned has been completed or has reach an impasse. This is the time when, together, you begin to evaluate and adjust the plan, if necessary. The objectives in this stage can vary from abandoning a plan the partner has lost faith in, or is creating new problems to fine-tuning a minor aspect of the plan.

Ending and consolidation
Now a particular problem has been overcome, it is wise to help the partner consolidate the problem solving skills they have learned or the solutions they have adopted. A sensible option is to put the client in a positions where they can solve the same or similar problems if they emerge or re-emerge.
Not seldom you will realise that in one stage something emerges because in an early stage things have not been handled properly. You will face often strong need to jump back and forth amongst the stages. Sometimes some stages have to be combined, because the feedback between them is so strong that they are clearly functioning as one single stage.

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6. ANNEXES

ANNEX 1: CHECKLIST FOR IRRIGATED AREAS

Name of the village: **Buq**
Distance from Erigavo: 20 Km
Direction from Erigavo: West
Location of the village: 10° 36' N, 47° 10' E
Distance from nearest market centre: 20 Km

The propose of the PRA is to gather information that will assist NGO to:

- Monitor progress of implementation
- Set up interventions and strategies for intervention
- Carry out end of project evaluation
- Form the basis for any future proposal for agricultural support in the district

THE CHECKLIST

1) General description of the study area:

- **SKETCH MAP**
  Irrigation water source (spring, shallow and Borehole)
  Canals
  Water quality
  Water storage structures

- **FARM INFORMATION**
  No. Farms and farm families
  Farm size and cropped areas
  Land ownership

- **LIVESTOCK**
  Type and quantity per farm
  Production

- **WEALTH GROUPS' DIFFERENTIATION**

  Poor, middle and rich

2) Historical profile (time line) of the study area:

- **MAJOR EVENTS INCLUDING WHEN THE IRRIGATED FARMING STARTED**

3) Seasonal and crop calendars

- **MAIN SEASONS**
- **MAIN CROPS GROWN ACCORDING TO RAINY SEASONS**
  List of the crops
  Crops calendar (Crop Cycle: Sowing, Transplanting and Harvest)

4) Existing farming/agricultural systems

- **AGRICULTURE PRACTICIES**
  Cropping systems,
  Types of crops and varieties
  Cultural practices including sowing, transplanting, weeding, harrowing, bird scaring, etc.
  Nursery management
  Fertilizations
  Disease control methods
  Labour availability (at the household level)

- **IRRIGATION SYSTEM**
  Methods of irrigation
  Irrigational interval
  Source of the water for irrigation
  Condition of canals
  Number of canals
  Accessibility to canals by farmers
  Capacity of canals to irrigate all potential farms
  Management of irrigation system

5) Marketing

- **CROPS**
  Varieties
  Productions: quantity, quality and prices
  Households' consumption
  Seeds quality
  Seeds availability

- **SALE**
  Harvesting (persons)
  Market access
  Transport system
  Marketing Chain
  Costs

6) Institutional profile and analysis

- **COMMUNITY STRUCTURES**
  Settlement and area structures
  Other committees namely farmers
  Clans
  A nature of relationships among various community structures

7) Previous interventions by international agencies

8) Problems and opportunities ranking

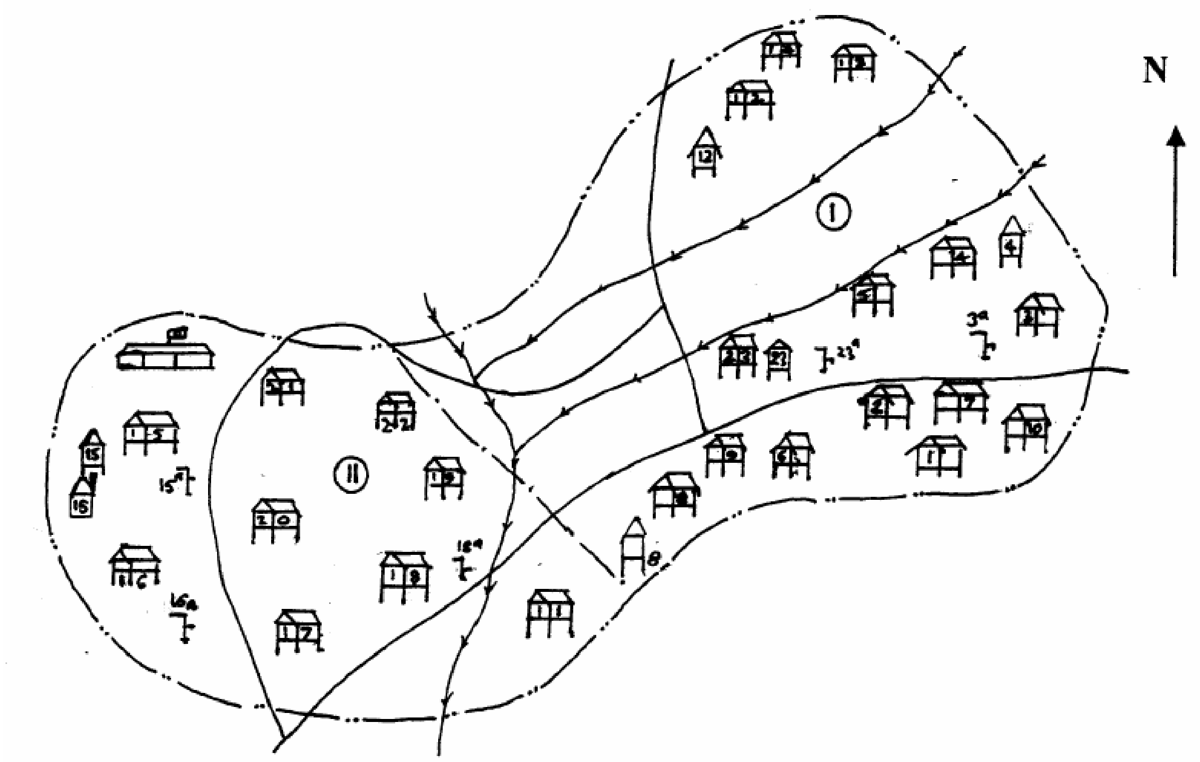
- **PAIR - WISE RANKING**
- **OPPORTUNITY OF INTERVENTION**

ANNEX 2: LEGEND FOR SOCIAL MAPPING

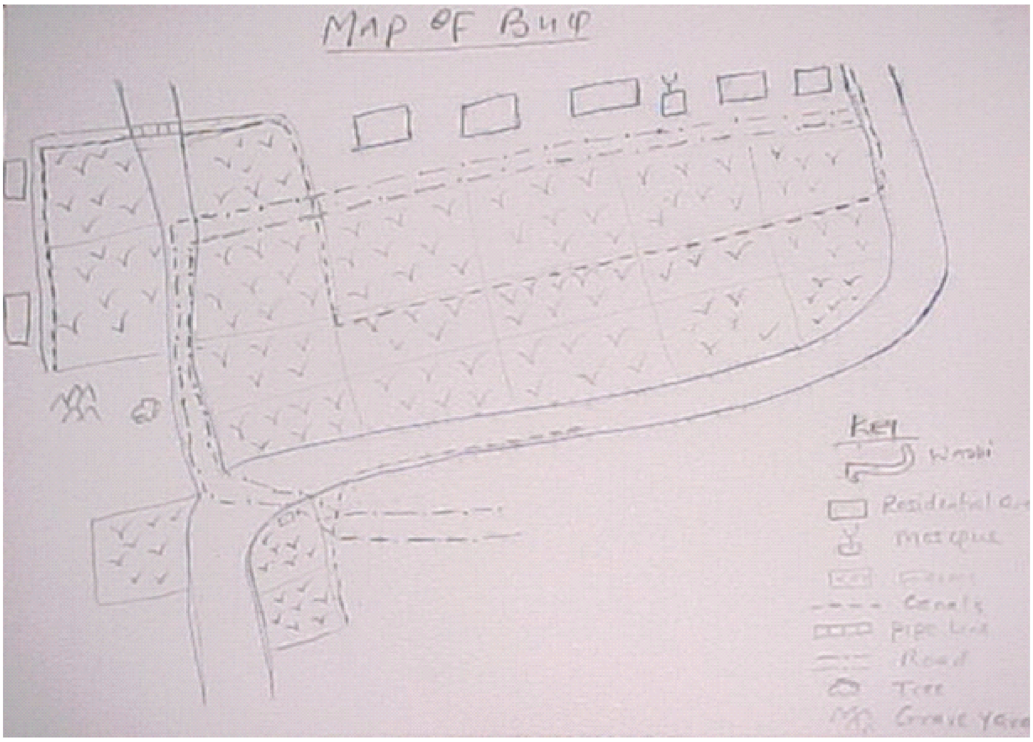
Legend	Description
	Nueay
	House
	Rice barn
	Group rice barn
	Rice mill
	Temple
	Church
	School
	Merchandise store
	Private deep well water
	Group deep well water
	Private water pump
	Group water pump
	Fishpond
	Irrigation system
	Water dam
	Village dispensary
	Village administration office
	Generator for charging battery
	Road
	Trail
	Village boundary
	Nueay boundary
	River
	Creek

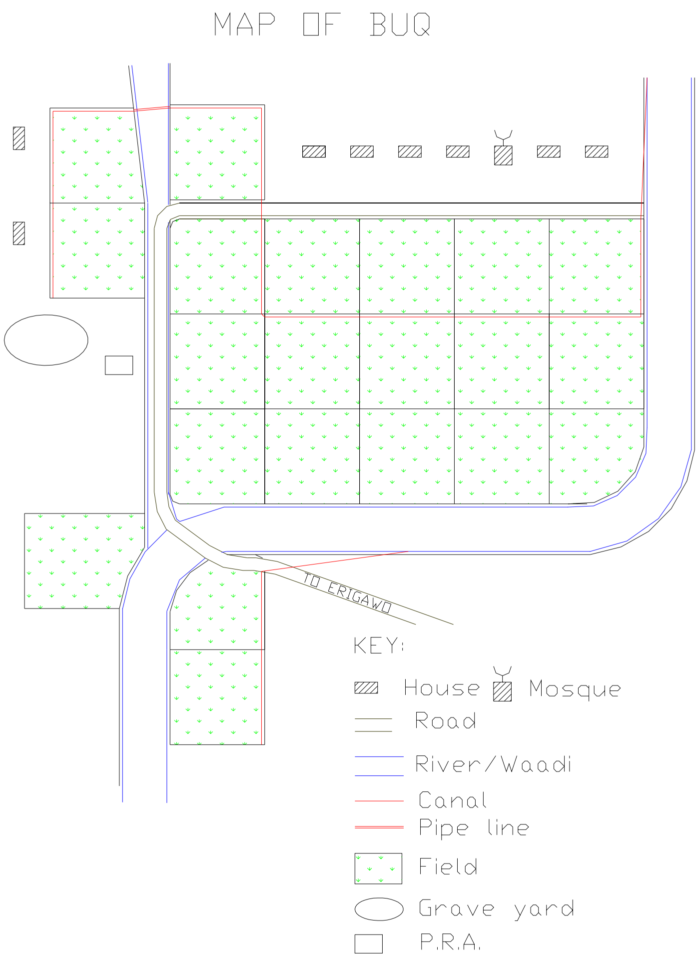
ANNEX 3: EXEMPLE OF SOCIAL MAPPING

Social map of Ban Nabong, Thapangthong District, Savannakhet Province.



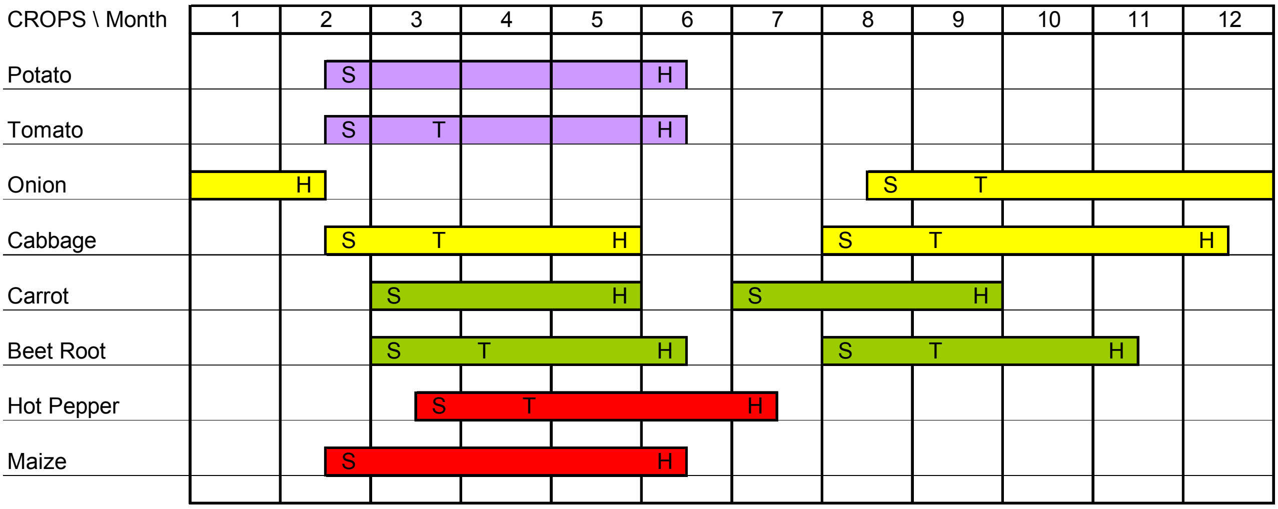
ANNEX 4: RESOURCE MAP





ANNEX 5: CROPS CALENDAR

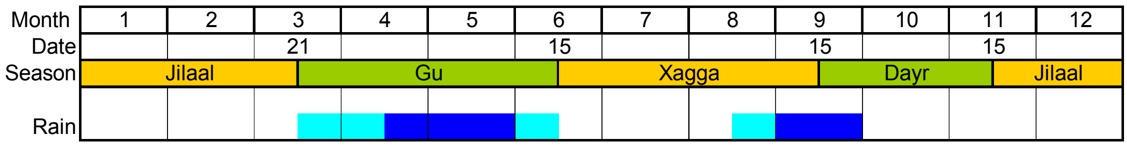
CROPS CALENDAR



Sowing:	S
Transplanting:	T
Harvesting:	H

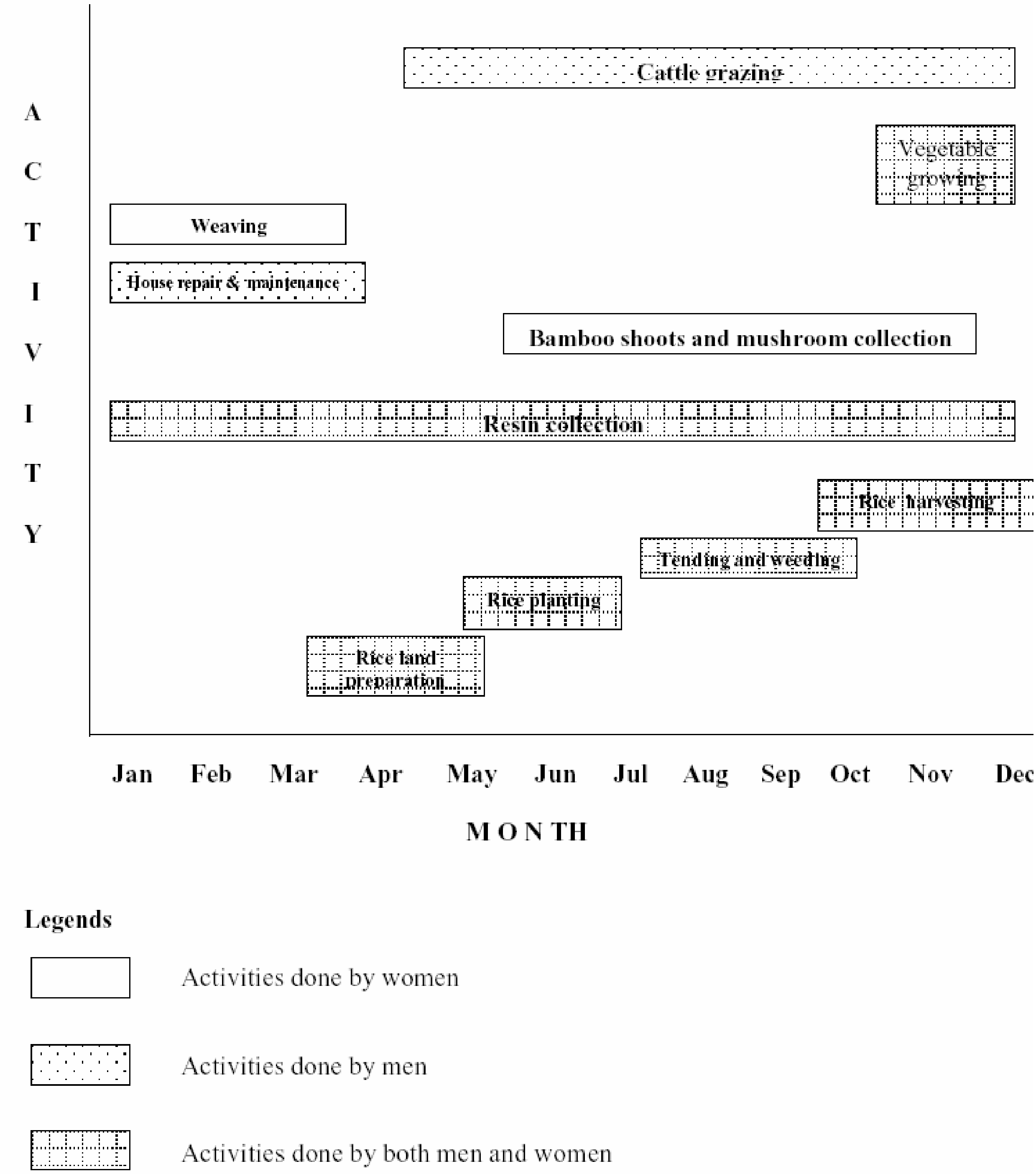
ANNEX 6: CALENDAR OF SEASON

SEASONAL CALENDAR



ANNEX 7: TIME CHART

Handout 1.3.2.2.1- Sample of a time chart or season calendar on labor utilization in Ban Bakkhoumkham, Thangpong district, Savannakhet



ANNEX 8: EXAMPLES OF DAILY ROUTINE

Daily routine (men) in Bhalu Rajwan village
Season: winter (November)

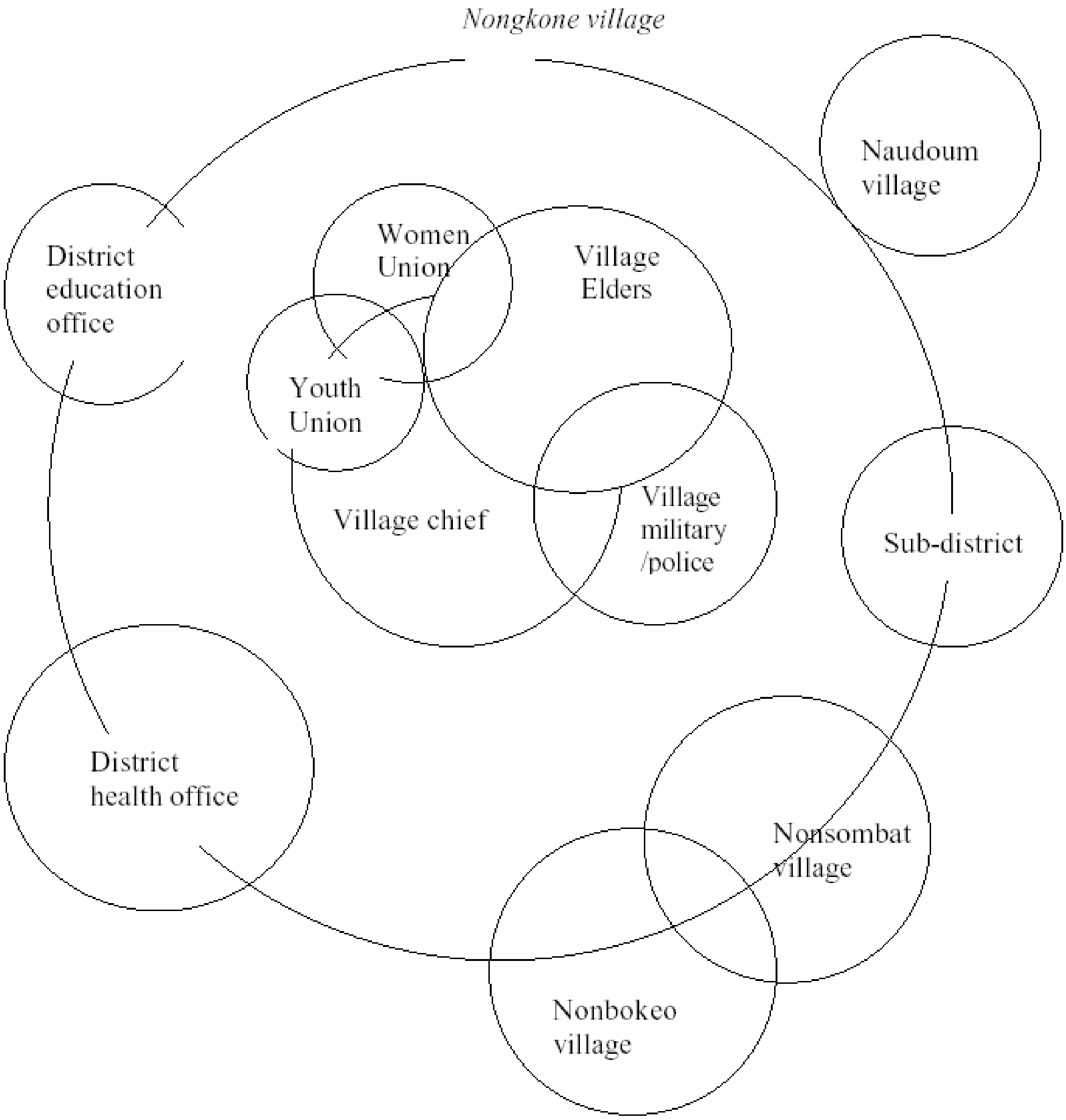
4:00	
5	Getting up, morning tea
6	Feed animals
7	Fetching water (2h)
8	
9	
	Agricultural work
10	Lunch (*Roti*)
11	
12	---- Rest : Playing cards, chatting, sleeping
1 pm	
2	
	---- Eating (*Dupahari*)
3	
4	
5	----- Feeding animals
6	
7	----- Resting
8	
9	Dinner (*Bhelu*)
10 pm	

Daily Routine (women)
Season : Winter (November)

4:00	getting up
5:00	milking
6:00	preparing tea
7:00	feeding the animals
8:00	cleaning the house
9:00	cooking
10:00	fetching water
11:00	bringing wood
12:00	mopping/cleaning/renewing the floor
13:00	washing clothes & taking bath
14:00	giving fodder to animals
15:00	cooking
16:00	animals left for grazing
17:00	crushing/grinding spices
18:00	animals brought back
19:00	feeding animals
20:00	milking
21:00	cooking dinner
22:00	sleeping

ANNEX 9: EXAMPLE OF VENN DIAGRAM

Handout no. 1.3.2.4.1 - Sample Venn diagram of Nongkone village, Songkone district, Savannakhet



ANNEX 10: EXAMPLES OF PAIR-WISE RANKING

Handout no. 1.3.2.3.1 - Sample of pair-wise ranking

Ranking the basic needs of villagers in Nonsombat village, Songhone district, Savannakhet province.

Road						
Irrigation	Road					
School	Road	Irrigation				
Temple	Road	Irrigation	School			
Health Center	Road	Irrigation	School	Health center		
Latrine	Road	Irrigation	School	Temple	Health center	
Basic Needs	Road	Irrigation	School	Temple	Health Center	Latrine

Result of pair-wise ranking of basic needs

Basic needs	Score	Rank
Road	5	1
Irrigation	4	2
School	3	3
Temple	2	4
Health center	1	5
Latrine	0	6

TYPES	seeds	tools	insecticide	Canals	Markets	pipes	Transport	Training	Road	SCORE	RANK
Lack of seeds		Tools	Seeds	Canals	Seeds	Seeds	Seeds	Training	Seeds	5	**3**
Lack of tools			Tools	Canals	Tools	Tools	Tools	Training	Tools	6	**2**
Lack of insecticide				Canals	Insecticide	Pipes	Transport	Training	Insecticide	2	**6**
Canals					Canals	Canals	Canals	Training	Canals	7	**1**
Lack of markets						Pipes	Markets	Markets	Markets	3	**5**
Lack of pipes							Pipes	Training	Pipes	4	**4**
Transport								Transport	Transport	3	**5**
Training									Training	6	**2**
Road										0	**7**