PHASE II REPORT

Participatory Poverty Assessments
in the Context of Tanzania's Poverty Monitoring Framework
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A Report Prepared by the Vice President's Office for
the Research & Analysis Working Group on Poverty Monitoring

March, 2001

Prepared by Dr. Charles Ehrhart, Independent Consultant

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Introduction

1. Background

In a Consultative Workshop held at the White Sands Hotel in October 2000, it was decided that Participatory Poverty Assessments (PPAs) should become a routine part of Government's Poverty Monitoring System. In a second Workshop, held on 7th March 2001 at the Courtyard Hotel, stakeholders chose the specific roles that PPAs should play and recommended effective institutional arrangements.

2. Purpose

Thus, a number of key steps towards the realisation of routine PPAs have already been taken. This Report identifies and provides information upon which to base the next crucial steps.

Because the Institute for Resource Assessment (IRA) did not participate in Phase II, only 13 consultant workdays were available rather than the 20 initially envisaged. The Research and Analysis Working Group therefore directed the consultancy to focus on:
- The Frequency of PPAs
- Advantageous links between PPAs and other data collection instruments
- The scope/geographic spread of sites
- Criteria for site selection
- How PPAs can be designed to meet the needs and interests of information users at various levels (from the grassroots up)
- An outline of potential tasks leading up to and spanning the implementation of PPAs
- The role of donor organizations

It was also agreed that a model PPA, taking "Extreme Vulnerability" as a topic, would be created to stimulate debate and facilitate decision-making.

Over the course of Phase II, the consultancy was asked to further narrow its focus and explore in greater depth those issues needing to be understood and acted upon in the immediate future. As a result, several new subjects were added to the Report while others were given less attention or deleted.

These decisions and many of the recommendations in this Report are the result of extensive discussion with stakeholders during Phase I and, to a lesser degree, Phase II. This Report also draws on PPA literature and experiences from around the world.

3. Structure

The next section in this Report provides an ordered overview of typical PPA activities. It is not an exhaustive list. Nonetheless, it does present a realistic picture (necessarily painted in broad strokes) of what routine PPAs in the context of Tanzania's Poverty Monitoring System might look like. Section III analyses these activities and provides information intended to help stakeholders make 'best bet' decisions. The final section offers warnings and concluding comments.

II.   Overview of PPA Activities

Some of the most important and difficult steps in the planning of Participatory Poverty Assessments have already been made.

This section presents a sequentially ordered list of 'next steps' to take.

1. Establishing a dedicated Steering Committee
2. Securing funds
3. Setting the research agenda
4. Selecting partners for the Implementing Consortium
5. Negotiating an organisational model
6. Agreeing to a timeframe
7. Setting core and secondary goals
8. Identifying sub-themes and questions, especial social targets and methods
9. Determining scope
10. Selecting sites
11. Determining duration and timing
12. Fashioning teams
13. Choosing methods
14. Training research teams
15. Implementing research
16. Documenting research
17. Providing feedback to participants
18. Helping translate research results into pro-poor policies
19. Determining the frequency of PPAs in the Poverty Monitoring System

These steps build upon one another but can, in some cases, be undertaken at the same time (e.g. activities 1 and 2).

III.   Analysis of Activities

This section analyses the activities listed above.   Drawing on the insights of local stakeholders and on experiences from around the world, it is intended to facilitate making well-informed decisions about institutional arrangements and the actual implementation of PPAs.

1.   Establishing a dedicated Steering Committee

During the first phase of this consultancy, some stakeholders recommended that the Research and Analysis Working Group (RA/WG) appoint a small, dedicated "Steering Committee" to be responsible for ensuring and overseeing implementation of routine Participatory Poverty Assessments. Membership in this Committee would not be limited to RA/WG, since it may benefit from the inclusion of other institutions with particular interest and/or experience in PPAs.
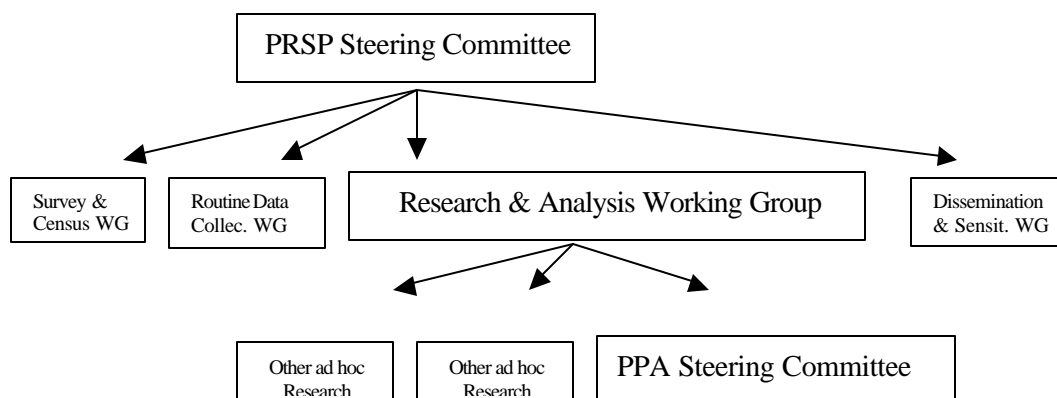
The Research and Analysis Working Group must organise a number of activities for the Poverty Monitoring System in a short period of time. Therefore, it may be helpful to quickly create and delegate responsibility for PPAs to a Steering Committee.

It is recommended that this Steering Committee be chaired by a government agency in order to ensure its direct leadership in, and subsequent ownership of, the PPA process.

2.   Securing funds

One of the first tasks is to secure funding. It is difficult to make projections about the likely cost of a PPA before key details (such as scope) have been determined. However, a number of experiences can be cited to give a picture of the costs that may be involved.

a.   Cost of previous PPAs

The 1999 Vietnam PPA was based on four field sites. The process of formulating research plans, providing training, conducting fieldwork, synthesising results and preparing reports cost @ US$400,000 plus @ 3000 uncosted NGO and local authority staff days. These core portions of the PPA were embedded in a larger framework of activities considered crucial to ensuring policy impact that cost another $500,000.

The first cycle of the Uganda PPA was projected to cost roughly $1,000,000 for:
- An initial PPA in thirty-six communities
- A period of dissemination (at district and national levels) and pro-poor advocacy
- A second PPA.

The cost of these three phases will, in fact, be @ $2,000,000.

The 1998 Shinyanga PPA in Tanzania was based on fieldwork in eight sites. The process of preparation (including training and planning), research and report writing lasted from June 1997 to October 1998 and cost $770,000.

The 1995 World Bank PPA in Tanzania included data from fieldwork in eighty-seven sites throughout the country. Data analysis and writing-up took place in Washington, D.C. without the involvement of field researchers. District level workshops were conducted prior to entering the field, but no dissemination activities were included in the work plan. The total cost of activities was $ _____.

b.   Estimated cost of routine PPAs in Tanzania

Assuming that the Tanzania PPA Process will:
- Work with data users in an inclusive procedure to develop research plans
- Work in 20-30 sites throughout the country
- Generate a national and several issue-specific reports
- Disseminate findings at regional and national levels
- Work with policymakers to help them better understand and respond to the realities of poor people
- Neither create nor fund Community Action Plans

A reasonable cost estimate may be $1,500,000 over a 2-2½ year period. Financial demands would be front-end loaded, since the first year would require the purchase of materials, the provision of high-quality training and support for several months of fieldwork. Subsequent PPAs will cost substantially less if they utilise materials, the operational framework and lessons provided by their precursors.

Many PPAs have been funded by more than one donor. In some cases, this has led to immense complications as project managers struggle with multiple sets of (unfamiliar) forms, guidelines, rules and procedures. Failure to juggle them has led to tensions and, upon occasion, misplaced suspicions. Thus, a basket approach to funding is recommended.

3.   Setting the research agenda

The Research & Analysis Working Group or PPA Steering Committee, in partnership with key data-users, should determine a Research Agenda (i.e. overarching topic) as soon as possible. According to stakeholders, the Agenda should not be limited to addressing PRSP indicator issues. It should be set before institutions apply to join the Consortium implementing a particular PPA. Otherwise, there is the risk that institutions already accepted into the Consortium will lack familiarity and/or compelling interest in Agenda issues.

The relationship between a "Research Agenda" and "Research Plans" is explained in part eight of this section.

4. Selecting partners for the implementing consortium

The Steering Committee's other urgent task is to form an Implementing Consortium.

a. Composition

PPAs involve multiple stakeholders and engage in high-profile policy arenas. As a result, it is vital that its recruitment process be transparent and above reproach. In the 7th March Workshop, stakeholders recommended that PPAs be conducted by a Consortium composed of:

- A Government agency (responsible for executing the PPA Process)
- Research institutions (responsible for implementation)
- National non-governmental organisations (responsible for implementation)
- International non-governmental organisations (responsible for implementation)

In their role as executor, government agencies have:

- Provided *legitimacy* to other PPAs in the eyes of government and other policymakers
- Provided critical decision-making, leadership and guidance
- Established links to relevant processes and constituencies
- Mediated conflicts which emerged between implementing partners
- Assisted in securing resources and collaborating with other stakeholders

Executing agencies are typically uninvolved in the day-to-day implementation of PPAs. Indeed, their direct involvement in the PPA may amount to little more than chairing its Steering Committee. However, they have generally been considered indispensable to ensuring policy impact. The Executing Agency for PPAs in Tanzania's Poverty Monitoring System must be carefully chosen. It may be helpful to map the policy and information processes to which the research will contribute and identify the primary client(s)/intended user of its reports.

Policy Processes	Primary Decision maker(s)/Data User(s)
The Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)	?
Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF)	?
Public Expenditure Review (PER)	?
The Tanzania Assistance Strategy (TAS)	?
?	?

According to Andy Norton *et al.*, this suggests the optimal institutional (versus procedural) home for PPAs.[1]

It is difficult to recommend an 'optimal size' for the consortium. However, assuming that institutions would have difficulty allocating more than two staff persons to the PPA, and assuming that approximately twelve professional researchers will be needed, it would be reasonable to seek six Implementing Partners.[2] This figure would allow the inclusion of CSOs with a variety of complimentary skills without diffusing the experience to such a degree that capacity building becomes illusory.

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[1] A. Norton, B. Bird, M. Kakande and C. Turk. Forthcoming. *Participatory Poverty Assessment: an Introduction to Theory and Practice*. Draft, pg. 27 (Special permission for citation granted by authors).
[2] The number of implementing institutions in other successful PPAs ranges from one to more than a dozen active partners.

b.   Qualifications

The decision to conduct PPAs via a consortium rather than single institution reflects an interest in building broad-based capacity for participatory policy research and the concern that no single institution meets all the required conditions.   In other countries, implementing consortiums have combined complementary institutions with:
 ➢ Significant authority over policy
 ➢ Logistical capacity to manage field research
 ➢ Training skills
 ➢ Participatory research skills
 ➢ Policy analysis skills
 ➢ Writing skills
 ➢ Dissemination/advocacy skills.

The selection of Implementing Partners (IPs) for the Tanzania PPA should be based on transparent criteria that can be categorised as:

Technical: Some of the most important criteria by which to judge the fitness of institutions to implement PPAs is the quality of their RESEARCH, WRITING and COMMUNICATION SKILLS.   IPs should have high-quality participatory research skills. These skills are technically demanding and frequently require changes in practitioners' long-standing beliefs, attitudes and practices to be effective.   Thus, they cannot be learnt in a single training exercise.[3]   This means it is wrong to judge an institution as having these skills if, in fact, it is wholly dependent on one or two *individuals* (who may leave) with adequate expertise.   Ideally, participatory research skills will be widespread in IPs and they will routinely invests in staff training.   Such can be relied upon to maintain a pool of personnel with high-quality participatory research skills.

Though necessary, these skills are insufficient.   Indeed, high-quality research is worthless if its results cannot be expressed in a user-friendly way.   Accordingly, IPs should be evaluated on the basis of the capacity to:
 ➢ Express complex research results in clear, pragmatic documents and
 ➢ Aid and encourage decision-makers to translate findings into pro-poor policies.

Organisational: Another vital quality in IPs is ORGANISATIONAL STRENGTH.   This implies mature leadership with understanding of participatory research and experience managing budgets and staff.   An institution with strong organisational skills is able to identify appropriate personnel for the PPA, ensure their training needs are met and provide oversight and constructive criticism.   For this to happen, Participatory Policy Research must be relevant to the institution's mission/mandate.   If not, staff assigned to the PPA are unlikely to receive the degree of attention and support they need.   In short, there must be wholehearted COMMITMENT to implementing the PPA and using its results to inform policy.   The broader this commitment is in an institution, the better it would be able to answer unforeseen challenges and opportunities.   It is particularly important that the institution/consortium can work well with Government.

Situational: This ability is not solely dependent on internal characteristics.   Indeed, it is also a function of "location" and how others perceive the institution.   An appropriate IP must be centrally located so that it has access to, and is accessible to, others.   This presumes convenient geographic and social location.   In other words, an IP should be (or

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[3] See various authors: J. Blackburn and J. Holland (eds.) 1998. *Who Changes? Institutionalizing participation in development.* London: Intermediate Technology Publications.

want to become) a recognised player in the social world where Government policies are discussed and determined. Otherwise, its efforts to participate in policymaking processes may be perpetually rebuffed as inappropriate incursions by an outsider. Policymakers will listen to the findings, conclusions and recommendations of PPAs only if its Implementing Consortium has CREDIBILITY; that is, the "the quality or power of inspiring belief."[4] Credibility is a composite characteristic reflecting how people assess the technical skills and integrity of IPs. In sum, institutions interested in joining a consortium to implement PPAs in Tanzania should be able to contribute:

➢ High-quality research, writing and communication skills
➢ Organisational strength
➢ Institutional commitment to PPAs
➢ Credibility and legitimacy in the eyes of data-users/policymakers.

c. Steps

The process of selecting Implementing Partners for the PPA should begin as soon as possible. One way forward would be:

Step 1: In consultation with stakeholders, determine criteria for selecting Implementing Partners
Step 2: Draft a cover letter and TOR soliciting proposals to join the Implementing Consortium
Step 3: Send TOR to as many relevant institutions as possible
Step 4: Meet with those institutions requesting additional information
Step 5: Receive and shortlist proposals
Step 6: Submit shortlist to an appropriate decision-making body
Step 7: Choose Implementing Partners

It is likely that this process will take several months and require many working hours. Accordingly, it may be necessary to hire an individual or institution to bridge the period between this consultancy and the formation of an Implementing Consortium to manage the PPA process. This individual or institution must:

➢ Understand the theory and practice of PPAs
➢ Be able to communicate this information to institutions interested in joining the Implementing Consortium
➢ Be able to make clear reports and recommendations to the RA/WG and/or PPA Steering Committee

5. Negotiating an organisational model

An organisational model for the IC should be negotiated between its members, the Research and Analysis Working Group and, perhaps, key donor organisations. Some options, as well as associated pros and cons, are presented in *Figure 1.*

As suggested by the line 'up' in *Figure 1,* the Implementing Consortium must answer to the RA/WG or a Steering Committee. The outstanding question is, *who* will report and answer to the Steering Committee? In the three models below, the arrows represent reporting lines.

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[4] *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, Tenth Addition.*

a.   Hierarchical model

In the Hierarchical Model, the Lead Implementing Partner reports and is answerable to the Steering Committee. The Uganda PPA typifies this model.   Oxfam-GB is the Lead Implementing Partner, and the PPA is organised within Oxfam as a distinct project with:
- A Project Coordinator
- A Technical Advisor
- Two Project Officers
- An Administrator
- A Secretary
- Two Drivers

This Secretariat is seated in the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MFPED, i.e. the executing agency), allowing UPPAP to support/influence the project's primary client on a daily basis.

The model has, in its current form, led to some tensions between the Lead and other Implementing Partners.   Indeed, Oxfam (via the Secretariat and its own seat on the Steering Committee) has made a number of key decisions without adequately consulting its Implementing Partners. This *modus operandi* has been promoted by some members of the Steering Committee on the assumption that it streamlines/accelerates the decision making process.   And perhaps it does.   However, the other institutional partners have lacked commitment to implementing decisions they did not share in making.   Also, there has been some resentment of Oxfam's dominance. This has led, in at least one case, to work 'slow downs.'

On the basis of this experience, it seems advisable that if a Hierarchical Model is chosen for the Tanzania PPA, arrangements be modified to include a Technical Committee composed of representatives from every Implementing Agency.   The Technical Committee would discuss and determine:
- How to pursue the goals and implement activities set by the Steering Committee. The Secretariat would then be responsible for propelling and coordinating the agreed upon course of action.
- Common concerns and recommendations to be communicated by the PPA Secretariat to the Steering Committee

This arrangement would improve the likelihood that *all* Consortium members share responsibility for, and pride of ownership over, the PPA Process, its research results and policy impact.

Even if this Hierarchical Model is designed to be more inclusive in Tanzania, the Lead Partner will still be *the* lynchpin institution. As such, a number of stakeholders suggested that its research credibility is key to that of the entire PPA Process.   Because policymakers do not yet see NGOs as particularly credible data providers, stakeholders recommended that the Lead Partner be a research/academic institution.   This proposal was rarely without reservations. Stakeholders noted, for example, that:
- These institutions typically have limited resources and many other commitments
- Little or no experience organising extensive field operations
- Little or no experience leading other institutions

In order to become a viable Lead Partner, a research/academic institution would, presumably, have to hire dedicated staff with these experiences.

b.   Hub model

A Technical Committee could also be woven into the Hub Model. In this case, however, there would be no Lead Implementing Partner.   Instead, the Secretariat would be an independent body established to facilitate and coordinate PPA activities.   As such, the Secretariat could communicate with the Steering Committee equally on behalf of all Implementing Partners.   As a neutral entity, this Secretariat may be better positioned to manage intra-institutional tensions than a Secretariat based in a single, Lead Partner. This approach has worked well in the case of other complex projects.

c.   Autonomous model

There is no coordinating body/Secretariat in the Autonomous Model.   The approach was used, with good results, in Vietnam (where each implementing agency took full responsibility for planning and undertaking PPA research in its site).   However, it seems best suited to the needs of a sm all Implementing Consortium with a strong history of cooperation and extensive experience in participatory research, synthesis, report writing and advocacy.   In light of current conditions in Tanzania, this model is not recommended.

d.   Placing a secretariat

The Uganda experience suggests several reasons why, if a Secretariat is formed to facilitate and coordinate PPAs in Tanzania, it should be housed in the project's executing agency:
- First, had the Secretariat been located in Oxfam's office rather than in the MFPED, UPPAP would have been *perceived* as an Oxfam project by most policymakers. This would have had negative implications on the PPA's policy impact.
- Second, it is likely that housing the Secretariat in Oxfam would also have resulted in more frequent and severe tensions between it and other implementing institutions.
- Third, placing the Secretariat in Oxfam rather than in Government would have dramatically decreased the informal communication of research results and, probably, lessened UPPAP's involvement in Government policy processes (e.g. formulation of the Plan for the Modernisation of Agriculture and the production of the MTEF and sector specific Budget Framework Papers).

6.   Agreeing to a timeframe

Several stakeholders suggested that it would be beneficial to the PRSP process and the profile of PPAs to ensure that the latter's findings feed into the Paper's 2003 revision. This recommendation seems reasonable and feasible.   Based upon experiences in Uganda, the PPA should aim to release its Reports and initiate dissemination/advocacy activities at least six months before the Revised PRSP is due.   If the next Paper is submitted in June/July 2003 (assuming that GoT reaches HIPC completion point in June/July 2001), then the PPA findings should be available by end -December, 2002.

Working backwards from this date, and assuming the following rough estimates, PPA activities should probably begin no later than October 2001.

Activity	Likely Duration
Formulating in-depth Research Plans with input from key Data Users. This may include visiting districts and, perhaps, preliminary site visits.	3-4 months
Identifying, accessing and studying appropriate Secondary Data	1 month
Training	1 month
Fieldwork (Research, Preparation and Presentation of Community Reports)	3 months
Writing and publishing National and Issue-based Reports	6 months
Total	**14 months**

This date is just six months away (as of April). It is possible to lay the necessary groundwork for implementing an *effective* PPA in this time. In the case of Vietnam, it took a year to structure and build the PPA partnership so that Government would have a strong sense of ownership. In Uganda, Government ownership and leadership was evident from the beginning. This allowed an exceptionally fast start.

There is already substantial Government ownership of the nascent PPA Process in Tanzania. However, steps must be taken between April and October to broaden this sense of ownership. Such a goal may be unattainable if Government does not play a leading role in the PPA process itself. This may prove time consuming in the short term but well worthwhile in the long run. Indeed, there is terrible risk of policymakers disregarding particularly controversial/enlightening research results if they are not seen as the result of a Government-owned process.

Once the PPA reports are produced (after @ 14 months), dissemination and pro-poor advocacy activities should be conducted. An additional 10 months should be allocated to preparing and implementing these activities. It is, therefore, recommended that 2-2½ years be allocated to the complete implementation of an initial PPA. Subsequent PPAs will, perhaps, require just 1½ years.

7. Setting core and secondary goals

The Core Goals of routine PPAs in Tanzania currently include:
- Improving policymakers' understanding of poverty and the outcome of poverty reduction activities
- Opening-up political processes by involving poor people in decisions that affect their lives.

There is space within the PPA Process for selecting secondary goals that either support or compliment core goals. Stakeholders suggested a number of secondary goals during the first phase of this consultancy. These include:
- Encouraging participatory skills, attitudes and policies in local government
- Building capacity for high-quality Participatory Policy Research in CSOs
- Enhancing dialogue, understanding and mutual appreciation between Government and CSOs
- Increasing the role of Civil Society in policy processes (e.g. production of the PRSP)
- Building high-level participatory research skills in the next generation of researchers

Members of the Research and Analysis Working Group, Implementing Consortium and donor institutions should consider additional/alternative goals at key points in the PPA Process.

8.   Identifying sub-themes and questions, special targets and methods

Whereas a "Research Agenda" is general, a "Research Plan" is specific.   The Implementing Consortium should develop this important organizational tool prior to Research Teams leaving for the field. At the very least, detailed Research Plans should include:
- A list of sub-themes and questions that must be covered in every site
- Social groups whose special perspectives and insights on a sub-theme or question must be gained
- A list of research methods that may facilitate accessing, analysing and documenting these perspectives and insights

The following table presents an example of information to include in a Research Plan:

Sub-themes and Questions	Social Groups for Special Targeting	Methods
1. Stigma of extreme poverty: ❑ Are extremely poor people treated differently than others? ❑ If so, how? ❑ What consequences does this have for people's capacity to improve their situation? ❑ What consequences does this have for their ability to access social services?	❑ Women ❑ Children ❑ Ethnic or religious minorities in a community ❑ Landless households	❑ Socio-dramas ❑ Song ❑ Focus Groups
2. The extremely poor and vulnerability to violence: …	…	…

Research Plan should reflect gaps in existing data/understanding and policymakers' priority needs. It is likely that researchers will have to undertake some travel in order to identify and incorporate the needs of local authorities into the Plan. Several of the more successful PPAs have allocated an extensive period of time to this process so that they could meet the needs of local government authorities, community leaders and Civil Society Organisations. Of course, a central feature of the PPA methodology is its capacity to investigate sub-themes and questions that grassroots participants see as key.

If developed through broad consultation, the Research Plan will:
- Enhance the relevance and usefulness of PPA findings for a wide variety of actors
- Build a sense of ownership over (and commitment to acting upon) research results amongst decision makers outside of Dar es Salaam
- Build interest in the PPA
- Enhance the credibility of the PPA process in the eyes of local authorities

A thorough Research Plan also provides a checklist for use in the field. Participatory research is an 'organic process' in the sense that it moulds to its environment. In other words, the order of events and the way questions are asked will vary from site to site. Having a checklist allows research teams to systematically verify that they have covered key issues. Though this consistency between sites is not terribly important in PRAs, it is vital to PPAs. Without it, there can be no national synthesis.

9.   Determining scope

The number of sites included in previous PPAs ranges from four to eighty-seven. This directly impinges on the amount of time spent in each site.

PPAs do no ordinarily attempt to generate representative samples for a country, as their size is unavoidably too small to do so credibly. Instead, PPAs seek to understand some aspects of the diversity that exists within a country. Given that the methodology's comparative advantage lies in in-depth research, it is better to undertake more robust studies in a limited number of sites than compromise their quality by attempting to reach too many sites.

The twenty-three PPAs recently implemented to inform the 2000/1 World Development Report provided good results from eight to fifteen sites per country. Given the extraordinary diversity in culture, livelihood and agro-economic zones that characterises Tanzania, additional sites may be necessary. A reasonable number of sites for routine PPAs in the Poverty Monitoring System would be between twenty to thirty sites nationwide. Anything in this range would provide a manageable amount of highly useful information. The precise number should be determined through the process of site selection.

10.   Selecting sites

A variety of approaches can be taken to selecting sites for in-depth research by PPAs. One of the most important criteria for choosing one approach over another is whether intended information users perceive, or can be educated to recognise, its credibility.

a.   Purposive Sampling

Field site selection for PPAs is usually based on an effort to represent the range of different livelihood systems and conditions in poor rural and urban communities. This method of site selection is sometimes called "purposive sampling." It seeks to understand what is happening in a region, or even country as a whole, by:
Step 1: Identifying significant differences
Step 2: Grouping potential sites in clusters on the basis of these differences
Step 3: Conducting in-depth studies of sites typifying each cluster

Examples of 'significant differences' used in other PPAs include:
- Agro-ecological or agro-economic zones
- Means of livelihood
- Rural versus urban setting
- Culture/ethnic group
- Access to infrastructure/social services
- Integration with markets
- Gender roles and relations
- Access to/inheritance of land

This list may be added to and/or subtracted from on the basis of dominant characteristics (usually determined in consultation with specialists or other key informants) in a particular place.

b.   Site selection in other PPAs

In the Zambia PPA, field sites were selected by experienced local researchers to represent a variety of communities differentiated on the basis of rural/urban characteristics, means of livelihood, culture/ethnic group, agro-ecological zone, access to infrastructure/services and integration with markets.

In Ghana and Vietnam, PPA field sites were also selected by experienced local researchers to represent a variety of key differences between communities. However, in both these cases, yet another factor influenced site selection: namely, the existence of appropriate entry points for dialogue and follow-up.

The Vietnam PPA, for example, was implemented by four international NGOs in four sites where they had been working for several years. This facilitated access to the sites because researchers and their institutions had been there before, had local contacts and had already established an environment of trust. Their long-term local presence also meant that information generated through the PPAs could be used to improve programmes directly benefiting research participants.

The Uganda PPA held a Stakeholders' Workshop to determine criteria for site selection and to select nine districts (then out of 42) for fieldwork. Four communities in each district were then selected "to represent the greatest diversity across the district, in terms of both positive and negative attributes, as well as to articulate the same characteristics for which the district was selected" (UPPAP National Report 2000:6).

Stakeholders decided that the most important defining characteristic of diversity in Uganda is 'agroecological farming system zone.' They identified seven zones and then divided all districts between them. From amongst these, the district ranking consistently lowest (in terms of poverty and welfare – see nine indicators below) was chosen. Though two districts were changed due to security risks, the overarching outcome of this process was to select the poorest districts in the country. In addition, Kamapala District was chosen to represent the "face of urban poverty;" and Bushenyi was chosen because it is, according to many indicators, the best-off district in the country.

Agroecological Zone	Districts in Zone	HDI	Susceptibility to Natural Calamities	Prone to Civil Strife	Social/ Physical Isolation	Population Density and Degree of Land Fragmentation	Poor Soils/Yields	Degree of Social Capital	Extent of Feeder-roads Network	Availability of Safe Drinking Water	Selected Districts
Central (Banana/Coffee)	Mpigi, … Mubene… …		Y N	N N	… …						
South Western (montane)											
Western (Coffee, tea, banana)											
Eastern (Cassava/cotton system, cattle keeping)											
Eastern (Banana/Coffee)											
Karamoja (Nomadic Pastoralists) Northern (Cotton, tobacco, cereal, cassava)											

This process did not lead to a sample representing nationwide *norms* but common extremes. UPPAP's research results, therefore, did not provide a balanced picture of poverty in the country. This may be a poor means to understand what is happening in the country as a whole. It is, however, an excellent approach to learning more about the most critical conditions people face and what can be done to help them.

The 1994 World Bank PPA in Kenya and the 1995 World Bank PPA in Tanzania took very different approaches to site selection than any other PPA. They began with the assumption that few data users (e.g. central planners and statisticians from the National Bureau of Statistics) regard purposive sampling as credible. Therefore, statistical cluster sampling frameworks were used to select up to one hundred sites (as in the Tanzania PPA). The degree to which this identifies 'representative' sites is questionable (personal communication with a senior World Bank statistician involved in the two PPAs). Regardless, this approach sacrificed reliable in-site sampling and in-depth research by trying to cover too many sites.

c.   Sampling for routine PPAs in Tanzania

On the whole, it is recommended that purposive (versus probability) sampling be used to select appropriate field sites for PPAs. It is worth noting that many policymakers may be more open to this approach now than at the time of previous PPAs in Tanzania. Though far from universal, there seems to be wide scale (and growing) belief that:

> *Certain information necessary to understanding poverty manifestations and poverty dynamics can be obtained through contextual methods of data collection [e.g. PPAs] only. In these instances, strict statistical representativeness has to give way to inductive conclusions, internal validation and replicability of results... If ten separate and independent case studies in a country show that corruption in rural health and education services leads to exclusion of the poor, policymakers might well be advised to react to these findings via "inductive conclusion" rather than wait for another 90 case studies to meet a statistical representativity criterion.*[5]

The use of purposive sampling is not new in Tanzania. Indeed, it was used to select sites for the 1998 Shinyanga PPA and for the 1999 UNICEF study on *Children in Need of Special Protection Measures*. In this case, nationally representative coverage was sought by grouping regions into clusters with similar traditions, cultures and economic conditions. One region within each cluster, and one district within each of these regions, was then selected as 'typical.' In this way, eight sites were chosen to provide policymakers with lessons applicable to the country as a whole.

For most Research Agendas, purposive sampling in Tanzania should probably begin with groupings based on principal livelihoods. Then, farming and agro-pastoralist livelihoods would be subdivided into smaller groups on the basis of major agro-economic zones.

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[5] Booth et al. 1998. Participation and combined methods in African poverty assessment: renewing the agenda. DfID Issue Papers, Social Development Division and Africa Division. Page 54.

Principal Livelihood	Districts where Livelihood is Common	Other Significant Distinguishing Criteria (e.g. ease of market access)				Selected Districts per Livelihood group
Farming		(See next table)				
Agro-pastoralism						
Pastoralism						
Fishing						
Small business						
Wage labour						

The number of sites allocated to each livelihood would reflect:
➢ How common it is (more common livelihoods would be allowed more sites)
➢ How diverse it is (what significant distinctions exist *within* particular livelihoods, e.g. between fresh and salt water fishing?)

Because farming and agro-pastoralism are the most common livelihoods in Tanzania, and because they exhibit a great degree of intra-livelihood diversity, they would be allocated the most sites.

Agro-Economic Zones	Districts in Zone	Other Significant Distinguishing Criteria (e.g. culture, distance from markets, soil quality, extent of land fragmentation)				Selected Districts

This approach to sampling depends on in-depth knowledge of Tanzania's extraordinarily different districts. Indeed, districts cannot be grouped or assessed for typicality on the basis of patchy information. Therefore, it may be necessary for the PPA's Implementing Consortium to:

Step 1: Consult experienced researchers about locally significant characteristics to 'cluster'

Step 2: Study quantitative and qualitative data sets in order to identify districts typifying each cluster

Step 3: Work with district authorities to select a community exemplifying the qualities for which a district was chosen.

This process will culminate in research results that are not 'anecdotal' but reliably representative of the most significant circumstances faced by poor people in Tanzania.

11. Determining duration and timing

a. Duration

Research Teams should plan to spend approximately seven working days in each site. This number is more than some PPAs (e.g. the World Bank PPAs in Kenya and Tanzania, in which researchers spent two to three days in each site), less than others (e.g. the 1999 Vietnam PPA) and close to the norm (which is around 5-6 days per site).

Seven days is sufficient to undertake robust research, including:
- The identification of relevant social groups and their members
- The organisation of focus groups and other events
- One-on-one interviews and explore case studies with key informants
- The triangulation of findings by various means

Ensuring widely representative research in urban areas is difficult. In these sites, time equals money equals survival to a different degree than in the countryside. As a result, it is particularly difficult for many poor urban people to spare time for research activities. When they can, it is typically for brief periods in the evening after work. Therefore, thorough research in these sites may last longer than seven days.

b. Timing

PPAs should be scheduled at 'the right time of year.' In Tanzania, there are two major concerns:
- When researchers will be able to access remote villages and
- When villagers have time for researchers

Travel during the wet season is difficult. Indeed, washed out bridges prevented researchers in the 1995 World Bank PPA from accessing a number of intended sites. Therefore, it may be necessary to conduct research in some sites during the dry season.

For villagers, the dry season (after harvest) is a good time. They tend to have more leisure and fewer worries. Therefore, participating in a PPA is more convenient than at others times of year. However, the relative bounty during this season can influence the way people express their situation. Unless researchers take counter measures, this can lead to a misrepresentative image of local realities.

12. Fashioning teams

Three Research Teams could be formed of four members each (two women and two men), for a total of twelve *core* researchers. Teams should be formed on the basis of complimentary experiences, strengths and weaknesses. Thus, multi-disciplinary, mixed - institution Teams are likely to be best.

It may be worthwhile to attach a university student to each Team in order to contribute to training a new generation of researchers in participatory methodologies and methods.

Core team members must:

➢ Have appropriate language skills
➢ Have experience living and working in rural communities (this implies understanding that conditions during fieldwork will be very 'basic.' As such, researchers should be in good health and prepared to live simply for several months)
➢ Have some knowledge of the Research Agenda and be willing to learn more
➢ Have high-level critical thinking skills
➢ Have respect for poor people and their knowledge
➢ Be willing to learn from their professional colleagues and poor people

Core team members should:

➢ Have experience in participatory research
➢ Have report writing skills

Each team member should be capable of working well in groups and alone. Though each team will be designed to maximize strengths and compensate for individual weaknesses, it is vital that all team members are capable of facilitating participatory exercises.

It is extremely important that each Research Team have a Team Leader who can be held accountable for expenses, reports, etc. Along with this responsibility, s/he should also have a degree of authority over colleagues. PPAs without Team Leaders have been poorly prepared to deal with problems (such as some team members failing to do their job) arising in the field.

Ideally, these Team Leaders would come from the Tanzanian PPA's Lead Implementing Partner, Secretariat, etc. and have an exceptionally high level of organizational, research, critical thinking and writing skills. Accordingly, these Team Leaders may be the equivalent of "Project Officers" dedicated to the PPA from inception to completion.

Note: If one of the PPA's subsidiary goals is to *build institutional capacity for participatory policy research in Tanzania*, then it is important that Implementing Partners be given an extended period of time to plan staff allocation. Otherwise, they will be forced to hire outsiders on a temporary basis. As a result, the experience and skills gained through participation in the PPA will be lost to the institution when temporary staff is released.

13.   Choosing methods

The drafting of detailed Research Plans includes the identification of methods (i.e. research tools) for use in the field. This task is best left to the Research Teams, which will be supported by the Consortium's Technical Advisor. Methods will most surely include some combination of:

➢ Wealth Ranking
➢ Social Mapping
➢ Transect Walks
➢ Focus Group Interviews
➢ Key Informant Interviews, etc.

In its final form, this list will serve as a menu for training needs.

The most important challenge is to assemble a package of methods culminating in reliable *in-site sampling*. The identification of local participants representing a range of circumstances and concerns is key to ensuring high-quality and highly useful results. This should begin with comprehensive Social Group Analysis, followed by social

mapping and, perhaps, wellbeing ranking. Rapid appraisal indicators (e.g. lack of granary or dilapidated housing) can also be used to identify and ensure the inclusion of particularly poor households in the research process. These techniques are as reliable as, and generally more practicable than, the use of household survey results to find "the poor" as defined by national level consumption data.

These planning tools should be followed by Focus Group discussions with separate groups of women, men, youth and members of other locally relevant social categories.

14. Training, backstopping and quality control

The single most important determinant of the credibility and, hence, policy impact of Participatory Poverty Assessments is the quality of their fieldwork.

The Phase I Report for this consultancy presented a number of possible research roles for PPAs in the context of Tanzania's Poverty Monitoring System. They were listed in order of ascending complexity. In the 7th March 2001 Workshop, stakeholders recommended that PPAs play several of the most demanding roles. As a result, Research Teams must have a particularly high level of skills and pertinent knowledge.

a. Training

Several stakeholders have pointed out that, while many institutions in Tanzania have experience using participatory methods, they generally lack experience using these tools for research. Implications include the need for 'specialised training' that:
- Builds on individuals' experiences and skills but modifies the latter to suit the demands of research versus 'project planning'
- Builds critical thinking skills so that researchers consistently ask follow-up questions designed to deepen, clarify and/or triangulate people's comments in Focus Groups, etc.
- Builds researchers' understanding of, and capacity for, systematic documentation
- Builds report writing skills

Researchers' current capacities should be assessed prior to planning a Training Programme, the length of which will reflect the extent of their needs. It is likely, however, that three to four weeks training will be required.[6]

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[6] MS-TCDC has been asked to consider approximately how much they would charge to design and provide initial training. This may give a rough estimate of how much training, whether through this organisation or another, will cost.

b.   Backstopping and quality control

Research Teams will always encounter some situations in the field for which they are poorly prepared.   Therefore, it is vital that they receive adequate 'backstopping' to correctly identify and address problems that threaten the quality of their results.

Problems can be operational or technical in nature, but both require clear channels of support.   For example, vehicles may break down or researchers become sick and need evacuation.   In either case, resources must be available for them to call upon. Implementing Partners may provide some of these.   However, the PPA's Technical Advisor and/or a qualified research Trainer should also be available to help Teams refine, or reform, their practices.

One organisational arrangement would be to have three Research Team Leaders and a roving Technical Advisor or Trainer that they could call upon for help.   Though this strategy may appear extravagant, there are two things to keep in mind:
- ➢ Research Teams have just one chance to 'get it right.'   Indeed, it is too late if problems/shortcomings in their work are discovered at the time of report writing.
- ➢ At the very least, incomplete research will limit the contribution PPAs can make to policy processes.   At the very worse, technical shortcomings will undermine the credibility of all research results.

Shifting between Research Teams would also allow the Technical Advisor or Trainer to observe and document the fieldwork process as a whole.   This would provide a significant chance to learn what should be done differently to prepare for future PPAs.

It may also be helpful to break and convene a workshop midway through fieldwork in order to identify problems, progress and lessons learnt.   Doing so would provide researchers with an opportunity to see their families and recoup their strength.

15.   Documenting the research

Documentation and the synthesis of information are critical parts of the PPA process. They are frequently the most challenging tasks faced by Research Teams.   The degree to which they are met bears heavily on the credibility and use of findings.

There are several reasons why documentation and synthesis are so difficult.   The most important include:
- ➢ Fieldworkers are often more familiar and comfortable with verbal versus written forms of communication
- ➢ Fieldworkers often lack high-level analytical and writing skills, at least in part because their work typically does not require these skills
- ➢ Documenting and making sense of information generated through participatory research is far more difficult than doing so for data provided by questionnaire surveys.

It is therefore imperative that Research Teams be trained to produce high-level documentation and reports.   There are at least four levels of documentation in PPAs. They are:

a.   Field notes

Robust recording of all discussions and visual outputs (e.g. drawings, maps, etc.) are vital to the documentation process. This information will provide the raw material for later reports. It will also be a key reference point for distinguishing between what poor people have actually said about their lives and what researchers have surmised.

Given the huge volume of information generated by PPAs, it is easy for researchers to forget details (some of which will be recognized as 'key' only at the point of report writing) and forget whether an idea came from their own conjecture or explicit statements by villagers.   As a result, notes should be written during a conversation/activity or as soon as possible.   Additional recommendations include recording:
 ➢ Date, time and place
 ➢ How many people are present at the beginning, middle and end of larger activities. Disaggregate by men, women and children. A useful chart for record keeping looks like:

	Beginning of Activity	Middle…	End…
Women			
Men			
Children			
Total			

 ➢ Impressions of which people are dominating discussion. Is it older men or women, better off people, etc?
 ➢ Key phrases and terminology in local language.
 ➢ Different point of view and their progressions during group discussion. Don't just record conclusions.

Record carefully.   Researchers should record what was said or explained, rather than what they *think* was implied. Researchers should record their own ideas, but these should be distinguished as such and, when appropriate, starred for follow-up discussion with villagers.

 All records should be photocopied and archived for future reference.

b.   Daily report

Records should be reviewed by the research team on a daily basis. This provides a check against lack of clarity in the written record. It also provides an opportunity to identify obscure, confusing or other statements by poor people needing clarification and/or confirmation before leaving the site.

Once individual notes have been discussed, the team should divide responsibility for writing a Daily Report.   This should include description and analysis of the research *process* (what was done, with whom, how did it go, what lessons have been learnt) and *content* (what did various people say, what did they disagree about, etc.).

All visual records should be explained in detail, since many drawings will not be 'self evident' in several months time and because much will have been said that is not shown.

These reports should be ready before the start of the next day's fieldwork. Indeed, they must be in order to inform plans for follow-up. The reports should be collected by one person and kept together in a safe place.

c.   Community report

These reports are written at the close of work in a specific community. They are far more difficult to write than Daily Reports due to the amount of information that must be synthesized. It is suggested that a basic format for Community Reports be created prior to Research Teams entering the field. This systematisation will greatly facilitate the process of writing a National Report. At the very least, this format will include:

Site Description:
➢ Name of site
➢ Region, district and ward
➢ Number of households and population (this data may be more difficult to generate in urban sites)
➢ Basic infrastructure
➢ Main sources of livelihood for men
➢ Main sources of livelihood for women
➢ Results of Social Group Analysis
➢ Key geographic and environmental features
➢ Seasons
➢ Relevant history

Process Description:
➢ Research Team
➢ Team Leader
➢ Dates of fieldwork
➢ Sequence of activities/events and (disaggregated) attendance
➢ Findings

Perhaps the best way for research teams to organize their findings is to revisit the checklist of sub-themes and questions. All the information from Daily Reports (and individual Field Reports, if necessary) on a given issue can then be systematically identified, assembled and analysed. Important new themes or topics that have emerged from activities and interviews can also be added to the checklist.

Field workers frequently lack experience manipulating information in this way. Therefore, they will need training and support to do it well. One of the most common, and dangerous, mistakes is for research teams to assume their Report should present single point of view in order to have 'clear conclusions.' This is incorrect. Community Reports should reflect the *diversity* of opinions and experiences that exist in a community, as well as indicate those that are crosscutting.

Only after this information is presented should researchers offer their own views and deductions. Remaining gaps in information/unanswered questions should be left blank. Researchers should not try to fill them/answer them if the issue was not addressed during fieldwork.

d.   National report

This Report should be written by the Research Team Leaders, one of whom should be assigned primary responsibility for coordinating the effort. The same strategies and rules that apply to writing Community Reports by and large apply to National Reports. However, its authors must also be capable of:
➢ Using relevant data/information from other sources
➢ Writing in a way that is both compelling and clear to policymakers.

The majority of information in the National Report should be communicated in narrative form to capture and present details, diversity and analysis. It is important for the Report to identify:
➢ Results that cut across social groups and field sites
➢ Variation between sites
➢ Variation between social groups
➢ Unique findings
Explanations for both commonality and variation should be provided.

The process of writing up should begin and end with a workshop where all of the PPA Research Teams can provide input and feedback on the document. It is likely that the first workshops should span some three days. Circulating and discussing a rough draft with select policymakers would also be an advantageous means to check whether the document's messages are strong and clear.

Specific case studies should be presented throughout the text to highlight findings, clarify conclusions and express consequences in terms of their impact on human lives. These can be presented as 'boxes.' The National Report should include:
Acknowledgements
Executive Summary (3-4 pages)
      Main findings
      Conclusions
      Key recommendations
Background
      Purpose of study
      Methodology and process
         ➢ Methods used
         ➢ Process for recruiting participants
Sites
      Criteria for site selection
      Synopsis of sites
      Participants' profile (how many people, and from what social groups, contributed to research)
[Begin main document…]

e.   Issue-based reports

The PPA's policy impact may be substantially enhanced by preparing issue papers focusing on select sub-themes.

In the case of the Uganda PPA, several "Policy Briefing Papers" were published and widely circulated amongst Civil Society Organizations and policymakers at the national and district levels.   The succinct format of these papers (beginning with a one-page summary of conclusions and a second on policy recommendations) proved immensely popular and continues to stimulate pro-poor policy debates (see http://www.uppap.or.ug for examples).

In the case of Tanzania, these could be longer papers assembling and analysing information from Daily and Community Reports.

16.   Providing feedback to participants

PPAs are essentially about the 'upward flow' of information from poor people to local and central government authorities.   However, the downward flow of information is also an important part of the PPA process.

First, in the course of research, it may be necessary to explain certain poverty reduction policies and programmes in order for participants to undertake informed analysis and develop realistic recommendations.   This assumes that researchers themselves are familiar with, and able to accurately communicate, the essence of key policies and programmes.

Second, for ethical and technical reasons, researchers need to provide feedback from the PPA process to local participants before leaving each site.   This entails a documented presentation of findings, including conclusions drawn by the Research Team.   Feedback sessions are open to all member of a community.   They are an important means to helping people see their reality in a new way and, in some cases, take appropriate action. They also provide a final opportunity to solicit corrections, clarification and/or additions to the research findings.

This presentation (or presentations) should be based on the Community report, a condensed copy of which should be left with local leaders.

17.   Helping translate research results into pro-poor policies

A distinction has been drawn between 1st and 2nd Generation Participatory Poverty Assessments, wherein the former are characterised by a focus on field research and (relatively) limited impact on national policies. 2nd Generation PPAs, such as the Vietnam and Uganda PPAs, are different because they incorporate activities purposefully designed to:
 ➢ Engage in policy processes (i.e. engage policymakers/data-users on their own turf)
 ➢ Communicate the concerns and insights of poor people
 ➢ Help policymakers understand these concerns and insights
 ➢ Advocate pro-poor policy responses
These activities result in much more complex, expensive, beneficial and far-reaching PPAs.   Despite the challenges, it seems this is the direction that stakeholders hope routine PPAs in Tanzania will take.

The research process itself can be designed to reflect these ambitions. For example, policymakers themselves could join Research Teams in one or more sites. Based upon her experiences in Madagascar and Guinea, Karen Schoonmaker Freudenberge concludes that:

> *Policymakers have benefited and will continue to benefit from RRA reports prepared by research teams for their consideration, yet learning is infinitely more profound and more lasting when it comes from their own experiences as members of a study team.*[7]

This possibility was discussed at some length with the Mtwara Acting District Executive Director (DED). At first, he insisted that only lower level staff (e.g. field extension officers) would be free to participate in PPA Research Teams. However, after explaining the PPA process in greater detail and the value of participation by senior officials, he suggested that the DED spend a week – or even a month – in the field! It is difficult to say whether or not other senior officials would be as enthusiastic about the chance to live and speak directly with poor people for a week or more. In light of the potential benefits, this may merit further consideration by the PPA's Implementing Consortium.

Post-research activities should extend beyond 'communicating' results. Indeed, PPA team members should work with policymakers to help them interpret and translate findings into pro-poor decisions. At first, this somewhat extraordinary arrangement may be difficult for some researchers and policymakers to manage. However, in other countries, it has led to PPA team members being regarded as 'resource persons' (with special knowledge about the experiences and perspectives of poor people) whose participation in policymaking processes *adds legitimacy.*

PPA team members should target policymakers/processes in:
- Central government
- Local Government
- International Financial Institutions
- Donor Institutions
- Civil Society Organisations

Specific activities should be selected on the basis of their capacity to affect one or more of these targets. In Uganda, this led to:
- Development of a rich programme of Media Dissemination (primarily using T.V. and radio news and drama slots)
- Creation of a web site (http://www.uppap.or.ug)
- Implementation of an Advocacy-skills Training Programme enhancing the capacity of NGOs to help policymakers understand and respond to the needs of poor people
- Formation of a National Forum on Poverty Issues, in which roughly 250 persons meet monthly to discuss PPA findings and their policy implications
- Drafting of 10 Policy Briefing Papers examining poor people's priority concerns (e.g. insecurity, health, clean water)
- Dissemination of PPA findings in meetings with local authorities

In South Africa, a quarterly newsletter was developed to share PPA findings before the production of formal reports and in order to maintain interest/build anticipation throughout the long research process.

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[7] 1998. The use of RRA to inform policy: tenure issues in Madagascar and Guinea. In Jeremy Holland and James Blackburn (eds.) Whose Voice? Participatory research and policy change. Page. 73.

Of course, activities would have to be designed on the basis of conditions in Tanzania. The compelling point, however, is that their inclusion in the PPA can lead to:

- A remarkable change in the content of budget and poverty reduction planning, donor assistance strategies, etc.
- An equally remarkable opening-up of these processes to civil society

The potential is so great that, in Uganda for example, NGOs were recently contacted by Government to review the National Agricultural Advisory Service Bill before it was submitted to Parliament. A team of NGOs, led by UPPAP, prepared five pages of recommended changes to the Bill – *100 per cent* of which were accepted. This illustrates a new type of working relationship between Government and Civil Society Organisations that has formed around UPPAP.

18. Determining the frequency of future PPAs

Because the focus of PPAs will not be limited to monitoring or evaluating PRSP indicators, their timing need not be permanently synchronized with its revision cycle. Indeed, stakeholders envision the PPA making significant contributions to the larger policy environment for poverty-alleviation (including the Tanzania Assistance Strategy, Medium Term Expenditure Framework, Public Expenditure Review, etc.). Given these processes' constant need for information, there is no point at which PPA results would *not* be timely.

Following implementation of an initial PPA, it is possible that research could be conducted in an effective 1 and ½ year cycle. This may or may not provide sufficient time for policymakers to 'swallow' the results of one PPA and prepare for the next. Therefore, the frequency of PPAs should be balanced between several concerns:

- Political receptivity
- Funding availability
- Technical feasibility
- Organizational capacity

Since the first PPA is likely to take 2½ years, it would be reasonable to plan a second PPA immediately afterwards. The result, in terms of demands on financial and human resources, political attention, etc. should then be assessed and decisions made about the optimal frequency of future PPAs.

IV. Conclusions

Participatory Poverty Assessments, and particularly 2rd Generation PPAs, are not like any other type of research project. They have no corollary. They are far larger, more multi-layered, complex and expensive than conventional qualitative studies. They are far more engaging, and in many ways far more illuminating, than conventional quantitative studies. It takes a good (technically sound, flexible and politically astute) team to implement them. And it takes a lot of hard work.

As already suggested, it may therefore be helpful to hire an individual/institution to bridge from this consultancy to the formation of an Implementing Consortium prepared to take responsibility for conducting routine PPAs. Some of the activities that could be undertaken by this individual are:
- Facilitating discussion and a decision on the Research Agenda for an initial PPA
- Developing a TOR for the PPA
- Assisting institutions to develop proposals for membership in the Implementing Consortium
- Assisting RA/WG to select the best combination of institutions to form the IC

One of the most important means to ensure that PPA findings have extensive policy impact is to make sure they are based on the highest quality research. This implies the capable leadership of a strong Technical Advisor. Finding an appropriate person will be difficult and perhaps, take much longer than the PPA process can afford. Therefore, it may be helpful for the bridge individual/institution to begin searching for and vetting candidates.

Even with a solid team in place, formidable challenges lie ahead. The Research and Analysis Working Group and donor organisations can help overcome these by:
- Making special human resources available to the Implementing Partners
- Using PPA findings to inform their own programmes and encouraging/facilitating others (both Civil Society Organisations and Government) to do likewise.