PACA

Peace Corps

Using Participatory Analysis for Community Action

Idea Book

Information Collection and Exchange

Share your experience!

Add your experience to the ICE Resource Center. Send your materials to us so we can share them with other development workers. Your technical insights serve as the basis for the generation of ICE materials, reprints, and training materials. They also ensure that ICE is providing the most up-to-date innovative problem-solving techniques and information available to you and your fellow development workers.

PACA:

Using
Participatory Analysis
for
Community Action

Peace Corps

2005

Reprinted April 2010

Acknowledgements

Numerous field and headquarters staff worked to complete this publication, ***PACA: Using Participatory Analysis for Community Development Idea Book***. While it contains original content and updated examples, it is also based on field tested resources, including the ***PACA: Participatory Analysis for Community Development Training Manual*** [ICE Number M0053] and the series of booklets that comprise the ***Gender and Development Training and Girls' Education Manual*** [ICE Number M0054]. The Peace Corps appreciates the contributions of articles, ideas and photographs by Volunteers, counterparts and staff throughout the world; and the efforts of all those who participated in this process.

Contents

Introduction

This idea book addresses key concepts in two earlier Peace Corps' publications, ***Participatory Analysis for Community Action (PACA) Manual*** [ICE No. M0053], and the ***Gender and Development Training Manual*** [ICE No. M0054]. These previous resources were large training manuals that introduced PACA to staff and Volunteers in the context of the Peace Corps' approach to development. Since PACA now has been used in the agency for many years, this idea book was designed to give a focused history and description of PACA, while sharing excellent examples from the field that illustrate how Volunteers and their communities, host country organizations and Peace Corps projects have used these tools successfully. It is also intended to supplement exercises in the core pre-service training manual ***Roles of the Volunteer in Development*** [ICE No. T0005]; or reinforce foundational skills during or prior to in-service training—complementing ***The New Project Design and Management (PDM) Training Manual*** [ICE No. T0107].
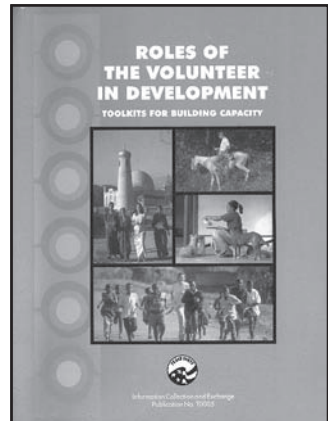
Although ***PACA: Using Participatory Analysis for Community Action*** was written for Peace Corps Volunteers, their counterparts, and staff, the gender-sensitive participatory approach can be used by any group or organization. In fact, though Peace Corps Volunteers are sometimes referred to as the primary "development workers," the impact of their work can have a wider impact if other community leaders, office mana-gers, youth groups, administrators, educators, or NGOs also understand how to use a capacity-building framework to strengthen groups with whom Volunteers live and work.

Summary of Contents

Chapter one sets the context with a description of the Peace Corps' capacity-building approach to development, the role of participatory activities in that approach, and information on how to better understand the impact of gender roles and relations in community development.

Chapter two describes the four primary participatory tools used in PACA along with a variety of examples that illustrate how they have been used.

Chapter three answers the question: "What do you do after the analysis?" Conducting a PACA activity, or several of them, is not the end product. Though helping diverse people come together to identify their common goals can be both challenging and fulfilling, using the tools with the community initiates and facilitates a process of planning and acting to achieve those goals. This chapter also shares examples from the field using single tools or several tools (triangulation) to identify and execute "next steps."
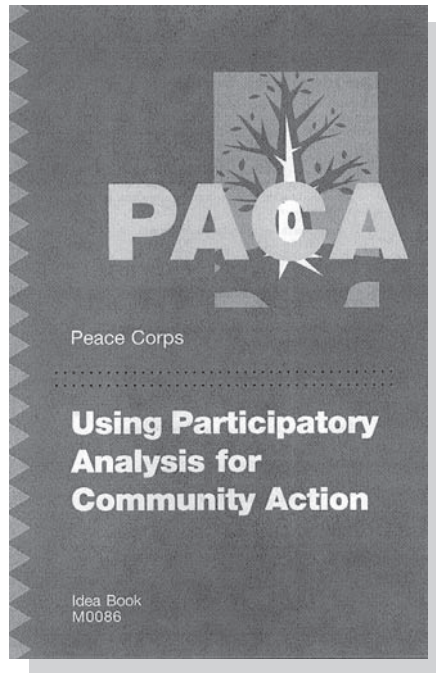
Chapter four identifies the specific skills needed to conduct participatory activities, provides guidelines for practicing in actual communities, and addresses some of the challenges for Volunteers.

Chapter five describes in detail how to conduct the four most commonly used tools: **community mapping**, **daily activity schedules**, **seasonal calendars**, and **needs assessment/priority ranking**. Descriptions include examples of how questions and debriefing might be varied depending upon the group and the purpose for using the tool. Reinforcing the content in chapter three, a description of priority ranking shows how to transition from analysis to action.

Finally, **chapter six** describes additional activities and resources for participatory analysis, and discusses key factors to help ensure you use any tool in a gender-sensitive way. The Appendices include two detailed examples of how the use of PACA-type tools has led to significant follow-up projects determined by the community.

The participatory activities Volunteers and their host counterparts conduct or co-facilitate in PACA are often referred to as "**tools**" because they are used like tools for specific purposes, such as:

• To help different groups share information and perspectives among themselves;

• To enable a community to identify their own resources and needs;

• To provide a way of prioritizing several needs or desires; or

• To ensure an activity is planned at an appropriate time for the intended participants.

Chapter 1
The Peace Corps' Approach to Development

The Peace Corps describes development in human, people-to-people, terms—helping people develop the capacity to improve their own lives. By working within a human capacity-building framework, the focus of Volunteers' work is on strengthening the capacity of men, women, girls and boys to actively participate in their own development.

Because development activities often address specific needs, at first glance they may seem to focus on expanding small businesses, establishing tree nurseries, initiating child immunizations, or improving agricultural production, among many other possibilities. Yet, a capacity-building approach focuses on empowering local people to be their own decision-makers and develop the skills to carry out those decisions and improve their lives. The following is a description of the Peace Corps' capacity-building framework.

The idea book, **Small Project Assistance: Supporting Sustainable Community Development [ICE No. M0082] goes through the process of planning, managing and evaluating a local community development activity once priorities have been identified.**

Capacity-Building Framework

To be an effective approach to development, capacity building needs to happen at a number of levels.

Individual members of the community, project participants: These could be the students in a classroom, farmers in a cooperative, or clients served by a nongovernmental organization (NGO). Building capacity at these levels is usually a major focus of Volunteers.

Professionals, service providers: These could include teachers in the school, leaders of the NGO, or managers of the farmers' cooperative. While each Volunteer has an identified community partner who may or may not be a service provider, there are others at the same level of leadership as Volunteers who provide services to the individual members of the community. Strengthening capacities at this level helps ensure local leadership for continuing activities into the future. Capacity-building activities might include workshops, modeling improved methods, trainings, mentoring, or support in a community activity.

Organizations: These could include the school, an NGO, or the farmers' cooperative where the Volunteer is placed. Strengthening organizational capacities, such as management skills within an NGO, developing materials with teachers for use in a school, or helping health workers develop a record-keeping system for a clinic, all help root other activities in an ongoing, functioning, and supportive environment.

Communities: These could include the village or neighborhood in which the Volunteer lives, or the area served by the project in which the Volunteer is working, or any school, NGO, clinic or other organization with which the Volunteer works. Reaching out into communities and building capacities with activities such as creating a community health committee, a parent-teacher association, or helping students to organize an Earth Day clean-up campaign, helps broaden the base of participation and ensure continuity.

What is Sustainable Development?

Development is said to be sustainable when it is able to continue on its own without outside support. For the Peace Corps, sustainable development is a process in which men and women learn to build on their own strengths, to take charge of their lives, and to address their expressed needs. Many different issues need to be considered in working for sustainability from national sector-based projects to individual Volunteer and community activities. To discover which issues may be at play, ask yourself the question: Is the effort...

- **Culturally sustainable?** Is the basic approach or concept culturally sustainable? Does it fit within and build on local beliefs and traditions, or will it be seen as not acceptable when Volunteers leave?

- **Politically sustainable?** When there is no longer a foreign development worker in the project, will it be sustainable within the sociopolitical context?

- **Economically sustainable?** Will there be sufficient local resources, or the capacity to generate them when supportive outsiders, such as Volunteers, leave?

- **Managerially sustainable?** Will there be the local management capacity to carry on the work when the Volunteers leave?

- **Environmentally sustainable?** As the project grows, will the environment be able to sustain the use of resources?

Sustainability is like a tree with spreading branches and deepening roots. The branches represent the growing outreach of the development activities. Each root represents one aspect of sustainability. No one root can hold up or sustain the tree. The wider the reach of the branches, the deeper the roots need to be.

Are we building capacity and helping to create sustainability?

Read the following three situations carefully. The first part of each situation will pose a realistic scenario similar to those you may encounter while working with your community in the field. Think about each situation and consider what you might have done differently. The second part of each situation illustrates how the application of participatory analysis for community action (PACA) tools can lead to more informed decision-making and more successful projects. Once you have an understanding of why PACA tools can be so powerful, it's easier to learn how to apply them in your own work. You will learn more about the PACA tools—community mapping, daily activity schedules, seasonal calendars, and needs assessment/priority ranking—in the chapters that follow.

1 **SITUATION ONE**

In a region of the Philippines where families are rice farmers on small land holdings, development workers looked for ways to increase family income. All family members had their own roles in rice production, harvest, and post-harvest. Additional income-earning schemes included the making and selling of straw baskets by women and children. Still, there was not sufficient family income to permit all children to attend school and to provide adequate health care.

To increase family income, the intervention decided upon was to increase rice production through an improved high-yield strain, as it appeared to be the least disruptive to the rice culture already in existence and would not require more land. A new "modern rice" (see Figure 1) was introduced and, over several years, it was accepted. By the end of five years, production had more than doubled. However, family income went down.

A new breed of "super rice" developed by agricultural researchers produces a high yield with less fertilizer than varieties currently being grown. Here is a comparison:

TALL CONVENTIONAL RICE
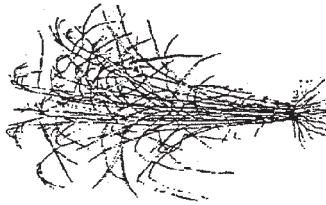
- Period in use: Before 1968
- Height: 43 – 70 inches
- Leaves: Thin, long
- Growth duration: 140 – 180 days
- Grain yield potential:
  0.6 – 1.4 tons/acre

MODERN RICE

- Period in use: 1970s and 80s
- Height: 35 – 43 inches
- Leaves: Thin, short
- Growth duration: 110 – 140 days
- Grain yield potential:
  2.4 – 4 tons/acre

SUPER RICE

- Period in use: Introduction expected
  in 21st century
- Height: 35 – 43 inches
- Leaves: Thick, short
- Growth duration: 100 – 130 days
- Grain yield potential:
  5.3 tons/acre

Figure 1. A new "modern rice" was introduced....

What went wrong? Use your creative thinking skills to generate a list of possible impacts on individuals, households, and the community of the introduction and successful production of modern rice.

Consider: What family funds are used for health and education? What demands on time and financial resources might have changed?

Applying PACA in Situation One

On closer examination of the rice-producing families and their new rice, it was discovered that the new rice had short stalks and so left less rice straw after harvesting. Harvesting took more time because there was more rice. The new rice also required more fertilizer than the old rice did.

If the development workers had used techniques such as a seasonal calendar with both men and women, they may have discovered that women did most of the harvesting, and they would have seen how long the harvesting took. By looking at when income came in, what its source was, and how it was used, they may have discovered that income from the rice harvest went back into the seeds and fertilizer for production. The changing tasks of women, shown both through a seasonal calendar and by developing daily activity schedules, may have shown that women made mats and baskets from the rice straw. Income from those activities was what increased the families' expendable income—the income used for health and education.

The additional income from the rice did not compensate for the loss of income from the women's mat- and basket-making from rice straw. They had less straw to use, but also less time because harvesting and post-harvesting processing now took more of their time.

By using PACA tools with the community in project planning and design, these factors may have emerged. If these important factors had been considered, a different type of rice that better met the needs of all community members could have been chosen.

2 SITUATION TWO

In this situation, education Volunteers were asked to plan activities for the summer months when school was not in session. They decided that the summer would be a good time to hold workshops for teachers, assuming that the teachers, mostly women, would have more time during the summer.

Would teachers attend their workshops? Why or why not?

Applying PACA in Situation Two

In this situation, the Volunteers and their counterpart teachers attended an in-service workshop together. At that workshop, the teachers created seasonal calendars. From their tasks outlined for the summer months, which included gardening and preserving food for the winter, it was clear that the summer months did not provide time for teachers to attend educational workshops. Their identified need during the vacation months was child care; the children were not in school and needed supervision. Together, the Volunteers and teachers decided that the Volunteers could be most helpful by providing summer camps for the children. Methodology workshops would be more feasible for teachers during the school year when children were in school.
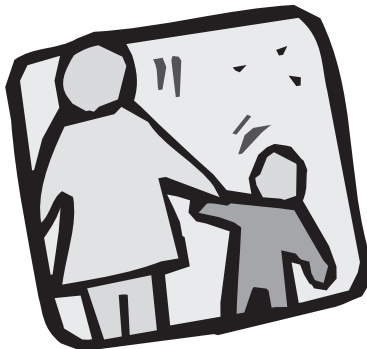
3 **SITUATION THREE**

Red Cross workers in Mozambique were aware that participatory rural appraisal (PRA) was increasingly viewed as a method enabling NGOs and their clients to plan programs jointly to reduce community vulnerability. The community of Tete, Mozambique, was in the process of reestablishing itself after several years in refugee camps in neighboring countries. As part of the rehabilitation process, a number of outside organizations had developed programs to help the community begin functioning again in its home country. However, many of the programs were carried out without a complete analysis of the area's risk profile (especially the fact that it is drought-prone).

Was this well-intended program as effective as it might have been in reducing the vulnerability of the community? Why or why not?

Applying PACA in Situation Three

The Red Cross applied several PRA tools in the community (which are also used in PACA) to assist in thinking strategically during a time of both upheaval and opportunity. Together, the community and Red Cross used seasonal calendars, community mapping, and a needs matrix. The key findings generated by the PRA methods allowed the Red Cross and the community to begin planning a program to build on the existing capacity of the community and address its vulnerabilities in order to reduce the impact of recurrent drought. In this example, PRA provided a wealth of information directly relevant to the risks affecting returnee community, and the capacities that could be strengthened to reduce these. This type of information is **critical if outside agencies** are to work with communities to develop programs to help themselves.

In these examples, the use of participatory activities with the project participants facilitated a deeper understanding of household roles and responsibilities. The participants could analyze the potential effects of development ideas for themselves. Such efforts help develop the capacity for self-analysis and decision-making, and support sustainable development.

The Role of Participatory Activities in Development

Planning for people-centered development requires meaningful information about who the people are and how they interact. Groups of people are rarely homogeneous. "People" at the most general level include women and men, young and old, and individuals of different ethnic groups, castes/classes, abilities, appearance and religious affiliation.

The Household as a System

Structure
An organization with rights, roles, responsibilities (the "3Rs")

Resources
• land
• labor
• capital
• knowledge
• time

Needs
• consumption
• income
• health
• education
• etc.
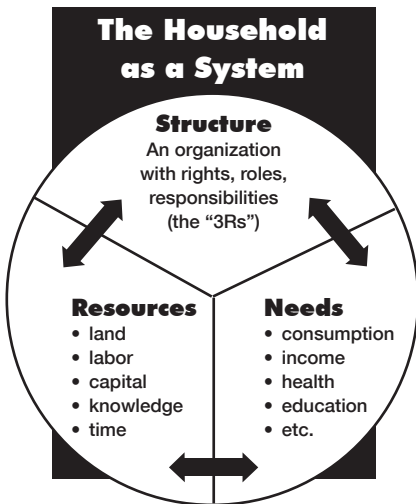
Everywhere, and within every socioeconomic group, the ways households function are strongly influenced by culture, with different roles, rights, and responsibilities for men and women, girls and boys. Extended families may include additional people of both sexes and various ages.

Households may have different combinations of resources, including time, land, income, knowledge; and different levels of need, including food, shelter, education, healthcare. Often, those resources are allocated by sex and age (as well as ethnicity, class/caste, religion, etc.), as are the responsibilities in providing for needs.

Discovering this type of information about households can be invasive unless it is done carefully. That is why participatory activities have been used for many years to help development workers and others better understand these issues. In fact, PACA provides Volunteers and counterparts with an inclusive approach that uses specific tools to help **engage a wide variety of individuals and groups to share with each other** in development activities.

Asset-based or Strength-based Approaches to Development

The strength-based approach emphasizes the positive attributes of the community and what has worked well in the past. It provides motivation and helps people learn how to repeat successes. Thus, information gathering begins by acknowledging what is working at the present time, what resources are already available in the community and what assets are present for creating change. The idea is that participants, in answering these questions, stir up memories and stories of energizing moments of success and develop a positive, practical approach to change.

From page 7, Programming and Training Booklet 2: How to Design or Revise a Project [ICE No. M0067].

Experts in a variety of fields have, in the last 10 to 20 years, been exploring **asset-based (strength-based)** ways of doing individual and community development. This approach emphasizes examining strengths and identifying what **works.** It has been demonstrated in the lab and field that people often live up to the expectations of the outsider coming in to assist them. If an outsider looks for positive aspects, this expectation will be met; if this person looks for negatives, so too will this expectation be met. One group of theorists in this "strength-based school" stresses that the act of asking questions influences the group and the outcomes. Therefore, according to this theory, if the goal is to improve a situation and leave it stronger, one should always start positively. The program manager of the youth project in Tonga

(Continued from page 17)

noticed a dramatic increase in receptiveness to the Peace Corps by the local people when staff and Volunteers entered a community and started by asking what all the "good stuff" was.

From page 38, Chapter 2 of Working with Youth: Approaches for Volunteers [ICE No. M0067].

Section 2 of the Community Content-Based Instruction (CCBI) Manual (ICE No. T0112) is entirely dedicated to PACA and asset-based approaches to development in general and education specifically.

See also pages 39-51 of An NGO Training Guide for Peace Corps Volunteers (ICE No. M0070); Booklet 1: The Volunteer as Learner in The Roles of the Volunteer in Development (ICE No. T0005); and page 16 of The New Program Design and Management (PDM) Manual (ICE No. T0107).

What Is PACA and How Did It Evolve?

Early systems, such as participatory rural appraisal (PRA) and rapid rural appraisal (RRA) used tools such as community mapping and daily activity schedules with representative individuals in the community. Then, a team consisting of various experts, such as economists, anthropologists, sociologists, and development specialists would analyze the data from the various participatory tools and develop strategies to help the community improve its situation.

The Peace Corps' participatory analysis for community action (PACA) was developed from these earlier approaches. However, PACA focused on two aspects that were not originally a part of the other methodologies. One was to **conduct activities with separate groups** making up any community.[1] These groups might be men and women, boys and girls,

---

[1]   Many development organizations use variations of PRA and RRA, and some now conduct activities with separate groups as the Peace Corps does with PACA. A key difference for some is a focus on identifying community assets and strengths to build on as PACA does, rather than providing outside funding to complete prioritized projects.

people of different ethnic groups, teachers and supervisors, or rural and urban students, and so on.

Once the different groups complete an activity, such as a map or daily schedules, they present their products to each other, and **together they do the analysis**.[2] In this way, the analysis portion of the exercises stays with the community, giving members the opportunity to see what is important to each member and enabling the community to draw its own conclusions. The activities not only reveal important information for development workers and community members, but they also show community members ways to explore and analyze their own situation—often communicating across traditional barriers (for example, a group of young unmarried women's priorities for the future being heard by older generations). Capacity-building at the local level is also enhanced for future activities when the community identifies its own resources and the strengths to draw upon in meeting its goals.

Still, PACA is not only about analysis and it definitely is not about obtaining information so development workers can create their own ideas for projects. Rather it is about building a partnership between development workers (Peace Corps Volunteers) and community members, and among community members themselves. In the process of developing information together, analyzing its implications for the community, and planning for action, community members and the Peace Corps Volunteers collaborate to ensure that the voices of women and men, girls and boys, old and young, are included in deciding how they will commit their most precious resources: their time, their energy, and their common future.

---

[2]   The Peace Corps has a unique presence in host communities that facilitates long-term shared planning and analysis with local groups.

Why is the Gender Connection So Important?

Experience and research show that paying attention to and understanding gender roles makes development projects more sustainable. Using the types of analytical tools that are a part of PACA, gender roles in rural and urban households and communities are brought to light and are factors in shared decision-making.

What are Gender Roles?

Gender roles are defined as the roles of individuals based on their sex as well as other social factors such as age, ethnicity, and class. Since gender roles are socially determined, they differ be-tween and among cultures and change over time. For example:

> Gender Roles are:
>
> • Socially Constructed
>
> • Learned
>
> • Dynamic (they change over time)
>
> • Multi-faceted (they differ within and between cultures)
>
> Sex is:
>
> • Biologically Determined
>
> • Universal
>
> • Unchanging

1. In Honduras, agriculture is considered men's work; while in the Congo, it is considered women's work.

2. In the highlands of Thai-land, the Hmong men and women have separate and distinct roles: women handle household chores, and men are in charge of land and trade. In the uplands of the same country, Karen men and women do agricultural work together and share household chores.

By understanding gender roles and taking them into account in project planning and design, Volunteers can work more effectively with community members to ensure that all members' needs are represented and considered. This can be done through gender analysis.

What is Gender Analysis?

Gender analysis examines the roles of women and men in any given society or community to provide a complete picture of the factors that affect:

- Time

- Division of labor

- Access to resources and information

- Power relations

- Gender needs

These factors influence who participates in, and who benefits from, any development planning or activity. Identifying and understanding these factors during the early stages can help to ensure an activity's success. The chart below illustrates a range of power individuals or groups might have in development projects. PACA, as used by Peace Corps Volunteers at the local level, seeks to have community members actively planning and implementing activities they identify as needs, which generally falls within the range of medium to high power. If Volunteers arrive in their communities with activities already in mind, or develop activities on their own by observing needs—even if those activities are valuable and community members benefit—local people did not have a role in planning and prioritizing what would happen. That puts them in a low-to-medium power situation.

Power Continuum

Low Power	Medium Power	High Power
Access to services; benefit directly	Individual access to decision-making processes that were designed by others	Ability to initiate action and to create decision-making processes that influence social, economic and political systems
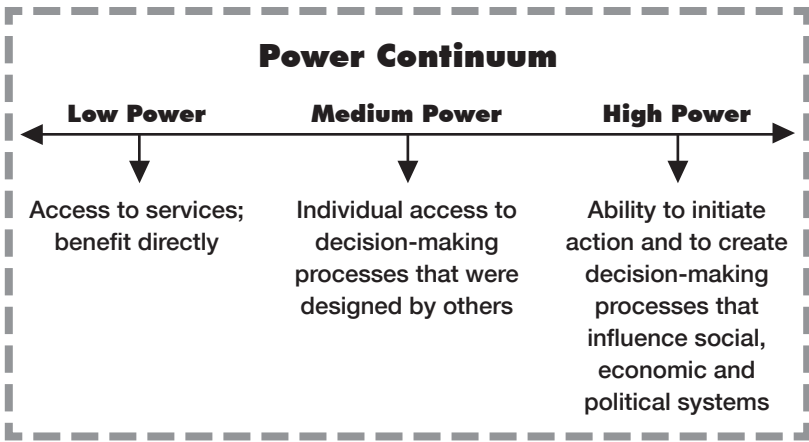
Power continuum graphic reprinted with permission from Parker A. R., I. Lozano, L. Messner. *Gender Relations Analysis: A Guide for Trainers*. Westport, CT: Save the Children, 1995.

The following is a gender analysis framework developed by Save the Children, which is a useful tool in large project or small activity planning, design, and implementation. While the word "framework" may sound technical, it is simply an attempt to illustrate the interrelated issues that both influence what gender roles are, and determine what people need to fulfill those roles. As you will note in the graphic, different key components reinforce each other in this process, and PACA tools can be used to both gather this information and better understand what it means.

1. **Gender roles** are what a society determines as appropriate behavior, action, dress, etc., based on one's sex, age, class, and other criteria. That is, *what are the roles and responsibilities of men, women, girls, and boys?*

2. Gender roles determine **division of labor**. That is, *who does what?*

3. Gender roles and division of labor determine who has **access** to what. That is, *who has access to resources, facilities, opportunities, organizations, information, and benefits*?

4. In turn, gender roles, division of labor and access determine **power relations**. Who has *power over, power with, power to, power within*? Who makes decisions over what? Who is able to change his or her own life for the better?

5. Taking into account the first four components results in different **gender needs** of men and women, girls and boys. Addressing *practical gender needs* makes one's gender role easier (for example, providing water sources closer to the home eases the workload of women and girls when they are responsible for water collection). Addressing *strategic gender needs* can alter gender roles (such as, education for girls postpones their marriage age and the age at which they have their first child).

The diagram below illustrates how these components reinforce each other.
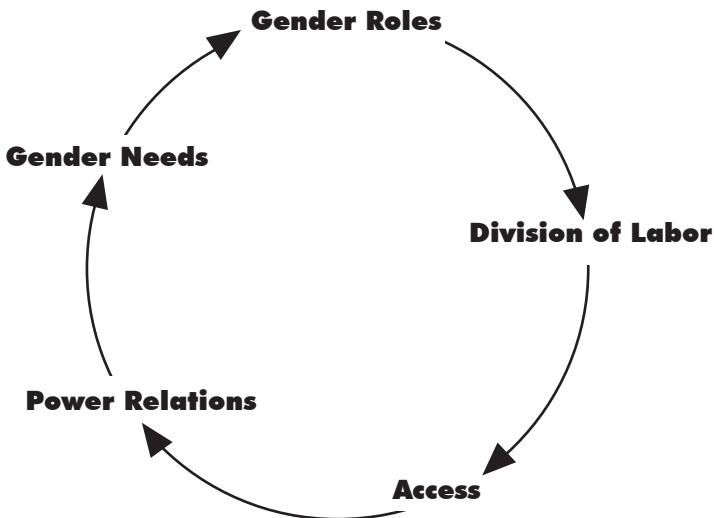

Reprinted with permission from Parker A. R., I. Lozano, L. Messner. *Gender Relations Analysis: A Guide for Trainers.* Westport, CT: Save the Children, 1995.

Identifying and understanding these components help Volunteers understand the gender-related issues that impact their projects and activities.

How to Use PACA for Gender Analysis[3]

The tools described in this handbook are useful in a wide variety of settings and in every technical sector—including disaster risk assessment. These tools enable Volunteers and communities to learn about how gender roles impact household and community development, and how individual development activities affect men and women, girls and boys, old and young, and other subgroups differently. By recognizing and identifying these differences, you will increase the potential for successful project planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation.

For example, if you want to encourage more people to use the community health clinic, should the established gender roles in the community have an impact on your plans to reach the people?

■ Is it important to learn what services will meet different needs for men, women, girls and boys?

■ If a breast or prostate cancer education campaign is planned, are posters, billboards and brochures that describe the issues effective if 90 percent of women cannot read because they take care of the home and did not attend school? Or, what if the majority of men in that culture finds public display of such sensitive health-related materials offensive, and they traditionally make all decisions related to their families' healthcare?

---

[3] See also pages 51-56 in the *New Project Design and Management* (PDM) Manual [ICE No. T0107] for a description and example of a gender analysis matrix, charting how a large project or small activity might affect different groups based on key elements, such as each group's labor, time, resources and culture in relation to the issue under discussion.

■ Do men and women of some ethnic groups travel extensively and others do not? Do they have different health risks, or engage in traditional practices that affect their health?

■ How are services provided? For example, can both men and women be treated by male doctors? Does the clinic only accept money as payment? Who is responsible for family finances?

The core PACA exercises also provide a structure for participants to express, analyze, and understand the needs and priorities of different community groups and members. This enhances community members' communication and analytic skills, which increases their capacity to be active participants in their own development. It also helps ensure that a development project that benefits several groups within the community does not negatively affect others.

The following are examples of how the four basic PACA tools can provide the information needed for gender analysis.

COMMUNITY MAPPING

The community map can provide information on gender roles, division of labor, access and gender needs. This is a very good way to identify:

▶ what different groups think are local assets and resources—livestock, grain storage, carts or cars, machinery, banks, homes, woodlots, grass for weaving, foundries, etc.

▶ where people go in the community—if different groups spend most of the day in specific places, they may draw those and leave off lesser traveled areas of the community.

(Continued from page 25)

▶ what different groups or people do in the community—buildings, fields, roads, churches, water sources, etc.,—will often be represented differently on maps created by different groups in within the same community depending on who uses those resources or works in those areas of the community in need of attention. For example, lack of a local school on a teenage girls' map may reveal that girls are not educated past a certain age in that community, and therefore the school is not a prominent feature in their lives.

DAILY ACTIVITY SCHEDULES

This tool provides information on gender roles, gender division of labor, access and power relations, such as:

▶ out-of-school demands on girls' and boys' time, given their different schedules and responsibilities.

▶ women's and men's time. If women's household chores prevent them from attending planning meetings held at specific times or locations, they will not have input into decision-making processes. If men are working in their fields during the day, they probably won't attend a training on repairing the communal water pump if it is in the mid-morning.

▶ how older and younger men and women from different ethnic groups may have different responsibilities for livestock, crafts, childcare, field work, sales, or other tasks

(Continued from page 26)

that mean different access to resources at specific times or places.

▶ how changing one group's daily routine can affect another group's responsibilities—including if women collect long grass, but men weave it for fencing or rope; or if men catch the fish but women clean and process them; or if young men herd cattle, but older women make cheese and butter from their milk, what does it mean to the family or community to improve or decrease the efficiency of any one group's work?

SEASONAL CALENDARS

These can be used to identify gender roles, division of labor and access. Yearly patterns of work, resource availability and weather indicate when community members and groups have time available to participate in training or other activities. This is especially true in rural communities.

NEEDS ASSESSMENT AND PRIORITY RANKING

Needs assessment and priority ranking can provide information on power relations and gender needs. In this context, this is both the process of determining the desires, wants, and needs of different groups, and coming together to look at those needs collectively and assess (or rank) their level of priority in the greater community.

When PACA tools are used together, they provide the data necessary to conduct gender analysis, raising awareness in the community of gender considerations in any decisions. This results in more sustainable and effective outcomes that meet the needs of all community members.

Summary

The Peace Corps' approach to development involves working directly with local individuals, service providers, organizations and communities to help them build the capacity to improve their own lives. By working within a human capacity-building framework, the skills, knowledge and understanding of available strengths and resources stay within the community, making current and future development more sustainable.

In Lesotho

Gender analysis and use of PACA tools (e.g., asset mapping, community mapping, and gender and development issues) are covered in pre-service training to enhance Volunteer activities. Better facilitation of community approaches with Volunteers and deeper involvement with their communities were identified as results of this PACA training during pre-service training.

Gender roles are socially constructed, culture-based rights, responsibilities, expectations and resources within families and communities that may vary greatly by age, sex, income level, ethnicity, religion and many other factors. These roles result in differing levels of power and access to many opportunities, facilities, education and benefits for people within a community. Participatory processes, such as PRA and RRA were developed over time to provide less intrusive tools for gathering, sharing and taking that information into account in planning, conducting and evaluating projects. The Peace Corps developed PACA based on these earlier methods to promote working with all groups in the community, to ensure that sharing and analysis

of information was done with and among these groups, and to utilize positive approaches to identify local resources and strengths to support development efforts.

The Peace Corps' Criteria for Strong Projects

(sector-based projects to which Volunteers are assigned)

Of the Peace Corps' 10 criteria for strong projects (**Programming and Training Booklet One: The Basics,** ICE No. T0113), PACA directly addresses the first five and influences most others:

1. Increases local capacity.

2. Strives to address expressed needs of those who have limited access to resources and opportunities.

3. Seeks sustainable results that complement other development efforts.

4. Has local participants as partners in developing, implementing, and assessing the project.

5. Considers gender relationships and promotes women's participation to increase their status and opportunities.

6. Places Volunteers at the local level where needs occur.

7. Does not displace qualified and available local workers with Volunteers.

8. Uses the types and numbers of Volunteers that are consistent with available applicants.

9. Has local Peace Corps staff and resources to train and support Volunteers to complete their assignments successfully.

10. Has host agencies and communities as partners that support the project and the Volunteers.

The four primary PACA tools are community mapping, daily activity schedules, seasonal calendar and needs analysis/priority ranking. These tools may be used together or individually based on the situation, which will be described in more depth in the following chapter.
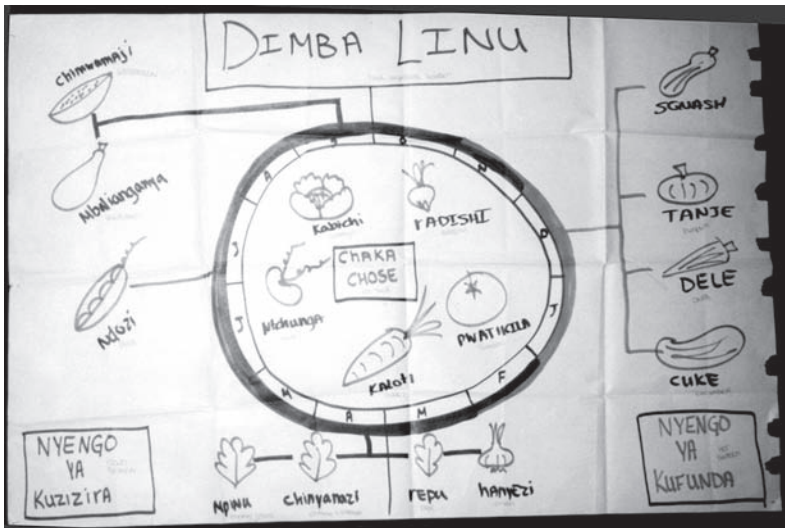
Chapter 2
What are the
Core PACA Tools?

PACA uses four basic tools drawn from other participatory approaches. This does not imply that these are the only tools that can be used to focus attention on subgroups such as sex, age, ethnicity, and with the analysis done by the community members themselves. Once Volunteers are familiar with the process of using tools in this manner, they can select and use other tools in similar ways (see chapter six).

In Thailand

Many Volunteers have used community mapping with local partners to survey the town or village in which they live, and to establish relationships with local leaders and others. These contacts also bring local wisdom, history and culture into the classroom.

Note: Pages 12-20 of Community Content-Based Instruction Manual (ICE No. T0112) address the intersection of PACA and CCBI. A sample PACA training session begins on page 75 of the same book and further connects PACA and CCBI for education Volunteers.

Community Mapping

Community mapping is an effective way to locate different spheres of activity over the landscape. It can be used in various settings to locate current resources, activity centers, institutions, and other areas frequented by the groups developing the map. It can be used in small geographical communities, neighborhoods of larger cities, workplaces, training centers, classrooms, and organizations. It helps to identify differences in perception, needs, access to resources and power centers,

and so on. The setting and the subgroups (men, women, boys, girls, managers, etc.) involved will necessitate variations in the instruction, the visualization, and the debriefing.

Once the maps are drawn, additional instructions can be given to enhance the information. For example, community members may be asked to indicate places they frequent daily, weekly, less often; places they like to be and those they dislike; what they would like to have that is not there (more land, school, clinic, store, transportation, repaired roads, and so on). Organizational maps might include locations of services, centers of decision-making and power, and so on.

After subgroups have completed their maps, they are displayed and each group explains its map. Multiple maps provide a more complete picture of the "community," as each perspective adds to the whole. The discussion of the maps can lead to identification of issues to be addressed, potential projects to undertake, or simply a baseline for measuring the impact of future activities.

The following are examples of community mapping used in various settings…

Rural Communities

■ In a community in **Paraguay**, men's concern about having property to pass on to their children was reflected in the oblong pieces of farming land they drew, with the number of subdivisions for their children. Women drew in detail the area around their homes, other structures in their town, and the main road out of town, which, among other places, lead to the nearest secondary school. The discussion revealed only boys were allowed to travel to the secondary school, so girls' education stopped after primary school.

■ In a town in **Suriname** destroyed by civil war, community members drew a current map with the intention of comparing it to a map of the former town to decide what to replace and the location of future structures.

Cities

■ In a town in Guyana, men, women, and girls formed subgroups to map their community. There were only five men, but they represented several different ethnic groups. Their mapping experience, in the words of one man, "was the most important thing he had ever done." They learned the names of streets in the part of town where other ethnic groups lived, drew in buildings and other representations they previously had not known about, and revealed their own patterns of use of, and attitudes towards, institutions in their town. The picture of the town became more complete with the sharing of the maps of the women and girls.

In the Dominican Republic

As a result of using PACA, Volunteers have enhanced knowledge and skills in: community diagnostics; project planning; feasibility studies; community mapping; and strength, weakness, opportunities, threats (SWOT) analysis. They also have increased their understanding of the importance of assessment before beginning to work or engage in a development project.

■ Boys' and girls' maps in the Kyrgyz Republic revealed their different perceptions of the areas within their homes-to-school radius. The boys drew a very structured map, while the girls visualized their lives in more varied ways. Their differences opened channels for communicating their interests, concerns, and needs.

Work Sites

■ When employees in Ecuador mapped their training center, the maps showed different areas of activities and very different perceptions between the men and women about their frequency in, and even

rights to be in, certain locations, such as centers of power and recreation areas.

■ In a training exercise with disaster prevention and recovery experts and workers at a hotel complex in suburban Lima, Peru, both groups were asked to construct a "vulnerability map" in order to increase preparedness for an earthquake or landslide. The idea of such a map was to start with geographic and physical landmarks and then identify both potential hazards (e.g., non-earthquake resistant structures) and the capacities or assets that would be available in the event of a disaster (e.g., water supply, generators, batteries, etc.). The hotel workers (including managers, catering staff, housekeeping and grounds staff) completed a complex map that had great detail about the service areas of the hotel, including underground storage areas, but failed to show even a single guest room. The disaster experts' map, on the other hand, showed intricate detail about the guest rooms and social areas of the hotel. The striking contrast between the maps stimulated an interesting discussion about the need to understand all risks and capacities to best prepare for natural disasters.

Schools

■ People in South Africa used community mapping to understand local schools' and communities' strengths and the challenges they faced. A diverse group of community members came together, many for the first time, to participate in the mapping activity. School staff and community members, particularly those from the school governing bodies, began to articulate the mission and vision statements for the schools, define their shared respon-sibilities, and develop work plans. Community development committees were created, with members of the schools and the communities represented.

■ In Kazakhstan, community maps were used as appraisal tools to provide snapshots of the students' and communities' daily concerns.

Maps also provided the starting point for a dialogue with students about their perceptions of and aspirations for their communities. The purpose of using the maps was to explore the types of information that emerge in a community mapping activity and to provide examples of questions that are helpful in processing a community map. As a result of the mapping exercise, it was discovered that the students were concerned about their relationships and many were suffering from self-esteem issues.

Organizations (Businesses)

■ As a result of a community mapping exercise in **Slovakia**, a local nongovernmental organization was asked to participate in a pilot project managed by the Slovak Ministry of the Environment. The purpose of the pilot project was to increase public participation in land-use planning since few citizens actually participated in public hearings and consequently did not participate in local town and land-use planning. This pilot project represented a partnership between a local organization and the Agency for the Environment who will manage the project for the Ministry.

■ In **South Africa**, many communities where Peace Corps Volunteers live formed committees and used mapping as part of the training. Both new and existing committees improved management skills, increased membership, and forged new links with community and national resources (such as with government ministries, local community-based organizations, nonprofits, businesses, other committees, and donors). In all instances, committees gained insights into their ability to identify and resolve community problems as an alternative to waiting for outside assistance.

■ In **Paraguay**, teachers use community analysis and mapping in parents' meetings and classrooms. Students enjoy having a greater voice through participatory rural appraisal (PRA). Originally, teachers tried to direct the participatory activities towards the results that they wanted to see. Now, they have realized the value of hearing

what the participants want to say and listening to the solutions that are proposed.

Sample Community Map

Seasonal Calendars

Seasonal calendars trace seasonal variations in labor activities, income flow, and expenditure patterns, among other things. They can also include: weather patterns; crops and animal production; animal and plant diseases; cyclical resource availability; human health patterns; and social obligations and events. Many households experience periods of economic or other stresses, and these variations may have differential impacts on people based on sex, age, and other characteristics.

Community members are divided into subgroups, as appropriate, and each group develops its own seasonal calendar. The facilitator suggests what to include depending on the purpose of the groups' exercise. All subgroups post and describe their calendars to create a better understanding of the year from everyone's perspective.

The following are examples of seasonal calendars used in various settings…

■ At a workshop in **Washington, D.C.**, graduate students were asked to construct a seasonal calendar measuring sleep deprivation during different times of the academic calendar. They created a calendar that revealed the least sleep occurred during mid-terms, finals, and shortly before graduation. Then, participants compared their calendars with disaster event calendars prepared by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Agency (NOAA) which predict snowstorms, ice storms, tornadoes, and severe thunderstorms. Participants were then able to identify which disasters were most likely to affect them at precisely the time they are least prepared to respond. They subsequently made recommendations to their university's administration about how the disaster preparedness office on campus might respond. (Similar calendars could be developed in communities vulnerable to natural disasters.)
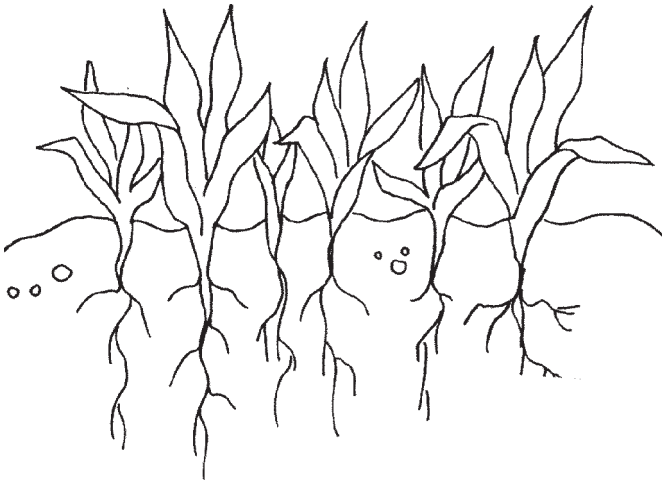
■ In a community workshop in **Namibia**, a women's credit group completed a seasonal calendar in order to address food security and the potential for the natural disaster of drought. The calendar began with the month of the short rains, because that is the beginning of the agricultural cycle. Participants recorded usual weather patterns, crops and animal production, and patterns of labor migration on their calendars. After completing the analysis, the women realized that two months of the year were particularly stressful for most families due to low rainfall, low crop production, and high levels of male migration to South Africa for mining jobs. They decided that these months would be the most appropriate to receive food aid or new micro-credit loans and the worst time to expect women to pay back loans.

■ The **Turkmenistan** women's teaching calendar (see calendar on page 39) revealed their multiple tasks—in school and out—throughout the season. It provided the education Volunteers and teachers a forum for discussing the best times for in-service training and possible summer projects for the Volunteers.
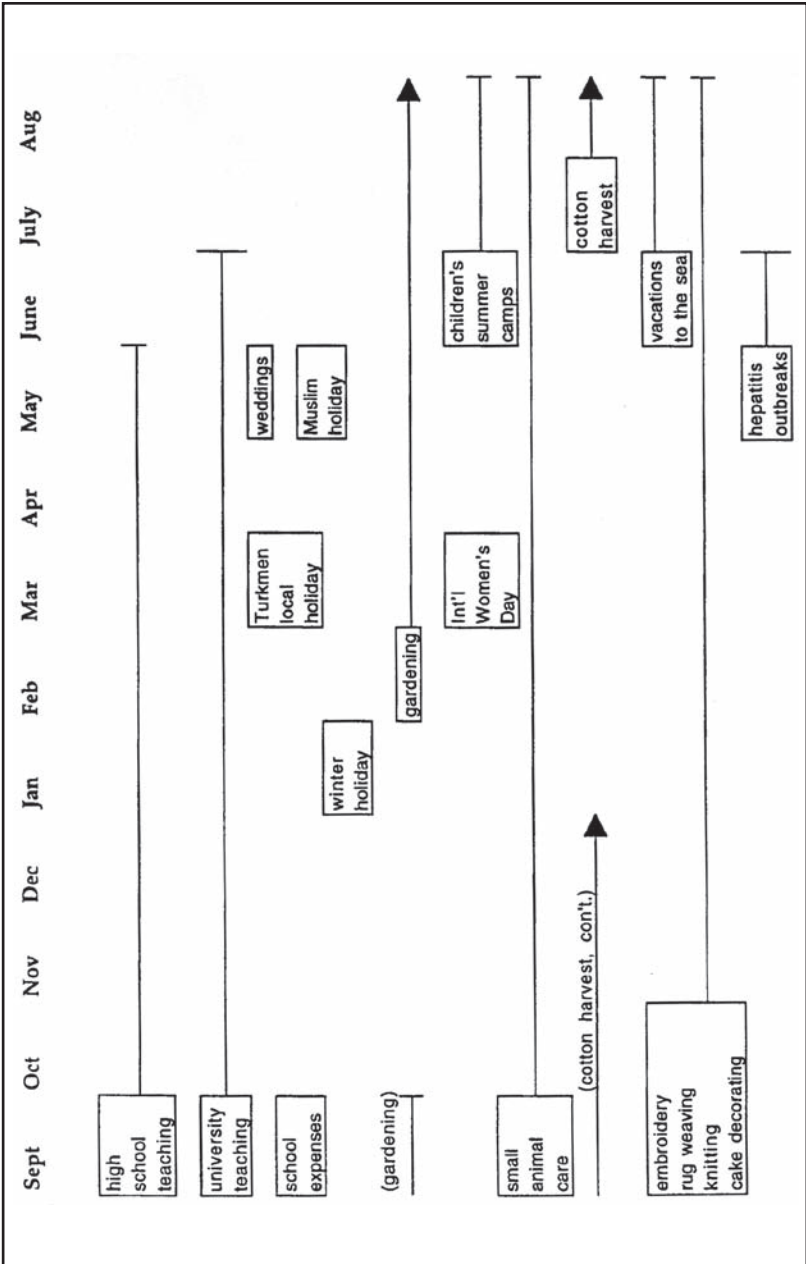
Figure 2. Seasonal Calendar – Turkmenistan

Daily Activity Schedules

The construction of daily activity schedules provides information on exactly what individuals and groups do throughout each day—which often shows differences by age, gender, occupation, and so on. Most households have weekly and seasonal variations in tasks, and schedules for different times of year may be needed to get a comprehensive picture. This information may be important when determining who needs training for a particular project, when in the day (or season) meetings and training events can take place, what type of labor-saving interventions might be possible, and how changes might impact different families and family members.

Community members work in subgroups, as appropriate. The subgroups develop typical daily schedules for different periods: teachers and students during the school year and vacation; agricultural families during different portions of the planting, growing, and harvesting seasons; businesses during different times of the year. If participants are working in sex-disaggregated groups, they might try and create the daily schedule of the other group. Subgroups share their work with each other.

The following are examples of daily activity schedules used in various settings…

■ A community in **Uganda** used daily activity schedules to identify, analyze and address sexual practices that put people at risk of HIV infection. The daily activities revealed that men have a fair amount of leisure time in which they can and do engage in risky behaviors and that women have a disproportionate burden of work. This led to a groundbreaking discussion between the men and women about workloads and sexual conduct that affected their families' health and welfare.

■ Upper elementary school boys and girls in **Guyana** created daily activity schedules for a school day and a weekend day. A comparison of their schedules showed the large amount of household chores girls had compared to boys. A discussion about a more equitable sharing of household responsibilities led boys to identify several tasks that they could easily do.

■ Employees of an organization in an **urban area** divided into groups of men and women to complete daily schedules of a work day. Their discussion and sample schedules showed very different focus areas. The men's schedule showed more detail of work tasks, and the women's schedule revealed the use of time before work, during lunch periods, and throughout evenings for family tasks like shopping, washing clothes, cooking meals and other activities.

LaCosta Day: Woman			LaCosta Day: Man		
AM	4:00	Get up	AM	5:00	Get up and dress
		Sweep kitchen and rooms			Collect tools/fishing
		Start fire			equipment
		Wash and dress		5:30	Eat breakfast
	4:30	Collect water for day		6:00	Check nets, prepare/repair
		Put water on for coffee			boats
	5:00	Prepare breakfast and lunch			Check/mend sails
	5:30	Serve breakfast			Take lunch
		Start drying fish			Go fishing
	6:00	Get children up	PM	3:00	Return from fishing
		Wash, dress, and feed children			Sell excess fish
		(Children collect eggs)			Clean-up boats, nets
Noon	12:00	Return home			Put away equipment
		Have lunch and nap		5:00	Shower and dress
PM	2:00	Collect firewood			Meet with other men
	3:00	Meet fishing boats		6:00	Return home for dinner
		Carry fish home			Clean-up dinner
	4:00	Start preparing dinner			Listen to or watch news
		Clean fish		9:30	Go to bed
		Salt or start drying fish			
	6:00	Serve dinner			
		Clean-up dinner			
		Do handwork, mend clothes,			
		while listening to news			
	9:00	Shower			
	9:30	Go to bed			

Figure 3. Sample Daily Activity Schedule

Needs Assessment

Completing a needs assessment, or an analysis of their situation, helps community members identify their desires, needs, or problems and

> Looking for common needs, or prioritizing all lists, can help to inspire action on items of importance for everyone.

rank them in order of priority. A list of issues may be developed from a discussion or from analyzing the results of using other tools, such as community mapping or seasonal calendars. Prioritized lists created by different subgroups are important, as these lists will reflect each group's own tasks and perspectives. The lists are then presented to the whole group. As a large group, community members reach a consensus on the whole group's collective priorities.

Discussion of items on the list leads to better understanding of the stresses on men, women, youth, and other subgroups within the community. Looking for common needs, or prioritizing all lists, can help to inspire action on items of importance for everyone.

The following are examples of needs assessments used in various settings…

■ In the aftermath of Hurricane Mitch in **Central America**, a variety of participatory needs assessments were completed by NGOs working in several countries. Using different participatory methods and working with a variety of subgroups from across the region, a range of social groups were identified that were particularly vulnerable to the disaster. Such groups included: the non-literate because they were unable to read early-warning announcements and instructions in temporary shelters; small agricultural producers because they were disproportionately located on eroded hillsides and most lost their "insurance" in the form of seeds and implements;

street children in urban centers since they were not accommodated in shelters; female-headed households, which are more likely to lose household assets and are slower to return to economic productivity; and indigenous peoples due to linguistic and cultural communication barriers. The completion of this needs assessment led to better targeting of disaster response and better development planning to address the root causes of social vulnerability to disaster.

■ Following war in **Mozambique**, many refugees returned to their villages to begin the process of rebuilding their communities. The members of one community used a "needs matrix" to prioritize the community's most urgent needs for food, water and medicine. Drought mitigation also was addressed, as this was a drought-stressed area.

In Belize

Emphasis on identifying and assessing a community's strengths instead of its weaknesses better enables Volunteers to establish positive linkages with their communities. This approach has improved attitudes and relationships that serve both the community and the Volunteer in developing and implementing sustainable projects that meet real needs identified by the community. A focus on participatory practices also allows for gender-sensitive community needs assessment and invites youth to voice their concerns and express unique ways to participate and take ownership in environmental programs.

■ In a community in **Ecuador**, groups of men and women working separately ranked perceived problem areas differently. When seen together, the lists seemed mutually exclusive. For example, women noted access to water as a problem, but men did not. A discussion revealed that women were responsible for taking the livestock to water and for hauling water back to their households. Men had no direct responsibilities for water in this community and therefore had not focused on water-related problems.

Imagine you are at a workshop and prioritizing your group's needs. The list could be depressing if many of the challenges seem out of your control—such as negative legislation or large infrastructure needs. In community projects, this is the time when groups can re-prioritize according to what they can do something about and feel empowered to improve their situation in practical yet important ways.
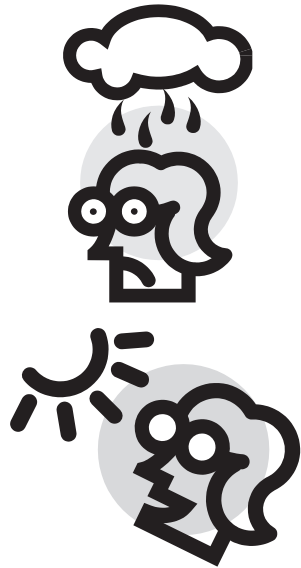
Hints for Urban Uses of PACA Tools

Don't try to map or "find out" everything. This is especially true in urban settings because there is just too much going on. What is important to the community in which you are working?

What is an urban community?

- A group or community within a large urban area

- Groups by definable area, unit or affinity: sub-neighborhood, students, teachers, market workers or shoppers, wholesalers, NGOs, peer educators, apartment tenants, municipal employees.

How could PACA tools be used with an urban community?

- Community maps
  - Mapping the assets and areas of importance in the neighborhood
  - Mapping important areas of overlapping use or priority for affinity groups
  - Mapping market services
  - Mapping the areas served by peer educators, youth outreach or NGO work

- Transect maps
  - This can be more targeted in Volunteer and counterpart "surveying."
  - Where are transportation centers, markets, entertainment centers, industry, etc.?
  - Especially when working with a school or youth group: where are the play areas in relation to school and home, eating places, sports supplies or space, learning opportunities or libraries, apprenticeship opportunities, and visible role models?

– Meander versus straight line to see if nearby areas have similarities or differences. Why?

– Allows for one-on-one discussion on the way, real interpretation by local residents or observation on the location of less desirable areas (municipal trash landfills, areas of high unemployment, nonfunctional municipal services, dangerous play areas for children, heavy traffic patterns) in relation to more positive elements (park land, functioning municipal services such as trash removal, safe shopping and play zones, obvious capital investment in homes and businesses).

● Seasonal Calendars

– School or day care patterns of cost, time and responsibilities over time

– Holidays, celebrations or tourist seasons

– Business cycles of planning, annual budgeting, objective and periodic benchmark planning

– Climate and major cyclical patterns of precipitation, storms or vegetation

– Labor demand curve by sex, age and other group

– Availability and price of food and other key household or group expenditures

– Elections or other important political or organizational events

– NGO, professional and organizational work, outreach, fundraising and other activities (Kiwanis, Rotary, men's and women's groups)

● Other tools

– Daily activity schedules for members of groups planning projects

– Network analysis between individuals and organizations (social, political, family, work, educational, etc.)

(Continued from page 46)

– Livelihood assessment (such as factors contributing to thriving or survival of a social group, work organization or neighborhood)

– Priority ranking (this is especially important when working with affinity groups since they have many different associations and relationships, of which the identified group is just one)

What are considerations and possibilities for using PACA in urban settings?

- PACA can be used in Volunteer activities, Volunteer support and project planning.

- Is the urban community very diverse? Do members of the group know each other well? Are extended families visible and involved?

- Your urban community may be distrustful of strangers asking questions; use trusted facilitators.

- Urban pace can be "fast" and rapidly changing so participants may have other commitments or interests. They may not have much time or willingness to collaborate for long periods of time.

- Women's roles are more diverse with possible employment opportunities and independence.

- You may need more time to gain trust before doing PACA activities.

- Rural-to-urban migrants: what were expectations when they came, what are they now, what are their hopes and aspirations for their children?

- There may be statistical information and maps available from government or other sources to supplement community information.

Chapter 3
What Happens
After Analysis

Once a map has been done, or one of the
other tools used, what comes next? These
tools can help communities come together,
share information, prioritize their needs,
and begin to see concrete possibilities for
improving their lives. Yet once the needs have
been expressed, how do they achieve their
goals? Where is the "**for community action"** part of participatory
analysis for community action (PACA)?

Next steps can vary. Sometimes the use of one tool will move the
community to action. Sometimes several tools are used to get a more
complete picture of the situation.

Development of Activities
or Larger Projects

Analysis may lead to simple actions that do not require elaborate
planning to implement. Others may not be so simple. If the action is
going to be a fairly complex community project, Volunteers will find
The New Project Design and Management Manual [ICE No. T0107]
an excellent source of step-by-step guidance on how to work through
the participatory design, management and evaluation process with
counterparts and community members. *The New Project Design and
Management Manual* is also available in Spanish [ICE No. T0127]
and French [ICE No. T0128] and can be downloaded from the Peace
Corps' online library (www.peacecorps.gov).

Moving from Analysis with One Tool to Action

Using the formulation: What? So What? Now What? the chart below shares examples of how using PACA tools has led to action in various communities. The next section describes complex projects that have used more than one PACA tool.

Relocation after natural disaster *Peru*	
What?	Victims of a massive flood drew a map to help with the disaster reconstruction process. Their community map depicted not only their homesteads (which had been destroyed by the flood) but also their traditional agricultural and pasture lands.
So What?	Outside disaster-recovery experts had intended to relocate the villagers and provide new lots and homes outside of the flood plain and near a small urban center.
Now What?	After seeing the map, and interviewing local people about their subsistence patterns, the experts realized that relocation to an urban area would cut villagers off from their fields and pasture lands. As a result, relocation plans were redesigned and a different location was selected.

Women's credit group *Namibia*	
What?	In a community workshop, a women's credit group completed a seasonal calendar to address food security and the potential for drought. The calendar began with the month of short rains, because that is the beginning of the agricultural cycle. Participants included usual weather patterns, crops and animal production, and patterns of labor migration on their calendars.

So What?	After completing the analysis, the women realized that two months of the year were particularly stressful for most families because of low rainfall, low crop production, and high levels of male migration to South Africa for mining jobs.
Now What?	They decided that for these months it would be the most appropriate to receive food aid or new micro-credit loans and the worst time to expect women to pay back loans.

Targeting groups for workshops
East Africa

What?	In East Africa, pastoralist men and women were asked to complete daily activity schedules as part of a participatory disaster-prevention process. Because livestock serve as their main source of income, the best form of disaster prevention in these areas is often the protection of livestock from famine, disease, and other hazards.
So What?	Development workers used the daily activity schedules of men and women to begin understanding the gender-based division of labor in the community. They found, for example, that women are generally responsible for small stock (goats, sheep) and sick, pregnant, or lactating animals of all sizes; while young men are generally responsible for herding and accompanying adult cattle and camels.
Now What?	Teams used this information to design appropriate training materials for a series of community workshops focused on animal health, vaccination, and animal midwifery.

Desire for skill-building and empowerment
Cote d'Ivoire

What?	A Peace Corps Volunteer collaborated with the women in her village to help them organize their ideas and resources to address concerns within their community. The women had the potential to help their community beyond the normal scope of their fundraising activities for community festivals, marriages and funerals. The fundamental elements previously lacking in the group were the knowledge and skills to organize themselves and a strong sense of empowerment.
So What?	By using PACA techniques, the women's group began to create a schedule of monthly meetings based on the lunar calendar and village market days. At each meeting, they could discuss the progress of their work and contribute 250 CFA (approximately 33 cents) into the group fund.
Now What?	Because of the rapid increase in their project activities, the group secured a grant from the World Bank, which allowed them to participate in a series of trainings on cooperative management, simplified accounting, and improved agricultural production. By May 2000, the group saved more than 500,000 CFA (approximately $670). With these resources, the women are building wells, which were their most immediate critical need as identified by using PACA tools. Some of the group's members have participated in community health worker training and now manage "pharmacy boxes," dispensing common medicines in the village. In September 2000, they received a donation from the U.S. Ambassador's self-help project to construct the housing for a new mill.

Prioritizing Health Problems
Burkina Faso

What?	Community health workers conducted a participatory needs assessment with their counterparts and community members to identify and prioritize health problems in the community.
So What?	Topics that emerged from the study included sexually transmitted infections (STIs)/AIDS, Guinea worm, oral re-hydration treatment (ORT), female circumcision, baby feeding, and immunizations, among others.
Now What?	The findings of the community needs assessments led to action plans for the head nurses, the management committees, and the Volunteers. In addition, the reports are being used by the health center for other interventions and future project evaluations.

Participatory Needs Assessment
Peru

What?	Volunteers facilitated a community needs assessment and helped a community make the choice to initiate a latrine-construction project. The community had no latrines or toilets at the time, but had a population of 80 families and approximately 400 persons.
So What?	The Volunteers played a crucial role in engaging the community and developing a common stewardship ethic among community members to address their shared development needs.
Now What?	After conducting the first participatory meeting in the community, the second meeting almost doubled the number of participants, and ended with the community

(Continued from page 52)

requesting a third meeting to advance their planning as soon as possible. Along with the latrine construction, members of the community learned proper waste disposal, personal hygiene practices, public sanitation, and public awareness of the importance of latrines.

Community Needs Assessment
Cape Verde

What?	Volunteers mobilized and trained a team of social workers to conduct a community needs assessment with a group of street youth.
So What?	The needs assessment exercise empowered the youth to articulate their own priorities and engage in positive planning to improve their lives.
Now What?	The analysis resulted in the development of various projects that addressed the youth's self-identified priorities and began to meet their most pressing needs.

Description of Triangulation

After one participatory tool has been used, it is often helpful to use one or more additional tools to complement the information gained by the first. This is called triangulation. For example, if a particular need is determined by the community, resource mapping may help identify what assets it has to start with or leverage, such as an area of land; institutions nearby; access to raw materials, labor, or other items. Daily activity schedules might reveal who has the time to do some of the tasks required, and when to schedule meetings to ensure wide participation in planning. A seasonal calendar might reveal time periods when the labor availability or good weather permits the completion of tasks, or when there might be the income needed to pay for required items.

In Togo

Farmers' cooperatives conducted workshops addressing integrated agriculture. Meetings included PACA activities, such as community mapping, seasonal calendars and priority ranking to help participants conceptualize their resources and needs, and realize the impact their everyday lives and agricultural practices have on their environment. At the end of these meetings, Volunteers had established relationships and set up visits to farmers who were interested in working on agroforestry, integrated agriculture and/or environmental management. More than 2,800 farmers participated in meetings, 32 percent of whom were women.
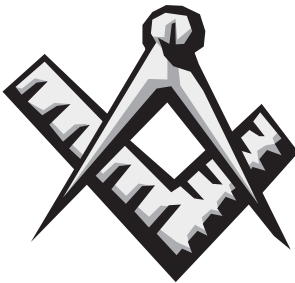
Moving from Analysis with Several Tools to Action

Using the formulation: What? So What? Now What? the chart below describes how different groups have used several PACA tools together, leading to action.

| An Unfinished Classroom | |
Paraguay	
What?	A participatory needs assessment revealed education to be a community concern. Further discussion noted that there was an unfinished second classroom of the local school.
So What?	A seasonal calendar exercise revealed when labor would be available to complete the classroom.
Now What?	Community members began collecting the materials so they would be on hand when the labor was available.

| Action Planning | |
Senegal	
What?	Volunteers and their host country counterparts used several PACA tools to facilitate a community-building workshop.
So What?	Local counterparts were taught PACA approaches and felt that they would be useful in community meetings. Village elders realized that all groups could join in meetings in culturally appropriate ways and provide important perspectives that would benefit the community.
Now What?	Participants developed a five-year action plan; and the role of the Volunteers was defined for everyone.

Dealing with Vulnerable Groups
IAP Region

What?	A post-disaster needs assessment revealed that some members of the community were more vulnerable to disasters and their impact than others in the community.
So What?	A combination of a mapping exercise and daily activity schedules with different community members (men, women, children, ethnic minorities) showed that poverty, gender, and ethnicity were the main variables that were linked to social vulnerability.
Now What?	The community decided to create balanced "disaster committees" to make sure that the most vulnerable people were protected during future natural disasters.

Needs Assessment
Mali

What?	Volunteers assisted villagers in conducting participatory needs analyses and creating appropriate action plans during a PACA in-service training in two communities.
So What?	One community developed a detailed five-year plan as a result of an in-depth needs assessment process.
Now What?	The needs assessment process reinforced the role of the sanitation committee in one community and started a sustainable development process to meet identified needs in the second community.

Example from Senegal: Using PACA Tools in a Community Workshop to Assess Local Needs and Create an Action Plan[4]

Volunteers and counterparts completed a PACA training to prepare for a village community development workshop. The workshop was held to identify the village's internal resources, external supports, and to create a consensus of community needs. The Volunteers and counterparts felt "the community-building workshop introduced, and induced, better organizational and assessment skills." The workshop also helped facilitate an open relationship between the community, the resident Volunteer, and other development agencies/programs.

Several different tools were used to assess the community's needs and to reach consensus on an action plan that the entire community would help construct and support.

Appreciative Inquiry

Appreciative inquiry is a tool that incorporates an asset-based approach by emphasizing a village's internal resources and abilities as positive attributes. Appreciative inquiry is utilized to encourage community members to create a list of their resources. The question: What is good about your village? is asked

What is good in the community?

first. Other questions follow such as: What makes your work easier? What good things has the village accomplished? What makes your life better? What are you proud of?

---

[4] Resource: Famara Massaly, associate Peace Corps director for agriculture in Senegal and Peace Corps Volunteers Elisabeth Wittenberg, Hugh Ewart, Sean Barrett, Jill Tucker, and Mike Cherone. Read the full report in Appendix I.

Having been asked these questions, the villagers in Senegal created a list of things they felt were of value to their community. The list included assets such as: corn, rice, peanuts, women's groups, gardening, veterinary work, good soil, mango trees, and a healthcare worker.

At times during the workshop, villagers were quick to place greater emphasis on the importance of outside resources, such as money and building materials, rather than examining their internal resources first. Facilitators referred to the list created during the appreciative inquiry phase to remind the group of their internal resources. Reflecting back on what is available to the community by outright ownership heightened the members' awareness of their innate value. (See Appendix I for the list of valued assets the villagers created.)

Community Mapping

The mapping exercise was the first exercise in which the men, young men, and women were separated into groups. The groups were set apart from each other to encourage open discussion within each group. Volunteers and counterparts facilitated each group. Three questions were asked when introducing the mapping tool:

How would everyone draw the community?

- How would you draw your village?

- How do you see your village?

- What is important to your daily activities?

When all the maps were compared, villagers noticed that certain village features (the ocean, school, main road, mosques, gardens, and salt mines) were included by each group, while others (the cemetery, millet-pounding areas, soccer fields) showed up on only one or two of the maps. This indicated that every group views the village differently depending on their routine. (See Appendix I for maps completed by each group.)

Daily Activity Schedules by Season

The purpose of this activity, like seasonal calendars, is to determine what time of day various groups of people are available to plan and work on projects at different times of the year. In addition, the daily activity schedules were used to promote awareness

What do people do at different times in the day?

of the differences in workload between men, women, and young men during two very different time periods: rainy season and dry season.

One important point that emerged from the daily schedule exercise was that while men were busy with fishing and farming all day during the peak activity season, women were busy with household tasks and income-generating activities throughout the day, year-round. All groups had more free time for meetings and village development activities during the middle part of the day. (See Appendix I for actual schedules.)

Consensus Building

The men, women, and young men developed their own lists of priorities for the village. When the three lists were examined together, it was noted that two items, the health hut and the millet machine, appeared on each list. These two "advanced" to the next step of the

> **What do all the groups agree is most important?**

process, while a pairwise ranking grid helped the villagers prioritize the rest of their needs and wants. (See Appendix I for pairwise ranking grid and actual prioritized topics.)

Designing the Action Plan

After completing this needs assessment with the villagers, the next step was establishing a plan of action. In order to do so, participants needed to understand and describe in detail exactly what each project would involve in terms of money, labor, materials, and so on.

> **How do we reach our goals?**

Also, it was necessary to assign specific tasks to individuals and appoint others to monitor the progress. Together, the villagers, Volunteers, and counterparts broke down the top five projects into the following categories: tasks, cost, village resources, external resources, who is responsible, and who will oversee. Checking these periodically to ensure they are being accomplished is part of project monitoring and management.[5]

---

[5] See pages 88-100 of *The New Project Design and Management Training Manual* [ICE No. T0107] for sample action plan and guidance; see 103-114 for step-by-step guidance on monitoring and evaluation in community projects.

Conclusion

Some of the projects, such as improving livestock security, are already underway. As for projects like soil improvement, the resources and knowledge are already in the village: several villagers have learned how to make compost and will train others

Now it's all coming together!

upon request. The facilitators and villagers wisely concentrated on the village's top priorities, emphasizing that the village will be able to address the others in the future when the first few projects are established and generating income.

The PACA methods used in identifying and planning these activities were useful to the community members in understanding that they had many resources other than money coming in from the outside sources. This also led to a certain amount of empowerment and bonding within the community. Although much information was collected and shared through the process, the most productive piece was the action plan formulated by the community. The fact that they have already implemented some of it is a testament that the "community action" in "participatory analysis for community action" is essential in the development process.

Please see Appendix II for a second example of community action related to HIV/AIDS.

Chapter 4
Preparing for PACA

Skills Needed to Implement PACA

Good skills in observation, interviewing, and facilitation are fundamental to learning about others and building relationships, and PACA approaches cannot be carried out without them. In new cultural settings, old skills need to be revisited, cultural assumptions challenged, and new culturally appropriate language and behaviors learned. This section gives some background about these needed skills. All suggestions need to be modified to fit each culture's practices and norms.

Filters

Because we are all individual beings with unique experiences, we do not all perceive information or receive messages the same way. You may see the exact same interaction or event very differently than your neighbor. Filters are biases, values, or beliefs that influence the way we think about ourselves; and how, when, and why we interact (or do not interact) with everyone and everything around us. They come from the concepts we learned in childhood and have acquired over the years through experience. Many of our filters are determined by our culture or subculture(s). Others are individual values or preferences.

Filtering is automatic and will go unnoticed unless you make an effort to understand it. Understanding your filters is important because they may cause you to distort information, miss seeing things, or interpret behaviors differently than they were intended. As a Volunteer, you need to identify your filters to ensure they do not interfere with cross-cultural

learning, and to use that knowledge in building positive relationships in your host culture. If your filters tend to be overly positive, you may need to question their situational applicability, or if overly negative, consciously try to overcome them.

Samples of filters are:

✓ **Life experiences:** *what you have gone through in your lifetime.*

Your many small encounters each day combine with larger events or actions to influence how you see the world and react to new experiences (such as travel, educational experiences, participation in sports or other teams, having sustained an injury, serving in the military, etc.).

✓ **Culture:** *the norms with which you were raised.*

For example, if a certain culture teaches that cleanliness is very important, a person from that culture may have a strong reaction to another culture where sanitation standards are not high. That same person may tend to listen more carefully to someone who is neatly dressed as opposed to someone who appears sloppy.

✓ **Respect:** *whom you are taught to respect and how you show respect to them.*

If you were taught to respect elders, you may respond and listen to someone who is elderly and show a good deal of courtesy even if what that person says is irrelevant to your needs.

✓ **Self-image:** *how you perceive yourself.*

A low self-image or an overly high self-image may hinder your ability to objectively perceive what is going on around you. For example, a person with low self-esteem might take personally a comment like: "Our group has trouble making decisions." A people who think highly of themselves might not consider that they may be a part of the group's problem.

✓ **Religion:** *the norms your religion teaches you.*

If your religion teaches "do unto others as you would have them do unto you" or "an eye for an eye," you might approach situations differently based on those beliefs. Individuals and cultures vary in the ways that religious beliefs influence daily activities and social interactions.

✓ **Prejudice:** *a negative conception that inhibits objective judgment.*

This can be related to certain races, ethnic groups, and social groups you may feel strongly for or against. For example, a person who is taught that a certain group is lazy might have difficulty dealing objectively with a member of that group. Or, if a particular group is held in high regard, a person may be unable to objectively assist them in analyzing their difficulties.

✓ **Bias:** *judgment is distorted in favor of or against a person or thing.*

You may be biased for others who are similar to you, and therefore may easily communicate with them. On the other hand, you might have a bias against people different from yourself—such as liberal or conservative individuals—and thus have some difficulty in approaching or communicating with them objectively.

✓ **Background:** *where, how, and with what groups you were raised.*

For example, a person from a very rural town and one from a large metropolitan area might have preconceived notions about each other that establish barriers even before communication is initiated.

✓ **Trust:** *whom you learned to trust as a child.*

The things you learned affect whom you will and will not trust as an adult. For example, you may have been taught that it is a sign of dishonesty not to look someone in the eyes, or that you must be careful of people you do not know because they may take advantage of you.

✓ **Sex and gender roles:** *the way you react to sexes and gender roles.*

This includes ideas about whether or not men and women should conduct themselves in certain ways because of their sex or gender roles, what type of work men or women should be doing, or who should or should not be in positions of authority.

If you have some time to think about it right now, can you come up with more filters?

Observation Skills[6]

Observation is important because:

■ rich information can be gathered without being intrusive;

■ information gained verbally can be confirmed or questioned;

■ observers see clues to the reliability and comfort of community members who are involved in PACA techniques.

Observation Practice

Here are two observation practices you can carry out on your own that may help sharpen your observational skills.

Practice
Activity

1 Practice observing your host families or neighbors during meals and other "family" times, or during the morning routine before they leave for school or work. Observe specific family members at these various times: mother, father, children of various ages, grandparents, etc. Observe and describe how

---

6 Read more about observation activities and techniques on pages 84-92 of ***Promoting Powerful People*** [ICE No. T0104]; page 85 of ***Working with Youth: Approaches for Volunteers*** [ICE No. M0067]; and throughout the brief but very useful ***Learning Local Environmental Knowledge: A Volunteer's Guide to Community Entry*** [ICE No. M0071]. All are available in PDF format in through the Peace Corps' online library at <u>www.peacecorps.gov</u>.

typical chores are done and by whom. Who washes the clothes? Cleans the house? Prepares the meals? Who assists with various tasks around the house? Did any of the observations surprise you? If so, you may have discovered some of your filters.

Practice Activity **2** In your community, observe the neighborhood streets at different times of the day, evening, and weekend. Observe places like the market, taxi or bus stands, churches, restaurants, Internet cafes and so on. Who is there? Are people alone or in groups? How does this vary by time of day? Observe community members at their workplaces. What are their jobs? What are the tasks? What is the daily schedule? What happens at the end of break time? Based on what you've observed, how or when might you work with members of different groups?

Interviewing[7]

Asking questions, or more formally interviewing people, is an easy way to get to know people. Most people use this approach constantly as they meet new people. If done well, you can:

1. establish trust;

2. create a human bond; and

3. begin a partnership between ourselves and those we came to work with.

What might be the results of inappropriate question asking?

---

[7] Read more about Interviewing in Booklet 1: Volunteer as Learner in Roles of the Volunteer in Development [ICE No. T0005]; on pages 59-70, and 108-116 of Promoting Powerful People [ICE No. T0104]; pages 86-90 of Working with Youth: Approaches for Volunteers [ICE No. M0067]; and pages 51-55 of An NGO Training Guide for Peace Corps Volunteers [ICE No. M0070]. All are available in PDF through the Peace Corps' online library at www. peacecorps.gov.

Essential Characteristics of Interviewing

Skills you need to be successful asking questions and interviewing:

- Demonstrate respect
- Develop rapport
- Use appropriate, non-threatening question forms

- Listen more than you talk
- Read nonverbal cues
- Use familiar, non-threatening topics

Anyone entering a new community for the first time may be perceived as an outsider, foreigner, or both. It is important to try to dispel all false expectations, and to be aware that actions can be misinterpreted because you are considered an outsider and/or a foreigner. What are the attitudes towards foreigners where you work? Do they vary according to where in the country you are? By social classes, religion, gender, age, or ethnic groups? Can you think of ways to begin developing rapport through behavior, conversation, and questions that are non-threatening?

Topics that are familiar and non-threatening differ by cultures and unique local history. In beginning an interview with topics that people enjoy talking about and which do not pose a threat or break an acceptable cultural level of intimacy, you need to identify what those topics are in the local cultural context. For example, conversation may begin with questions about the well-being of one's family.

The form in which questions are asked may be different than you expect. Not all people are comfortable with personal questions, such

as: "What do you think about the health care in this town?" (Asks for an opinion.) A less personal question form may be more appropriate, such as: "What are people saying about the health care in this town?" (Asks for a generalization.) Does the form of a question make a difference to you?
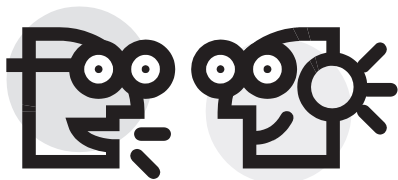
Does it depend on the topic? This is an area you'll need to explore in the host cultural context.

While interviewing, it is essential to read nonverbal cues. What examples of nonverbal cues have you experienced during a conversation or an interview? Change of eye contact, hesitancy to answer questions, fidgeting in a chair, staring off into the distance? In your experience, what do these behaviors mean? Averting one's eyes in some cultures means respect. Is that what it means to you?

Finally, with interviewing it is essential to listen more than you talk. How do you feel about silence? Do you become uncomfortable? What can you do to keep from "jumping in" with another question when your interviewees may just need some time to think and answer? Remember that their cultural filters are at work as well, and they may need more time than your culture finds comfortable. Pages 91-95 of ***Culture Matters: The Peace Corps Cross-Cultural Workbook*** [ICE No. T0087] provide additional tools to help you learn more about nonverbal cues in cross-cultural communication.

Question Structures

Different question structures may help as you develop your interviewing skills.

- **Closed questions (yes or no):** Though often discouraged because of the limited information they provide, closed questions may be the easiest to answer, and may help start a conversation or interview.

- **Either/or questions:** These are closed questions in that they only offer two choices. The sentence form may be confusing. Instead of responding with a choice, someone may answer yes or no.

- **Open questions (why, what, when, where, how):** This form offers the possibility of varied answers and more information.

- **Personal question forms:** These ask for an "I" form answer and may be considered inappropriate. In some cultures with a history of repressive government, these types of questions may raise fears about how the information will be used.

- **Generalized question forms:** This form relieves the responder of answering personally.

Sometimes a yes or no question is a good way to start a discussion, followed by open questions. If a discussion starts to falter, yes or no questions and either/or questions are a way to get people talking again and summarizing what perspectives have been presented. Sometimes open-ended questions can be vague and difficult to answer. It may be necessary to move back to more closed questions.

See pages 21-22 in Booklet 1 of *Roles of the Volunteer in Development* [ICE No. T0005] for detailed information about question structures.

A final precaution about interviewing: Even the most experienced interviewer encounters interviewees who tell them what they think the interviewer wants to hear. In some cultures, it is seen as rude to provide unpleasant or negative information; or even if the individual does not have particular information, he or she may knowingly provide an incorrect answer in order to not disappoint the interviewer.

Practice

Interviewing skills can be developed by practicing. Starting in English, develop interviews following the six essential characteristics of interviewing noted earlier. Have a language instructor or other cultural informant assist with how to demonstrate respect and develop rapport in your local culture. Practice in English with host national training staff, and others who speak English. As you develop your language skills, create and practice interviews in the host country language.

Facilitation

Being effective in development work includes being able to communicate with host-country colleagues and communities, establishing rapport and trust, and listening to what people want and need to do for themselves. Being able to facilitate discussions among groups of people is a critical skill; it is the key to using PACA methodologies effectively.

Facilitation is a skill that encourages the members of a group to express and discuss their own ideas. It requires the use of questions that elicit ideas and probe and that encourage everyone to participate and express views. It also requires paraphrasing and summarizing. It demands attention to the process of the group, including encouraging quiet and reticent people, and controlling dominant or disruptive participants. Facilitation uses the skills that were introduced and practiced in the interviewing section.

Group leaders may use different styles with groups, depending on circumstances.

Use a leader-centered style to:	Act as a facilitator to:
► Introduce new ideas	► Help group process own ideas
► Lead through series of steps	► Tap into group's collective knowledge
► Test knowledge	► Manage process, not content
► Review activity	► Encourage all to participate

In PACA, both types of group leader styles are used. The leader(s) may direct the group through a series of steps to arrive at information, such as creating a map or a calendar. Then the role changes and a facilitation style is employed because the group has the knowledge; the facilitator helps them discuss it, make comparisons, and draw conclusions. In this process, you will find it most effective to work with and through your host country partners who have language skills, cultural knowledge and status that contribute to the success of PACA exercises.
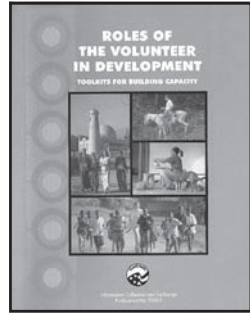
This section on facilitation complements the more in-depth information on group process and facilitation now in Booklet 4: Volunteer as Co-Facilitator in ***Roles of the Volunteer in Development*** [ICE No. T0005].
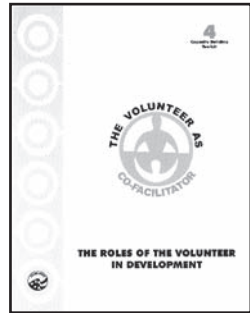
Asking Questions, Paraphrasing, Summarizing

Three important skills for facilitating are asking questions, paraphrasing, and summarizing.

1. *Asking questions*	Facilitators use questions to help group members bring out relevant information, clarify points of view, summarize information, and draw conclusions.
2. *Paraphrasing*	By paraphrasing, the facilitator demonstrates that she or he understands what participants have said and may clarify issues. The process of paraphrasing is much like catching a ball and throwing it back—and requires very careful listening.

3. *Summarizing*	Summarizing pulls important ideas, facts, or information together; establishes a basis for further discussion; reviews progress; or checks for clarity or agreement. It requires organization and systematic reporting back of information expressed. It also ensures that everyone is clear about what has transpired. Whenever possible, someone besides the facilitator should do the summarizing.

Although open-ended questions are the best way to let people express their own perspectives, sometimes a yes or no question is a good way to start a discussion, followed by open questions. If a discussion starts to falter, yes or no questions and either/or questions are a way to get people talking again and summarizing their perspectives. Occasionally, open-ended questions can be vague and difficult to answer, so moving back to more closed questions can be helpful.

In PACA exercises, like all interviews and exchanges, people may tell you what they think you want to hear. In some cultures, it is seen as rude to provide unpleasant or negative information; or even if the individual does not have the information being requested, he or she may knowingly provide an incorrect answer in order to not disappoint anyone. Sometimes, answers may be seen as a way to receive services or access to resources—this is not often malicious, but more likely to be an attempt to provide for family needs.

Practice

Here are some suggestions for opportunities to practice facilitation skills:

In training settings:

■ Lessons learned in host families, on site visits

■ Language needs (specific vocabulary, situation)

■ Cross-cultural encounters, information gathering

■ Daily/weekly training evaluation

In schools:

■ Group discussion with schoolchildren about important things in their lives, at school, favorite pastimes, aspirations

■ Discussions with teachers about things a new teacher should know

With host families:

■ Group discussions about culturally appropriate topics, such as the meaning and celebration of holidays

Visit to a club or organization:

■ Discussion of purpose and aspirations

During agricultural or other work-related field site visits:

■ Group discussions about crop production, animal health issues, access to agricultural inputs; discussion about record-keeping or other appropriate process at an NGO or local business

Dealing with Difficult Group Members

Ideally, in a discussion all group members participate equally. Rarely does the ideal happen. The term "difficult" is used to indicate group

members who either do not participate or have disruptive or controlling behaviors. It is the facilitator's role to encourage active and equal participation, working to keep disruptive or controlling behaviors in check so that these members do not prevent the group from completing its task(s).

Look through the guidelines, advice on giving feedback, and charts with possible actions to deal with different types of behavior found on pages 10-14 of Booklet 4 in *Roles of the Volunteer in Development* [ICE No. T0005].
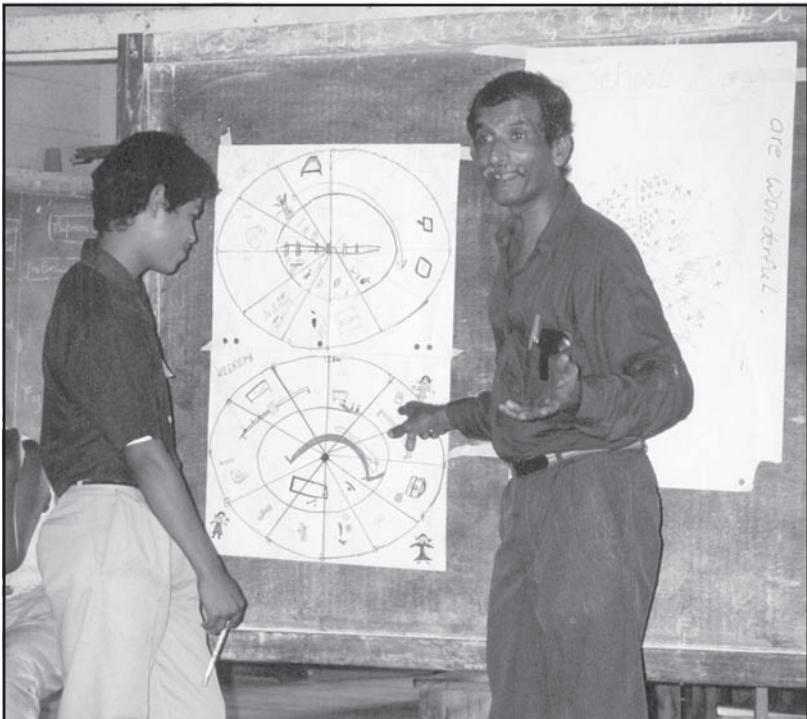
Practicing PACA: Community Preparation and Follow-up

To build confidence in using PACA tools and the skills needed to carry out the activities (including the follow up after using them), hands-on experience is preferred. Though practice with participatory processes in communities is critical to understanding the power of the process and the skills needed to carry them out, there are many ethical concerns regarding the use of communities for training purposes. The following section will help you understand how Peace Corps posts arrange learning experiences with PACA, including selecting, preparing, and following up with communities and training participants.

Although finding opportunities for suitable practice is sometimes difficult, the list below provides some ideas on how Peace Corps staff approach this subject.

If	Then
trainees have little experience with facilitation	▶ practice by leading a discussion in training, such as reviewing reading or other assignments; evaluating an activity. ▶ use an appropriate technique to analyze real training issues: mapping a site, daily activities, needs assessment; develop actions to resolve issues.
local language fluency is low	▶ practice with English speaking groups—trainers, Volunteers, training staff, schoolchildren. ▶ work with a translator, a Volunteer, language teacher, or other bilingual person.

If	Then
helping participants draw conclusions and identify a possible next step is difficult	► observe others carrying out PACA activities and note transitions, key breakthroughs. Review action planning steps in *Roles of the Volunteer in Development* and/or the *New Project Design and Management (PDM) Manual*. ► create practice scenarios and role-play with trainees, training staff, Volunteers.

When practice will be with a local group or community, preparing the community for the field practice is key to a successful experience. As a general rule, Peace Corps staff contacts the community at least one month before the PACA field practice in order to explain the purpose of the field practice, elicit members' voluntary and willing participation in the experience, explain the techniques and their procedural steps, and prepare the logistics of the field practice. The community should be familiar with the Peace Corps and either have a Peace Corps Volunteer currently working there or a plan to place a Volunteer there in the near future. At least two visits to the community need to be made prior to the fieldwork, the second visit within a week of the fieldwork to reconfirm all of the arrangements made previously.

Selecting the community or communities

■ The community should be representative of other communities with which the Peace Corps works.

■ Select a community where the Peace Corps is actively known, expects to have a presence, and, if possible, use local Volunteer support.

■ For manageability, the community (rural village or urban neighborhood) should be relatively small; less than 300 households is ideal.

■ When more than one community is used, communities with differing characteristics should be selected in order to expand the application of the techniques.

■ Care must be given to select communities in which members are available (e.g., not occupied by peak season labor demands, feast days, etc.).

■ Both men and women should be asked about their availability, time preferences, willingness to participate, and so on.

Planning tips that work

■ If two or more techniques are applied in a given community, a minimum number of available participants is required, but not everyone all day. If one technique is done in the morning and another in the afternoon, two groups

PACA practice and training in:

Ecuador

During pre-service training, PACA tools and gender analysis are introduced and trainees must apply this knowledge in their community-based training communities. They present a report about community analysis using PACA tools on their site visit.

Nepal

Community mapping, seasonal calendars, daily activity schedules and priority ranking are introduced to trainees and they practice one tool in their community before conducting their first community activity.

Mali

As part of the PACA session conducted during pre-service training, trainees helped villagers identify their needs and create or validate strategic action plans.

of about 20 men and two groups of about 20 women will be required—one group of each sex in the morning, then a second group of each sex in the afternoon.

■ It is necessary to consider how well the community participants represent the diversity of the community in order not to exclude participation by criteria of ethnicity, religion, race, age, or any other subgroup status.

■ Two separate meeting areas or rooms are preferable, or at least enough space so that two (or more) separate groups can meet without overhearing or disturbing each other.

■ At the end of each session, men and women rejoin to interpret the results and to give recommendations. This can be done in one of the two meeting areas or in a larger accommodation.

Bolivia

PACA community analysis tools are put into practice through real situations. For example, trainees were asked to solve a real problem with kitchen garden projects by developing actual seasonal calendars on the ground using sticks and stones.

Georgia

Demonstrations of community mapping, seasonal calendars, daily activity schedules and the gender analysis matrix are part of community development training and cross-cultural training at pre-service training.

■ If a lunch or dinner is planned, it must be scheduled to include both morning and afternoon groups. This is a way to thank the community members for their time and to permit a more social environment for community members and trainees to be together, unless it would

be culturally inappropriate or set a bad precedent. Funds for a meal should be provided in a pre-planned budget.

Other useful planning tips:

■ Use local informal leadership to prepare the community: perhaps invite community representatives to the training prior to the field practice. If Volunteers need to co-facilitate at any point, always have a host country partner. If possible, have host country staff or other qualified individuals facilitate.

■ Make sure dates and arrival times are clearly understood, and training participants are punctual (though realize host community participants may not think the same way you do about literal punctuality, depending on their cultural approach to relative time).

■ Upon arrival, a selected member of the training group should make a detailed explanation of the field practice plan. The community should realize the exercises to be undertaken will be helpful to both the community and the Peace Corps.

■ At the end of the day, a selected member of the training group should thank the community, talk about the work, and present culturally appropriate gifts (if dictated).

Challenges for Volunteers

PACA tools look simple in concept: draw a map, write out a daily schedule, or make a calendar. However, being able to engage and motivate a group to complete an activity, working with them to see what information the tool has revealed, and helping them see how they might use that information requires strong facilitation skills. So, one challenge is **conducting the tools in meaningful ways**.

Another challenge is **doing it in a new language**! PACA is usually introduced in pre-service training because the philosophy of working in partnership with a community is so crucial to sustainable development. For many trainees, struggling to make themselves understood in the most basic ways is the challenge of language learning in pre-service training. Learning about PACA, and learning how to conduct some of the tools, then, usually needs to be done first in English. That might include practicing with the training group or with a higher-level English class. And then, when possible, working with counterparts, colleagues and more experienced Volunteers who have the language capacity necessary to work with non-English speakers.

As trainees and Volunteers, you should never conduct these activities alone. Not only does it increase trust and the quality of communication to work with a host country national, but co-training community members to use PACA tools is a part of building local human capacity.

A further challenge is **using the tools in an unfamiliar cultural setting**. It would be easier for trainees or Volunteers to identify appropriate circumstances, select the appropriate groups of people, and generally use the tools if they were doing so in their own culture. It is easy to make mistakes when you are not aware of local power dynamics, informal communication systems, culturally defined roles

for men and women, and all the other factors that could have an impact on the success of a participatory process.

The following examples illustrate how Volunteers have encountered challenges or adjusted their use of PACA tools based on real-life situations.

Senegal: be flexible

Six Peace Corps agriculture Volunteers held a three-day PACA training-of-the-trainer (TOT) for nine counterparts to prepare them for a village workshop. The overall outcome of the TOT experience was positive; however, the Volunteers needed to take more time than anticipated to ensure the counterparts fully understood PACA approaches and the individual tools. In the words of the Volunteers and counterparts: "the village workshop helped the counterparts visualize all of the tools and learn some more tips for facilitation. As a result, it increased their confidence in their ability to facilitate village meetings. The group also had a hands-on practice session with 70 community members."
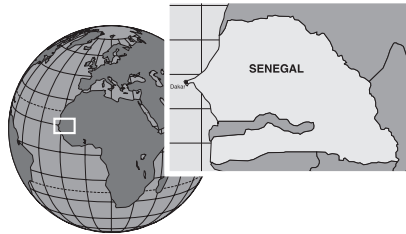
Honduras: address potential barriers

The associate Peace Corps director (APCD) for agriculture and a group of agriculture and environment Volunteers held a workshop for their counterparts on how to use PACA tools. At first, the participants were skep-tical about including women from the community as "women do not work in agriculture." The APCD and Volunteers adjusted their schedule
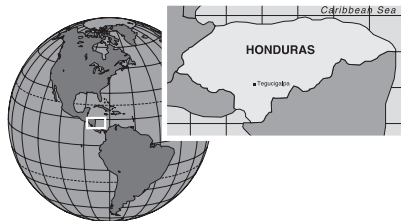
to include more work on the tools that would help them address this key issue. After the participants went through the typical day's exercise, they were able to see that the women do, indeed, have a role in the agricultural cycle.

Morocco: look for creative solutions

An education Volunteer assigned to teach English for business purposes to students adapted the needs assessment from the PACA manual and applied it to the university setting. The adaptation assumed that the underlying philosophy and principles of analysis and planning could be applied in any community such as a university, a business, etc. The adaptation required representatives of the university to clearly identify, prioritize, and communicate needs and recommendations. It relied on active and full participation of all segments of the "community." However, the Volunteer did encounter difficulties. This type of assessment required interviewing all the separate groups within the university and facilitating discussion in separate and combined groups to negotiate a single recommendation. Due to the difficulty in this undertaking, the university suggested developing a committee of representatives from all the separate groups to represent all aspects of the university's "community."

Paraguay: build confidence

Ten agroforestry extension Volunteers facilitated 11 participatory community mapping exercises with 118 farm family members; 36 were men and 57 were women. The use of participatory needs analysis activities posed a real challenge to newer Volunteers who did not yet feel comfortable with their language skills. As a result of the participatory activities, however, newer Volunteers gained confidence about their language abilities and at least one or more agroforestry-related need was identified during each exercise with the farm families.

Niger: look at yourself

After conducting many PACA activities, Peace Corps/Niger produced a short PACA handbook specifically for use in that country.[8] Although written specifically for Niger, it has many helpful anecdotes and tips anyone can use. Advice that all Volunteers will find useful includes these tips:
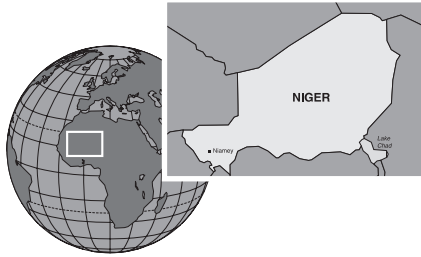
■ be patient,

■ be observant,

■ keep your temper,

---

[8]   Appendix III is an abbreviated version of the PACA handbook developed by Peace Corps/ Niger.

■ be self-confident and self-assured, even if your language ability is not the best,

■ be open-minded to better understand cultural differences,

■ be polite and respectful, and

■ be modest.

Haiti: practice asset-based approaches

In Haiti, newly sworn-in Volunteers are tasked to complete a series of PACA tools with their counterparts. During their first three months at their sites, they work with their counterparts to analyze community activities that focus on the community's strengths and resources. Working in pairs, the Volunteers and counterparts present their findings to the community. This new task promotes the asset-based approach of development instead of just problem-solving.
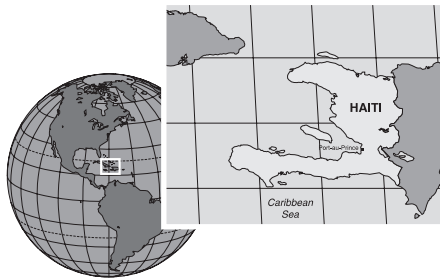
Chapter 5
How to Use the Most
Common Tools

Community Mapping[9]

Mapping is a powerful way of showing different activities in a specific area. It can be used in various geographic settings to locate current resources, activity centers, institutions, and other areas frequented by the groups developing the map. Mapping can be used in small communities, neighborhoods of larger communities or cities, workplaces, training centers, classrooms and organizations. The setting and the subgroups involved will determine variations in the instructions and visualization.

If focusing on a geographical area, mapping is more appropriate to small villages, towns or neighborhoods where there is a clear relationship between residents and community resources. Mapping can be used to diagnose community issues and/or to provide a visual record of the community that can be revisited for the purpose of monitoring and evaluation of a project and changes in the community.

If used in work or residential training settings, and schools or other institutions, mapping can identify differences in perception, needs, access to power centers, and other factors of the groups that use the space.

---

[9] See pages 12, and 26-27 in Booklet 1: Roles of the Volunteer in Development [ICE No. T0005], and pages 80-83 of Promoting Powerful People [ICE No. T0104] for more examples of community mapping.

Specifically this technique is used:

■ To identify the different uses of, and access to, community resources by men and women, age or ethnic groups, or different categories of workers.

■ To compare different perceptions of the relative importance of, and access to, different community resources.

■ To identify areas of concern, potential changes desired or needed, or additions that the members determine would improve their community.

Materials Needed

Mapping can be designed in a number of ways with different requirements for materials. Generally, large sheets of paper (newsprint), a number of writing tools, a large table, and some physical items (pieces of colored paper, for example) that can represent differing degrees of intensity or importance are used. Two or more separate workspaces with the same materials are required, depending upon the number of subgroups doing the activity. Local materials (seeds, rocks, drawing sticks, a patch of dirt or sand, or a blackboard) can also be used in the absence of purchased materials.

General list of materials for each group:

☐ Flip chart paper

☐ Large markers, several colors

☐ Three sizes of colored circles, one set for each participant (to represent 'relative importance")

☐ 50 small pieces of three different colored paper (to represent "frequency")

☐ 20 additional pieces of two other colors than used for frequency (to represent "likes and dislikes")

☐ Two small pads of sticky notes or small squares of paper (to represent "needs")

☐ Glue stick or tape

☐ Tacks or pins

▶ How to Conduct a Mapping Activity

In all settings:

Provide an introduction that is appropriate to the setting. For example, if you are working with a group that does not know you, introduce yourself and describe the purpose of the session. Take time to have participants introduce themselves and perhaps do some type of icebreaker to make people feel more comfortable.

Depending on the type of mapping activity you are conducting, modify one of the following sequences to fit your purpose and the type of group with whom you are working.

For geographical location:

STEP 1 Explain to participants that they will be participating in a community mapping activity designed to share everyone's ideas of what the area looks like. The activity might reveal some interesting perspectives about their community, and it should be fun.

STEP 2 Divide participants into gender groups (or other designations previously determined), each with a workspace separate from the other, such as separate sides of the same room or in adjoining rooms, or even different houses.

Ask each group to:

● Draw the designated area, beginning with some central feature (road, river, or boundaries) that has been predetermined.

Encourage everyone to participate, at least in determining what should be on the map, if not doing the actual drawing. Watch the time; make sure each group begins to draw at least halfway through the allotted time.

● Allow groups to put in the features they choose, or if you wish, give them prompts of things you would like to have them include. For example, you might ask them to indicate sources of water, transportation options, different institutions, markets, and so on.

STEP 3

Once the drawing is done, ask each group to do two or three (maximum) of the following:

● Put small pieces of colored paper to identify frequency of where you spend your time: one color for daily, one for weekly, one for monthly or less frequently. You may use as many of each color as you wish. Tape or paste the pieces of paper down after you have finished arranging them.

● Use two other colors of paper to identify places you like to be and don't like to be. You may use as many as you wish. Tape or paste the pieces of paper down after you have finished arranging them.

● Use sets of three graduated circles per person to identify "most important," "second most," and "least important" institutions or resources. Tape or paste down after you have finished arranging them.

● Use small sticky pads or small squares of paper to draw or write things you need or want in your community. You use as many as you wish. Tape or paste down after you have finished arranging them.

STEP 4

Ask the individual groups to look at their own map and the patterns of frequency, likes and dislikes, importance, or whatever they have identified.

Questions for discussion:

- Why have you identified these places?

- What do you think would make you community better? Why?

STEP 5

Have each group select a reporter to describe the group's map to the other group.

STEP 6

Post all maps where everyone can see them.

- Have the reporter for each group describe the group's map.

- Encourage groups to ask questions of each other, and to explain what they discovered about the patterns of frequency, likes and dislikes, importance, or whatever they have identified.

- Look at similarities in the maps.

Questions for discussion:

- What differences do you see in the way the maps are drawn or the features included? Why might there be these differences?

- What do the maps reveal about opportunities, such as available natural resources (water, land, forests), human resources and institutions (knowledge, skills), infrastructures (roads, types of transport), and so on?

● Do the maps reveal any constraints, such as places not usually frequented, resources unused, distance to needed service, and so on?

● Are there any patterns to places liked and disliked? Were these similar on everyone's maps? Why or why not?

● What did you identify as things you would add to you community? Did everyone identify the same things? Why or why not?

STEP 7 Questions for reflection:

As a community, what did we learn from this exercise? How might we use this information? What might be some next steps? (Follow up will probably depend upon the purpose of doing the exercise. See sample specific uses for mapping [pages 31–35] for potential next step sequences.)

STEP 8 Thank the community.

Variations

Variations for Different Groups

Group	Possible Subgroups	Step 1: Purpose	Step 2
School or other institution	Grade levels; boys and girls; girls; teachers and students; different departments, supervisors and employees	To share everyone's ideas of what the institution looks like	Prompts for features may include offices, resource centers, classrooms, eating areas, bathrooms, reception areas
Small businesses, co-ops	Men and women, producers and marketers	To share their perceptions on production and marketing of products	Where people live, produce or manufacture, and market; sources of needed materials or natural resources (water, credit, parts); transportation
Farmers	Men, women/ boys and girls; small and large farmers; farmers using new seed/ fertilizer and those not	To view the relative location of living, production, and marketing; schools for children	Locations of home, fields, natural resources, other resources, sources of credit, seeds or other inputs, schools, technical expertise, marketing

Variations for Different Groups

Step 3	Step 4	Step 5	Step 6	Step 7
Same	Same	Same	Opportunities or constraints may include equal access to resources, relative locations or availability of services	Follow up may include changing policies (who can use what, adding needed features (separate study location for girls after school; childcare), or providing new services (training)or facilities (science lab; nurse's station), and so on
Same	Same	Same	Opportunities or constraints may be available natural resources, human resources, institutions (knowledge, skills), infrastructures (roads, types of transport), access to services/inputs	Follow up may be researching better transport options, changing product to better fit situation, locating technical expertise, and so on
Same	Same	Same	Opportunities or constraints may be availability of land and natural resources; out-side resources needed (credit, goods, labor, expertise, markets); schools for children	Follow up may be changes in farming practices, organization of co-ops, joint purchase of transport, improvement of local road, and so on

Practice Opportunities

Conducting a mapping exercise with a community or an organization requires skills: language, observation, active listening, and facilitation; and knowledge of the technique. Find some opportunities to practice doing mapping to build skills and confidence before attempting it with a group that is important to your project.

► At the training center, practice mapping your training center with several small groups of participants, such as female and male trainees, trainers, or site administrators. Have them identify the places they like and dislike, and add features that would make the site more efficient or comfortable. Have them share their maps with each other and discuss their similarities and differences. Discuss what changes each would like and why. If appropriate and everyone agrees, present an idea for change to the site director.

► In a school where you can work with an English as a second language class, have the students map the school or their community. In advance, decide with the teacher exactly what you will have the students do, and determine what language lessons they can get from the activity: perhaps some new sentence structures or new vocabulary.

▶ With students near where you live, practice the technique by having them map the neighborhood. Try to include a boys group and girls group. The purpose might be to show all the resources of area, including people who know certain things, where to buy items you suggest, and so on. In discussion of the two maps, find the similarities and differences in the girls' and boys' maps in terms of what they know about and how each group spends its time. Explore why those differences exist. If appropriate, have them create one map of the community resources together that can be posted in a community center or other central place.
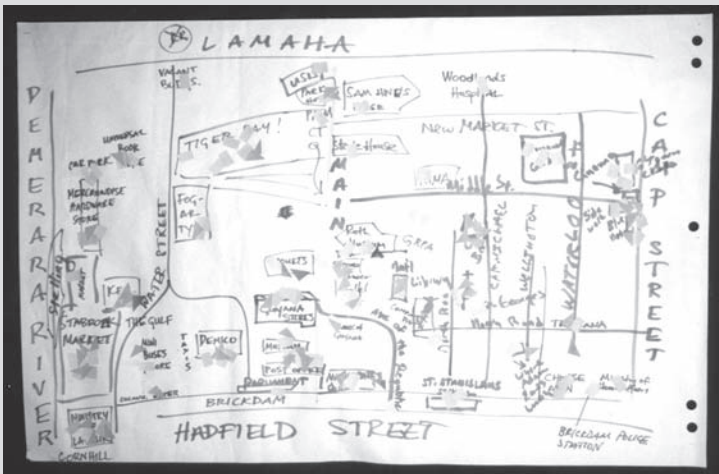
Daily Activity Schedules[10]

At one level, charting daily activity schedules identifies the routine labor demands of men and women, boys and girls, in their daily lives. This information provides valuable insights into both the labor constraints of each group as well as the areas where labor-saving technologies might be readily adapted.

At another level, this technique demonstrates the gender-based perceptions of the workload of each group. In this sense, the technique helps to raise awareness of the contribution that different groups make to overall household welfare.

Charting daily activities raises the awareness of development workers as well as the participants that in some cases they are actually doing "work" that their culture may perceive as only a "role." The concept of work varies from culture to culture, however there are some fairly

Shadowing

Shadowing is a related activity, but focuses on individually accompanying someone through his or her daily routine. This technique may be helpful for understanding roles and responsibilities of men and women as individuals. Trainees can get a more complete picture of gender roles in a community if there are organized reflection discussions at the end of a period of shadowing. Ask trainees who shadowed women to meet and compare notes; and have trainees who shadowed men do the same. If each group shares its observations of gender roles and time allocation with the other, a more complete composite profile of the community will emerge.

---

10 See pages 28-29 in Booklet 1, and page 13 in Booklet 2 of Roles of the Volunteer in Development [ICE No. T0005] for more information on daily activity schedules and shadowing.

common generalizations. Typically, **productive work** is defined as income-generating work, food production for income, or paid or wage labor. **Reproductive work** (food production for family consumption, housework—washing, cooking, cleaning, gathering firewood or water, childcare, and so on) and **social or integrative work** (birth, marriage, funeral observances; other religious observances; caring for the ill or disabled; local, regional, and national celebrations; and so on) are often called "invisible work" because they are not reflected in economic statistics. Clearly, reproductive and social work take time, energy, and often funds. These are revealed in daily activity explorations.

Daily activities and seasonal calendars are key tools in capturing information on division of labor and access, while providing insight to all phases of gender analysis.

Finally, the information recorded can serve as a point of future comparison to monitor the impact of project activities on people's time allocations.

Materials Needed

Daily activity schedules can be designed and carried out in various ways. Generally, however, each group has:

- [ ] large pieces of paper (one sheet to represent each day developed, such a weekday and a weekend day, or a high-intensity labor period (school year for teachers, students; planting or harvesting for agriculturalists) and a less intensive period (school vacation periods; crop maintenance periods)
- [ ] writing implements (such as marking pens)

How to Create a Daily Activity Schedule

In all settings:

Provide an introduction that is appropriate to the setting. For example, if you are working with a group that does not know you, introduce

yourself and describe the purpose of the session. Take time to have participants introduce themselves, and perhaps do some type of ice breaker to make people feel more comfortable.

Based on the type of situation, modify one of the following sequences to fit your purpose and type of group you are working with.

For geographical location:

This technique generally is done with a minimum of two groups—one group to represent the men in the community and one to represent the women. Additional subgroups might be boys and girls, or men and women of different ethnic or religious groups, occupations, and so on. Each group works in a separate space (such as at different tables in a school room) with its respective set of session materials. These groups must be chosen carefully and with attention to the representation of the group selected. If only the wealthy men, or only the men of a dairy cooperative, or only the women with migrated husbands are selected, the routine activity schedule may not be representative of the community, though it will represent their particular segment of the population.

How to Implement the Technique

STEP 1
Explain to the whole group that the purpose of the activity is to explore and share everyone's daily schedules to get a better idea of who does each of the various tasks within the community.

STEP 2
Divide the participants into groups of women and men and move them to separate workspaces (plus groups of boys and girls, or other subgroups invited).

Ask the groups to consider a routine day during the year. If there are great differences by season or work period—for example, teachers, agricultural workers, and seasonal wage laborers—they may need to repeat the exercise once for each period.

● Beginning with the time that the day begins, ask each group to reconstruct a normal day. If you are trying to identify blocks of time and how they are used, then details like "work in the garden" is enough. If you want to know what tasks need to be done during that block of time in the garden, more details are needed, such as "weed," "plant," "water," etc.

● These activities should be associated with a rough estimate of the time block necessary for each activity. Remind participants—particularly women—to consider time periods when multiple tasks are performed (e.g., cook, care for babies, or help a child with schoolwork.)

● If two time periods are being explored (such as school year and school vacation period), repeat first two steps on a separate sheet of paper for the second time period.

Each group should select one person to explain its schedule to the other groups.

STEP 3

(Optional)
If time allows, it is often revealing to have groups reconstruct a schedule for the other groups right after they have completed their own schedule, going through the same process as above. This may be difficult for some groups, but the discussion of what they think the opposite gender does (or does not do) is useful.

STEP 4

Bring the groups together and post the schedules.

Each group reports out its results.

● Ask the assembled community to interpret the similarities and differences with questions like:

– What are the similarities and differences in labor demands? What are your perceptions of work load?

– What would reduce some of the workload? (Closer source of water, machinery, childcare, for example.)

– When would be the best times of days for things like meetings or training? Is it the same for men and women? For all groups within the community? Other?

STEP 5

Questions for reflection:

As a community, what did we learn from this exercise? How might we use this information? What might be some next steps? (Follow up will probably depend upon the purpose of doing the exercise. See sample specific uses for daily activity schedules [pages 40–41] for potential next step sequences.)

STEP 6

Thank the community.

Variations

Variations for Different Groups

Working with a Farming Community or Farm Families

In agriculture, daily activity schedules can be especially valuable, as some cultures do not formally recognize women's contribution to the agricultural process, either as farmers or as farm labor. This lack of awareness of the different contributions being made by all members to overall household and community welfare makes it difficult to plan projects that will effectively include all members of the community. By looking at families' daily activities, it is possible to get a sense of how women, men, and boys and girls must collaborate in the agricultural process, including tasks such as: purchasing seed or equipment, planting, weeding, harvesting, post-harvest processing, transporting water, value-added activities, and selling products in markets or elsewhere. This also shows how time spent on other responsibilities results in less time to work on, for example, expanding an agricultural market strategy, or planning for improved disaster preparedness.

Daily activity schedules also help to raise awareness of the different skills each gender role requires based on division of labor, and what types of projects could make tasks easier or improve their effectiveness in order to meet gender needs. Remember the gender analysis framework in chapter one? It also shows how conducting a project or initiating training with any member of the family (e.g., a daughter and son taking time to increase reading comprehension with other girls and boys in a literacy project) will have a positive or negative impact on the other members' time. If all participants' daily activities are not considered, all participants may not be able to engage in the project.

Follow the same five steps outlined above.

Working with students

If you work with students, daily activities calendars can help you understand:

▶ The different before- and after-school activities that boys and girls from various social and ethnic groups engage in that have an impact on their study time and participation (or lack of) in class activities.

▶ Options to address common challenges—e.g., is there a way of providing homework options or adapting coursework to ensure the most mentally-challenging subject matter is done at the most advantageous time for all groups?

▶ If certain after-school activities or responsibilities reinforce lessons or detract from learning. Can they, or complementary activities be leveraged using a community content-based instruction (CCBI) approach across groups, or would that exacerbate an existing imbalance?

▶ What the number and types of daily activities show about determining reasonable amounts of time available for students to complete schoolwork. What do they say about their interests and what might engage them in active learning?

Follow the same five steps outlined above.

Working with office staff or members of an organization

Daily activity calendars reveal information that allows the group or its leadership to analyze:

▶ the distribution of work throughout offices or NGOs;

▶ the time spent on various tasks;

► if teams are coordinated and progress-oriented;

► where process breakdowns or successes occur across positions or collaborating teams;

► areas of overlap and duplication of effort; and

► if resources and equipment are allocated effectively to achieve results.

Done appreciatively, this exercise is not a way to identify who is not "pulling their weight," but a way to celebrate and acknowledge everyone's contributions and monitor progress towards organizational goals.

Follow the same five steps outlined above.

Practice Opportunities

► At the training center

– with trainees—map a typical trainee week day and a weekend day

– with trainers, grouped by men and women—map a typical workday and a weekend day

► At a school

– with students, grouped by boys and girls—map a typical day at school and a weekend day

– with teachers, grouped by women and men—map a typical school day and a weekend day

► At a farmers' meeting—map a typical day's work for men and for women

Seasonal Calendars[11]

This technique traces seasonal variations.

Household well-being often fluctuates seasonally during the year in terms of food security and income availability and in the demand on household resources. Many households experience a "hungry season" or periods of economic stress, and these variations may have a different impact on men and women, and boys and girls as individual family members. Some times of the year are busier for one group or another. Creating a seasonal calendar is designed to identify these seasonal variations in household well-being from the perspective of women and men, girls and boys. An understanding of these seasonal variations is important to the development and implementation of a community action plan and individual projects.

In cooperatives or businesses, seasonal variations may be different types of labor demands, sales and income, needs for credit or loans, effects of seasonal weather on transportation, and so on.

Schools might experience seasonal variations in attendance due to weather, illness cycles, labor demands on children (such as assisting with harvesting), and periodic national or religious holidays that might interrupt regular curriculum or time demands on staff or children.

Seasonal calendars are very helpful in combination with other participatory activities. They often provide the data that will help determine when participants might have disposable time, income, or the weather conditions to undertake activities or projects that they identify. Engaging various age, ethnic or racial groups, economic groups, and men and women, boys and girls will give a more complete picture of the seasonal variations important to the development and implementation of community activities.

---

[11] See pages 93-102 of *Promoting Powerful People* [ICE No. T0104}, and page 14 of Booklet 2 in *Roles of the Volunteer in Development* [ICE No. T0005] for more information on seasonal analysis.

Materials Needed

Note: You may wish to gather the materials suggested below for a calendar that can be displayed, but consider *sustainability*. By using locally available materials (such as a sand pit or piece of ground with loose dirt and drawing sticks, or drawing on a piece of wood, wall or blackboard), the community members will be able to recreate the activity in the future without expensive or scarce materials.

- [ ] Flip chart paper
- [ ] Large marking pens several colors
- [ ] Small marking pens several colors
- [ ] Scissors
- [ ] Glue stick
- [ ] Tape
- [ ] Tacks or pins
- [ ] 40 small rectangles of paper (2" x 3")

How to Conduct a Seasonal Calendar Activity

In all settings:

Provide an introduction that is appropriate to the setting. For example, if you are working with a group that does not know you, introduce yourself and describe the purpose of the session. Take time to have participants introduce themselves, and perhaps do some type of ice breaker to make people feel more comfortable.

Explain that you are going to be asking a number of questions to create a seasonal calendar. Then, with any necessary modifications for the group or purposes of your activity, follow the steps below to develop a seasonal calendar on flipchart paper, using information supplied to you by the participants.

For geographical location:

The seasonal calendar technique emphasizes that during the course of any year, households face different levels of difficulty and demand on their resources. Furthermore, these demands may be felt differentially by different members of the household. For this reason, forming groups—men and women, boys and girls, or subgroups of different occupations, ethnic or racial groups—who meet in separate areas will develop a broader look at the community.

Steps to develop the seasonal calendar

STEP 1 Describe the purpose of the activity: To identify the variations among the seasons, and examine how the changes in the seasons affect community members' lives.

Use the participants' notion of the beginning of the year to start the calendar. Ask the group what it considers to be the "beginning of the year." It may be different for different groups—teachers, for example, may determine that the start of the school year is the beginning of their calendar. If participants have trouble determining this, ask them to identify some spheres of activity that are common to all households (such as agricultural production or the school year). This may elicit the cultural (rather than the calendric) beginning of the year, such as the rainy season or an important religious period like Ramadan. This can become the reference time period for defining the entire year. Based on members' decisions, demonstrate how they might label the months of the year across the top of the page. Suggest that when they go to their small groups, they prepare a similar page on which to enter their ideas.

STEP 2 Divide the participants into the pre-planned groups, giving each group space to work.

Provide the materials and have them prepare a calendar. (Some may wish to do more than a year, such as 18 months, depending on how they view the cyclical nature of their lives.)

Ask participants to identify some of their daily and seasonal tasks that are devoted to earning money and maintaining the home and family. (Include productive, reproductive, and integrative [social] work, paid or unpaid.)

a. Have each group draw or write each task on small pieces of paper or write them directly on a large piece of paper.

Note: Two ways the entries might be put on the calendar:

1. The facilitator (or one of the participants) enters, in a linear fashion, all the tasks and activities associated with a sphere of activity (e.g., land preparation, planting, weeding, harvesting; or purchasing raw materials, manufacturing, transport to market, sales, etc.) as the community members describe them.

The facilitator elicits another sphere of activity (such as domestic work) and begins a second linear entry of the relevant tasks throughout the year. This process continues until all the labor demands on the household have been recorded. Seasonal variations in labor demand (or supply) can then be interpreted vertically on the graph.

2. Alternatively, the community members take the small squares of paper and draw representative symbols of the activities, using colored marking pens. Then one activity symbol is taped where it belongs and all the related tasks and activities (in pictures or words) are entered on a line that extends across the calendar months during which there is activity. Then, a second

sphere of activity is started, and carried to its conclusion, etc.

b. Example:

STEP 3
(Optional)
Asks groups to identify which member of the household does each task. In the discussion when both (or all) groups are together, they may further define who does what.

STEP 4
Identify when during the year income flows into the household by identifying the sources of income. Income *sources*, not the quantities, and the times of the year when income tends to flow into community households, is what is important. Although there may be great fluctuation among households, this technique seeks more general patterns of income that would apply to most, if not all, households in the community (e.g., when teachers are paid, when crops or handicrafts are sold, or when the men go to the coast to work on plantations).

STEP 5
Indicate variations in household expenses by identifying periods of special expense, such as the beginning of school,

holidays, religious festivals, etc. High expenditure periods should be noted on the calendar.

STEP 6 Indicate patterns of household health and welfare. For example, are there certain times of the year when a particular illness is common? Are there hungry times? Indicate weather patterns as well—rainy or cold seasons, dry periods, very hot weather, etc.

STEP 7 Indicate cultural patterns, such as holidays and religious festivals.

STEP 8 Each group should analyze its own calendar looking vertically at patterns of labor and expenses, and so on. The vertical interpretation of the calendar reveals major periods of difficulty, periods of relative ease, labor bottlenecks, and so on. This permits a more systemic appreciation of the constraints and opportunities which households face.

This discussion helps to summarize the information on the calendar, which will be presented by one group member in the next step.

STEP 9 Bring the groups together and post calendars where everyone can see them.

a. Ask one person from each group to explain the group's calendar.

b. Ask the groups to interpret the information on the calendars with regard to:

  – Opportunities, such as free time for other activities (e.g., repairs, new projects).

  – Constraints, such as periods of high expenditure, intense labor, illness, or cultural practices.

– Other specific purposes determined by the facilitator or needs and desires of the community. For example, are certain times better than others for women to be involved in training programs? Are there ways to mitigate or eliminate illness periods by taking nutrition or health measures earlier in the year?

Coding

To show the interrelation of tasks, coding for gender and age, intensity of work, and so on, may be introduced. This kind of mapping might be useful in an area where tasks vary seasonally. For example, in an area dependent on agriculture, intensive farming periods might require hiring additional labor. Families may need to plan ahead to have payment on hand for that period, and the map can help them predict and plan accordingly.

Create a symbol to represent each category to be coded. Use colors or separate colored pieces of paper could also be used. Creativity and working with appropriate symbols for the community is key. For an example of a map that has been coded, please see Appendix II. Examples of categories that could be coded:

Adult Male	Continuous Activity
Male Child	Sporadic Activity
Adult Female	More Intense Activity
Female Child	

Variations

Variations for Seasonal Calendars

Agricultural Cooperative

This is an example of using seasonal calendars when there are no gender groupings, although it can also be used with gender groups. This technique traces seasonal variations in the cooperative members' labor supply and demand, income flow, and expenditure patterns. Some times of the year are busier for the members. This technique is designed to identify these seasonal variations that cooperative members experience throughout the year, and offer them insight into possibly reducing labor, increasing their access to services, or to collectively take "action" on an overriding important issue like building a bridge or road that will connect them to markets. Another example could be to evaluate their labor constraints to take on a funded project from an outside source like USAID, Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), or a national or international NGO. An understanding of these seasonal variations is important to the development and implementation of any new projects.

For schools

Seasonal calendars can be used by faculty and students to look at the entire school year, including exam periods, religious or national festivals and holidays, sports seasons, and so on. Out-of-school demands on children or faculty, such as agricultural tasks, can be included. These calendars can be used for various purposes, such as determining when additional special events can be planned for the school and/or community (health fair, special tutoring or study clubs, community projects related to curriculum—see *Community Content-Based Instruction Manual* [ICE No. T0112] for more education-related ideas).

For developing strategic planning and teamwork within an organization

Seasonal calendars that reflect the labor tasks, peaks and slower periods, and demands beyond the usual work hours of personnel at various levels and from various departments promote a better understanding of opportunities and constraints for the whole organization. If individual departments complete calendars and share them with each other, the interdependency, including constraints and opportunities for each department, will assist in strategic planning for everyone. Careful placement of new projects based on existing demands may contribute to their viability.
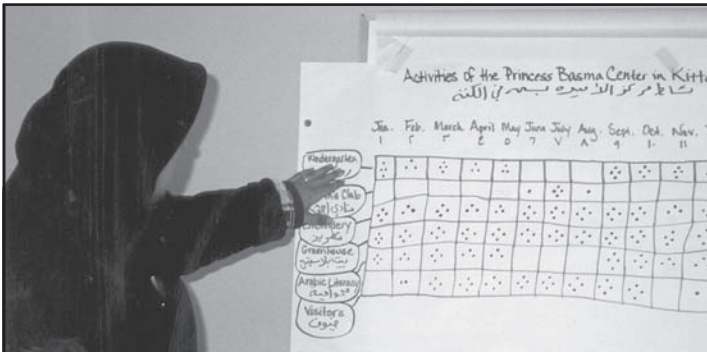
Priority Ranking[12]

From Analysis to Action

Participatory priority ranking is an activity that helps the community list, discuss, and finally prioritize its ideas for making members' lives better, selecting a project to work on, or identifying a problem to solve. Ideally, priority ranking would not be used until other participatory tools have been used and discussed. While other tools focus on analysis, **priority ranking forms the bridge to action.**

If other tools have been used, there will be shared knowledge of:

1. what the community has and what it lacks (through mapping);

2. what the seasonal variations are in terms of workloads, availability of labor, resources—both in-kind and financial—weather, health, and so on (through seasonal calendars); and

3. when men and women and boys and girls would have time to attend meetings, to be trained, or to devote labor to a project (through daily activity schedules).

Refer to these tools, if they have been done, when creating lists of items to prioritize.

List of Items to Rank

Priority-ranking activities are participatory approaches to determining the relative importance of items in a list.

---

[12] See pages 103-107 of *Promoting Powerful People* [ICE No. T0104] and pages 44-56 of *The New Project Design and Management Manual* [ICE No. T0107] for training sessions and more information on participatory sorting and prioritizing. Pages 50-52 in Booklet 5 of the *Gender and Development Training Manual: PACA Tools* have examples and guidance on pairwise ranking.

Lists may be generated for different purposes: to raise consciousness; to define desires, needs, or problems of a group; to identify what activities or projects to undertake; and so on.

The questions used to generate lists are important. The items on the list will be influenced by the tone of the questions. For example, the question: "What are the problems in our community?" is not the same as: "What would make our community better?"

Usually, there is a mixture of desires, needs, *and* problems when community members consider what would make their lives better. Desired changes are not necessarily based on "problems." It may be overwhelming and disempowering to focus solely on problems.

Thoroughly discuss items that a group plans to rank order before actually ranking them. Several items may be related and clarification or combining is necessary (e.g., two separate items listed as "education" and "completion of local secondary school" may be combined into one item). Items may not be clearly understood or distinguishable from others (e.g., the items "lack of money" and "access to credit" may mean different things to different people). Discuss the lists based on one of the following factors in order to clarify the options:

- Urgency

- Level of interest or need: men/women, boys/girls; other differences within the community

- Resources: locally available or need grants, loans, gifts

- Cause-and-effect analysis (both causes and effects may be in the list)

- Scope/complexity: time involved, outside expertise or resources

- Risk (how likely are we to be able to complete the project or make the change?)

■ Links to other projects, other organizations working on the issue, sources of support/information

Ranking criteria may vary. "Which is most important?" is not the only possible question. Though useful to know which item the group thinks is most important, it may be that the most important items are not within the power of the group or community to address. A second ranking using one of the suggestions below might bring to the top of the list more achievable project ideas.

■ Which can we do within a year?
  – complex vs. simple
  – short-term vs. long-term

■ Which can we do with our own resources?

■ Which will benefit the most people?

■ Which might bring the biggest impact?

■ Which do we need to do first in order to prepare for others?

■ Which most closely link to our mission? (for committees or organizations)

Ranking Techniques

Ranking techniques need to take into account tradition, influences on voting, and the types of choices being made.

Traditional methods of decision making (those that are culturally known and appropriate) may dictate a particular process. For example, it may be community tradition for each person to state his/her opinion aloud to the group, before an elder or group of elders makes the ultimate decision.

Consensus discussions: In consensus building, everyone must be convinced of the top priority. Those supporting a priority must make their case of why the idea is the most urgent, needed, or achievable. Voting is not an option.

Voting methods include:

■ Physically placing objects next to pictures or objects representing choices (useful in illiterate populations). Can be done secretly by dropping objects in envelopes attached to the flip chart.

■ Raising one's hand (once, or several times, as agreed upon in advance).

■ Secret ballot

Remember!

Always consider the composition of the group when choosing a voting method. For example, if there are three nurses at the meeting and each person present has one vote, the health clinic might get the highest vote. Consider using a consensus discussion for a group with this composition. Or, if the group members do not read, represent items with objects or drawings. If a list has several items, you may give participants more than one vote, so they can choose their first and second priority.

Pairwise ranking. With the pairwise-ranking method, each item is compared to every other item to see which seems to be most important.

Pairwise Ranking Example:

STEP 1:

Using information generated by the community, list ways to address improving community health:

▶   Education about clean water, nutrition

▶   Build health clinic

▶   Local community health worker

▶   Access to pre- and post-natal care for women

▶   Build latrines

STEP 2:

There are two alternatives that can be used to compare items against one another for Step 2. The group may choose to work with a **charting** method (alternative "a" below), or use a **listing** method (alternative "b" below).

a. Charting
On a chart, rank items by a previously agreed upon criteria, for example, which is most achievable, or most important, or would benefit the most people?

	Education	Build clinic	Local health workers	Access for women	Build latrines
Education					
Build clinic	Education				
Local health worker	Education	Local health worker			
Access for women	Education	Access for women	Access for women		
Visiting nurse	Education	Visiting nurse	Visiting nurse	Access for women	

(Half of the chart is blocked out to avoid comparing the same items twice.)

Compare two items where they converge on the chart. Write the most important in the block. (Example filled in on chart.) By looking at the example chart, you can see that "education" was compared to "build clinic" and education was considered more achievable by the participants. "Education" is then compared to every item below, and a choice is made. Repeat this process with every item on the list.

(1) Add up the number of times each item was chosen.

Education	5
Build clinic	0
Local health worker	1
Access for women	3
Build latrines	2

b. Listing

Write each item on the list

(1) Compare education to each item below it on the list. Use hatch marks for votes.

Education	|||||
Build clinic	
Local health worker	
Access for women	
Build latrines	

(2) Compare education with the next item.

Build clinic	
Local health worker		
Access for women		
Build latrines		

> (3) Repeat step 2 until you reach the last item.
>
> (4) Count votes for each item to have rank order.
>
> Adapted from The New Project Design and Management Manual [ICE No. T0107] Peace Corps, Washington, DC.

Steps in Conducting Priority Ranking

STEP 1

Divide into appropriate subgroups: men, women, girls, boys; elderly and youth; different ethnic or religious subgroups; teachers and administrators; etc.

STEP 2

Ask each group to:

a. Develop a list of items using a question that all the groups will use. For example, list items that would answer the question: "What would make our community better?" (Remember: All groups must be using the same question.)

b. Discuss the items on the list, combining similar items, eliminating items if they do not seem relevant, and so on. Everyone in the group should be clear about each item before ranking begins.

c. Use a priority-ranking method (see above) to identify the top five items. All groups should use the same ranking method.

d. Select a reporter.

STEP 3

Bring all groups together.

a. Ask each small group to present its original long list and its five priority items, giving the key points of the discussion.

b. Lead the large group in a discussion about the similarities and differences found on all the lists. For example, why is lack of water only on the women's list? (Perhaps women are responsible for hauling water.)

c. Look for and discuss related items. For example, which items are related to poor transportation?

d. Look for items that will meet the needs or desires of most people. For example, if we build a community center, will that provide a place where girls can study, training classes can be held, and the health worker can see patients?

e. Consider if any items are shorter-term that could be done fairly quickly and inexpensively.

f. If possible, and if the group is ready, agree on one or two items for long-term priorities, where planning can begin now.

g. Before ending the session, determine next steps: create a committee to begin planning, determine who will gather additional needed information (such as who might donate building materials), and so on. Schedule the next meeting to discuss progress.

Practice Opportunities

In a training setting:

■ Have trainees list, discuss, and rank order ways to improve the training site, ways to improve the training schedule, ways trainees can take more responsibility, etc. To experience combining lists, have male and female trainees do original lists and rank order separately.

■ Have training staff list, discuss, and rank order ways trainees can take more responsibility, ways to improve the training site, etc.

In other settings:

■ With an education or a youth development Volunteer, determine a topic on which students could do a prioritizing activity. It might be on a topic they are studying, such as what are the most effective energy sources for their community; or it could be related to their own lives, such as how can they improve their grades/study more. This might be an opportunity for students to practice their English.

■ If you work with children in your community, what could they do to clean up public spaces, how could they help the community in other ways, or what steps could they take to improve their futures?

In Armenia

Volunteers have launched community development projects in cooperation with the local administration and NGOs in their sites. Community members participated in needs assessment activities and in doing so learned how to plan, organize and conduct their own needs assessment. The participants reported that they felt better equipped to identify and solve problems their own communities faced.

Chapter 6
Using Other
Participatory Tools

The Gender Connection and Keeping Knowledge in the Community

In any process of community change, it is important to consider people's empowerment, community participation and gender-sensitive approaches. PACA tools reveal gender and social issues to help participants understand the perspectives and needs of all community members. In particular, PACA tools are intended to include less powerful or vocal groups.

Current development theory suggests that a valid development approach to address issues of sustainable livelihoods as well as justice and equity *must* begin with the perceptions and interests of *all* people involved in a community. In the past, gender relations in the context of resource use, access and control and decision-making

In Georgia

Volunteers conducted participatory assessments with various segments of the population (teachers, students, community groups) to learn about and identify issues and concerns facing their communities. They have reported success in utilizing PACA and other participatory tools to gather information. As a result, community members learned how to identify, analyze, and prioritize their needs, and design projects to meet those needs using participatory methodologies and activities. Community members participate in

power have largely been ignored and changing the institutions that inhibit women from controlling their lives has not been a priority.

When using participatory tools it is important that any information collected from PACA or other tools and processes *stays* within the community. Doing so can help integrate social analysis and participatory methodologies. This can give voice to those who have traditionally been excluded from the decision-making processes in some communities—women, young adults, children, ethnic and religious groups, among others. Maintaining this knowledge base within the community facilitates the process of moving from analysis to community action, with the development worker as a partner, not an outside expert.

(Continued from page 121)

In Georgia...

meetings to discuss social issues and problems in their villages and towns and form groups and committees to design interventions to address solutions. Community youth voices are heard and embraced as children and young adults are now included in decision-making processes.

Other Tools and Resources

Other tools have been developed and adapted since participatory analysis was introduced in the 1970s. Below is a short list of additional tools along with references to sources for more information. Remember: There is no exact blueprint to gender-sensitive, participatory development. Rather, using the tools as needed in different ways at different times for different contexts may bring communities and development workers the results they seek. The two tools marked with asterisks are described in this chapter as examples.

■ Social Network Mapping *

■ Household Livelihood Analysis *

■ Activities, Resources and Benefits Analysis

■ Gender Analysis Activity Profile

■ Institutional Diagramming and Analysis

■ Landscape/Lifescape Mapping

■ Personal and Household Resources

■ Problem Solving: Trees, Ranking, Assessment

■ Timeline Variations

■ Transect Mapping

■ Wealth Ranking

Social Network Mapping Tool

Purpose

Donating, loaning and exchanging materials, labor and other resources occurs in many communities as a result of complex economic, social and cultural ties. Mapping these relationships can help development workers and community members discuss them more openly. More importantly, it allows everyone to see which (if any) families are excluded from these networks. The tool reveals the most important items of exchange and can be used to understand ties among subgroups (ethnic, religious, class, extended families) and between adjacent villages.

Custom generally dictates initial contact with the chief or village leaders. From initial meetings, it may appear that the village is one united community or homogeneous entity. When it is appropriate to

use it, the social networking tool can unfold the more heterogeneous aspects of the community.

Materials

☐ Large sheet of paper

☐ pieces of cardboard

☐ markers

☐ paste or tape

or

☐ colored chalk

☐ chalkboard

Time

At least two hours

Process

As the social networks of women and men often differ, it may be appropriate to make two separate maps. Networks may also differ according to religion, ethnicity, socioeconomic status or other factors. Organize participants into groups as appropriate for the purpose of the activity.

STEP 1 Ask a representative group (e.g., three women, three men) from the community to define a household or a family within the specific country or regional context. Ask the same group to list the most important resources exchanged among households. Select no more than eight households for the mapping. Write the name of the head of household or one of its members on a card for the exercise.

STEP 2 Draw the community boundaries, compass headings, and neighboring communities. Paste the cards on the paper according to the households' actual location in the community, but leave some blank space between cards. Or, if it makes it easier to understand the exchange networks, place the houses in a circle rather than at their precise locations.

STEP 3 Ask each representative which kind of relationship links his or her family has with others. List the types of resources that women or men exchange. Using colored pens or different types of lines, indicate what the member of each household exchanges with the others. Draw arrows at both or one end of these lines to show reciprocity or a one-way exchange.

▶ Remember:

Use this tool with representatives of no more than eight households. The choice of households is important. The purpose of this tool is not necessarily to reveal every last detail about the exchange network, but to see whether there are households excluded from this network.

NOTE TO VOLUNTEER:

You may have noticed that this social network mapping tool example does not include a final step with an analysis and action piece. It is important to remember that these two steps are key to PACA and to a community's empowerment for its own development.

Household Livelihood Analysis

From the 1990s to the present, development theory has shifted from a material perspective focused on food production to a social perspective focused on the enhancement of people's capacities to secure their own livelihoods. Much of this thinking is derived from the participatory approaches like PRA, RRA, PACA, among others. These approaches have been integrated into various implementing agencies' activities for project diagnosis and design.

But what is "livelihood?" A number of agencies share common definitions.

Livelihood. A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets and activities required for a means of living (Chambers and Conway 1988).

Sustainable livelihood. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future without undermining the natural resource base (Chambers and Conway).

Household livelihood security. Household livelihood security is defined as adequate and sustainable access to income and resources to meet basic needs (Frankenberger 1996).

Because Peace Corps Volunteers work primarily at the grass-roots level, this section will concentrate on **household livelihood security**. The ability to carry out one's livelihood is influenced by many factors. **Household livelihood analysis** facilitates the identification and understanding of a broad hierarchy of causes that affect the livelihood of a household at several levels. Some of these include geography, political policy, religious beliefs, health, economic policy, social mores and customs, influence by community members, social and economic castes, friends and extended family, as well as the individuals themselves.

Although this analysis can be adapted to all of the meanings of community that have been discussed in this manual, it was originally designed for use at the household level in either a rural or urban setting. Having community members' diagram their livelihood helps capture the full range of activities showing the complexity of the livelihood system to the household and the community. The diagram below is one example of the internal and external relations that influence a community and individual households' livelihood security at the macro, or highest, level.

It is not essential to undertake a macro mapping of livelihood in a community, as suggested by the diagram below. However, it can be a good introduction to the overall process for when the community undergoes its analysis at the household level. Household livelihood can give a more in-depth picture of a household's assets, entitlements, economic activities, and knowledge base.
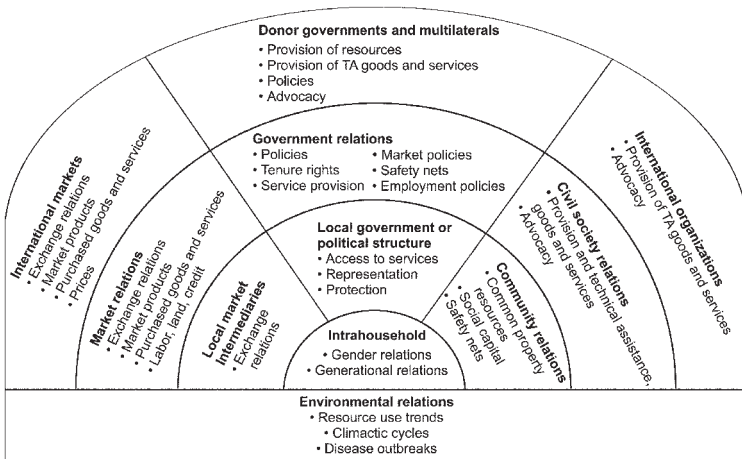
Source: J. Stuckey. 1999. "Raising the issue of pesticide poisoning to a national health priority." *CARE Advocacy Series, Case No. 1*. Atlanta, CARE USA.

Case Study:
Livelihood Assessment in Malawi

In July 1998, CARE underwent a participatory household livelihood assessment in Malawi. The table below lists methods used and key information collected.

Level of analysis	Methods	Key information collected
Community-level environmental and economic analysis	• Resource mapping and focus group discussions around resource map • Historical timeline • Seasonality calendars • Venn diagramming • Matrix ranking	• Infrastructure, key services, land use, farming systems, land tenure, natural resource base, availability, access, quality, historical changes • Historical analysis, changes over time, trends, past efforts • Seasonal farming activities, income, expenditure, stress periods, coping and adaptive strategies • Institutional identification, operation, interaction, level of service, performance • Economic activities, priorities, performance, trends, gender

Level of analysis	Methods	Key information collected
Household-level social analysis	• Identification of livelihood indicators • Identification of livelihood categories • Livelihood category profiles • Social mapping • Case study and household interviews	• Economic, social and environmental criteria used for classifying households by well-being • Difference by gender • Location and names of households • Proportional livelihood status • Vulnerability, shocks, stress, coping and adaptive behavior • Potential opportunities • Validation
Problem prioritization, analysis and opportunity identification (synthesis)	• Problem identification analysis • Cause-effect analysis • Opportunity analysis	• Prioritized problems by gender • Problem linkages, causes and effects • Previous efforts, successes, failures • Roles and responsibilities • Potential opportunities and strategies

Methods

Household livelihood analysis methodology grew out of RRA/PRA methods but focuses specifically on the multidimensional issues of livelihoods and vulnerability. Field methods for participatory information collection broadly consisted of focus and large group key informant interviews. These were used with participatory techniques such as maps, timelines, calendars and Venn diagramming, as well as more analytical participatory techniques such as problem tree analysis and concept mapping. This activity can be as simple as a household survey, or much more in-depth, such as combining a quantitative household survey interview and a livelihood category profile diagram (below).

Using multiple methods permits triangulation (cross-checking and confirming findings), and each adds some perspective that the other cannot. The use of multiple methods is an iterative process, and the sequencing usually depends on how much information is already known, which may be appropriate for some PACA activities.

Source: M. Pareja. 1997. *Preparing for a Rapid Livelihood Security Assessment*. Nairobi, CARE East Africa.

Using a Farming Systems Diagram Tool for Household Livelihood Analysis

Purpose

The farming systems diagram helps explain how rural household livelihoods are assembled. It is a diagram designed to highlight the farming system, including on-farm activities such as crop production, off-farm activities such as fuel collection, and non-farm activities such as marketing. The diagram also shows the flow of resources to and from the household and who is involved, by gender.

When household members diagram their farming system, this helps capture the full range of household activities and shows the complexity of the livelihood system. These diagrams also often show how livelihoods may depend on many different types of agro-ecosystems, many of which may be common property resources such as forests, grazing lands, rivers and streams.

Farming systems diagrams can also illustrate that women and men each have specialized knowledge about particular crops, animals or tree products—knowledge that can be built upon for development.

Process

STEP 1

Select two households from each of the socioeconomic groups identified in the social map. Visit each household individually.

STEP 2

After courteous introductions, tell the family that you want to learn about their farming activities (no need to mention mapping at this point). Ask the women and men in the household to walk with you through their farm. This helps people feel at ease as it allows household members to show their knowledge. Make sure to cover the housing area and common property areas. As you walk along, ask questions about the activities and resources you see. Ask about what happens in other seasons and in places too far to visit.

STEP 3

After about 30 to 40 minutes of walking, gather together as many household members as possible—men, women, children—to discuss what you have seen and talked about. Then stop and suggest to the family that the information they are providing is too much to keep in your head and might be better recorded by drawing the information on a piece of paper. Continue the discussion but ask those present to help you make the drawing. As soon as you can, let the family take over the drawing. Soon you will just be asking questions and listening.

Materials

☐ Paper

☐ Colored pencils or pens

NOTES TO DEVELOPMENT WORKER:

The concept of a farming system is often easier to express in a diagram than in words. The diagram should include activities that take place in any season and in any location, but it should not attempt to document all the details. With this tool, you just want to learn the typical or the general circumstance. Concentrate on getting an overview of the whole system.

As the household members progress with the drawing, ask questions to explore the labor and resource flows in the farming system. Be sure that the diagram shows roles and responsibilities by gender, and also age and household position (head, husband, first wife, sister), if appropriate.

Some Questions to Ask While Facilitating the Drawing of Farming Systems Diagram

■ What are the major on-farm activities? Crop production? Livestock production? Poultry production? Fruit and vegetable production? Who has responsibility for: plowing (land preparation), planting, weeding, irrigation, applying chemicals, harvesting, threshing,

drying, initial post-harvest, grinding or pounding cereals, using post-harvest products (such as rice straw or corn husks to make baskets, weavings, etc.), selling produce, etc.?

■ What are the major off-farm activities? Who has responsibility for fuel collection? Water collection? Fishing? Buying inputs (farm implements, chemicals, seed, etc.)? Transporting produce to markets?

■ What are the major non-farm activities? Marketing? Waged labor? Who has responsibility for each?

■ Which activities and resources contribute most to meeting the basic needs of the household?

■ How do the diagrams from the different socioeconomic groups compare? Which households have problems meeting their basic needs? Why?

■ Which households have the most diversified livelihoods? Which are the most vulnerable (i.e., depending on only one or two activities or resources)?

■ Identify the key linkages between the different kinds of activities and resources, such as between forest products and livestock production.

Sample Diagram from the Dominican Republic

The farming systems diagram on the next page shows the gender-based division of labor and resources for a community in the Dominican Republic. The diagram illustrates how the community's livelihood consists of a number of activities and resources that depend on different agro-ecosystems. It also shows that women and men have overlapping interests, such as tobacco production and processing; and distinctly separate interests, such as women's small animal production.

Gender Resources Map from
Zambrana, Dominican Republic
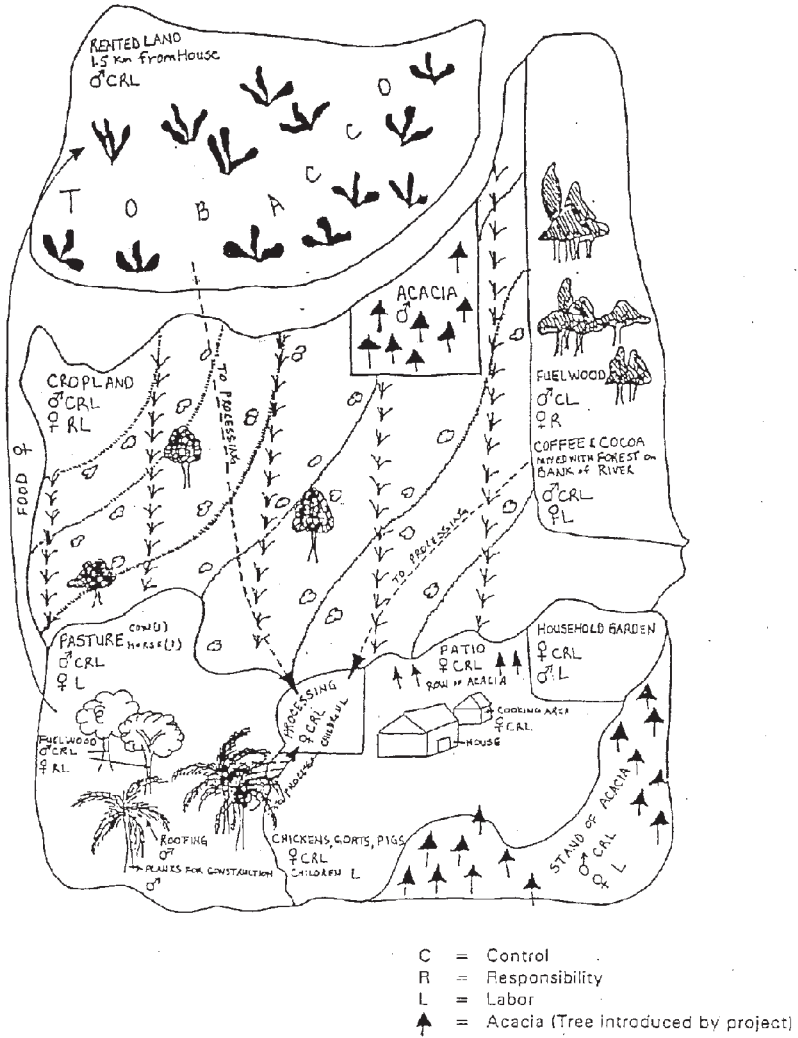
Source: Rocheleau and Ross, 1993.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I
Bringing the Tools Together: What it Really Looks Like

Using PACA Tools for a Village Community Workshop in Senegal to Assess Community Needs and Create an Action Plan

(This is a full report of the example given in Chapter 3, page 57.)

Volunteers and their counterparts had recently completed a PACA training to prepare for this village community workshop. Having been trained to use four of the PACA tools, they engaged in a community development workshop in the village of Gagué Bocar. This workshop was held to facilitate the recognition of the village's internal resources, external supports, and to create a consensus of community needs. The Volunteers and counterparts felt Gagué Bocar was a prime site for such a workshop because the community had proven its ability to combine its resources to obtain desired outcomes. They felt that "this community building workshop introduced, and induced, better organizational and assessment skills." Another benefit was that the workshop helped facilitate an open relationship between the community, the resident Volunteer, and other development agencies/programs.
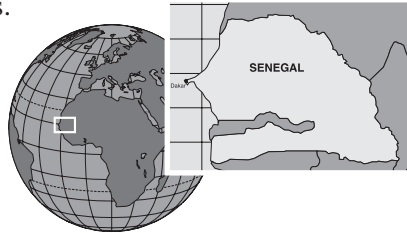
Tools Used and Lessons Learned

Several different tools were used to assess the community's needs and to reach consensus on an action plan that the entire community would help construct and support.

Appreciative Inquiry

The asset-based approach, which emphasizes a village's internal resources and abilities as positive attributes, is incorporated into appreciative inquiry. This tool was utilized on the second day of the workshop. The main objective was to encourage villagers to create a list of village resources. The question: "What is good about your village?" was asked first. Other questions followed, such as: What makes your work easier? What good things has the village accomplished? What makes your life better? What are you proud of? Having been asked these questions, the villagers were able to create a list of things they felt were of value to their community. The following list was created according to what villagers deemed valuable about their community. (Items with an * were marked by the facilitation team as village assets.)

1. corn, sorghum, rice, cotton, peanuts
2. women's *groupement**
3. gardening
4. veterinary work
5. good soil*
6. mango trees
7. skilled health care worker
8. bulletin/chalkboard
9. bank account*
10. solidarity*
11. firebreaks
12. tailor
13. mosque
14. wheelbarrows
15. clean village
16. cows for money*
17. vaccinations

At times during the workshop, villagers were quick to place greater emphasis on the influx of outside resources, such as money and building materials, rather than examining their internal resources first.

The list, created during the appreciative inquiry phase, was referenced by facilitators in order to refocus the group and remind members of their internal resources. Reflecting back on what is available to the community by outright ownership heightened the village's awareness of its innate value.

Mapping

The mapping exercise was the first exercise in which the men, young men, and women were separated into groups. The groups were set apart from each other to create a more relaxed atmosphere where people felt they could speak openly. Volunteers and counterparts facilitated each group. There were three questions asked when introducing the mapping tool: How would you draw your village? How do you see your village? What is important to your daily activities?

The men's map featured things like village boundaries (the ocean, roads to other villages), the school, family compounds, religious structures, meeting places, gardens and wells.

The women's map also included areas outside the village, such as the fields they farm and where they collect firewood. They included areas within the village where they pounded millet as well.

The young men came up with their own map of the village. Their map was the most detailed of the three, containing trees, compounds, gardens, orchards, roads, and religious structures.

When all the maps were compared, it became apparent that certain village features (the ocean, school, main road, mosques, gardens, and salt mines) were included by each group, while others (the cemetery, millet pounding areas, soccer fields) showed up on only one or two of the maps. This indicated that each group viewed the village differently depending on its routine. The maps were not as different from one another as had been expected, perhaps because the whole village made a similar map last year with a German NGO.

Men's Map
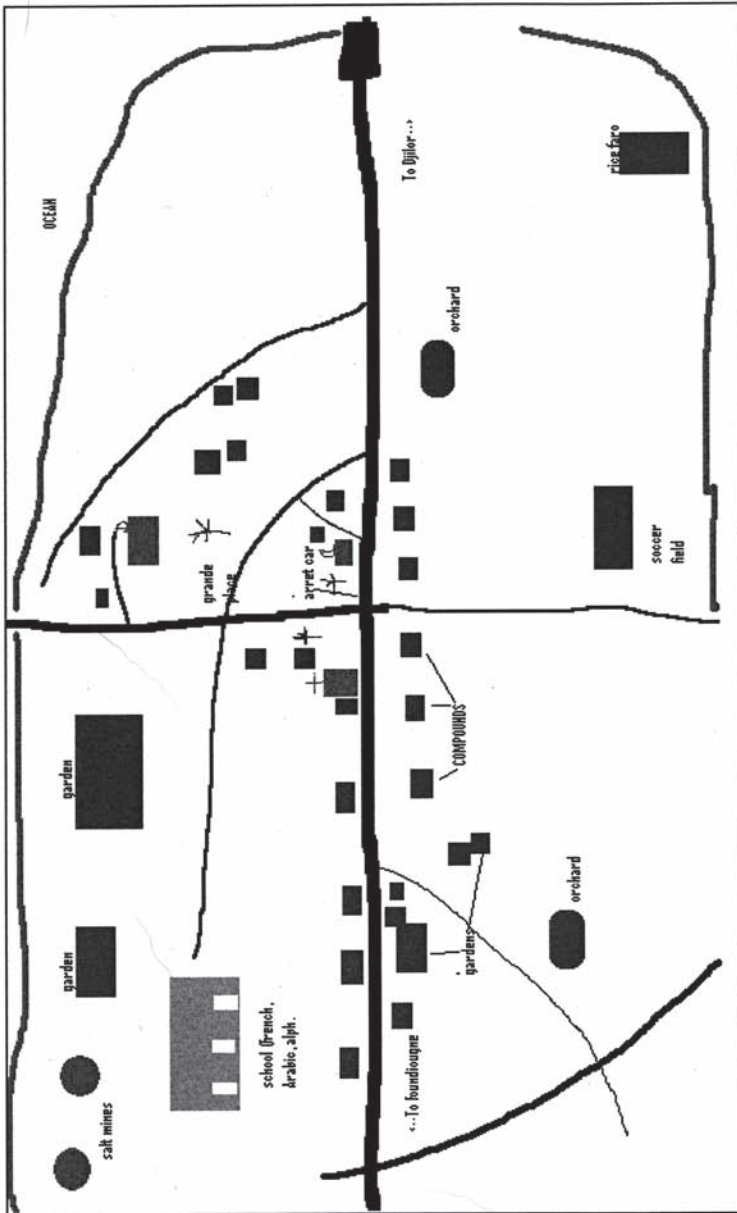
Women's Map
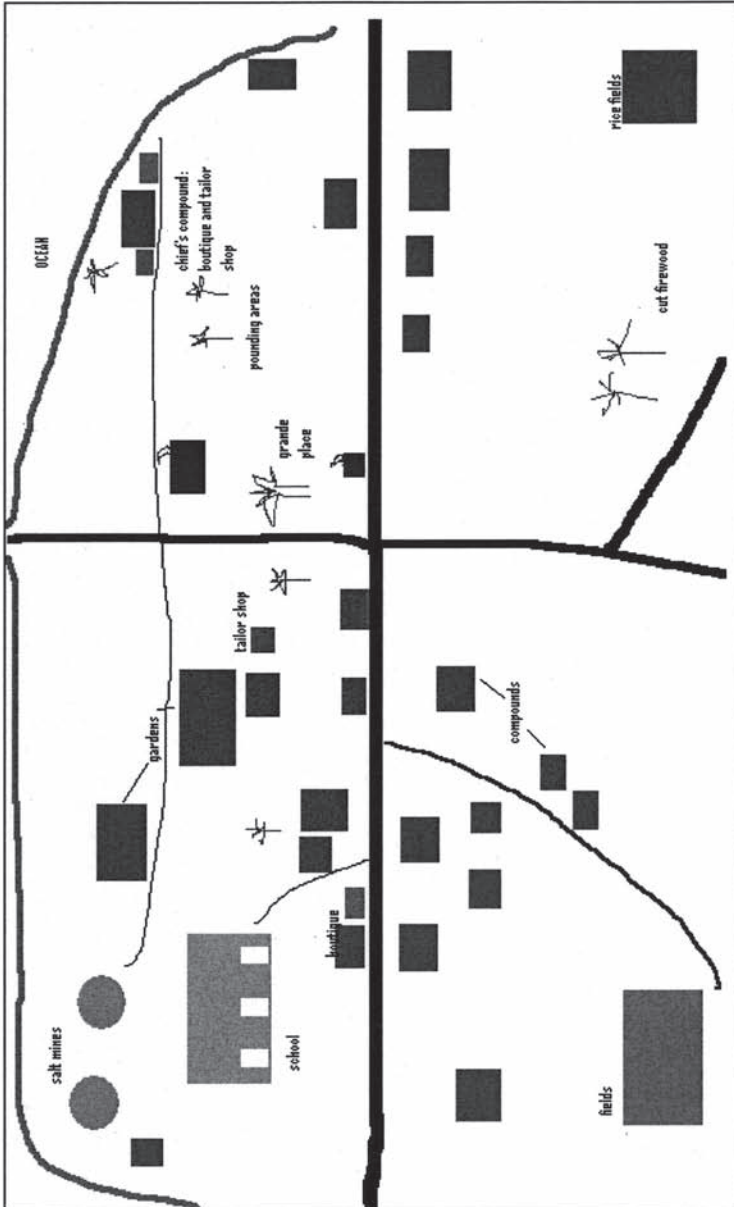
Young Men's Map

Daily Calendars

The purpose of this activity, like seasonal calendars, is to determine what time of day people are available for work on projects. In addition, it was used to promote awareness of the differences in workload between men, women, and young men. Below is the list for each group.

MEN	
Rainy Season	Dry Season
Early morning—fishing Mid-morning to midday—farming Lunch, rest Mid-afternoon—farm work Evening—fishing	Eat breakfast Early morning—wake up kids Mid-morning—work in gardens Midday—lunch, rest Afternoon—cut wood, garden Dinner Bed

WOMEN	
Rainy Season	Dry Season
Early morning—pray, pound, 　　pull water, sweep Morning—cook breakfast, 　　wash dishes, go to fields Midday—come home, cook 　　lunch, start dinner Afternoon—pound, pull water, 　　go to fields Evening—wash kids, cook dinner	Early morning—pray, pound, 　　pull water, water gardens Mid-morning—breakfast, 　　laundry, start dinner Afternoon—pound, pull water, 　　housework, water gardens Evening—cook dinner

YOUNG MEN	
Rainy Season	Dry Season
Early morning—fishing Mid-morning—farming Midday—lunch, rest Afternoon—farm or fish, soccer Evening—fishing Night—social activities	Morning—garden Mid-morning—hut repair Midday—rest, fishing, lunch, cards Afternoon—garden Evening—fishing

Some important points came out of the daily schedule exercise. The schedule showed that while men are busy with fishing and farming all day during the peak activity season, women are busy with household tasks and income-generating tasks no matter the time of year. They prepare food, pull water, pound millet, clean house, care for children, work in fields and gardens, and other activities throughout the day. During the dry season, young men tend to livestock and repair huts while older men pray and rest. All groups have more free time for meetings and village development activities during the middle of the day.

Consensus Building

The men, women, and young men each developed a list of priorities for the village. When the three lists were examined together, two items—the health hut and the millet machine—appeared on each list. These two "advanced" to the next step of the process, while a *pairwise ranking grid* helped the villagers prioritize the rest of their needs and wants. The results are as follows:

Priority:	Number of Times Preferred:	Final Ranking:
Health Hut	12	1
Millet machine	11	2
Fishing Project	8	3 (tie)
School Improvement	8	3 (tie)
Salt Intrusion	8	3 (tie)
Soil Improvement	8	3 (tie)
Village Organization	6	7
Forage	5	8
Animal Security	4	9 (tie)
Village Layout	4	9 (tie)
Gardening	2	11
Seed Bank	1	12
Soccer Team support	0	13

Example of Pairwise Grid, or Ranking Matrix (resulting in the rankings shown on page 144)

	Health Hut	Millet Machine	Fishing Project	School Work	Salt Intrusion	Soil Work	Village Organize	Forage	Animal Security	Village Layout	Gardening	Seed Bank	Soccer Team
Health Hut		HH	HH	HH	HH	HH	HH	HH	HH	HH	HH	HH	HH
Millet Machine			MM	MM	MM	MM	MM	MM	MM	MM	MM	MM	MM
Fishing Project				FP	SI	SW	FP	FP	FP	FP	FP	FP	FP
School Work					SCW	SW	SCW	SCW	SCW	SCW	SCW	SCW	SCW
Salt Intrusion						SI	SI	SI	SI	VL	SI	SI	SI
Soil Work							SW	SW	SW	G	SW	SW	SW
Village Organize								VO	VO	VO	VO	VO	VO
Forage									F	F	F	F	F
Animal Security										AS	AS	AS	AS
Village Layout											VL	VL	VL
Gardening												G	G
Seed Bank													SB
Soccer Team													

At the beginning of this exercise, the "village organization" was a priority for the village. The men's group considered that "it is very critical to strengthen village organization. Without it, nothing would work." However, at one point during the all-village meeting, an influential

member of the community stated that "Gagué Bocar could work on its own organization, and that residents should use this exercise for activities requiring outside assistance." From then on, participants did not choose village organization over other options.

Designing the Action Plan

After completing the needs assessment with the villagers, the next step was establishing a plan of action. In order to do so, the villagers needed to understand and describe in detail exactly what each project would entail in terms of money, labor, materials, and so on. It was also necessary to assign specific tasks to individuals and appoint others to monitor the progress. Together, the villagers, Volunteers and counterparts broke down the top five projects into the following categories: tasks, cost, village contributions, external contributions, who is responsible, and who will oversee. The following are examples of some of the tables from Gagué Bocar's action plan.

HEALTH HUT					
Activity	**Task**	**Village contr.**	**External contr.**	**Who will do?**	**Oversee?**
Hut construction	Mason labor	35000		Abass Ba	
	Bricks	30000		Mamadou	Keba Ba
	Grass	56250		Diallo	Issa Ndiaye
	Roof beams		24000	Resource Seekers	
	Doors zinc		15000	Resource Seekers	
	Carpenter	5000			
	Door wood		9000	Issa Ndiaye	
	Cement (15)		48000	Ablaye Toure	
	Transport cement	3750		Call	
	3 kg nails		3000	Meeting	
	Locks		5400		
	Hinges		3000	Mamadou	
	Paint		3600	Ndiaye	
	Sand (25 loads)	10000		Building	

Latrine	Cement (2 bags)		6000		
	Metal bars		4000		
	Wire		500		
	Labor	10000		Keba Ba	
	Fencing	3000			
Training	Matrons		12000		
	Staff		12000		
Medicines			100000		
Materials	Benches (3)		16000	Go Ba	Babou
	Beds		20000	Asimou Ba	Thiare
	Table		3000	(buy supplies)	
	Armoire		15000		
	Chairs (4)		2000		
	Buckets (2)	2000			
	Mattresses (2)		16000		
	Sheets (4)	10000			
	Scale		20000		
	Lamps (3)		6000		
	Scissors		5000		
	Gas tank		15000		
	Pot	2500			
	Beignoirs (2)	3000			
	Shovel	2000			
	Blouse fabric		15600		
	Tailor	24000			
		196500	379100		
Total			575600		
5 % unexpected costs			28780		
Project total			604380		

MILLET MACHINE			
Activity	**Tasks**	**Village contribution**	**External contribution**
Building for machine	Cement (16 bags)	48000	
	Zinc	36000	
	Metal beams	6400	
	Door wood	3300	
	Roof beams	24000	
	Nails 1kg	1000	
	Locks	2800	
	Hinges	4300	
	Sand (60 loads)	24000	
	Labor	75000	
Materials	Lamp	2000	
	Beignoirs (2)	3000	
	Cloth cover	1400	
	Bench	5300	
	20L jugs (2)	2000	
	Gazoil 20L	8000	
	Oil 5L	6500	
Training			
Machine			1750000
		253000	1750000
Project total			2003000

Conclusions

Some of the projects, such as improving livestock security, are already underway. The residents of Gagué Bocar and several nearby villages have received approval from the equivalent of their "county board" to build a security hut on one end of their bridge and staff it with a guard. They hope to cut down on animal theft since this is the only point of access for the area. As for projects like soil improvement, the resources and knowledge are already in the village: several villagers have learned how to make compost and will train others upon request. The facilitators and villagers wisely concentrated on the village's top priorities, emphasizing that the village can address the others in the future when the first few projects are established and generating income.

The PACA methods used in identifying and planning these activities were useful to the community members in understanding that they had many resources other than the money coming in from the outside sources. This led to empowerment and bonding within the community. Through the daily activity exercise, men could see and acknowledge that women's labor was much different than their own. The daily activity also pointed out the differences between older/younger men's labor. Although much information was collected with this process, the most productive piece was the action plan formulated by the community. The fact that they have already implemented some of it is a testament that the "community action" in "participatory analysis for community action" is essential to the development process.

Resource: Famara Massaly, Associate Peace Corps Director for agriculture in Senegal; and Peace Corps Volunteers Elisabeth Wittenberg, Hugh Ewart, Sean Barrett, Jill Tucker, and Mike Cherone.

APPENDIX II
From Tools to
AIDS Action

Experiences from Rural Uganda

The Rakai AIDS Information Network (RAIN) used participatory rural appraisal (PRA) methods to help community members identify and analyze factors that put them at risk of the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection. This article describes the different methods used and what community members and program staff learned about community HIV risk factors.

HIV Infection in Uganda and Rakai District

Of Uganda's 19 million inhabitants, more than 1.5 million are estimated to be infected with HIV. The first known Ugandan cases of AIDS appeared in 1982 in a small fishing village in Rakai District. Rakai is a rural district located in southwest Uganda two hours by road from the national capital, Kampala, and borders on Tanzania and Lake Victoria. HIV prevalence rates in Rakai have now reached epidemic proportions. The overall HIV prevalence rate in the district is 13 percent; however, rates vary considerably by geographic locale. For example, it is estimated that 39 percent of all adults in main road trading centers are HIV positive, 25 percent in rural trading villages on secondary roads, and 9 percent in rural agricultural villages (Wawer, 1991).

The major modes of HIV transmission in Uganda are through heterosexual contact and from mother to child (vertical transmission). The nature of HIV transmission in Uganda, the devastating impact of the disease on geographic communities, and limited government resources

made it essential that communities be involved in promoting sexual behavior change and sustaining AIDS prevention programs.

The Rakai AIDS Information Network

The Rakai AIDS Information Network is a Ugandan NGO with the goal of reducing the spread of HIV infection in Rakai district. It is run and managed by health-care providers, health educators, counselors and trainers from Rakai district. The organization's strategy is to provide integrated AIDS prevention interventions within a community-based health-care framework. Its programs include community-based health care (CBHC) which trains village health committees, community health workers, and traditional birth attendants. The training includes basic community health care, but with a special emphasis on HIV prevention. RAIN also conducts a peer education program for village youths, consisting of a three-day training on HIV prevention and condom promotion. Finally, RAIN has an HIV counseling, testing and medical treatment program that operates through eight decentralized subclinics. Both the CBHC and peer education programs are community based, with community members selecting from among themselves the participants to be trained. Community members are also responsible for implementing program activities within their own communities.

In 1993, the chairman of RAIN attended a Ugandan CBHC Association/ World Neighbors participatory rural appraisal training. The training focused on using PRA for general community health. However, the chairman thought the methods might be particularly useful in helping community members and program staff explore factors that put people at risk of HIV infection. Thus, in 1994, RAIN facilitated PRA sessions in two rural areas with high HIV prevalence.

Methods Used and Lessons Learned

In order for community members and program staff to assess community HIV risk factors, we used several different PRA methods. These

included mapping, seasonal calendars and men's and women's 24-hour activity clocks.

Mapping

Participants organized themselves by village. Each group then drew a map of its village on the ground, using locally available materials such as ash, beans, maize and stones. They first identified the physical features of their communities such as hills, swamps and roads, followed by social features such as homes, churches, schools, and agricultural lands. For each house, participants also identified residents by age and sex and the number of deaths that had occurred in the past 12 months. Participants were also asked to identify which deaths were caused by AID, but declined to do so because of the stigma still attached to the disease.

The village maps were transferred onto paper, and then presented to the group at large. By identifying the number of deaths in the past 12 months, participants realized that there had been at least one death in each home. Although the causes of death were not identified, participants knew that many were caused by AIDS. By seeing the amount of death, participants came to realize the prevalence of AIDS within the community and the implications this had for the community's survival. Next, participants identified specific locations that might put them at greater risk of HIV infection. For example, they identified drinking establishments where residents often drink alcohol and take outside sexual partners. They also identified isolated areas, such as wells and wooded lots, where women are at risk of being raped.

As solutions to these problems, men proposed that all drinking should be done during the day and that they come home early in the evening. Women suggested that they should go in groups to collect water and firewood, and thus decided that no water should be collected at night. Some men also offered to accompany their wives and one even said: "I shall do the collecting of water to avoid the risk."

Seasonal Calendar

A group of 12 community members also created a seasonal calendar to identify seasonal health risks. Participants marked the 12 months of the year on the ground and then indicated the amount of rain or sunshine within each month. Under each month, participants then identified the prevalence of both malaria and diarrhea. When finished, participants transferred the chart to paper (below).

	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Rain or sunshine	##	\	\\\	\\\\	\	#	###	##	\	\\	\\	\
Malaria	mm	o	o	m	o	m mm	mm	o	o	o	o	m
Diarrhea	d	ddd	d	x	x	d	dd	d	x	x	x	d
HIV	h	h	hh	h	h	hhh	h hhh	hh hhh	i	i	i	ii

Key: # = amount of sunshine   m = prevalence of malaria
         \ = amount of rainfall   o = absence of malaria
                                       d = prevalance of diarrhea
                                       x = absence of diarrhea
                                       i = prevalance of HIV transmission

While analyzing the chart with the group, knowledgeable participants related the prevalence of the two diseases to the amount of rain or sunshine. Many participants were surprised. They had previously thought that malaria and diarrhea were caused by eating certain foods, such as maize or mangos, which are present at specific times of the year. The facilitator then asked: "Does HIV transmission have a season?" He expected participants to say no because transmission occurs throughout the year. However, program staff and many community

members were surprised when a village elder stood and said: "Yes, in our own community here, we have found that when it is harvesting time and men have money, even a lady…will accept (to have sex) because she knows he has money." To investigate this further, the facilitator added a third row to the chart and asked participants to indicate the prevalence of HIV transmission in each month. They said transmission was greatest in June, July and August. The facilitator asked why and participants explained that these are the harvesting times for maize, beans and coffee. Therefore, these are the months men have money to spend on alcohol and additional sexual partners. Participants added that transmission is also higher in March and December. This is because men often sell their stored crops to prepare for the Easter and Christmas holidays.

Community members, and particularly housewives, then realized that there are certain times of the year when they are at greater risk of becoming infected. To counteract this risk, members proposed different solutions. As one woman said: "I have learned that … during harvest season, people need to safeguard one another." Another woman said: "Men should take precautions; they are the ones going out." This finding also has important implications for RAIN's programs. As said by a staff member at the exercise, "This is new to me. Now I know we have to intensify educational efforts and distribute more condoms at specific times of the year."

Twenty-four Hour Activity Clocks

The final exercise was for women and men to create their own 24-hour activity clocks. The purpose was for participants to identify the differences between the amount of work women and men do and reveal leisure time that might lead to risky behaviors. Men and women formed separate groups of about 15 people each. Each group discussed what they generally did for each hour of the day and an elected person took notes. Members of the two groups then transferred the notes onto paper and presented them to the group at large for analysis and interpretation.

The clocks revealed that in the morning hours women generally wake up, "play *zigido*" (a reggae-type of dance used as a euphemism for sex), clean the house, prepare tea, cultivate, collect firewood and water, and prepare lunch. In the afternoon, they usually eat lunch, make handicrafts or play zigido, cultivate, collect firewood and water, and prepare dinner. At night, the women continue preparing dinner, feed their children and husbands, eat, sleep, and play zigido. In the morning, men generally wake up, play zigido, take tea, cultivate, trade, fish or repair bicycles. In the afternoon, they bathe, eat lunch, and rest. Some will then continue work or "go boozing," play board games or "go looking for sexual partners." At night, men listen to the radio, eat supper, sleep, and play zigido.

After each group presented their clocks, the general question: "What have we learned?" was asked. An elderly man stood and said: "I have learned that women have more activities than men." Another said: "We give them all the work and I only realize that now." A lively debate then ensued about what constitutes men's and women's work. Some men saw the need to better share the work and started to negotiate with the women. One man said: "If she goes for firewood, I will go for water." But another man added: "We need to help one another, but do not let it lead to conflict. If we get water then don't tell us to also get firewood." A woman then boldly added, "Men, we work and work and work and then you ask for sex. We are tired. Men should reduce the time for zigido." A man then asked, "Women, which should we reduce, sex or work?" Another man said, "We need to sit together with our wives and decide … We should schedule the activities—including sex."

By comparing their activity clocks, participants also identified several HIV risk factors. First they saw that men have a lot more leisure time than women, and some of this time is spent drinking alcohol in local bars and having outside sexual partners. The facilitator pointed out that, "You men leave all the work for the women and then you go out and bring back the virus." Men also came to realize that they sometimes go to other women for sexual satisfaction because their wives are so

tired. As one participant said, "The women because of all the work get old soon and look not so nice so we go for other women." However, the group realized that by having partners outside of their marriage they put themselves and their wives at greater risk of HIV infection.

The proposed solution was, again, for husbands and wives to sit together and decide how to better share activities. That way women would be less tired and the men more occupied.

Conclusions

PRA methods were useful in getting community members and program staff to identify, analyze and address sexual practices that put people at risk of HIV infection. Through mapping, participants were able to identify physical locations where they would be at greater risk. By creating a seasonal calendar, participants saw that they might be at greater risk at certain times of year. The 24-hour activity clocks revealed that men have a fair amount of leisure time in which they can and do engage in risky behaviors and that women have an unfair burden of work.

These methods enabled community members to identify problems and find solutions themselves. This, in turn, may lead to more sustained behavior change than conventional education information campaigns. Staff also learned more about local sexual practices and were then able to make educational and condom distribution programs more appropriate. Finally PRA provided the means for men and women to discuss and even negotiate the sensitive issues of work and sex.

APPENDIX III
Adaptation of the Niger
PACA Training Handbook

Background

The *PACA Manual* is a great resource for learning about the PACA system approach, PACA philosophy, techniques and process. However, the experiences mentioned in that manual do not reflect the reality in Niger. Village communities are often illiterate, and the traditions are very strong, so we developed a training module that conforms to the reality in Niger.

A PACA training evaluation workshop was organized for Volunteers, host country nationals and language instructors who have participated in at least one PACA training session. The workshop reinforced collaboration among Volunteers and host country nationals as well as the staff in Niamey and the trained teams.

At the end of the workshop the following recommendations were made:

■ The appropriate/ideal period to train a Volunteer is between the fifth and the twelfth month in his/her post. This permits the Volunteer to gain better local language skills and better knowledge of the community with which he/she is working.

■ The best period to conduct a PACA training in a village is the time between the end of harvest and the beginning of the rainy season (in general, from November to early May). This is the time period when villagers are less occupied. During the rainy season, villagers spend two-thirds of their time in their fields.

■ Give a period of time of two to three weeks between the first and the second stage of practice and one to two weeks between the second stage and the action plan. This provides time for the team of facilitators to rest a bit, and for the villagers to rethink about what was previously experienced. However, too much time between the different stages can cause a loss in the momentum.

Introduction

Since April 1997, Peace Corps/Niger has been implementing PACA. The training is done in teams composed of Volunteers, host country nationals and Peace Corps staff. The gender and development (GAD) program assistant conducts all the PACA training with the assistance of some language instructors.

This training module has three main steps:

1. Teach trainees the basic notion of PACA during pre-service training. This step is done in two sessions: a theoretical session that covers basic PACA skills and a tool exercise that is done with partners (e.g., the school community).

2. Implement PACA tools in a real environment. There is one theoretical refresher session for Volunteers and one with their counterparts. This permits counterpart groups to acquire the same level of PACA information as Volunteers. The field practice is done in two phases: exploratory phase and analytical phase.

3. Create an action plan with the community members. This includes learning how the action plan facilitation is conducted and what the role of the Volunteer should be during the action plan implementation.

The fourth chapter of this module demonstrates how a PACA team is organized and explains the work process.

Finally, this manual provides some advice to the PACA facilitator on:

- Facilitation skills

- Attitude and behavior

- Cultural diversity within a facilitator team

- Situations (case studies)

I.   STEP 1: PACA BASIC NOTIONS

Trainees are taught basic PACA theory and skills during pre-service training.

1.1   First Session

The first session covers:

- The background and importance of a participatory approach

- PACA philosophy, methodology and process

- Field work and cultural aspects

- PACA tools

- Facilitation techniques

- Exercises (role plays among trainees)

1.2   Second Session

The second session consists of an exercise in the field with a real village community. We often work with the junior high school community as partners. For example,

one time the "problem tree" tool was used to debate the issue of girls' education in Niger. We worked with four groups: male students, female students, male teachers, and female teachers. During this exercise, we worked with the language instructors who facilitated the discussions. We also encourage trainees to facilitate if they choose.

II. STEP 2: PACA TOOLS PRACTICE

This step consists of Volunteers and their host country colleagues implementing PACA tools with the village communities where Volunteers work.

These tools have already been previously described. We do not consider the community members as laboratory specimens and for this reason the field ground work is always conducted in a village where a Volunteer is posted. This way, after the facilitator team's departure, the host Volunteer and his/her PACA-trained counterpart can continue the process by implementing the activities listed in the action plan together with villagers.

2.1 The Theoretical Stage

Before the field work starts the host country nationals receive a full day of training and the Volunteers receive a half day of training.

2.1.1 Half Day With Volunteers

The half day with Volunteers is an overview of the following topics:

– Volunteers summarize what they learned about PACA during pre-service training

– PACA tools and their goals (including handouts)

– Explanation of the training process and how the practice will be done in the village

– Role of the facilitator (review)

– Highlight of the facilitation techniques (review and explain the difference between facilitating and guiding)

– Case studies and cultural advice on how to behave in the village as a facilitator

– Team building

2.1.2 One Day With Host Country Nationals

The training of the host country nationals covers the following:

Session 1: "What do we know about Peace Corps?"

• The three goals of the Peace Corps

• The Volunteers and their roles

Note: Sometimes host country nationals don't know exactly what the Peace Corps is and what a Volunteer's role is. As PACA training/work needs to be done in a team, it is necessary that both Volunteers and host country nationals know each other's work and roles. This avoids mistaken expectations and frustrations and can reinforce collaboration.

Session 2:

• Brief summary of the participatory approach systems

• Introduction to PACA

- The notion of gender
  - the difference between gender and sex
  - the impact of gender in development projects

- Philosophy and the PACA process

- The notion of filters

- The PACA tools

- The role of the facilitator
  - facilitation techniques
  - the difference between facilitating and guiding

- Team building

- Cultural advice
  - case studies
  - how to react or behave as a facilitator

- Role play on implementing the tools

Usually the different members of the team get together for a lunch or a party to introduce themselves.

2.3 Field Practice

After participants learn basic PACA theory, the team moves to the field for practice. Field training consists of using the different tools with real community members.

This training module has eight tools:

1. Daily activities schedule

2. Historic profile (village/community history)

3. Community/village map

4. Transect walk

5. Seasonal calendar

6. Community foundation/social map

7. Needs assessment

8. Problem tree

Note: *Only four of these tools are detailed in the* PACA Manual*, the others are tools used in PRA.*

The work is conducted in small, separate group meetings, and both community members and facilitators gather for a "restitution meeting." At the end of each small group meeting, participants choose one representative who shares with the other groups what is discussed in his or her group. This is common to all the groups: women and men, young and old.

Each day the team uses a tool with the different members of the community in small, separate groups. A big meeting for sharing is always planned at night with all the community members. This is common for all the tools. That makes a total of eight days of practice in the village, carried out in two different phases.

Two phases compose the field work:

1. *Exploratory Phase.* This phase consists of implementing the first four tools (daily activities schedule, historic profile, community/village map, transect walk) with the community members. This phase is called exploratory because it is more about discovering the community through members daily habits, backgrounds, and local resources.

2. *Analytical Phase*. This phase utilizes the last four tools (seasonal calendar, community foundation, needs assessment and problem tree). This phase is called analytical because it's the diagnostic part. This phase looks for why, how, and when something happened. Villagers think about their needs and constraints by trying to find out the reasons behind these needs and constraints, the impact they have on the community's well-being and development, and what the community should do to address them. Villagers often prefer this phase because:

   • They have used and understand the PACA process (especially women who feel more and more comfortable talking in front of a crowd); and

   • The tools focus on the villagers' everyday activities, their problems and/or their needs.

   This phase was described by a villager in eastern Niger one day: "We were laying down before; now, we've woken up."

2.4 Preparation at Village Level

PACA training is a team effort that involves different people and considerable logistics—the village hosting the event needs to be well prepared. Inform the village community well in advance to allow for preparations. The host Volunteer should call one or two meetings to explain the following to the villagers:

● Goals and objectives of the training

● How the training will be conducted (e.g., people will be split up into groups according to age and/or sex—old men, young women, old women, young men)

- The different groups should decide on the time when they are free to work with the PACA facilitator team. (Note: It is important to follow the community members' agenda rather than imposing the facilitator's agenda on the community)

- The importance of people listening carefully to each other (e.g., men to women, young to old)

- The villagers should provide lodging for the facilitator team (often two houses; one for men and one for women)

III. THE ACTION PLAN

The action plan is a four-column chart. Its objective is the resolution of the problems identified by the community itself through ***community action***. The action plan consists of developing a work plan of some achievable tasks that the villagers choose to work on because of locally available resources and abilities for a period of time that they set by themselves.

Unlike the process of using the tools, which consists at first of small group discussions and then in larger groups, the action plan is created in a large group (with all the community members sitting around a circle).

3.1 Facilitation of Action Plan

The facilitator should be patient and observant because this is an important part of the training. There should be good communication from one group to another so that people can talk and give their opinions freely on the different components of the plan. Also, it is important to let people express their feelings completely without being interrupted or influenced.

Each group should explain how it intends to work not only on its own activities but also the activities of the other groups: that's what **community action** is about.

3.2 Role of the Volunteer in Working on the Action Plan

During the PACA process, a partnership is formed between villagers and Volunteers. Through PACA, villagers understand that Volunteers and technical agents should not be the only people spending their efforts and energy on community development. The PACA process is like the well-known Chinese proverb: "*Give a man a fish and he eats for a day. Teach a man to fish and he eats for a lifetime.*"

However, the villagers may need external help once they encounter difficulties or when they run out of resources. Volunteers can serve as a link between the community and other funding sources such as NGOs and associations (both local and foreign), projects, and funding partners. These NGOs and associations can fund certain activities. It's good for Volunteers to have the list of development services working in their region and also to know their requirements. Volunteers have the responsibility, whenever the need arises, to send a project proposal requesting funding. Other members of the team should help the Volunteer as much as they can for a good and effective follow-up of the action plan.

IV. TEAM ORGANIZATION AND WORK PROCESS

In the village, the team members live in two separate areas provided by the community: one for men and another one for women. Meals are taken together. The facilitators should split up into small groups: sub-teams composed of two to four people to help the villagers practice the tools according to their work time.

4.1 The Sub-Teams

A sub-team is often composed of:

- *Facilitator*. Facilitates discussion in the local language. When practicing this role, remember and apply the facilitation techniques and strategies learned. Also consider the cultural advice mentioned during theoretical training.

- *Observer*. Observes the skills of the facilitator as well as the reaction of the members of the group. This person should note all observations and share them during the facilitator team meetings**.**

- *Note-taker/reporter*. Takes notes and reports all symbols, drawings and figures that result from the group discussion.

The other members of the group should participate in the discussion and activities.

4.2 The Facilitator Team Meetings

After the small group meetings, there should be time for the facilitation team to sit down, share appreciations, make suggestions, and give feedback. It is also an opportunity to clarify certain details and give advice if necessary.

4.3 The Restitution Meeting

The restitution meeting is the big group meeting involving all the members of the community and the facilitation team. During this meeting, the chosen representatives of the small groups show their work to the other members of the community (e.g., their village map), share their discussion conclusions, and give clarification by answering any questions asked by the other groups.

(***Note:*** *This is a big, important, and difficult step, especially for women. They often do not have access to speaking in public, they are rarely asked for an opinion, and they usually do not participate in community decision-making.*)

Someone from the facilitation team conducts the restitution meeting. After each practical phase, each member of the facilitation team should go through the following tasks: facilitation, note-taking and observation. Volunteers are also invited to go through these tasks according to their local language level. Usually team members help them to prepare useful words and expressions for the facilitation. Sometimes the Volunteers can work in pairs with a native speaker for facilitation.

4.4   Training Evaluation

An evaluation meeting is held at the end of each practical phase to let people talk freely about:

- What they learned from the training

- Any assistance they got from the training

- What they found difficult

- Strategies, ideas or techniques to be used next time

- Strategies to reinforce team building

- Logistics

- Any other comments about the training

This evaluation session should be open, fair and clear. Give the team the choice to evaluate verbally or in writing.

V.   SOME ADVICE TO THE PACA FACILITATOR

5.1   About Facilitation Skills

The facilitator plays a critical role in the PACA training process. Even though all the information generated through the PACA process already lives within the community, PACA tools help community members identify this information and arrive at conclusions that are relevant, and not always obvious.

Sometimes people think that being able to speak a local language perfectly means they can facilitate a discussion in a PACA working group. While language skills are helpful, a facilitator needs interpersonal skills as well as language communication skills. A good facilitator knows which questions to ask and how to ask them.

Facilitators should try to be:

- patient

- observant

- able to keep your temper

- self-confident and assured (even if their language ability is not the best)

- open-minded to better understand cultural differences

- polite and respectful

- modest

5.2   Attitude and behavior

Local government officials are generally considered by the villagers as high-class citizens. The reason is clear: these

government officials or *Mouchés* are educated people who live mostly in the big towns and cities. They have salaries and higher incomes that make their living conditions better. They dress nicely. These officials, once they get to the village, have a certain attitude that confirms these impressions. All this creates a complex relationship between the officials and the communities they are supposed to serve.

PACA urges full participation of different community groups. Facilitators should be able to overcome any barrier, any obstacle they may come across while fulfilling the group's work. Facilitators should always consider their role as a facilitator for group discussion. They should create a relaxed working atmosphere to make the group members feel at ease. That's the best way to get accurate and spontaneous information from villagers.

To meet that need, here are some tips.

- Follow the village protocol when introducing yourself to the community members.

- Participate in any social event or ceremony—happy or sad—that may occur. while you are in the community (go to *fatiha* for social ceremonies or go to a funeral for condolences).

- Make a tour of the village and say hello to people.

- When you come to a meeting, if people offer you a chair humbly refuse it and sit down on the ground just as they do.

- Don't be judgmental; listen carefully to what community members are saying.

- Take control of the discussion in a polite way.

- Watch out for cultural offenses.

When leaving the village, facilitators should follow the cultural protocol as they did on the first day when they introduced themselves.

5.3 Cultural Diversity Within the Group of Facilitators.

Usually, a PACA team is composed of Volunteers and their counterpart host country nationals. These host country nationals are often government employees working in the same domain as Volunteers (e.g., agriculture, environment, health) or literate villagers. In both cases, a Volunteer should consider some criteria before choosing someone to be trained in PACA. Qualities such as motivation, patience, dynamism, and flexibility are required.

Host country counterparts represent different ethnic groups and backgrounds. It is important to consider people's background and differences. For example, if a Volunteer values punctuality and sets punctuality as criteria to choose someone for PACA training, he or she may be disappointed that host country nationals value patience ahead of punctuality. Volunteers should challenge themselves to accept people no matter where they are from and what their cultural and ethnic backgrounds are.

5.4 Situations

There are situations when a PACA facilitator may feel uncomfortable and may ask questions such as: What can I do? How should I react? Such situations are unpredictable and unavoidable. Below are three examples. Read these situations carefully and work them out to find appropriate responses/solutions.

SITUATION 1

During a PACA training in a village, facilitators are conducting the transect walk tool with a group of young girls when two old men slip into the group and take full control of the discussion. The situation makes the girls uncomfortable and embarrassed and they refuse to answer any question they are asked. The facilitator gets frustrated and tries to resolve the problem.

Question: How can the facilitator react in such a situation and deal with the matter?

SITUATION 2

While presenting the village history during a PACA session, a dispute breaks out when people recount sad events that divided two families in the village. People get on each other's nerves and the situation starts to get out of control.

Question: What should the facilitator do in a situation like this?

SITUATION 3

While presenting a PACA tool with a group of men, a participant completely interrupts the conversation and takes control of the session. Carefully and tactfully, the female facilitator interrupts the man. The man persists and refuses to be quiet. He is apparently shocked because a woman asked him to be quiet.

To avoid any misunderstanding, the facilitator gives up on the matter. A colleague from the facilitating team asks the angry man to keep on talking. The situation then turns from bad to worse and the tension gets high in the group of Volunteers. The female Volunteers are deeply shocked by

the intervention of the second (male) facilitator who told the man to keep talking. They think that the facilitator should not contradict his female colleague. The Volunteers consider the intervention of the second facilitator to be disrespectful and unsupportive of his female colleague. To attempt to settle the matter and make everything clear, the facilitating team meets in private. People at the meeting try as hard as they can to give an explanation but the Volunteers do not agree.

Question: If you were in this group of facilitators how would you calm the situation? How would you deal with this example of culture shock?

CONCLUSION

PACA tools are used for data collection and analysis as well as for action planning. They can also be used for evaluating finished or ongoing projects. The PACA process is an ongoing cycle that facilitates community integration in every step of the development process. PACA helps people be aware of their local resources, how much they use them to their benefit, and how they can use them effectively. Communities develop more autonomy and the cycle of dependency on development projects and organizations can be broken. PACA creates a partnership between the development agent/Volunteer who uses it and the community with which she or he is working. PACA allows Volunteers to know their community and its members better, understand the community's daily and seasonal occupation/calendars, recognize constraints and needs, highlight their resources and their ambitions, and more.

Resources

Reference Listings

Famara Massaly, Associate Peace Corps Director for agriculture in Senegal; and Peace Corps Volunteers Elisabeth Wittenberg, Hugh Ewart, Sean Barrett, Jill Tucker, and Mike Cherone.

Joseph Ssembatya, Anne Coghlan, Rachel Lumala and Deo Kituusibwa: Rakai AIDS Information Network (RAIN), Uganda. From: *PLA Notes* 23, June 1995, pages 6265. (The authors wish to express RAIN's gratitude to its donors DANIDA, USAID and World Learning, Inc.)

Pareja, M. "Preparing for a rapid livelihood security assessment." Nairobi, CARE East Africa, 1997.

Parker A. R., I. Lozano, L. Messner. *Gender Relations Analysis: A Guide for Trainers*. Westport, CT: Save the Children, 1995.

Stuckey, J. "Raising the issue of pesticide poisoning to a national health priority." *CARE Advocacy Series*, Case No. 1. Atlanta, CARE USA, 1999.

ICE Listings

Community Content-Based Instruction Manual [ICE No. T0112]

Gender and Development Training [ICE No. M0054]

Nonformal Education Manual [ICE No. M0042]

Participatory Analysis for Community Action (PACA) [ICE No. M0053]

Programming and Training Booklet One: The Basics [ICE No. T0113]

Roles of the Volunteer in Development [ICE No. T0005]

The New Project Design and Management Manual [ICE No. T0107]

Tools for Community Participation: A Manual for Training Trainers in Participatory Techniques

Working with CCBI: Volunteer Workbook [ICE No. M0073]

List of PRA/PACA-type Websites

African Development Bank
www.afdb.org

AGRALIN Desktop Library Community Research & Development Information via the University of Wagenhingen in Holland
www.cordis.lu.en.esbpop

Asian Development Bank Group
www.adb.org

CARE International
www.care.org

Clark University
www.clarku.edu

Consultive Group on International Agricultural Research
 www.cgiar.org

Inter-American Development Bank
www.iadb.org

International Food Policy Research Institute
www.ifpri.org

International Institute for Sustainable Development
www.iisd.org

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
www.fao.org

The World Bank
www.worldbank.org

United Nations Development Programme
www.undp.org

Winrock International
www.winrock.org