



How to use Rapid rural appraisal (RRA) to develop case studies

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1 Introduction

This section describes how to develop case studies especially adapted for training workshops in gender analysis and forestry by using rapid rural appraisal (RRA). It includes a selection of RRA tools which may be useful in conducting field research. The section has been written for *researchers who are already familiar with the process of rapid rural appraisal*.¹

These examples of tools for developing case studies for training are intended for use in a process which is as participatory as possible, although it is recognized that using RRA tools alone does not lead to long term participatory development in the case study area. Despite this, using the RRA tools can be a catalyst to empowerment of rural women and men because opportunities are created, and arise, for them to voice their concerns and priorities; therefore, these tools should be seen as part of a larger process, not a substitute for it.

Developing case studies based on the immediate working environment of the trainees, such as foresters, has distinct advantages for training. Trainees are likely to respond with more concrete and realistic recommendations when they themselves will be implementing the changes they suggest, based on a case study during a workshop.

As an alternative to developing specialized case studies, a selection of case studies from the Asia Programme are provided in Section D of this Package. Using case studies that are removed from the work of the trainees has the advantage of being less controversial.



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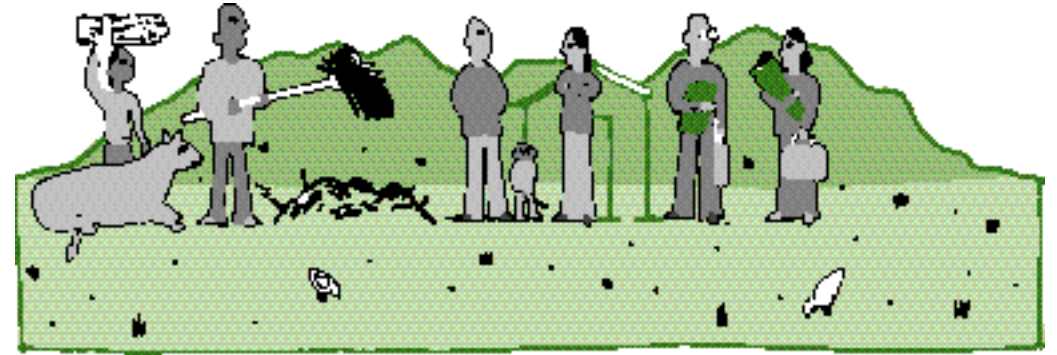
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The advantages of rapid rural appraisal for case study research are:

- It puts trainees in direct contact with community members as both participate in the research process and provides practice in sharing information in the trainees' actual work environment.
- The trainees are first introduced to an unfamiliar concept—gender analysis—in a familiar environment.
- As the participation of the women and men living in the case study area is solicited throughout the process, they can verify the research resulting in more accurate case studies.
- Because RRA as a methodology aims to incorporate several perspectives, it is ideal for examining links between sectors such as forestry, livestock, agriculture, and so on.
- RRA can be used to identify gender-specific aspects of cooperation, complementarity, coexistence, competition and conflict.



■ DEFINITION OF PARTICIPANTS

The participants in the research process include:

Villagers who participate as experts on living conditions in the case study area. They have most of the information.

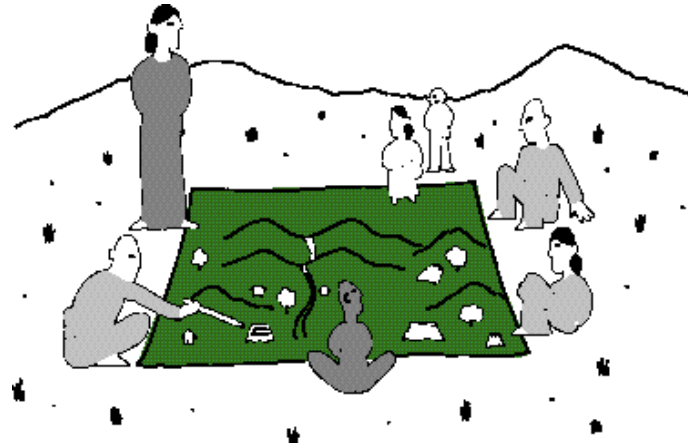
People who work in the area and who participate as sectoral managers (forestry, agriculture, etc.) or technical professionals who work for the government, private enterprise, or development agencies. They can contribute by linking micro and macro information.

The researchers who depend on the other participants for accurate information and who participate by using participatory research tools to collect or organize and present information for discussion by all participants.

Common considerations related to using RRA for producing case studies specifically for gender analysis and forestry training are presented here. This section describes three stages of case study development based on our experience in Asia—preparing for field research, conducting field research, and writing a case study.

CHARACTERISTICS OF RAPID RURAL APPRAISAL FOR TRAINING CASE STUDY RESEARCH

Both practice and theory of RRA vary greatly according to the context in which it is used. It should be stressed that RRA at its most participatory has the following characteristics:



- It is an inclusive research process because it aims to include the perspectives of all interest groups, including rural women and men.
- It can subvert the traditional roles of researcher and researched if both participate in determining research goals.
- It recognizes indigenous technical knowledge, and that this knowledge is gender based.
- It functions through communication among those bound together by common problems. This communication becomes a tool for identifying solutions.

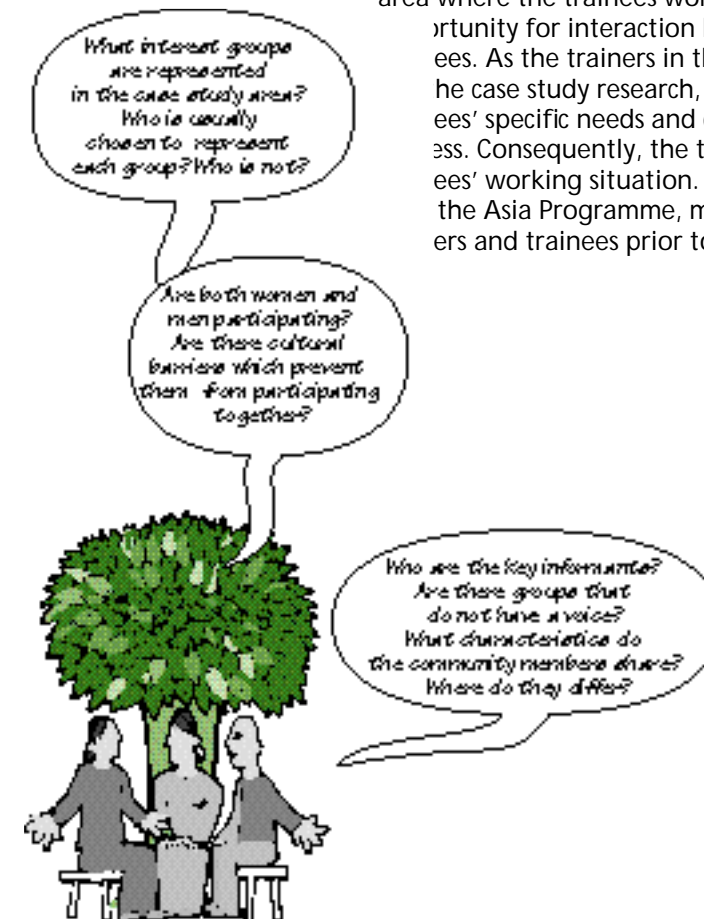
2 Preparing for field research

STEP 1: IDENTIFY THE PARTICIPANTS

The potential research participants include the village women and men (young and old, rich and poor, those with jobs in town, educated people, disabled people, landless people, and so forth), government staff, project staff, business owners, and so on. In short, everyone who has an interest in the development of the case study area. The case study researchers are also participants, but with special responsibility to collect, organize and present information.

In the Asia Programme, developing a case study in the area where the trainees work also provided an early opportunity for interaction between the trainers and the trainees. As the trainers in the programme also carried out the case study research, they gained awareness of the trainees' specific needs and concerns during the research process. Consequently, the training was tailored to the trainees' working situation. In the Asia Programme, meetings were held between trainers and trainees prior to the research process to:

- explain the objectives of the programme
- discuss trainees' concerns
- request assistance in selecting sites for the case studies
- explain the rapid rural appraisal methodology used
- request existing information on the case study area.



STEP 2: IDENTIFY PARTICIPANTS' EXPECTATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

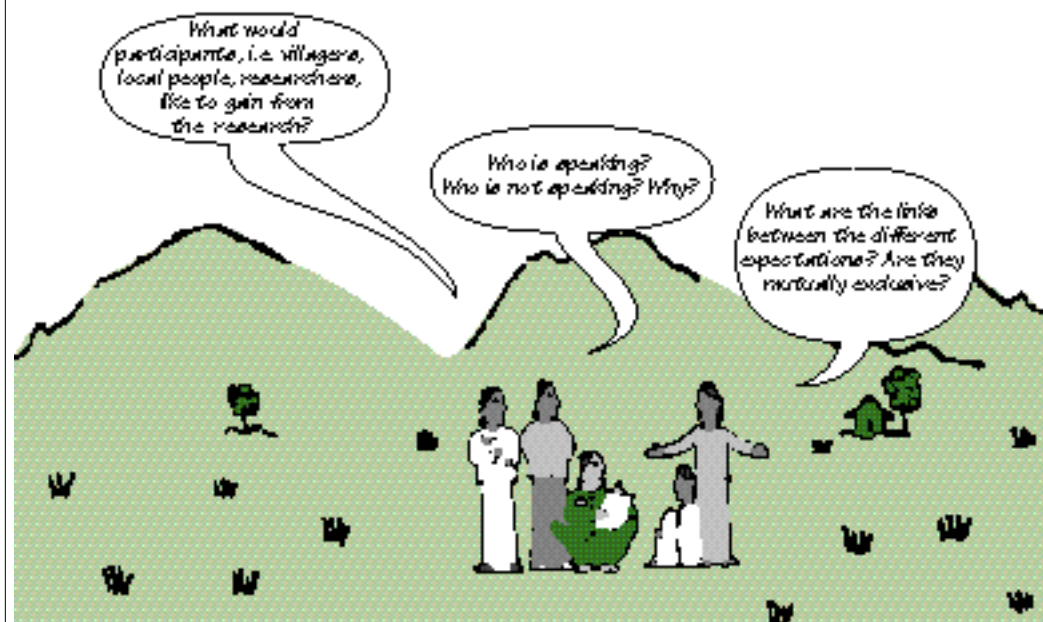
Each person participating in the research process will expect to benefit from it in different ways. The villagers may hope that the research heralds some specific improvement in their lives (such as roads, woodlots, schools, etc.) and the project staff may hope that the research process will increase interest among the villagers to participate in project activities through a better mutual understanding.

Although RRA can result in changes, these cannot be determined in advance. Through the research process, obstacles to satisfying the concerns of different interest groups are identified, solutions are explored, and some conflicts are resolved as dialogue develops.

During the weeks and even months before the field research begins, the researchers speak directly to individuals and groups about their priorities and concerns. The researchers can create opportunities for dialogue between the interest groups by inviting all of them to meetings about the research. At the meetings it is important to note who is *not* talking. For example, in many cultures, women are not invited to village meetings. A special effort may have to be made to go to women's homes, or to meet with a women's group to learn their point of view.

STEP 3: DISCUSS THE INFORMATION NEEDS

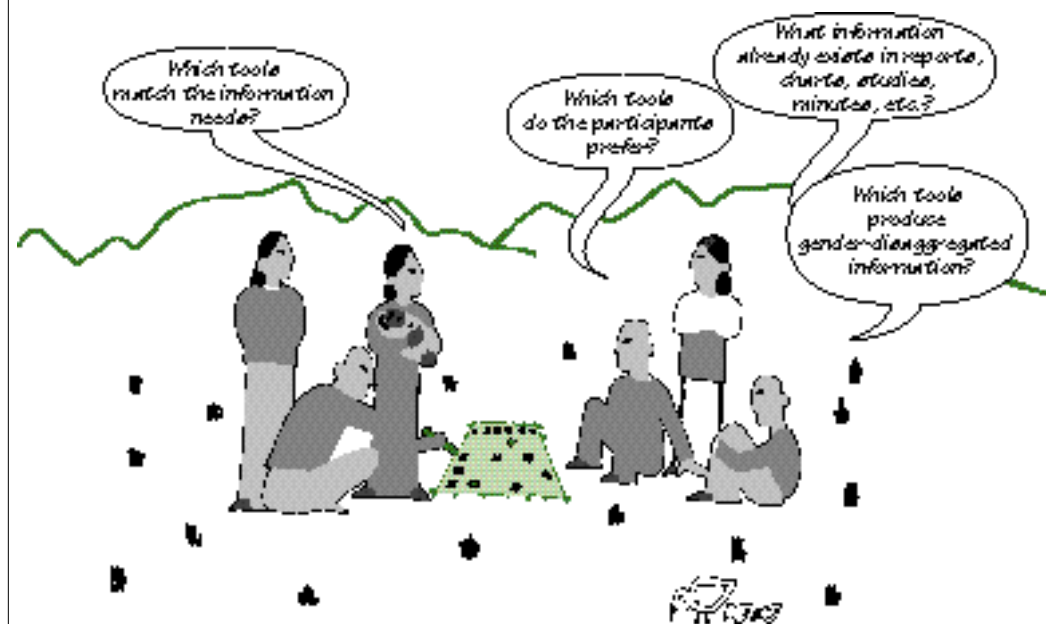
Using RRA as a methodology for case study research has implications for both content and process. It is a difficult task to reconcile the requirements of producing a case study with the concerns and priorities of all the participants. Ideally, the women and men of the case study area have opportunities to influence the research process by participating in the decision-making on priority issues, research tools, timing, location, and so forth, throughout every stage of RRA.



STEP 4: SELECT RESEARCH TOOLS

Using RRA purposely creates opportunities for participation. Conventional research tools, such as surveys, keep control in the hands of the researchers. With RRA, in its most participatory form, all the participants share control by using RRA tools to present their perspectives. For example, when women and men draw separate maps, it is easy to see gender differences in their perceptions of resources, constraints, village organization, etc. Gender disaggregation refers not only to data on what women and men do, but also to how their perspectives differ.

To complement field research, existing information can save time and effort. Although it is sometimes overlooked, existing information provides historical perspective to research and can be helpful to verify field research. For development projects, existing information might include baseline studies, feasibility studies, monthly or annual reports and consultants' reports. For districts and divisions, researchers could use information available from District Development Offices, District Forestry Officers and so forth. Other groups such as village committees, women's groups, farmers' groups and so forth, also often keep written records which can be useful for Context Profile information.



STEP 5: DESIGN FIELD RESEARCH

All the information from the previous four steps must be gathered before designing the field research.

The following four factors will influence the degree to which it will be possible for the local community, women and men, to participate in the research process.

1. Research team. When possible, include both male and female researchers. Even where no cultural barrier exists to interaction between women and men, women often find it easier to talk to female researchers. This improves the quality of information on differences between the way women and men perceive their lives in the case study area.

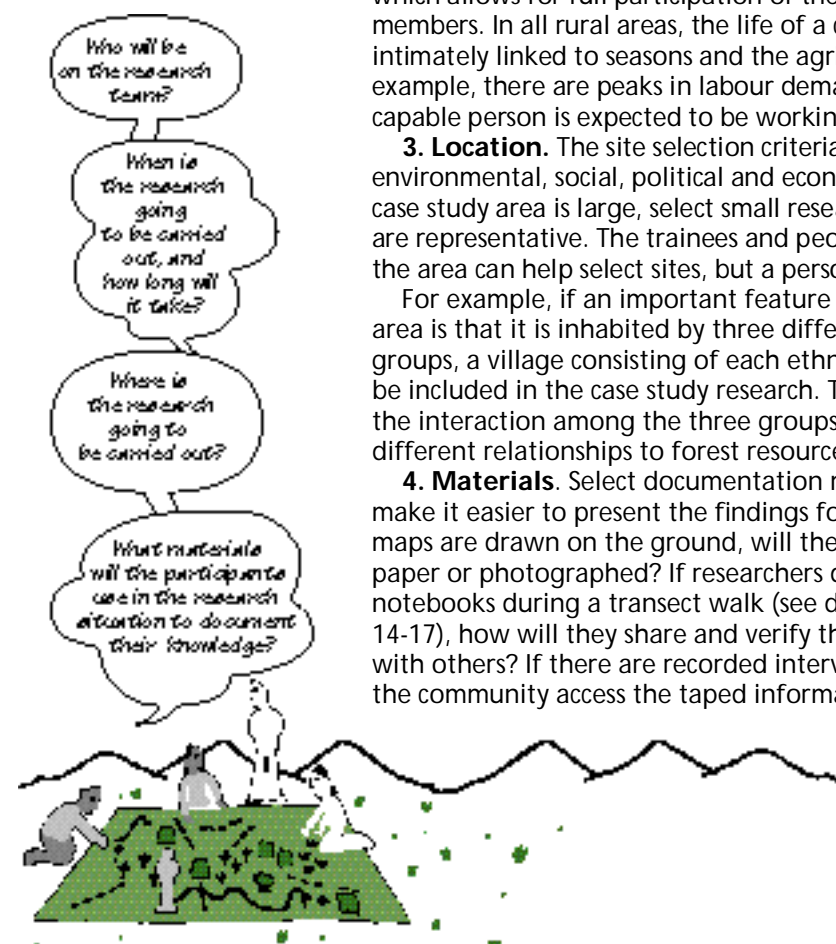
If the budget allows, an additional researcher with technical or social science expertise is well worth considering. For example, a forester could be consulted if there are no foresters on the training team.

2. Timing. Schedule the case study research at a time which allows for full participation of the community members. In all rural areas, the life of a community is intimately linked to seasons and the agricultural cycles. For example, there are peaks in labour demand when every capable person is expected to be working in the fields.

3. Location. The site selection criteria include environmental, social, political and economic factors. If the case study area is large, select small research sites which are representative. The trainees and people who live in the area can help select sites, but a personal visit is best.

For example, if an important feature of the case study area is that it is inhabited by three different ethnic groups, a village consisting of each ethnic group should be included in the case study research. This will highlight the interaction among the three groups and their different relationships to forest resources.

4. Materials. Select documentation materials which make it easier to present the findings for discussion. If maps are drawn on the ground, will they be redrawn on paper or photographed? If researchers draw in their notebooks during a transect walk (see description pages 14-17), how will they share and verify that information with others? If there are recorded interviews, how will the community access the taped information?



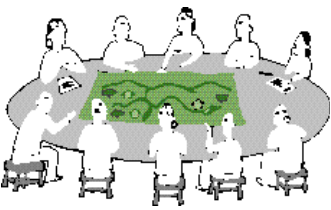
STEP 6: EVALUATE THE COLLECTED INFORMATION



The research findings should be reviewed each day with all participants, including the community members, to reveal gaps, uncover misunderstandings, and correct misconceptions based on limited information sources. Because village women and men are the experts, they critique and discuss the researchers' perceptions. These reviews may redirect plans for the next

day's research if new sources of information are discovered.
For example, researchers may want to photograph the case study area to produce a set of slides for use in the gender analysis workshop. In this case, the people who live in the area and who participated in the case study research should be consulted to check whether the researchers have understood the situation.

3 Conducting field research



Developing case studies for gender analysis requires adapting some rapid rural appraisal (RRA) tools to collect gender-disaggregated information. Using these tools, rural women and men are able to teach outsiders about their lives.
The table below indicates which RRA tool can be used to collect the information required by each Step or Profile of the gender analysis and forestry Framework.

- Researchers should:**
- Identify people who know about their village and are willing to share their knowledge.
 - Reach agreement with the villagers on method, time, place, materials, etc.
 - Probe, check and encourage discussion and debate.
 - Be patient, not controlling.
 - Observe and document the information.
 - Record the names of the women and men who share their knowledge on the presentations of information, e.g. indicate on maps who drew them. This recognition gives credit where credit is due.
- Researchers should not:**
- Overlook the silent participants
 - Take on the role of a teacher
 - Interrupt an explanation

<i>Tool</i> \ <i>Profile</i>	<i>Context</i>	<i>Activity</i>	<i>Resources</i>	<i>Action</i>
Mapping or modelling	•		•	
Transect	•		•	
Seasonal analysis		•	•	
Trend diagramming	•			
Matrix ranking		•	•	•
Wealth ranking			•	
Chapatti diagrams	•		•	
S.W.O.L.				•

4 RRA tools and how to use them

Each RRA tool described here is followed by an example of how it can be used and of how it was used in different research situations all over the world. These are *examples*, not models, because they are not perfect, nor is the described procedure the only correct one. They are included here as *suggestions*. RRA tools develop continuously and part of that process is adapting existing tools and inventing new ones. The case study research process provides that opportunity.

1. TRANSECT WALKS

What are transect walks?

A transect walk is a walk taken by researchers with villagers during which problems and opportunities related to the physical geography and topography of a community are documented, producing a type of map. It usually presents a “summary” of a larger area than a village map does.

Why do transects?

Transects identify zones, contrasts, changes, conditions, and physical features such as soils, trees, and streams in the village environment. Transects are an ideal point of departure for a rapid research/planning process in a village, because they establish the villagers as the experts on living conditions in the case study area. As the researchers walk through the villagescape they can observe both natural and built aspects of the environment. Conducting a separate transect walk with women, and then with men, clarifies the gender-based differences in their relationships with the natural environment.

What is needed for making transects?

The participants are groups of women and men, who are willing to walk and talk with researchers through a transect walk.

With the participants, decide on a route for the transect. Try to choose a route with varied environmental and topographical features. This route might be based on a map produced earlier.

During the walk, researchers discuss what they are seeing (soils, rivers, crops, housing, etc.) with the villagers. It may be useful for the research team to divide responsibilities for documenting specific information (forestry, livestock, soils, etc.) to collect information for Resources and Context Profiles. Researchers observe, ask questions, and listen. They try to discover problems and opportunities related to what they see, and note contrasts and changes. They identify different zones. The information collected during the transect walk is used to draw the diagram.

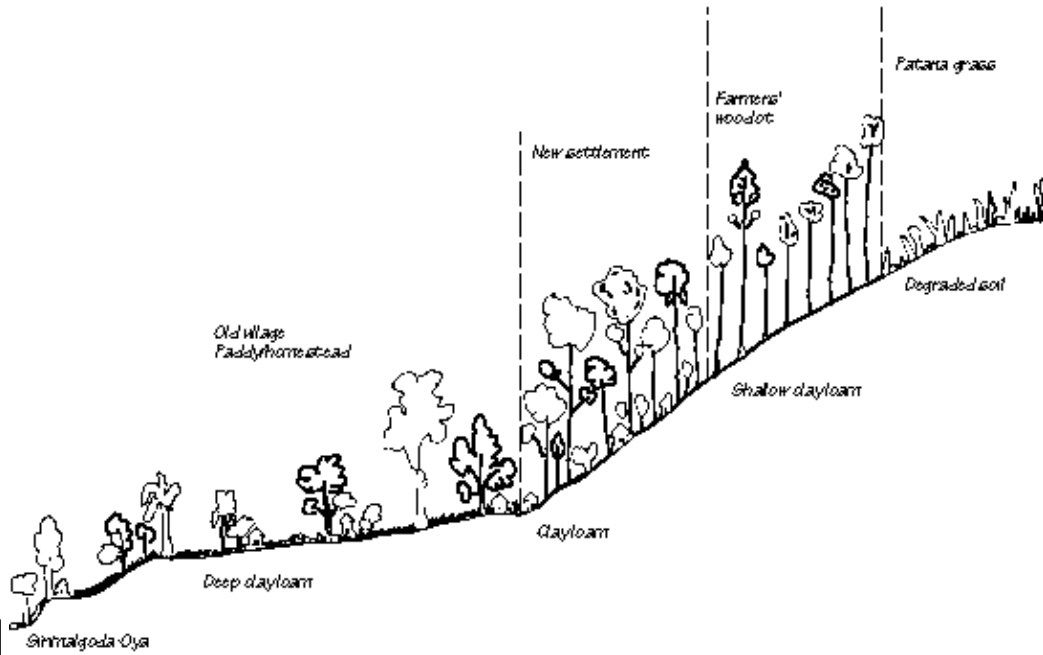
Examples of Transect Walks

Transect A shows a simple transect of a Sri Lankan village located on a hill side. Tree cover and soil conditions are highlighted in relation to the location of village settlements. Due to the steep gradient, farmers’ woodlots are located on the upper segments of the hill, while home gardens are located in the mid and low segments. Paddy fields are interspersed in the foot slopes. Both women and men must spend a great deal of time and energy going up and down the hill side to carry out their and forestry activities.

Transect B shows how this simple tool can provide a great deal of gender-disaggregated information. In the Gambia, transects were produced on separate walks with young men, old men, young women and old women so that priorities by both gender and age could be better understood. Shown here are the transects produced by young men and young women, both giving attention to soil types, land use, interventions and problems. The differences between the two transects reflect their different needs. For example, the women’s transect emphasizes the rice fields because rice is an important source of food and income for women in the Gambia.

TRANSECT A

Transection of Illuktenne village, Sri Lanka



Source: Anoja Wickramasinghe, Sri Lanka Case Study on Gender Analysis & Forestry (see Section D)

TRANSECT B

Young Men's Transect, Misera

Zona	Ranchero	Arboreal	Deposito	Comunero Kau (road)	Arboreal	Arboreal	Ranchero
Soil type	Sandy loam	Sandy loam	Clay loam		Sandy loam	Sandy loam	Sandy loam
Crop use	Sanitary waste and cattle	Agricultural pro- ducts, garden, raised, growing rice production in the sand and soil	Small-scale rice production due to irrigation in the field for the past 10 years. Used to be a potato area for the production of a vegetable.		Vegetable pro- ducts, cattle, rice, mangoes, papaya, lemons, and other	Groundnut pro- ducts, mangoes, lemons, and other	Sanitary waste and cattle, papaya and other
Tree species	Mango, Other tree, banana	Mangoes, rubber, lime, guava and other trees	Mangoes, rubber, lime, etc.	Bananas, rubber, mangoes, guava and papaya	Mangoes, lime, mangoes, guava, other trees, banana		
Water source	BEC well			Sanitary Communal	APC (Purified The Center)	Department of Agriculture Sanitary High water supply	
Problems	Strongest Mangoes diseases infectious diseases and other	Risk of disease of fruit trees, paper trees	Irregular fall for the past 10 years	Transport is available only on some days (Buses only)	Making out the mangoes diseases, the mangoes have no the dry and compounds	High	

Young women's transect, Misera

[illegible]

Source: *Input to Impact, PRA for Action Aid The Gambia, AA/IIED 1992*

2. MAPPING AND MODELLING

What is mapping/modelling?

Participatory mapping is a process by which the villagers produce a visual image of a village they live in. In modelling the representation is three dimensional.

Why do mapping/modelling?

Villagers, regardless of literacy level, are capable of representing their surroundings visually. Through the villagers' maps and models, outsiders gain insights into how rural women and men perceive their resources and select their priorities.

Villagers can present and analyse information on land use, watersheds and forests and other resources. Women and men each can indicate their access to or control over resources. Maps of a village layout with households detailed on it can be used to identify female headed households and to discuss household-level information on health, or wealth, for example.

Group discussion of a map or model can help identify trends. "How did this place look a year ago? Five years ago?" etc. It can also reveal what villagers think will happen in the future. "What are your plans for this land?" "What obstacles are there to your plans?"

What is needed for mapping/modelling?

With the villagers, choose a location and materials. Next, decide which type of map would best meet the information needs, i.e. one which documents social issues or resources, or both.

Maps can be produced on the ground or on paper: each has advantages. Mapping on the ground encourages more participation because it is visible to a larger group, so it generates a lively discussion. Also, ground maps are easy to alter, correct, and develop further to incorporate larger areas. Using colours (e.g. dyes, coloured powders, crushed brick, different coloured soil) makes the process more graphic and the information more detailed. On the other hand, maps on paper are more durable and are easy to transport and present.

Through the research process, a series of maps can be created. This has two advantages. First, it will strengthen the accuracy of the information because different interest groups (e.g. women and men, young and old) can be invited to produce separate maps which can then be compared. Second, the maps will become more detailed as people become familiar with the process.

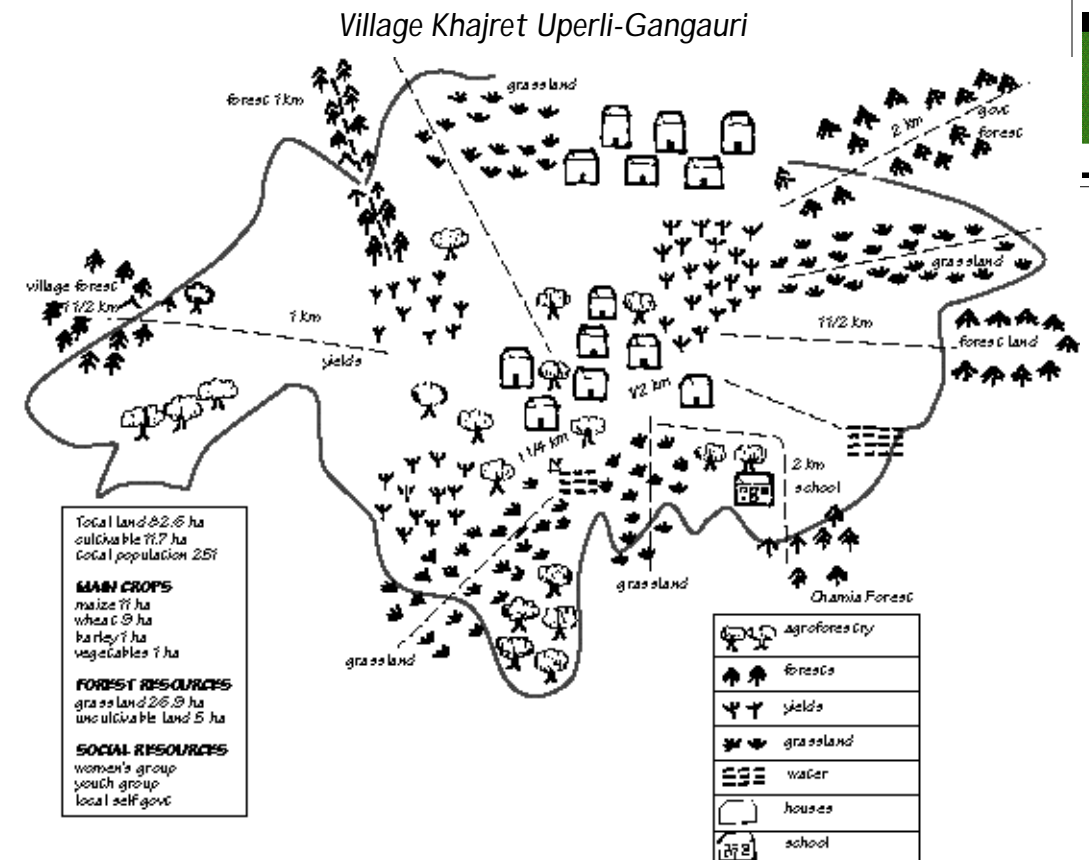
Examples of maps and models

Map A depicts the key natural and social resources, including forests, fields, water, and school of a village in Himachel Pradesh. The map indicates distances between the homesteads and the resources. Using different coloured markers (red for women, blue for men, and green for both, for example), the map can be used to show gender-based access to these resources, and time and mobility constraints.

Map B demonstrates the use of forest products by different households in a Gujarat village, including consumption of fuelwood, fodder and bamboo. The map shows that dependency on forest products is high for all villagers, especially landless people. Coloured markers could be used to show which products are collected by women, by men, or by both, or to indicate which households are female-headed.

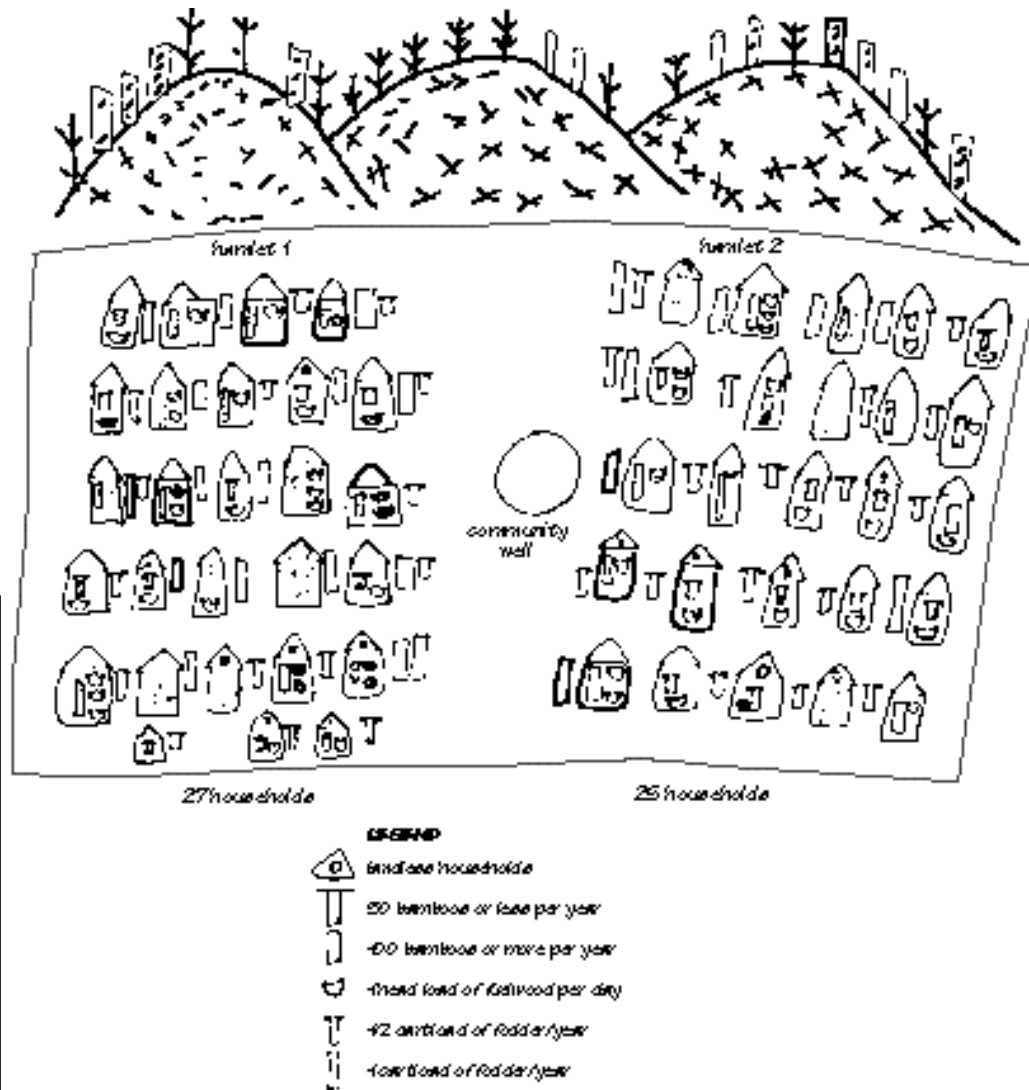
Map C shows the variety of horticultural trees in a single home garden in Thailand. In combination with the information provided in the written case study, the map can be used by workshop trainees to identify which species are cared for and used by women, men or both.

MAP A



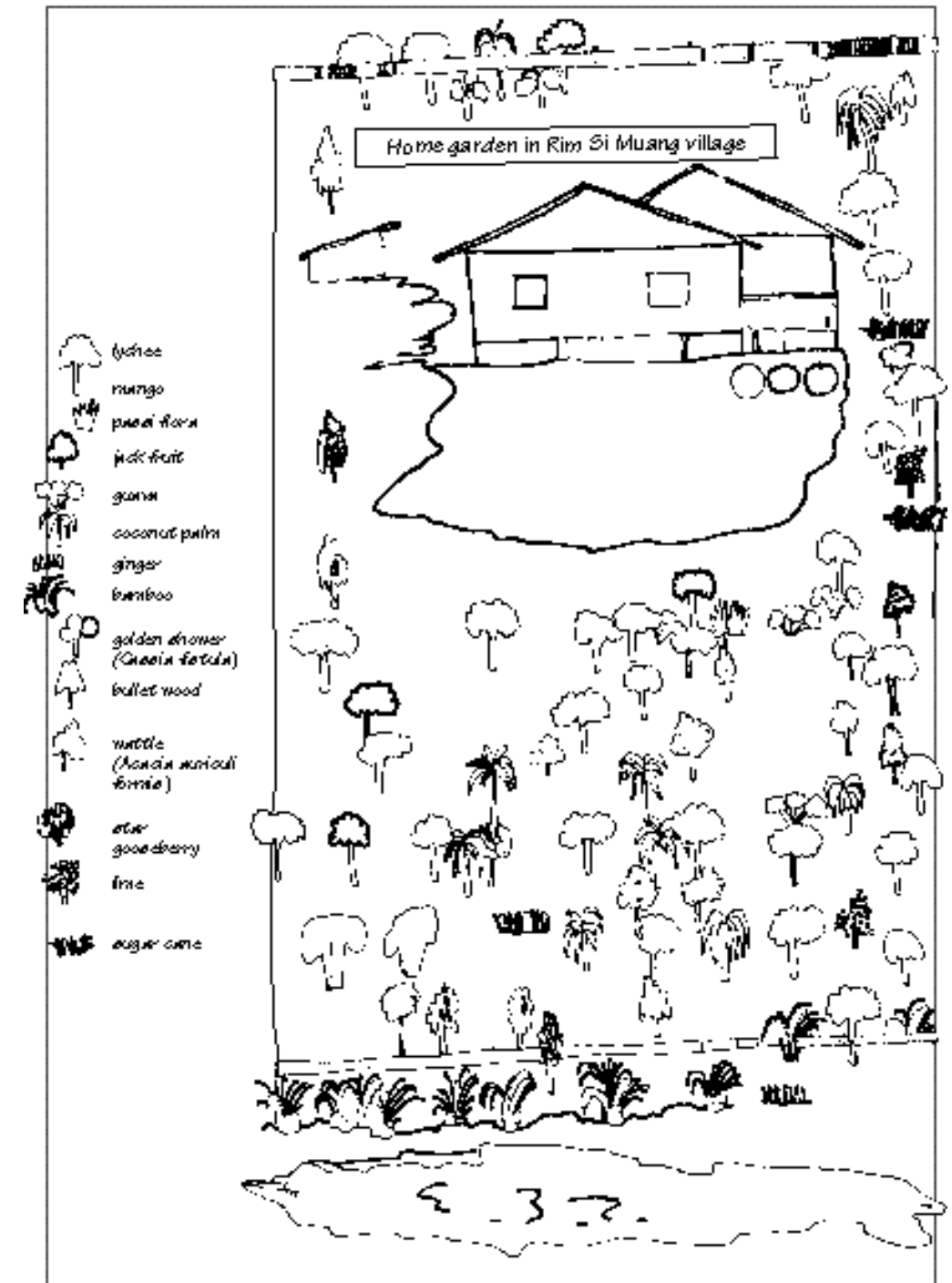
MAP B

Forest land users map, showing products used by different sections of village community, Bharuch District, Gujarat.



Source: Parmesh Shah, Girish Bharadwaj & Ransit Ambastha, Aga Khan Rural Support Program. RRA Notes No 13, August 1991, IIED. (Household names were on the original map.)

MAP C



Source: Uraivan Tan-Kim-Yong & Uthaiwan Sangwanit, Thailand Case Study on Gender Analysis and Forestry (see Section D)

3. SEASONAL ANALYSIS

What is seasonal analysis?

Seasonal analysis is a representation of recurring patterns in village life which contrast the differences in seasonal patterns of women and men’s lives. This representation is based on divisions of time which can be long (e.g. a generation), or short (e.g. a week, a month). The most common seasonal analysis is one which provides detailed information on agricultural cycles.

Why do seasonal analysis?

Seasonal analysis reveals links between aspects of village life and the environment that we may not think of connecting (e.g. time, resources and activities). Seasonal analysis documents such things as labour, income, expenditure, crop patterns, river flows, rain, animal fodder, debt, disease or food availability. Seasonal analysis also documents gender variations (i.e. how do women’s and men’s seasonal labour patterns differ?).

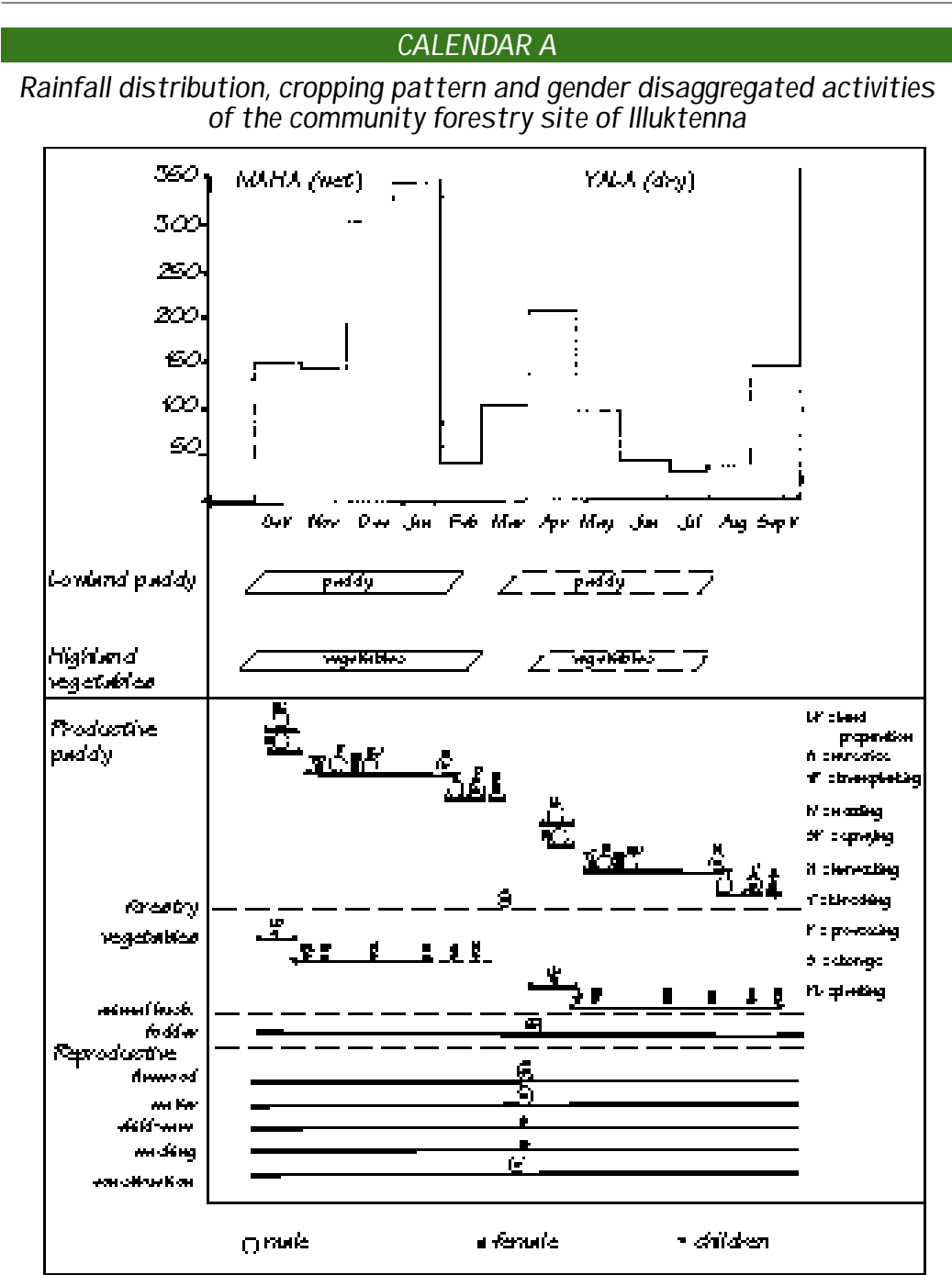
What is needed for seasonal analysis?

Participatory seasonal analysis may involve a sizeable group of villagers in discussion, so enough space to accommodate everyone is essential. With the villagers, select one or two participants who will actually produce the diagram. Provide materials, such as stones, seeds, fruits and sticks, to indicate amounts; and provide drawing instruments, such as chalk and sticks.

First, establish the type of calendar to be used for the analysis. It should be based on a calendar familiar to the villagers. What are the common time divisions they use—months? seasons? A seasonal analysis covering a period of 18 months will reveal changes from one season to another. Next, all the villagers should agree on the units of time and mark them on the ground or floor. Finally, ask the participants to quantify each of the categories (e.g. rainfall, labour, disease, etc.) by using the chosen time units.

Examples of seasonal analysis

Calendar A depicts labour patterns in a Sri Lankan village in relation to the rain pattern, highlighting gender-based activities during both wet and dry seasons. While productive activities change according to season (if there is enough rain, paddy and vegetables are produced twice yearly), reproductive and home-maintenance activities are consistent throughout. Calendar B shows gender-based divisions of labour over a one year period



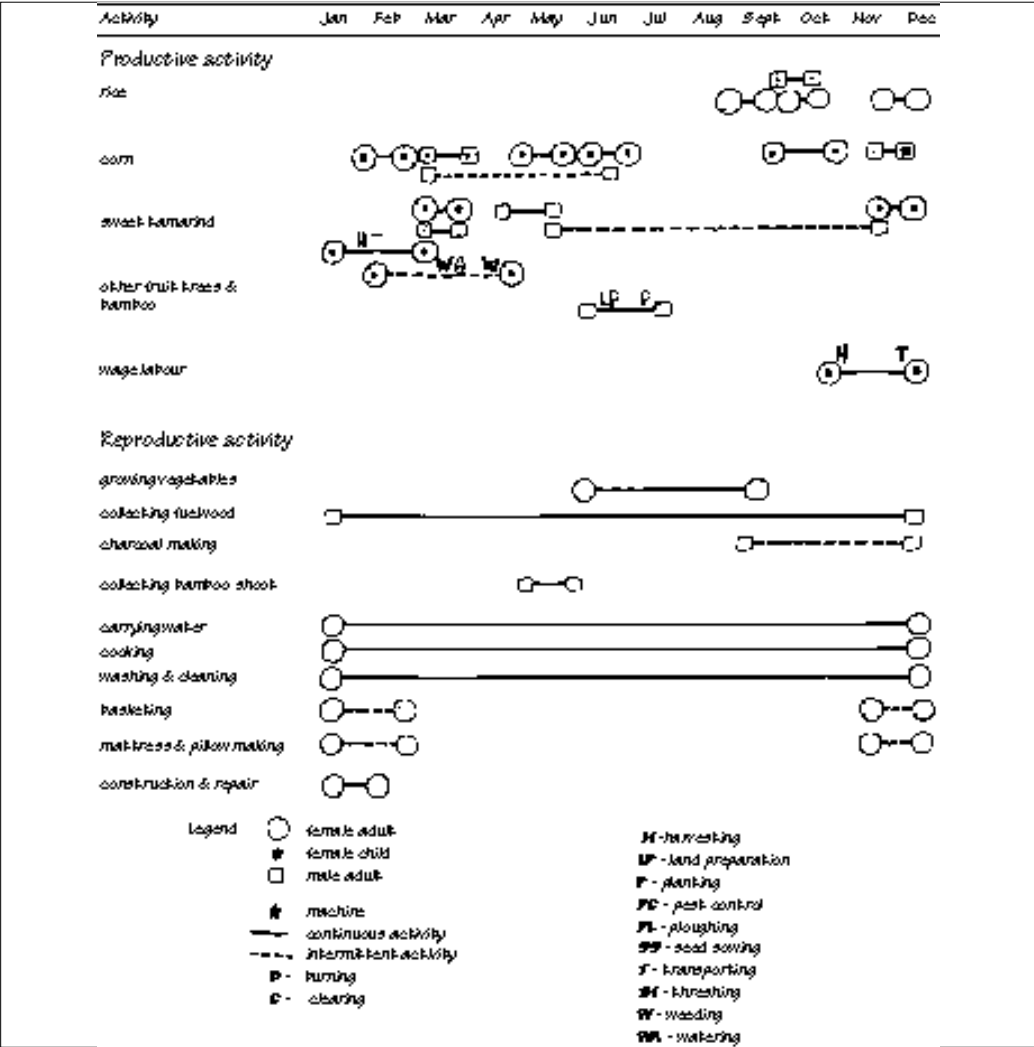
Source: Anoja Wickramasinghe, Sri Lanka Case Study on Gender Analysis and Forestry (see Section D)

in a Thai village. The calendar also notes gender-based use of machines.

Calendar C, from a village in Malawi, shows how seasonal analysis can be used to look at the relationships among several important patterns: rainfall, agricultural labour, other labour, food availability, disease, income, and water availability. Separate calendars were produced by women and men showing important differences, especially in terms of labour and income.

CALENDAR B

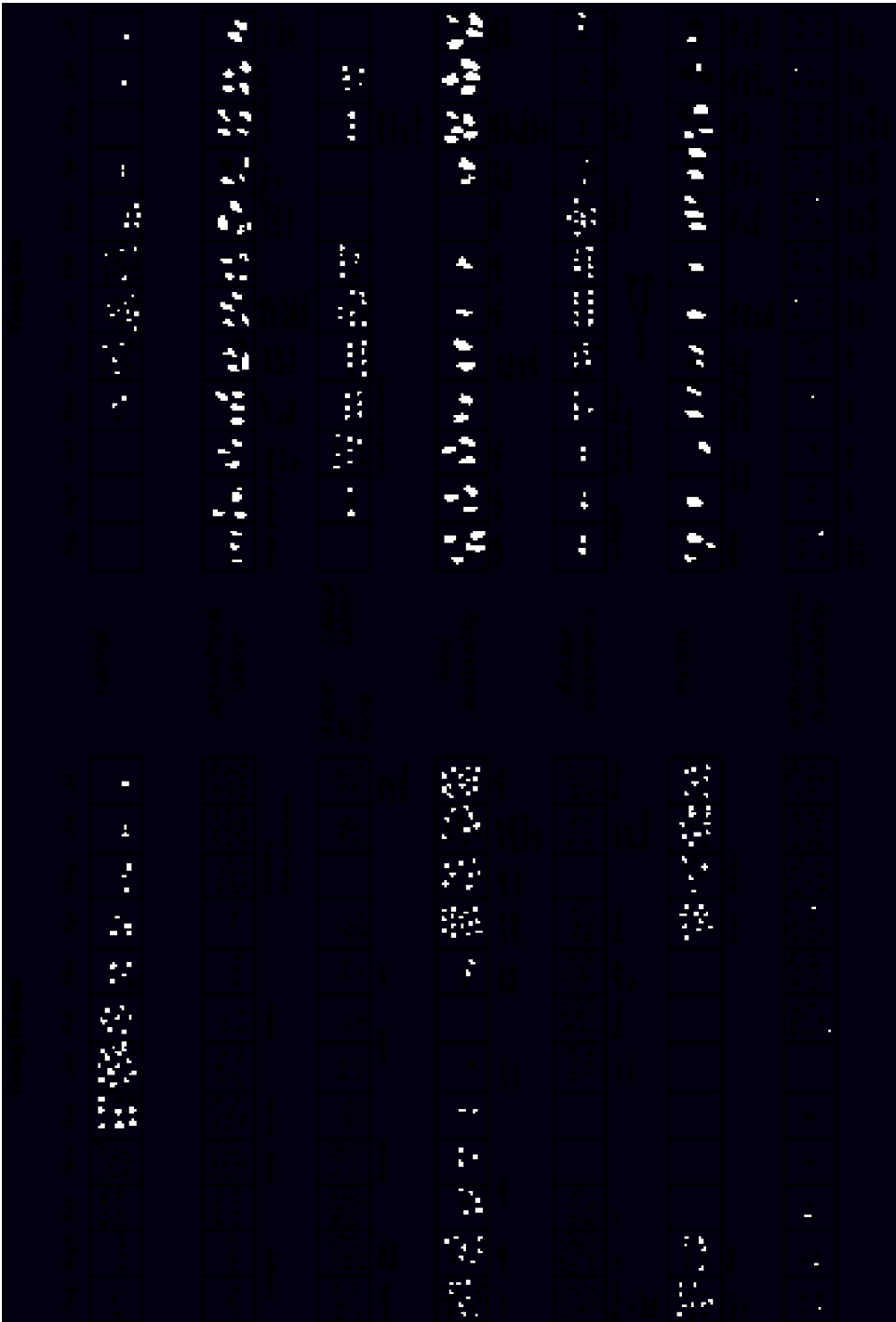
Productive and reproductive activities calendar: Ban Thapon



Source: Uraivan Tam-Kim-Yong & Uthaiwan Sangwanit, Thailand Case Study on Gender Analysis and Forestry (see Section D)

CALENDAR C

Seasonal Calendar for Pemba village, Malawi



Source: Alice Welbourne, PRA Materials on Gender, IIED, 11 Nov, 1992.

4. TREND DIAGRAMMING

What is trend diagramming?

Trend diagramming is a representation of the changes in village life and the community’s resource base. It is also an analysis of gender-specific changes in who has access to resources or control over them.

Why do trend diagramming?

Trend diagramming is used for identifying changes in areas such as forestry resources, fuel economy (fuels used, time constraints, distances covered, changes in labour patterns), price development, marketing opportunities, land use patterns, and so forth.

What is needed for trend diagramming?

Trend diagramming may involve a sizeable group of villagers in discussion, so enough space to accommodate everyone is essential. With the villagers, select one or two participants who will actually produce the diagram. Provide materials, such as stones, seeds, fruits and sticks, to indicate amounts; and provide drawing instruments, such as chalk or sticks.

First, establish the timeline for the trend diagram. Building on *historical timelines* is useful because they establish what the great “milestones” of the community have been (e.g. floods, droughts, revolutions, building of a school, etc.) Next, all the villagers should agree on what trends are being represented (e.g. labour, migration, prices, etc.). Finally, ask the participants to quantify each of the trends on the diagram.

Examples of trend diagramming

Trend A indicates major events over a 60-year period in a village in West Bengal. This historic timeline was produced with help of an informant who was 105 years old. Timelines can also be produced in separate discussions with groups of women and groups of men. These will show both similarities and differences in identifying major events and important changes.

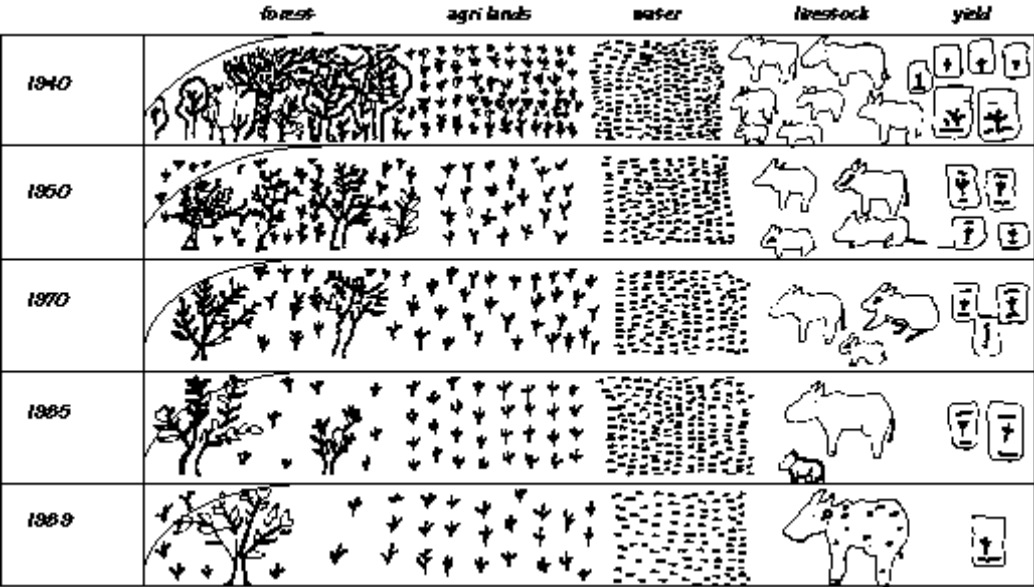
Trend B demonstrates how transects can be used to show historic trends.

Trend C was based on two models made by villagers of Ardanarypura. The models showed changes in the watershed area occurring over a period of fifty years. Both diagrams could be used to facilitate a discussion about gender-based changes in activities and changes in access to resources which are a result of the deteriorating environment.

TREND A	
Village Khajret Uperli-Gangauri	
1930-1940	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 10 - 12 families • 1 mor (40 kg) rice available • rainfall up to expectation • single crop • law and order better • famine - government and Zamindar distributed money and rice respectively • epidemic after famine - many people died • 1 1/2 mor rice to be given back in place of 1 mor to the Mahajan (hoarder) • there was gunje (big market). They used to carry fish by boat, coconuts etc from Dacca and rice from here • no bank, money and all valuables kept in house • no hat nearby, no caste bar • marshy land full of wild tigers, jackals etc • bullock carts used for transport • torch used at night • water from ponds used for drinking • treatment from Fakir available • dowry to be paid for marrying a girl • women folk used to wear Hanna. No use of tailored dress
1941-1950	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • price of rice rose from Rs1.25 to Rs20. It created mass unrest which ultimately turned into a freedom movement. • cycle came to village after independence • dug well introduced
1951-1960	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • tailor made dress introduced • barpan came into existence
1961-1975	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • change in cultivation, changes in festivals and food habits • exchange of assets after Bangladesh war • fishermen, potters in community in the area • rise in population
1976-1990	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • abolition of purdah (veil) in Muslim community • havoc and loss due to flood • change in consumable items • polygamy started • deterioration of law and order • absence of mental peace

TREND B

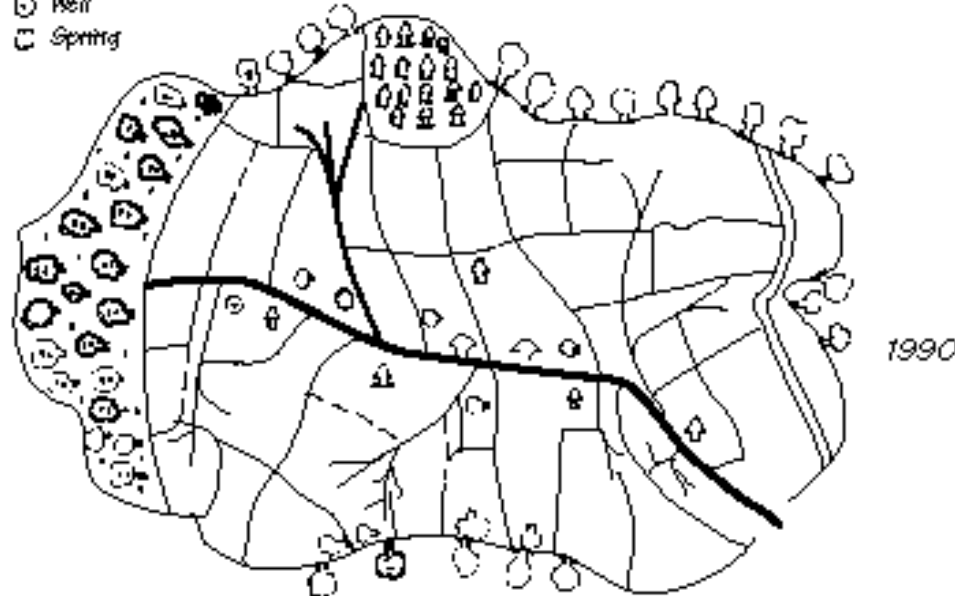
Historical transect for animals, trees, water and crops, Ardanaripur village



Source: James Mascarenhas, RRA notes 13, II ED, 1991. (Drawn by villagers of Ardanarypura)

TREND C

Historical maps drawn from two watershed models made by people of Ardanarypura village.



Source: James Mascarenhas, RRA Notes No 13, II ED, 1991.

5. MATRIX RANKING

What is matrix ranking?

Matrix ranking is a grid which represents relative value or preferences, by creating hierarchies of activities or items. It reveals the categories villagers use for ranking. Often women and men have different categories.

Why do matrix ranking?

Participatory matrix ranking is used to check or probe for information. During the ranking exercise the researchers begin to understand the villagers' alternatives and options. They may wish to probe further and ask what their preferences would be if they had more choices (e.g. varieties of tree seedlings available). Tree species, fuels, crop varieties, and so forth, can be ranked.

What is needed for matrix ranking?

With the villagers, choose materials to be used (e.g. paper or ground, seeds, stones, sticks, etc.). Next, decide what is to be ranked and list the items (e.g. tree species, agroforestry crops, community forestry plots, etc.). Then, for each item ask what is good about it and what is bad about it. Repeat the question to get more characteristics. List the ranking criteria in the chart. Ask the women and men to rank each item (1=best, 2=second best etc.). Other questions to be asked are: "Which criteria are most important?" "If you could only have one, which would you choose?" "How many of each do you have?" "How many would you like to have?" Researchers should be wary of using their own criteria unless it is clearly different from the villagers.

Examples of matrix ranking

Matrix A was produced by old women in the Gambia. (Groups of old men, young men, and young women each produced a matrix indicating uses and benefits of several crops. The criteria for ranking, e.g. food, income, low labour requirement, palatability, and so on, were selected by the old women.)

Matrix B shows ranking of different types of horticulture trees by villagers in Uttar Pradesh, according to weather resistance, market value, disease resistance, and use as fodder. The matrix shows the difference in the number of existing trees and the number desired. Additional information would be needed to answer these questions: "Did the villagers' preferences differ from the proposals of the Forest Department?" "Did the preferences differ by gender?"

MATRIX A

Matrix scoring by old women of crops grown, The Gambia

	maize	sorghum	rice (variety 1)	finger	rice (variety 2)	groundnuts	cayenne	beans	Psorghum	Wmillet	sesame (benne)
Criteria											
Food	1 2	3 4	5 6	7	8 9	10 11	12	13	14 15	16 17	18
Income (cash)	1 2	3 4	5 6	7	8 9	10 11	12	13	14 15	16 17	18 19
Low labour required	1 2	3 4	5	6 7	8	9	10 11	12 13	14	15	16 17
Palatability	1 2	3 4	5 6	7 8	9 10	11 12	13 14	15 16	17	18 19	20
Easy cooking process	1 2	3 4	5 6	7	8 9	10 11	12 13	14	15 16	17 18	19
Harvesting categories	1 2	3 4	5 6	7 8	9 10	11 12	13	14	15 16	17 18	19

Source: From Input to Impact: PRA for Action Aid, The Gambia, AA/IIED, 1992.

MATRIX B


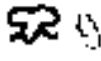


































Matrix ranking and choice of horticultural trees at Nagargaon, near Nainital, Uttar Pradesh, India.

	APPLE	KHUMARI	PEACH	PEAR	PLUM	LEMON	BALSA
WEATHER RESISTANCE	7	3	6	2	4	1	5
MARKET VALUE	1	2	3	5	4	7	6
DISEASE RESISTANCE	6	3	7	2	5	1	4
USE AS FODDER	-	3	-	1	2	-	-
NO. OF TREES AT PRESENT	50	15	50	50	20	30	5
NO. OF TREES DESIRED	0	40	0	65	45	70	6
NO. OF TREES DESIRED	-	2	-	3	4	1	5

Analyst: Shyaur Lal Arya
Facilitators: Alok Kumar, Sukhbir S. Saudhu, May 1990
Source: Robert Chambers, Methods for Analysis by Farmers: The Professional Challenge, 1992

MATRIX C

Livelihood matrix ranking constructed by women of Godavellagudda village, Karnataka, India. (Women chose the criteria and quantified using pebbles and seeds. PRA team from MYRADA, Bangalore.)

	Cobbler	Tamarind	Leaf plate	Custard apple	Brick making	Firewood
						
Time consumption						
Profits						
Labour						
Loan						
Hard work						

Source: James Macarenhas, RRA Notes No 13, IIED, 1991.

Matrix C shows livelihood ranking produced by women in Godavellagudda village. Besides profits, the women evaluated income-producing opportunities for time consumption, labour requirements, and availability of loans. To compare the priorities and constraints of women and men, men could also be asked to rank their income-producing opportunities to see whether men’s criteria differ from those of women.

6. WEALTH RANKING

What is wealth ranking?

Wealth ranking is a tool to determine *relative* wealth of each community member, including gender-based differences in wealth. Relative wealth information is often easier to obtain because participants are less sensitive about revealing their wealth *in relation to other community members*, than they would be if they were asked to give absolute figures.

Why do wealth ranking?

Relative wealth ranking is used to analyse what proportion of the community members are rich and determine who they are, what proportion of the community members are poor and determine who they are. It aims to discover reasons for relative wealth or poverty rather than looking at exact earnings. Wealth ranking reveals the community’s *criteria* for “poor” and “rich”.

What is needed for wealth ranking?

For wealth ranking, researchers need a master list of houses. If a village map has been produced, it can be used (see #1 in the example which follows on page 34). Number as many cards as there are houses, then on each card write the name of a household (see #2). With villagers, select key informants, and ask each one in turn to sort the cards in stacks according to wealth categories (see #3). Through discussion with the villagers, determine their criteria for wealth and poverty, but do not discuss individual households (see #4).

To calculate scores, count the cards in each stack (see #5) and assign a percentage to each category according to how many categories the key informant has used. For example:

If there are three categories A=33, B=66, C=100, where A represents the richest, and C the poorest households.

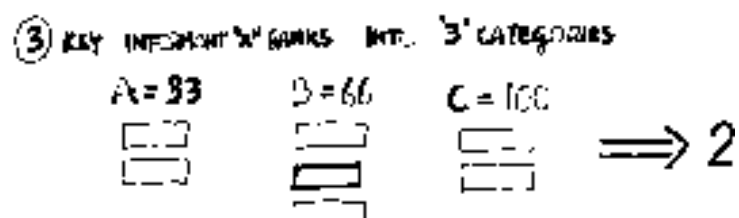
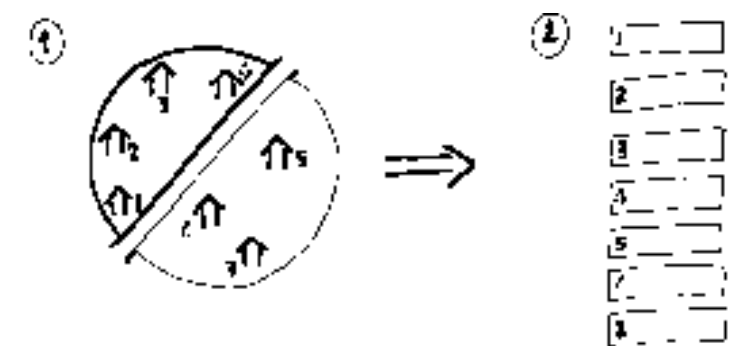
If there are four categories A=25, B=50, C=75 and D=100.

Add up all the scores, divide by the number of informants, and record the results (see #6). Finally, arrange the houses from richest to poorest. The richest will have low scores, the poorest will have high scores.

Examples of wealth ranking

Example A shows a simple method of wealth ranking. Using their village map, villagers from West Bengal devised a three-point system for indicating three separate

WEALTH RANKING WITH CARDS



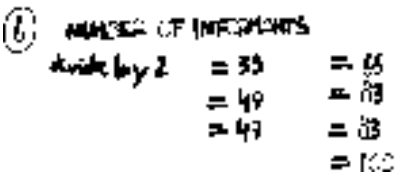
⑤ SCORING

HOUSE	KEY INFORMATION 'A'	KEY INFORMATION 'B'	KEY INFORMATION 'C'
1	33	33	66
2	33	66	99
3	66	33	132
4	66	66	132 99
5	66	100	166
6	100	66	166
7	100	100	200

Categories

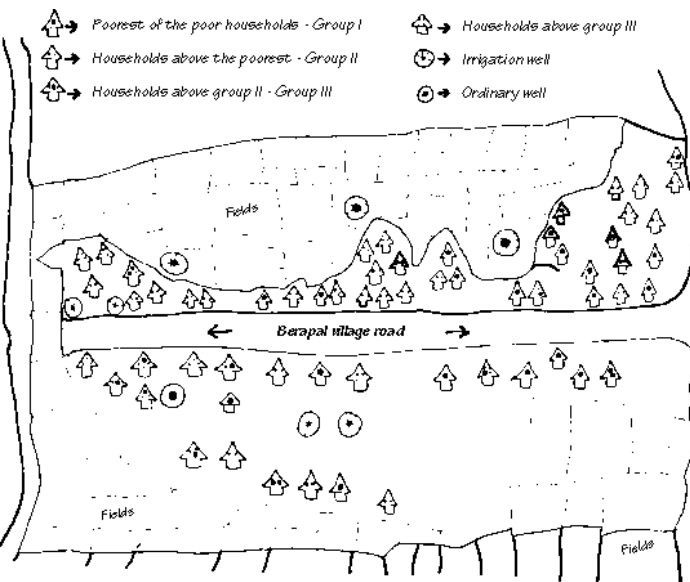
A	B	C		
25	50	75	100	
A	B	C	D	E
20	40	60	80	100

percentages



WEALTH RANKING: EXAMPLE A

Village mapping and wealth ranking, Village Berapal, District Midnapore, West Bengal, India.



Source: Neela Mukherjee, RRA Notes No 15, IIED, May 1992

WEALTH RANKING: EXAMPLE B

Summary of wealth ranking by old women, The Gambia

Grade	Criteria	Compound No.	Caste distribution	AATG input assistance
Richest	Electric facilities (generator), private car, 2 motorbikes, a herd of cattle, high labour force, enough farm implements, internal and external assistance, better housing facilities, a lot of livestock, influential.	32	Griote - 2 comp, B/lenithe - 1 comp, Cobler - 1 comp	
Richer	Hard of cattle, labour force, farm implements, good housing facilities, external assistance, popularity.	① 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 12, 20, 25, 27, 35, 55, 40	B/lenithe - 2 comp, Cobler - 3 comp, Slave - 1 comp	
Poorer	Average housing facilities, high dependency ratio, very few implements, low labour supply, hunger (food shortage).	⑦ 10, 15, 16, 18, 24, 26, 28, 30, 31, 36, 56, 40	Cobler - 1 comp, Griote - 1 comp, B/lenithe - 1 comp	
Even Poorer	Poor housing facilities, high dependency ratio, very few implements, low labour supply, hunger (food shortage).	⑧ 11, 13, 17, 19, 21, 23, 29, 33, 34, 44, 45, 46	Cobler - 1 comp, Griote - 1 comp, B/lenithe - 1 comp	
Poorest	Very poor housing, high dependency, low labour supply, no farm implements, large family size, no source of support.	⑨ 14, 16, 47	Slave - 1 comp, Cobler - 1 comp	
		Griote comp B/lenithe comp Cobler comp	Slave comp Cobler comp	Fertilizer Seeder Hoes

Source: From Input to Impact: PRA for Action Aid, The Gambia. AA/IIED, 1992.

WEALTH RANKING: EXAMPLE C

Summary of wealth ranking of 142 households in Mahilong village, Bihar. The informants separated the households into four classes, from which four examples are shown.

Group 1: "very well" four households

Name	Land	owned by family	Service	Drinking habit	Water supply	Police contact	Child education	Cell bill	Son in service	TV	Family size	Own plough & animal
Mehanto	✓ 12*	✓	dark	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	-	-
Mehanto	✓ 12	✓	school teacher	✗	✓	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓	-	-
Mehanto	✓ 12	✓	✗	✓ little	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-
Mehanto	✓ 12	✓	✓	by chance	✓	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓	-	-

* monthly family fed from own produce

Group 2: "well" 11 households

Mehanto	✓ 8*	✓	railway	✓	✗	✗	✓	✓	✗	✗		✓
Mehanto	✓ 8	✓	railway key man	✓ slight	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓	✗	-	✓
Lohora	✓ 6	✓	railway daily man	✓	✗	✗	✓	✓	✗	✗	-	✓
Mehanto	✓ 12	✓	uska watch	✗	✓	✗	✓	✓	✗	✓	-	✓

Group 3: "so so" 57 households

Mehanto	✓ 9	✓	railway daily man	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	big	10
Mehanto	✓ 3	✓	uska sweeper	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✗	✗	ave	✓
Lohora	✓ 3	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✓	✗	✓	✗	big	✓
Mehanto	✓	✓	✗	✓	✓	✗	male female	12	✗	✗	ave	12

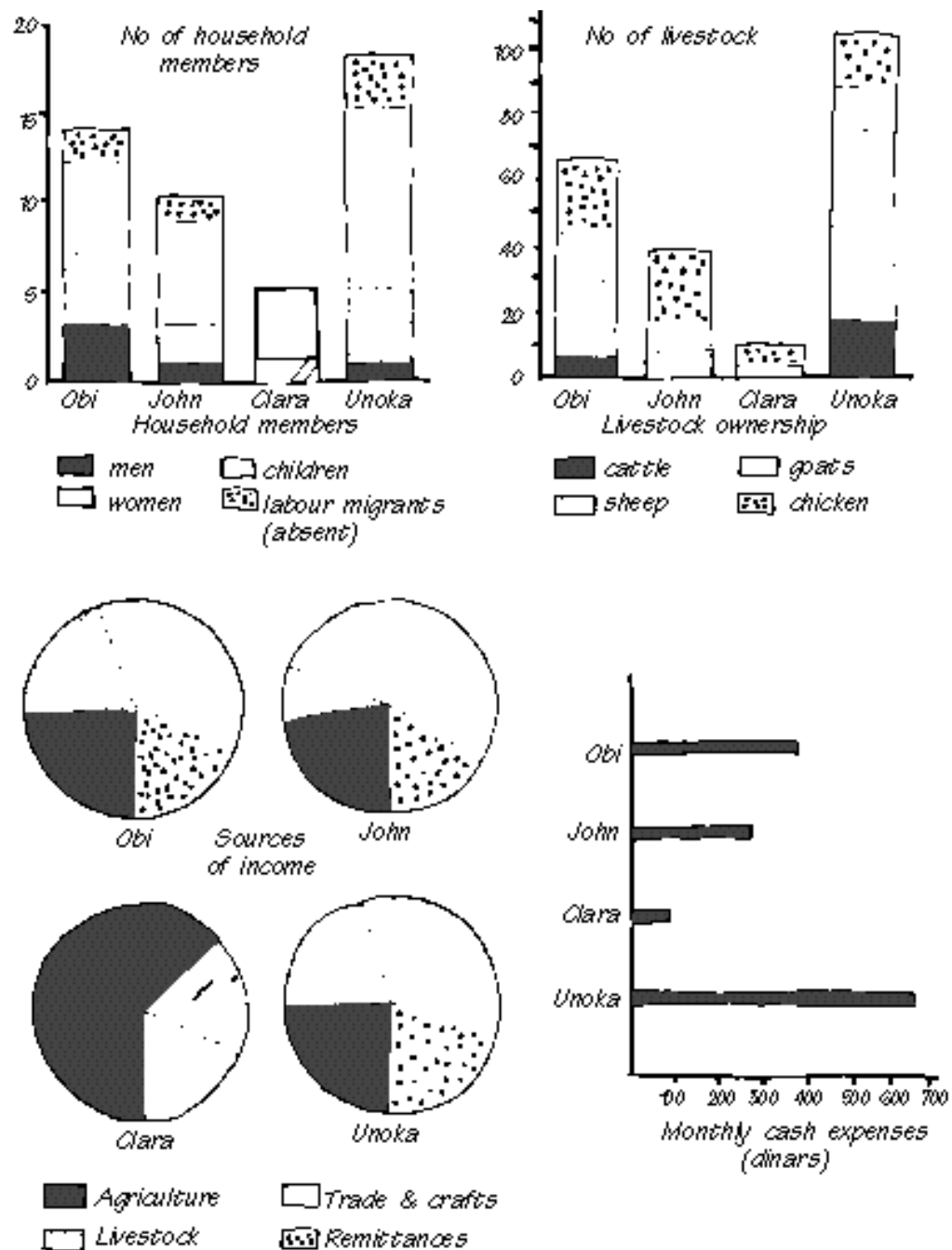
Group 4: "poor" 70 households

Mehanto	✓ 12	✓	✗	slight	✓	✗	M F	✓	✗	✗	✗	✓
Lohora	mortgage	✓	daily labour	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	big	✓
Mehanto	mortgage 1	✓	daily labour	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	big	14
Lohora	✓ 2	✗	village labour	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗	ave	✗

✗ yes ✓ no

WEALTH RANKING: EXAMPLE D

Example of a livelihood analysis diagram



groups of poor households. The poorest group (one dot marking their houses) had no land, little food, few workers and many dependents. The next group (two dots marking their houses) had little land (one or two acres/0.4-0.8 ha), and were just able to fulfil their consumption requirements. The third group (three dots marking their houses) had about four acres of land, some household members holding jobs outside the village, and were better off in household income, food availability and purchasing power. Coloured markers could be used to indicate female-headed households on the map.

Example B shows wealth ranking produced by old women in the Gambia. They developed criteria to distinguish five types of households, ranging from richest to poorest, noted caste distribution among these households and those who had received development assistance. Wealth rankings were also produced by young women, young men and old men. When comparing the wealth rankings of the old women and young women, with those of the old men and young men, it becomes apparent that men put most emphasis on livestock and farm implements as wealth indicators, whereas women put most emphasis on poor housing, large families, and food shortages as poverty indicators.

Example C is a summary of wealth ranking from 142 households in Mahilong village. Identified are four types—very well off, well off, average, and poor, using both assets and social conditions as criteria. Important assets included cycles, water wells, televisions, ploughs and animals. Important social conditions included drinking habits, child education and family size.

Example D is a livelihood analysis, a type of wealth ranking at the intra-household level. For each of two men and two women, household dependents, livestock assets, sources of income, and monthly expenses, are shown in bar charts and pie charts. The poorest of these households evidently is Clara's; she is a female head of household, with only a few chickens and goats, and is largely dependent on agriculture for income.

7. CHAPATTI DIAGRAMS

What are chapatti diagrams?

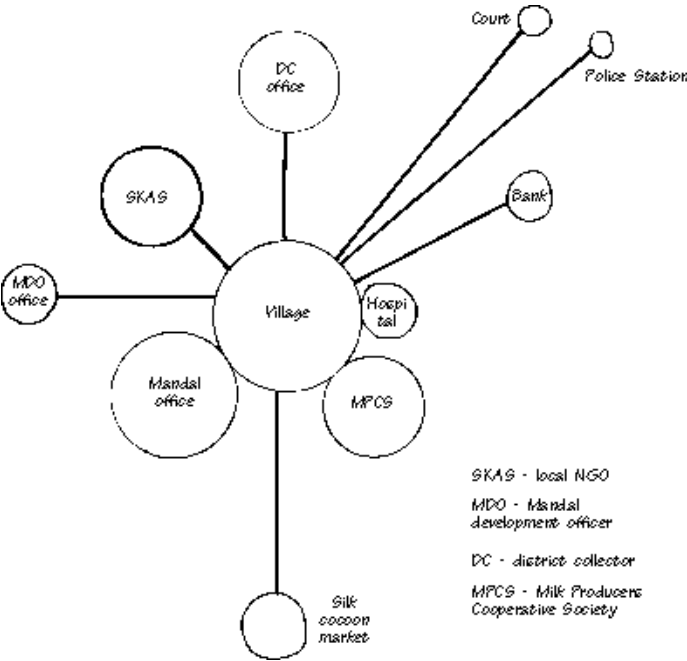
Chapatti diagrams (or Venn diagrams) are representations of social relationships in a community. The round shapes, which resemble chapattis, are used to indicate the relative importance of individuals and groups within a community.

Why do chapatti diagrams?

Chapatti diagrams are used to identify the main "actors" in the community, whether organizations or individuals, and to identify the links between these "actors" and community activities. Chapatti diagramming can reveal inconspicuous sources of influence. For example, religious leaders and traditional midwives may have special knowledge of forest resources but they do not usually have a role in planning forestry development as do more recognized sources of influence.

CHAPATTI DIAGRAM A

Chapatti Diagram of Kethagani Cheruvu village infrastructure



Source: Eva Robinson, Women's PRA. Hindupar, Andara Pradesh, India, Nov 1990.

What is needed for chapatti diagrams?

Prepare 20-30 round cutouts of cardboard or thick paper. Make them the size of a large dinner plate. The circles should be of equal size to start. With the key informants, identify the opinion leaders in the community. Write the names of these groups or individuals on the cardboard cutouts. Then ask participants "How are these organizations or individuals related to forestry development?" "Which ones work together?" "Which ones do not work together?"

Indicate relative influence on the community of "actors" by reducing the size of the chapatti as their influence decreases. Indicate relative strength of "actors'" links to the community by

decreasing distance between the chapattis as the links get stronger. Finally, when a consensus has been reached, discuss the diagram with other villagers to triangulate the information on the social relationships in the community. For example, “Do women and men see the same groups and individuals as important?” “Do young and old people see the same groups and individuals as important?”

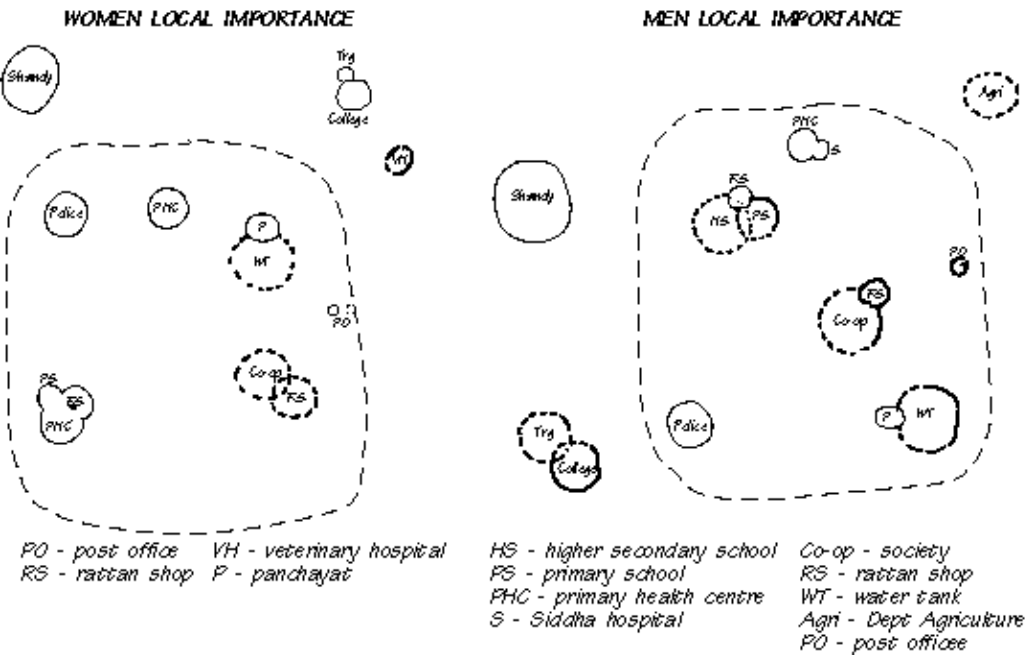
Examples of chapatti diagrams

Diagram A shows the use of chapattis to illustrate the infrastructure of a village in Andhra Pradesh. Apparently, the development officer and milk producers cooperative are among the most important contacts for the villagers.

Diagram B is based on chapatti diagrams produced separately by women and men in Tamil Nadu. There are a number of similarities between them, especially the importance of the cooperative and rattan shop, the water tank and the panchayat. Women give more importance to the primary health centre and hospital and men give more importance to schools.

CHAPATTI DIAGRAM B

Venn Diagram



From PRA Training, Tnau, Tamil Nadu, India (1991)

8. STRENGTHS, WEAKNESSES, OPPORTUNITIES AND LIMITATIONS (S.W.O.L.) ANALYSIS

What is S.W.O.L. analysis?

S.W.O.L. analysis is a tool to document villagers' evaluation of an activity, including its Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Limitations.

Why do S.W.O.L. analysis?

S.W.O.L. is a tool used to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of activities, and identify possible solutions and constraints. S.W.O.L. can also be used to identify gender-based differences in activity preferences.

What is needed for S.W.O.L. analysis?

With the participants, choose the materials (e.g. large sheet of paper, chalkboard, markers, chalk, etc.). Then, draw four vertical columns, one each for “strengths”, “weaknesses”, “opportunities” and “limitations”. With the participants, identify the activities to evaluate and indicate these in the left hand column (e.g. training, vegetable plots, bee keeping, etc.). Avoid listing more than three or four items so that there is enough time to discuss each item thoroughly.

Next, with the participants, fill in each column. In the “strengths” column list all the good aspects (e.g. more training available, training takes place close to home). In the “weaknesses” column, list all the negative aspects (e.g. training fees are too high, only men are invited to participate). In the “opportunities” column, list possible solutions to get rid of, or diminish, the negative aspects (e.g. making invitations explicitly welcoming to women). In the “limitations” column, list possible constraints (e.g. lack of funds).

Finally, discuss the evaluation with other villagers. “Did both women and men participate in the evaluation?” “Did their evaluations differ?”

CHART SWOL

Village Khajret Uperli-Gangauri

ITEM TO BE EVALUATED	STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES	OPPORTUNITIES	LIMITATIONS
WATER POINT LOCATION	CLOSE TO VILLAGE	FLOODS EASILY	IMPROVE DRAINAGE	LACK OF FUNDS

Chart A shows a simple example of how S.W.O.L. can be used. The advantage of S.W.O.L. is its recognition that every issue has positive and negative aspects. S.W.O.L. is most effective when used to further discussion of key issues arising from other tools. For example, it can be used to explore opportunities for reversing environmental degradation revealed during a trend diagram, or to explore limitations of focusing on the preferred crops identified during matrix rankings. It is a tool for looking into the future.

Triangulation is an important aspect of RRA. Triangulation is the process of checking the accuracy of information by using at least three different methodologies, e.g. document reviews, seasonal mapping, trend diagramming.

5 Documenting the case study

For use in gender analysis training, the case study must present factual information, disaggregated by gender, on the roles, resources and constraints of community members in the case study area.

It is often assumed that case studies should be written. In fact, case studies can also be presented visually by using slide sets and videos, and by using maps, diagrams, tables, and photographs. Many of the RRA tools will provide most of the information in a visual form. Combining visual and written presentations adds interest and fun to a case study. On their own, visual presentations are useful if participants have low literacy levels.

To be effective for gender analysis and forestry training both written and visual case studies should:

Balance gender and forestry information

A gender analysis training case study is a bifocal look at a forestry programme and its context. The case study must balance information between forestry and gender issues, and relate these to each other, and to other sectors, such as agriculture, livestock, nutrition, subsistence cultivation and so forth. *The information must be disaggregated by gender and sufficient to analyse the differential impacts on women and men.*

Balance general and specific information

A good training case study contains sufficient detail on the specific context of the case study, such as detailed gender-disaggregated information on forestry and agricultural tasks. This should be balanced by information which reveals links to more general issues, such as sustainable forestry development.

Provoke questions

A good case study does not provide answers, but provokes discussion and demonstrates the need to understand, "Who is doing this?" "Who benefits?" "Who should be included?" The case study should challenge the trainees to question the basis of decisions they make related to forestry development.

Be realistic

A good case study simulates a situation the trainees recognize from their own experience. When the case study information is credible to the trainees they can see that gender analysis is an effective tool for forestry development.

Provide complete information

A good case study provides all the information necessary for completing the four Steps or Profiles of the gender analysis and forestry Framework. The information is accurate; there are no factual inconsistencies and the case study does not contain assumptions or opinions.

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