Module A

Development Approaches to Regional Planning
What can you learn from this module?

Development planners are faced with the challenge of improving current planning approaches to result in the achievement of viable and sustainable development objectives. This challenge is intensified by the global trend of the continuous widening of the gap between the rich and poor. The search for an integrated regional planning approach that result in a balance the demand and resource limitations that exist in developing countries.

The planning approaches used in the past have proved limited in its ability to realise key development principles such as effective participation and generating suitable solutions. Module A sets the stage for participants to come to grips with the theoretical basis and influences that informs current regional planning approaches. And stimulate debate regarding current trends that requires a revision of these approaches. It highlights key methodological debates with specific reference to the traditional comprehensive planning compared to a problem-focussed planning effort within the context of a system.

Topic 1 discusses the trends in general development theories. It outlines the key statements and topics of these popular theories, but more importantly it highlights the implications of the theory within the political context. The influence of these theories on the development planning approach is pinnacle to the degree of sustainable suitable development interventions.

The development sector has developed a cadre of values that describe basic approaches. Topic 2 defines and clarifies key values as principles of regional development. More importantly, it challenges these principles by highlighting deficiencies in practice, which stimulate debates regarding the manifestation of such principles in more effective ways through appropriate regional planning approaches.

Topic 3 introduces meta-methodology as an approach to development analysis and strategy design within which the above mentioned principles are reflected. Although comprehensive planning has been the main stream approach to regional planning, this topic engages participants in the debate of problem focussed planning. Problem is defined as “a deviation between the actual situation and the people’s goals with regard to the sustainable satisfaction of people’s needs. The approach assist planners to introduce a systems perspective which increases the capacity of planners to keep planning interventions in context and ensures that key elements for analysis is not overlooked.

Considering the scarce resource scenario it seems ludicrous to continue a planning approach that does not sufficiently analysis the current conditions. Development efforts face additional challenges if the measures are ill related to the problems, potentials and constraints of the context within which development will occur.

(Module A is the gate way to specific regional planning consideration. It provides the foundation and frame through which key developmental issues such as the economy, ecology, institutional framework and integration will be viewed.
Module A: Development Approaches to Regional Planning

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**Topic 1: Theoretical Background**

**1.1 Introduction**

Until recently, development thinking has been dominated by theories and models derived from the experiences and history of Western Economy. This thinking is based on the emergence of capitalism and the industrial revolutions of the West. Thus development and economic growth became synonymous with progress and higher level utilisation. Growth was seen as a natural process, nourished through correct and timely inputs. Likewise, it could be impeded by unfavourable conditions. But once these constraints were removed, the process would continue. Development in the underdeveloped nations was seen as a process in which the less developed countries gradually assume the qualities of industrialised nations.

Development was thus mostly seen as a question of increasing gross levels of savings and investment until the economy reached a take-off point into self-sustaining development. According to this theory, the industrialised nations went through several ‘stages of growth’ to improve and accelerate modernisation leading to development. Eventually this method proved to be ineffective in reducing poverty, marginalisation and unemployment in developing countries.

The dependency theories of ‘Underdevelopment’, ‘Global interdependence’ and ‘another development’ believe that development should be need-oriented, geared to meet both material and non-material human-needs. Such development should stem from the heart of society, with structural transformation as an integrated approach.

However, all these approaches, methods and theories have failed to reduce continuous growth of poverty, starvation, corruption and insecurities among the majority of the world population. This indicates that there is no single and universal path to development. Every society must design their own strategy to development and find the appropriate means and instruments to stimulate the required growth.

Developing a suitable approach to planning development in one such measure required that will determine the synergy in which physical, human and financial resources will be combined to generate growth and the degree to which needs are satisfied. (Worldview International Foundation, 1995: Participatory Communication for Sustainable Development)
## 1.2 Historical overview of strategies of rural development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ideology</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Main-Stream Strategies</th>
<th>Lessons Learnt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>1950s and 1960s</td>
<td>• monosectoral interventions to overcome isolated bottlenecks</td>
<td>bottlenecks in other sectors prevent success, isolated measures do not help</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• socially selective approaches (&quot;emergent farmer&quot;-approach)</td>
<td>&quot;trickle down&quot; does not take place</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• orientation towards growth</td>
<td>basic needs remain unfulfilled</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• capital intensive modernisation (high external input, &quot;green revolution&quot;)</td>
<td>ecologically unstable</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>demand for foreign exchange too high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dist. from 1967</td>
<td>• multisectoral interventions (bundle of complementary measures)</td>
<td>&quot;little kingdoms&quot; interventions</td>
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<td></td>
<td>on</td>
<td>• basic needs orientation: &quot;human rights&quot; issues (UN and its indicators)</td>
<td>danger of technocratic top-down identification and planning of needs</td>
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<td></td>
<td>from 1973 on</td>
<td>• poverty orientation</td>
<td>poor people are not a homogeneous mass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>from 1975 on</td>
<td>• target groups orientation</td>
<td>the poor need not only be reached through governmental institutions *</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• ecological orientation</td>
<td>paternalistic 'planning for the people' undermines their self-reliance → recipients' attitudes</td>
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<td>differentiating people by target groups is politically / socio-culturally sensitive *</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;trickle across&quot; to women does not realise → failures due to neglecting women</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>implementation which passes by governmental institutions endangers sustainability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>not always economically sound or socially/politically acceptable or sustainable in long run</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideology</td>
<td>Period</td>
<td>Main-Stream Strategies</td>
<td>Lessons Learnt</td>
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<tr>
<td>Emancipation</td>
<td>from the early 1980s on</td>
<td>• participation&lt;br&gt;• self-help orientation (including OD support)&lt;br&gt;• sustainability&lt;br&gt;• gender orientation&lt;br&gt;• frame conditions addressed&lt;br&gt;• institutional support: NGOs to work with SHOs and agencies</td>
<td>– participation of disadvantaged groups is difficult to realise *&lt;br&gt;– self-help support often results in overburdening *&lt;br&gt;– little success *&lt;br&gt;– little success *&lt;br&gt;– structural adjustment&lt;br&gt;– capacity building - who/what is it actually for?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globalisation</td>
<td>from the mid 1980s onwards</td>
<td>criticism:&lt;br&gt;• multisectoral approaches are too complex / do not suit institutional structures&lt;br&gt;• objectives set are too ambitious&lt;br&gt;• interventions do not yield desired effects under prevailing frame conditions&lt;br&gt;• the poor can not be reached in cooperating with governmental institutions only</td>
<td>trends:&lt;br&gt;⇒ institutional support&lt;br&gt;⇒ alter frame conditions (structural adjustments since mid-80s)&lt;br&gt;⇒ leave grass root work to NGOs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Lessons learnt in a later period (from mid-80s on) which resulted in a general criticism of multisectoral rural development interventions
2.1 Summary of objectives and principles

Living conditions of the regional population (including the poorer section) improved and/ or stabilised on a long-lasting basis

“POVERTY ORIENTATION (MASS ORIENTATION)”

Utilisation of natural resources intensified on a sustainable basis

Population in a position to assume responsibility for the improved shaping of their future

“SUSTAINABILITY”

“MULTISECTORAL APPROACH”

“PRODUCTION ORIENTATION” / “SELF-HELP ORIENTATION”

Population applies ecological sustainable methods of resource utilisation

Productive activities and services are economically viable

Target groups able to reach necessary services, information and markets on a durable basis

Utilisation of resources is based on self determination and self-responsibility

Support measures are socially adjusted (oriented towards the situation of different groups)

“ECOLOGICAL SUSTAINABILITY”

“ECONOMIC SUSTAINABILITY”

“PARTICIPATION”

“TARGET GROUP ORIENTATION”

Radius of action and representation of interests of target groups are expanded

Access to state and private service improved

“INSTITUTIONAL SUSTAINIBILITY”
2.2 Poverty: a problem scenario

National economic and global frame conditions

Service system for poor population:
- Markets (inputs, means of production, sales markets)
- Services (credit conditions, public health etc.)
- Information

GAP / bad conditions

Majority of poor population

under-utilised
not adjusted
not sustainable
utilisation of:

Production:
insufficient for
basic needs satisfaction

Natural resources
## 2.3 Hierarchy of objectives for regional development interventions
(ideal type, simplified)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GOAL</th>
<th>The population of region $x$ (including the poor groups) is in a position to use the available resources - long-term ecological viability being secured - to improve/stabilise their living conditions permanently and to shape their future on their own responsibility.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PURPOSE</td>
<td>The population of region $x$ (including the poor groups) successfully applies ecologically, economically and socially sustainable procedures in their activities in identified bottleneck sectors and has access to the necessary information, services and markets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESULTS OR OUTPUTS</td>
<td>1) Locally adjusted technical and institutional problem solutions for the majority of the rural population - with the involvement of target groups and executing agencies - are identified and tested.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2) Successfully tested problem solutions are publicised and propagated, especially among target groups, potential (private or state) implementing agencies and political decision-makers on all relevant levels.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3) Local (private and state) executing agencies and target groups are enabled to implement the identified problem solutions on their own and with broad-based impact.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4) The executing agency of the DIDEP intervention is put in a position to adjust problem solutions flexibly to changing frame conditions and to identify and disseminate viable solutions to new problems. (Optional result)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.4 Design and implementation difficulties: lessons from international experience

1. Lack of a target group and gender approach:

Development interventions often failed to reach the majority of the poor and the women, as planning failed to take into consideration
- that the poor are not a homogenous mass but differ widely with regard to their needs, constraints and potentials.
- that needs, constraints and potentials may differ by gender.

Lesson: Need for target-group and gender-specific planning

2. Lack of people’s participation:

Many development interventions failed as they were planned in a centralist and paternalistic manner for the people without involving people in the process. As a result, they did not correspond to the priorities of the people or people did not feel responsible and did not take care of what was provided to them.

Lesson: People’s participation in the planning process is a prerequisite for appropriate/adjusted and lasting solutions

3. Appropriate solutions not available:

Interventions were not adjusted to a certain location or to the situation of the intended beneficiaries, as planners were not given sufficient time to identify such locally adjusted solutions. Instead they tried to transfer solutions from elsewhere.

Lesson: Difficult problems require innovative efforts to search for situation-specific solutions

4. Demand and resource limitations not considered:

The number of beneficiaries of economic promotion measures often remained small, as the economic activities promoted were not replaceable on a large scale. This was due to planners not analysing and considering demand or resources limitations in time.

Lesson: Economic promotion has to be based on careful analysis of resources and demand

5. Powerful interest groups / political interference:

Allocation of (scarce) funds was often not done in line with the objectives of a intervention due to the interference of powerful interest groups or party politics in the planning process.

Lesson 1: Empowerment of disadvantaged groups is a prerequisite for their access to scarce resources

Lesson 2: The struggle of interest groups is a normal part of a planning process; consequently planners have to consider it part of their professional task to deal with it.
6. **Limitations of state bureaucracies:**

Development interventions often failed as:
- the implementation capacities of bureaucracies were overstretched
- bureaucracies were not sufficiently flexible to adjust their procedures and approaches to different situations.

Attempts to overcome such bureaucratic deficiencies by capacity building efforts often showed only limited results as some of the inherent, structural limitations of state bureaucracies were not considered.

**Lesson 1:** Avoid over-reliance on government bureaucracies, encourage a pluralistic, diversified institutional set-up of implementing agencies.

**Lesson 2:** Look for easy, intelligent low-effort solutions.

7. **Overburdening of self-help organisations:**

Some interventions fail as - by trying to consider the limitations of bureaucracies - they tended to overstretch the self-help capacities of the people and of local communities.

**Lesson 1:** Apply the principle of subsidiarity: SHOs should only be encouraged to do what they can do better than the state and than individuals.

**Lesson 2:** Minimise organisational requirements in relation to the task.
2.5 **Deficiencies of development inventions: a brief overview**

(Results of a cross-section evaluation of interventions)

- Majority of rural poor not reached
- Sustainability not safeguarded
- Follow-on costs too high
- Means of problem-solving not in line with long term local economic possibilities
- High external input solutions
- Unreflected subsidies
- Unreflected foreign exchange provisions
- Project executing state agencies overburdened
- Self-help organisations overburdened
- Means of problem-solving not in line with long term local economic possibilities
- High external input solutions
- Unreflected subsidies
- Unreflected foreign exchange provisions
- Tasks and approaches of state agencies not in line with project objectives
- Potentials for improving capacities of state agencies overestimated by projects
- Role of RRD-projects within the institutional setting not adequately clarified
- Pressure to make use of allocated funds
- Conceptional guidelines not sufficiently specified
- Sustainability related aspects not sufficiently considered in intervention planning
- Legitimised participation of majority of target group not practiced
- Adjusted means of participation not identified
2.6 Poverty orientation

2.6.1 Definition and reasoning

The DIDeP concept assumes the mass phenomenon of poverty to be the problem which DIDeP interventions should help overcome. Following this, poverty orientation is understood as:

the aim of putting the majority of the rural population in a position to better satisfy their basic needs; this must explicitly also apply to central support offers in the field of production promotion.

Poverty orientation in this sense can then be equated with mass orientation, with the attempt to reach the majority. In this it accords with the stress laid on more even participation by wide circles of the population in economic growth.

This definition of poverty orientation is to be clearly differentiated from selective approaches, offering solutions for only a minority of the 'rural poor'. It also differs from the narrow definition of poverty orientation. Which implies that this claim is only fulfilled if the 'poorest of the poor' are also reached (something that appears too ambitious for measures in the field of production at least as long as poverty, or impoverishment, can still be regarded as a mass phenomenon in a region). Finally, poverty orientation does not mean that support must be directed exclusively at 'poor groups'; care should, however, be taken that the involvement of privileged groups is not at the cost of the disadvantaged.

2.6.2 Deficiencies in practice

Many interventions do not reach the majority because

- this is not systematically built into interventions’ aims during planning;
- the instruments of target-group oriented planning are not used and the relevance of social and sex-specific differences within local communities is ignored;
- it would firstly require identifying problem solutions which are adjusted to the context and can cater for the majority of the population, and the skills and resources for such locally adjusted solutions are not easily available everywhere;
- the task of identifying locally adjusted solutions for problems is not taken seriously enough, because of strong pressure to implement measures as well as due to the fact that this issue has not received the attention it ought to;
- interventions often forget that the promotion approaches which they practise are not reproducible on a large scale because of structurally limited markets or availability of inputs or resources.
2.7 Sustainability

2.7.1 Definition and reasoning

Sustainability is understood here to mean that an intervention’s positive effects (the achievement of purposes and goals) persist, at least in the medium term, after external support has been withdrawn. This applies particularly to the capacity of population and institutions to solve any new problems that keep arising out of the constantly changing frame conditions. It requires

- the prevention of the degradation of natural resources (ecological sustainability),
- a production promotion intervention adapted to foreseeable market conditions (economic sustainability), and
- the capacity of target groups and/or the organisations which provide them with services to maintain the necessary conditions for the improvements achieved, without external support (institutional/organisational sustainability).

Thus, the point is not necessarily the long-term maintenance of the activities implemented or initiated by an intervention, but rather the maintenance of the level of objectives achieved (for example of improved or stabilised living conditions). In view of social and economic dynamics, it cannot be the preservation of a certain “end of intervention status” (e.g. a certain production structure) which is aimed for, but the preservation of problem-solving capacities (adjustment of the production structure to the prevailing conditions). In other words, a sustainable improvement in material living conditions.

2.7.2 Deficiencies in practice

Many interventions do not concentrate enough on sustainability because

* they try to use intervention resources to bridge unfavourable economic frame conditions, instead of concentrating on finding problem solutions which take account of these conditions;
* they have not solved the conflict of partner orientation versus objectives orientation, which arises when the actions of partner organisations do not correspond to the agreed development policy objectives;
* they tend to make excessive demands on state implementation agencies by burdening them with additional tasks and expectations, assuming that the instruments of institutional promotion are sufficient to durably improve the performance of state institutions in crisis;
* or, in some cases, they take the crisis of state development administration to mean they must focus mainly on promoting the problem-solving capacities of local self-help organisations, whose performance and capacities they tend to overtax.
2.8 Multisectoral and regional approach

2.8.1 Multisectoral approach

Development problems and issues are multifaceted, therefore
- Multisectorally co-ordinated planning is advocated
  - with multisectoral problem identification and analysis
  - with multisectoral scope of planned measures/interventions
- Sectoral implementation of measures is advocated
  - but with multisectoral-sectoral co-ordination through committees/forums

The reasoning behind this is:
* Target group orientation
  - different people and different problems
* Participation
  - open, demand-orientated/demand-driven
* Systems approach
  - problem-causing factors pass beyond target sector
  - problems are intersectorally interlinked

Limitations and dangers are:
* By-passing of existing service deliverers (attempt at multisectoral implementation by one intervention)
* Comprehensive planning
  - not manageable
  - over-interventionist (takes over)
* Over co-ordination (as opposed to energy into delivery)

2.8.2 Regional approach / area orientation

Definition of REGIONAL APPROACH:
* Identification of interrelated measures relative to the problems within one region

Definition of “REGION“:
* Coherent spatial unit above local / below national level (e.g. district, province)
* Criteria:  
  - homogenity (ecologically, culturally)
  - functional interrelations
  - administrative boundaries

Size of planning region:
* Small enough to:
  - allow participation
  - have a high degree of homogenity
* Big enough
  - to reach many with given planning capacity
  - for interlinkages
  - for urban functions

Reasoning of regional approach:
* Region as an adequate intermediate unit to interlink bottom-up and top-down planning
* More situation-specific approaches than national sectoral planning
* Possibility to make use of synergetic effects and linkages (in contrast to community-level planning)
## 2.9 South African Context

### 2.9.1 Contextual considerations

Regional Planners in South Africa need to consider a range of contextual influences regarding policy and legal frameworks. The following section will provide a brief overview of such consideration:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Description of Influence</th>
<th>Related Principles</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>RDP</strong></td>
<td>It is an integrated, coherent socio-economic policy framework. It seeks to mobilise all our people and our country’s resources toward the final eradication of apartheid and the building of a democratic, non-racial and non-sexist future.</td>
<td>• Integration and sustainability</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>• People-driven development</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Meeting of basic needs and building infrastructure</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>• Democratisation</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>GEAR</strong></td>
<td>The greater emphasis on an export-orientated economy which will lead to increased international openness and competition would require regional planners and local authorities to consider the restructuring and relocation of industries.</td>
<td>• Economic growth</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>• Dealing with globalisation</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| **Constitutional context** | • Provide democratic and accountable government for all communities  
  • Ensure the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner  
  • Promote social and economic development  
  • Encourage the involvement of communities in the matters of local government | • Focus on the basic rights of all people                  |
| **Legal Context:** | The White paper puts forward a vision of developmental local government by establishing clarifying:  
  • A focus on social development and economic growth  
  • Their role of integrating and coordinating agent  
  • Democratising development  
  • Importance of building social capital  
  It aims strengthen the links between the developmental and institutional planning process | • Developmental approach                                  |
<p>|                 |                                                                                                                                                                                                                            | • Participation                                           |
|                 |                                                                                                                                                                                                                            | • Integration                                             |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Government Transition Act</th>
<th>Compels municipalities to develop negotiated IDPs. IDPs must aim to integrate development and management of municipalities' powers and duties, with due regard to the subject matter of land development objectives.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Development Facilitation Act &amp; Respective provincial regulations</td>
<td>Put in place extraordinary measures to facilitate the implementation of reconstruction and development including fundamental transformation of planning processes, mechanisms and institutions in order to facilitate the newly envisaged developmental role of the local government. Requires the development of Land Development Objectives (LDOs).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|                                                                              | • Equal access  
 • Spatial integration  
 • Participation  
 • Integration among sectors |

This table does not refer to the numerous sectoral legal papers such as: The Water Services Act, Draft Environmental Management Bill, Housing Act, National Draft Transport Bill and the Local Government Municipal Structures Bill to name a few, that needs consideration during regional planning efforts.
## LINKS BETWEEN IDP PROCESS AND PCM COMPONENTS

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<th>Phases and Steps in IDP Process</th>
<th>Corresponding Tools and Skills in PCM</th>
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<tbody>
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<td><strong>Phase 1: Vision</strong></td>
<td><strong>Intervention Identification Phase</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1.1: Current Reality</td>
<td>• Tools for analysing current reality and for clarifying aspirations during the intervention identification phase of the intervention cycle</td>
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<tr>
<td>Step 1.2: Analysis</td>
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<td>Step 1.3: Core Issues</td>
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<td>Step 1.4: Vision Statement</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Phase 2: Development Framework</strong></td>
<td><strong>Intervention Identification Phase</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2.1: Situation Analysis</td>
<td>• Tools and techniques for specifying the problem situation or issues which the intervention is to help address</td>
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<tr>
<td>Step 2.2: Development Priorities</td>
<td>• Tools for clarifying the goal of the intervention and the scope of involvement during the intervention identification phase</td>
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<td>Step 2.3: Multi-Sectoral, Integrated Development Goals</td>
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<td>Step 2.4: Spatial Framework</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Phase 3: Development Strategies</strong></td>
<td><strong>Intervention Planning Phase</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3.1: Strategy Statement (Spatial and non-spatial)</td>
<td>• Tools and techniques for formulating analysing alternative strategies and for formulating intervention objectives and deliverables.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Step 3.2: Local Policy Assessment</td>
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<td>Step 3.3: Interventions</td>
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<td>Step 3.4: Sector Programmes and Targets</td>
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<td>Step 3.5: Environmental Assessment</td>
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<td>Step 3.6: Spatial Impact</td>
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<td>Step 3.7: Programme of Delivery Targets</td>
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<tr>
<td>Step 3.8: Land Development Objectives Submission</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Phase 4: Implementation</strong></td>
<td><strong>Operational Planning or Implementation Design Phase</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 4.1: Financial Plan</td>
<td>• Tools for specifying work plans, budgets and institutional responsibilities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Step 4.2: Capital Investment Plan</td>
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<td>Step 4.3: Institutional Plan</td>
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<td>Step 4.4: Annual Budget</td>
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<td>Step 4.5: Intervention Implementation</td>
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<td><strong>Phase 5: Monitoring, Evaluation and Review</strong></td>
<td><strong>Monitoring, Evaluation and Review Phases</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 5.1: Monitoring</td>
<td>• Tools and techniques for internal monitoring and review, and for external evaluation and review.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 5.2: Evaluation</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Step 5.3: Review</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Managing the community and multi-stakeholder participation aspects of the IDP process

Steering the Implementation Process
Tools for participatory management
Topic 3: Metamethodology

3.1 Our basis for an overall methodology

| Development | A sequence of problem-solving processes aimed at the sustainable improvement of human living conditions or at a prevention of their deterioration. It is a result of spontaneous, motivated individual or group efforts of members of a society. |

- Tasks of the State in Development

In line with this understanding, major tasks of the state in initiating, facilitating or supporting development processes will be:

(1) providing an enabling environment for people’s initiatives and activities (e.g.: legal environment, security)

(2) providing public goods: these are goods which are used by everybody and which do not allow exclusion (e.g. roads in a town), or goods for which exclusion is socially unacceptable (e.g. basic education)

(3) taking up tasks or functions which are considered to be necessary by the society but cannot be managed by the private sector due to reasons like size of necessary investment (e.g. railway networks), or lack of short-term profitability for private investors (e.g. environmental protection measures)

(4) solving or preventing problems resulting from private activities (e.g.: unemployment, over-exploitation, environmental degradation).

- Tasks of Development Planning

Looking at development as a result of spontaneous efforts of the members of a society, development planning is not supposed to predetermine the process of development as such but to design activities which are necessary to create prerequisites for keeping the development processes in a society in line with certain basic societal objectives.

---

1 Robert Chambers refers to three universal functions of the state fundamental to rural development:

(1) maintain peace and the democratic rule of law
(2) provide basic infrastructure and services
(3) manage the economy (e.g. with regard to agricultural pricing, some involvement in production support and marketing; provision of conditions with access to food and to basic goods at affordable prices)

These are:

1. designing a conducive environment
   (e.g.: a legal system, like in the case of land legislation)

2. designing the provision of public goods and services

3. designing other state-owned activities

4. designing problem-solving interventions of state agencies (or other support agencies) in fields which are within the private sector’s (the people’s, the society’s) responsibility
   (e.g. advisory services, subsidies, taxes, marketing services).

Note: This approach towards planning is in contrast to the philosophy of ‘comprehensive planning’ which assumes that state planned activities generally show better results than the activities of the individual actors of a society.

3.2 Problem focused planning with a systems perspective

3.2.1 Problem focus

“At the beginning there was a problem.
And the problem was with the people.”

The above phrase means simply that the articulation, definition and prioritising of development problems belongs with those who experience them; not with the outsider, intervener, planner, social scientist or technician.²

The starting point of a development intervention is a problem experienced by the people, hence problem focus. It follows then that planning is a process of identifying ways and means to overcome problems; and that the planning process starts with the identification of problems.

=> In other words, this approach focuses on problem-causing factors and on problem-solving potentials (instead of a comprehensive analysis of the whole situation and of any possible potentials)

² Robert Chambers (in a reference to the core-periphery concept used in development economics) puts it this way:

“Normal professionals face the core
and turn their backs upon the poor
New ones by standing on their head
face the periphery instead.”

Chambers also quotes E. F. Schumacher (author of Small is beautiful):

“If we could turn official and popular interest away from the grandiose projects and to the real needs of the poor, the battle could be won.”

a. **Definitions:**

**Problem**
- a deviation between the **actual situation** and the **people’s (or societal) goals** with regard to the sustainable satisfaction of people’s **needs**. In other words, problems are deficiencies, or, unsatisfied needs, defined by the people as such; or, they are undesirable conditions of life (with respect to people) or undesirable conditions of being (with respect to institutions or ecosystems).

**Example:** Low productivity is not a “problem” in itself, but it can be a “constraint” which leads to the “problem” of malnutrition.

**Constraint**
- problem-causing factor, factor nourishing a problem.

---

b. **Reasoning for problem-focus approach:**

- **Principle of minimum intervention:** development planning to be applied only in cases in which the individual actors’ activities are resulting in problems. These contrasts with the philosophy of comprehensive planning which assumes that state-planned activities generally show better results than those of the individual actors do in a society.

- **Minimising of planning efforts:** Problem-focused analysis reduces time and cost requirements for studies, compared to a comprehensive situation.

- **Avoiding technocratic bias:** The perception of the people (or society) is taken as a starting point of intervention, not the technocrats’ perceived deviation from an “optimum”/“standard” level of effectiveness or productivity (e.g. yield level).

c. **Method: the problem tree**

Problem analysis, using the tool of a “problem tree”, allows for

- systematically analysing an existing situation surrounding a given problem

- identifying the major problems of the situation

- illustrating the structured relationships between causes and effects in a diagram format.
Example

![Problem Tree Diagram]

**Technical approach / application:**

- **Formulation of problem statements**
  - Formulate problems as precisely and specifically as possible.
  
  *Note: a problem is the description of an existing negative condition, and not the absence of a pre-conceived solution (Example: “harvest reduced by pests” is the problem, not “No pesticides available”)*

  - Only existing problems, as opposed to possible, imagined or future problems are to be identified

  - The importance of a problem has nothing to do with its position within the problem tree

- **Procedure for conducting a participative problem analysis**
  - Brainstorm: list all major problems existing within the framework of the large identified problem

  - Identify a starter-problem

  - Identify major constraints which cause/nourish the starter-problem

  - Develop a diagram showing the relationships between causes and effects in the form of a problem tree

*Note: Detail regarding the steps in problem analysis is given in 3.3.1.*
3.2.2 Systems Perspective

a. Definition:

- Systems are sets of elements or factors which are interrelated in a systematic manner.
- Adopting a systems perspective means considering all relevant factors and their interrelation.
- A comprehensive systems analysis would not be a feasible basis for planning purposes as interconnections between factors are typically too complex. As a result it is useful to select relevant levels or sections of the entire system.
- A pragmatic approach would take into account that relevant sections of a system should include factors which affect the objectives of a system.

Example:
If we look at a farm-household as a system, its objectives may be securing subsistence production and achieving a certain level of cash-income. In such a case all factors (like land, labour, equipment) which can be used for achieving food self-sufficiency and cash-income should be included in a systems analysis while education, for example, will only be included if there is a good reason for assuming that it has a strong influence on nutrition or cash-income.

b. Why a "systems perspective"?

- It is useful to understand how phenomena/ symptoms which can be observed, come about. Making meaning on people’s behaviour and/or ecological, economic and societal, cultural, political, institutional factors which influence an observed situation. This is a prerequisite for intervening as a change agent.
- Efficiency and effectiveness: the systems perspective helps planners to think one or two steps ahead when planning problem-solving interventions, and by doing so, avoid
  - overcoming one constraint just to find another one, i.e. “hidden” constraints arising later,
  - causing unpredicted negative side-effects through problem-solving interventions that are considered out of context.
- Planning interventions in context: better awareness among planners of the wider context and the mechanisms related to their interventions.

c. Method:

The systems perspective is illustrated via systems models, visualised through flow-chart diagrams. Due to the different nature of systems (eco-systems, production-systems, socio-economic-systems), there is no uniform procedure in visualising or depicting systems, rather the scientific know how of subject matter specialists is relied upon.
Example 1:

Here is an example of a (simplified) systems model of socio-economic systems. It is based on the interrelations between resources, people’s activities, markets and needs satisfaction in relation to certain frame conditions (which are external factors to the system):
Example 2 (for a specific systems context):

3.2.3 Combining the problem focus with a systems perspective

=> “Focusing without blinkers”

Practically this means:

- Using problems as an entry point of analysis
- Analysing problem-causing factors (constraints) and possible problem-solving potentials
- Analysing interrelations between these constraint and potentiality factors, and other factors which may be relevant (to achieve the objectives of intervention), by considering:
  → will other factors become bottlenecks as soon as the actual bottleneck is overcome by intervention?
  → will achievement of other objectives be endangered as soon as more resources or activities are allocated to solve the identified problem?
Note that:

- A problem focus considers all problem-causing factors, even if these are external to a certain system (e.g. urban job opportunities in relation to a set of rural problems).

- The systems perspective compels us to consider factors which are not yet problem-causing (e.g. labour), but which are likely to become a constraint as soon as the actual problem causing factor (e.g. market access) is overcome.

- The systems perspective compels us to consider competing utilisation of certain factors (e.g. labour) with regard to different objectives (e.g. nutrition).

- The systems perspective allows us to consider feedback mechanisms (e.g. from nutrition to health conditions, from cash income to purchasing power).

Combining problem focus with systems perspective helps to identify problem-solving interventions which avoid mere patchwork solutions or which cause further problems.

Diagrammatically the combination of problem focus and systems perspective can be represented as follows:

Diagram 1:
Diagram 2: Cash Income in a Farming System

Legend:

- cause(s) - effect(s) relationship
- feedback mechanism
- system’s approach
- problem focus
- overlap of problem focus and system’s approach
### 3.3 Interlinking bottom-up and top-down planning

**a. Historically:**

Shift of planning paradigms from “top-down” to “bottom-up”.

Necessity to arrive at a synthesis between those two approaches.

Necessity for a new kind of professional to combine the two approaches.

**b. Major characteristics, strengths and weaknesses of bottom-up and top-down approaches:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Top-down</th>
<th>Bottom-up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Characteristics** | • Oriented towards national goals  
                    | • Based on professional/specialist knowledge                            | • Oriented towards people’s goals  
                    | • Based on people’s knowledge                                          | • Based on people’s knowledge                                          |
| **Comparative Strength** | • Uniform standards and conditions  
                    | • Consideration of resource and market limitations/ fair distribution of opportunity  
                    | • Consideration of external knowledge/new opportunities  
                    | • Avoiding contradictions between individual interests and societal goals  
                    | • Consideration of interlinkages within a wider regional/national socio-economic or ecological system  
                    | • Increased efficiency through specialisation  
                    | • Reduced burden for people  
                    | • Normative/prescriptive needs considered                              | • Locally adjusted standards and conditions  
                    | • Knowledge of local resources and markets                             | • Consideration of local know-how/opportunities                          |
                    | • Starting with people’s needs and people’s goals                       | • Consideration of interlinkages of the local/household-level production and reproduction system  
                    | • Promotion of people’s ownership and empowerment                       | • Promotion of people’s ownership and empowerment                          |
                    | • People’s felt needs considered                                        | • People’s felt needs considered                                        |
| **Relevant Fields** | Predominantly external  
                    | Predominantly external  
                    | Low  
                    | Distribution-related issues                                           | Predominantly local  
                    | Predominantly local  
                    | High  
                    | Problem/ Needs assessment                                               |
c. Interlinking of bottom-up and top-down-planning

![Diagram of development approaches]

a. History:

1950s/60s: Dominance of potentiality-oriented planning
  ⇒ aiming at optimum utilisation of natural and human resources for national economic growth.

1980s: Dominance of problem-oriented planning
  ⇒ aiming at corrective action/intervention in cases where individual actions do result in a situation which causes problems for people.

b. Limitations:

- **Potentiality-orientation** results in
  - plans which are not related to the needs and objectives of the people
    ⇒ lack of acceptance of planned measures by the people.
  - comprehensive planning based on the assumption that planners/specialists know better than the people when it comes to what to do at a particular location
    ⇒ remote planning efforts with high risk of mis-allocation of resources.

- **Problem-orientation** tends to result in problem-solving actions based on external resources, and disregarding availability and limitations of local potentials.
  ⇒ solutions are not sustainable
  ⇒ solutions are not replicable
  ⇒ gives rise to external dependency
c. **Combination:**

Problem-orientated planning with systematic consideration of problem-solving potentials

→ problem-oriented potentiality analysis

* e.g.: *Nutrition problems may require analysis of different potentials, compared to cash income related problems.*

* Problem analysis is the entry point of the planning process.
* Potentiality analysis is a systematic step in the process of identifying problem-solving alternatives.
3.4 Planning procedure: an overview

3.4.1 Nature of the Planning Process

PLANNING is a PROCESS leading

⇒ from PROBLEMS

taking into consideration problem-solving POTENTIALS

via identification of ALTERNATIVE problem-solving options

which are APPRAISED considering
* economic
* ecological
* social/cultural
* institutional
criteria

and via identification of alternative ACTORS / ORGANISATIONS
(which are appraised as well)

⇒ to a problem-solving STRATEGY

consisting of a logically consistent and specified set of OBJECTIVES MEASURES and INPUTS

taking into consideration ASSUMPTIONS about the development of relevant FRAME CONDITIONS

⇒ with PARTICIPATION of all relevant actors, intended beneficiaries and knowledgeable persons
3.4.2 Planning procedure - rationale

### Levels / Dimension of Analysis

- Regional Analysis
- Target Group/Gender Analysis
- Regional Analysis

### Methodology of Analysis

- Actual Situation
- Problems
- Objectives
- Constraints
- Potentials

### Alternative Analysis

- Identification of Alternatives
- Appraisal of Alternatives

- General sectoral and technological alternatives (Regional level)
- Location and Target-group specific alternatives (local/T.G.-level)
- Organisational Alternatives (all levels)

### Logical Framework

- Strategy Designs of regional development interventions
  - consistent set of measures and objectives
  - specification by indicators

---

**Result of Analysis**
3.4.3 Example: Envisaged organisational set-up for a planning process
3.4.4 Planning steps

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Responsible</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Problem Analysis</td>
<td>Province, Districts, Loc. Gov., Target groups</td>
<td>PPT, DPT's, DPT's (sample)</td>
<td>Problems and their causes as perceived by all relevant actors are prioritised and interrelated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Potentiality Analysis</td>
<td>all</td>
<td>PPT / DPT's</td>
<td>List of potentials as perceived by relevant actors (during problem analysis)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- preliminary</td>
<td>Province, Districts</td>
<td>Sectoral workshops (PTSCs)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- in-depth</td>
<td>Target groups</td>
<td>→ Step 6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 3  | Alternatives Analysis                            | Province, Districts    | Sectoral workshops (PTSCs) | - Preliminary identification of priority sectors and levels of technology  
|    | on sectoral and technological options            |                        |                      | - questions for Feasibility Studies 
|    |                                                  |                        |                      | - Information for participatory dialogue                                                                                                                                                       |
| 4  | Economic Appraisal                               | Province / Districts   | EPPT & specialists   | Economic viability of alternatives known                                                                                               |
| 5  | Environmental Impact Assessment                  | Province / Districts   | EPPT & specialists   | Environmental soundness of alternatives known                                                                                           |
| 6  | Target group and gender analysis                 | Target groups          | DPTs                 | Detailed information and analysis of target group and gender-specific problems, constraints and potentials. Preliminary identification of special target groups and of adjusted support measures |
| 7  | Problem-solving dialogue:                        | Local Government, Target groups | BPTs, Community workshops | - Prioritised lists of community-specific intervention proposals and support requirements  
|    | Participative alternatives analysis on community and target group specific interventions       |                        |                      | - further adjustments of support programmes  
|    |                                                  |                        |                      | - clarification of responsibilities                                                                                                                                                           |
| 8  | Organisational Analysis                          | Target groups, Local Government, Districts, Province | DPTs (in combination with step 7), DTSCs, Sectoral workshops, PTSCs, Sectoral workshops | - Identification of responsible implementing agencies or groups  
|    |                                                  |                        |                      | - Identification of capacity building requirements of responsible implementing agencies |
| 9  | Strategy Designs: Logical Frameworks             | Target Groups, Local Government, Districts, Province | DPTs (with step 7), DTSCs, PTSCs | Simplified logical frameworks for local interventions                                                                                     |
| 10 | Operational and Budget Planning                  | Province / Districts   | RSDAs                | Budget Proposal. Plans of Operation for each agency                                                                                     |
| 11 | Discussion and Approval                          | Province / Districts   | DPF, PPF             | Approved programmes                                                                                                                                                                           |

Key to abbreviations used in planning step form:

- **PPT** = Provincial planning team
- **DPT** = District planning team
- **EPPT** = Extended provincial planning team
- **PTSC** = Provincial technical Sub-committee
- **DTSC** = District technical Sub-committee
- **RSDA** = Regional service delivery agencies
- **DPF** = District planning forum
- **PPF** = Province planning forum
### Topic 4: Regional Situational Analysis in an Overview

#### 4.1 Introduction

Situation analysis precedes planning; it comes early on in the design process. It can be seen as the first step in planning.

Situation analysis involves scanning or analysing a particular (developmental) problem situation, in most cases related to a region (suggesting geographical boundaries and coherence based on political, topographical but also economic, ecological or population factors).

Situation analysis complements specific analysis of a problem, bringing in related frame conditions. It can therefore complement:

- target groups analysis (including gender analysis)
- land use planning
- institutional analysis

Information from the regional situation analysis can form the basis of regional development planning. However, as a rule in itself it is not sufficient for this.

Regional situation analysis can be based on analytical/statistical methods of investigation or on participatory methods of appraisal. As a rule, a mix of methods will be required. Statistical or analytical methods will have comparatively higher importance at regional level.

#### 4.2 Expected results of a situation analysis

1. The most important problems of people living in the region - considered here as the focus of an intervention - and the factors causing those problems (= constraints) are identified as far as this is possible on the basis of regional data.

2. The most important potentials (or sustainable opportunities) of the region which are suitable for problem solving (people's capabilities, nature resources, market potentials) are identified.

3. The preliminary delineation of the target population as well as their preliminary division into target groups is possible.

4. A preliminary delineation of priority sectors (or clusters of economic activities) and appropriate levels of technology for such priority sectors can be achieved.
4.3 Methodology of analysis

The approach to analysis used here is based on the Meta-Metholodology discussed in Chapter 2:

♦ Problem focus
♦ Systems perspective
♦ Problem-oriented analysis of potentialities

See Chapter 2, sections 2.2 - 2.4.

4.4 Steps within the regional situation analysis

Note: The regional analysis is an iterative process with different entrance possibilities. Therefore, the sequence of steps proposed here should not be applied rigidly.

**Step 1: Objectives analysis**

* Definition: Objectives analysis (in a wider sense) is the systematic process of identifying, classifying, specifying, and partly also weighing-up the objectives of all parties/interest groups concerned with respect to basic needs in a specific situation (for which those objectives apply).

* Steps within an objectives analysis

1. Identify and delineate all objectives: compile an empirical inventory of objectives of all parties concerned (with respect to national development goals, the objectives of relevant institutions and different groups of the population).

2. Analyse and compare all objectives: conduct a logical analysis of objectives with respect to positive interrelations and contradictions.

3. Clarify and prioritise objectives: conduct a clarification of priorities in case of conflicting objectives.

4. Specify objectives: via a specification of generally set objectives with respect to the characteristics of the region.

5. Specify objectives: according to development hypotheses derived from the expertise and value-judgements of the planners.

* The results of such an objectives analysis should be guidelines for the development of a region, which are co-ordinated among all relevant parties, are accepted by the responsible political decision makers and are coherent in themselves.
Remark: Analysis of people’s objectives is an important part of the analysis of an existing situation. The kind of objectives influences the focus of the situation analysis. And in turn, the more information about the situation, the more specifically objectives can be formulated. Steps 1 and 2 are therefore interchangeable.

Step 2: Analysis of achievement of objectives

In the DIDEP context especially, this involves analysis of existing living conditions (extent of satisfaction of needs, sustainability of the way or basis of needs satisfaction).

Relevant aspects:
- Nutritional status
- Health status, life expectancy
- Income
- Ecological threats

Step 3: Identification of deficiencies

Problems are deduced from the comparison of objectives (step 1) and extant situation (step 2).

Problems/deficiencies stand out as the gap (or shortfall) between normative objectives (desired ends or a desired situation) and the actual situation or status quo. Out of the major problems/deficiencies, a choice (prioritisation) can be made regarding which ones are key problems. The latter will be based on how widespread, serious, permanent or otherwise important the issue is in the system, region, among the community or target population.

Step 4: Analysis of activities

Analysis of activities (in a wide sense: economic activities directed toward the satisfaction of needs) of the regional population with respect to
- constraints which cause such problems,
- potentials which may help to overcome such problems.

Example: Where a central problem exists with nutrition, other activities gain attention in the situation analysis where insufficient cash income is the major problem.

Activities are generally structured to economic sectors. Relevant indicators are scale of activities, productivity and output.
**Step 5:** **Analysis of resources**

Analysis of available resources and - if market-oriented activities are concerned - market outlets with respect to:

- constraints which cause these problems
- with respect to suitable potentials which may overcome such problems.

Resources are generally subdivided into natural resources, human labour force, capital (finance as well as in the sense of equipment by means of production) and infrastructure. Analysis requires differentiation between quantitative and qualitative aspects.

The focusing of the resources’ analysis is influenced by the type of objectives and the perception of problems.

*For example:*

- **Export strategy** → Analysis of potentials according to comparative cost advantages
- **Basic needs strategy** → Analysis of potentials of relevance for local demand.

**Step 6:** **Analysis of frame conditions**

Analyse of relevant frame conditions with regards to constraint factors and potentials.

Frame conditions are considered in a regional situation analysis as factors external to the regional system (and out of the control of its decision-makers) which have relevant influence on the system.

At the end of step 6, planners should usually have gained

- a comprehensive picture of the crucial problems and the relevant problem-causing factors with respect to a particular situation;
- a comprehensive picture of possible problem-solving potentials within that situation.

Various tools and practical steps are recommended for use during situation analysis. Usually the problems and constraints are put in the context through a problem-tree (see 2.2c). The potentials can be summarised in a similar hierarchic way. Resources and demand can be compared using a matrix tool. More detailed information about this is given in the section 3.3 following.
5.1 Problem analysis

a. Definition:

Problem analysis is a systematic procedure to assess the problem perceptions of all relevant actors and people concerned in a certain context and to identify the cause-effect-interrelations between the problems perceived by different people or groups.

b. Expected Results:

− Problems and their causing factors as perceived by the people affected and by resource persons are known by the design and planning team; they are differentiated by location and target group, prioritised, and hypotheses on their interrelations are outlined.

− Communities and specific target groups have reached a joint awareness of their own problems and their causal factors. They have prioritised them and are in a position to start discussing solutions in a structured and systematic manner.

c. Sub-Steps:

Problem analysis in a more general sense consists of two sub-steps:

− Problem identification: finding out who has got which problems.

− Problem analysis (in a more specific sense): method to identify interrelations (cause, effects) of problems.
Sub-step 1: Problem identification

A. What should be identified?

1. Problems: Deficiencies related to the satisfaction of the people’s needs or to the sustainability of the ways and means through which people’s needs are satisfied.

2. Problem-causing factors: Constraints which hinder peoples to satisfy their needs or which endanger the sustainability of needs satisfaction.

B. Who should be involved?

1. All people concerned by the problems: all sections of the regional population

2. Resource persons who are not directly affected by a problem, but are knowledgeable:
   - local specialists (informed about the local situation)
   - subject-matter specialists (informed about the nature of certain types of problems).

3. Representatives of responsible support agencies who are in charge of providing the conditions necessary to satisfy the respective needs (and of assisting to solve the respective problems). Representatives of service delivery agencies and of political decision-making bodies.

C. Whose problems should be identified?

Problems differ according to the level and type of groups of people. Individual household members may be affected differently by problems affecting the household to which they belong, or by different problems altogether. As members of a certain age group, professional or social group, neighbourhood group they may again perceive different problems. Communities, i.e. the inhabitants of a community, may have certain problems in common. We may even talk about problems which are characteristic for a whole district, province or even country, if a significant part of the people in that area face certain common problems.

Consequently we can distinguish between problems at different levels and for different types of groups:

- Individual problems
- Household problems
- Target-group specific problems (social groups, age groups, professional groups)
- Community-related problems (e.g. community infrastructure)
- District-level problems (problems affecting a significant part of the district population)
- Provincial-level problems

D. **How** to identify problems (including priorities and problem-causing factors)?

1. **Written polls**: Problem identification forms to be filled in. Applicable only for official or professional respondents; not suitable for the people affected.

2. **Interviews with individuals**: In-depth discussions on specifications, context and background of a problem. Useful if the nature of a problem, its relevance or its causes are not quite clear. Applicable for resource persons. Can be applied as well with people affected (e.g. in case of in-impromptu road-side interviews or during site-visits in a community). Relevant questions: Since when? Who is affected? In which way, to which extent are people affected? Causing factors (WHY-questions)? People’s reactions and coping strategies?

*See the “problem analysis form” on the next page, suggested as a format for organising information!*
### Problem analysis form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PI</th>
<th>Ref. to</th>
<th>Source of Information:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HH</td>
<td>RP/wr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TG</td>
<td>RP/d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Com</td>
<td>SA/wr</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dis</td>
<td>SA/d</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pro</td>
<td>PR/wr</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PC/i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PC/m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**District:** ...............  
**Comm.:** .............../ ...............  
**T.G.:** .............../ ...............  

**Name(s)/ No. of Respondants:** ...............  
**Team member:** ...............  
**Date:** ...............  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Organisation</th>
</tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Type of group unit concerned:**

- **HH** = Household (or individual member)
- **TG** = Target group
- **Com** = Community
- **Dis** = District
- **Pro** = Province

**Sources of Information:**

- **RP** = Resource Person  
- **SA** = Support Agency  
- **PR** = Peoples Representatives (or representative bodies)  
- **PC** = People concerned directly  

- **wr** = written  
- **d** = discussion  
- **l** = individual  
- **m** = public meeting / group discus

**Public meeting procedure:**
Problem identification in public meetings requires the application of well structured and transparent procedures. Visualisation techniques should be applied to give all participants a chance to participate in the process.

**a. Preparatory Steps:**

1. Announce visit of the planning team: explain purpose and procedures and ask for the opportunity of a big meeting with all sections of the relevant community and for discussions with special groups.

2. Conduct side-visits with community representatives and use the chance for informal talks with representatives and resource persons whom you meet during the village walk (or town or settlement walk).

3. Explain details of the planning procedure (e.g. visualisation techniques) and arrive at an agreement with community leaders on the agenda of the meeting.

**b. Procedures applied during the meeting:**

4. Take time to explain carefully your role, the purpose of the meeting, the planning procedures and the envisaged agenda of the meeting.

5. Try to get clarification on composition of participants. Make sure that people from all locations within the community and of all sections of the population are present.

6. **Brain-storming**: Ask all participants to think about community-problems (in case of target group specific meetings on target group specific problems). List the problems mentioned. Ask if there are any additions to be made to the list. In case of communities with a high illiteracy rate: Ask people to attribute a symbol to each problem and let them explain the symbol to everybody.
7. **Prioritising:** There are different techniques of scoring such as
   a. Individual scoring with a certain number of votes per individual
   b. Individual ranking according to priority numbers
   c. Individual pair-wise ranking
   d. Group ranking of all participants
   e. Group ranking of sub-groups

   Which of these techniques to be used should be discussed and decided by the participants of the planning team according to their experiences in the context.

8. Identification of problem-causing factors: Following the priority list, try to get for each problem some specifications (e.g. on quantity, quality, time, place, history etc.) and initiate discussions among the participants on causing factors (“Why-questions”). Note all factors mentioned. If the answers give a clear and conclusive picture, try to summarise the result and ask people for confirmation. If the picture is unclear or contradicting initiate further dialogues and challenge participants with questions.

9. **Problem-solving potentials:** After the problem-causing factors have been identified for one problem, ask for ideas about locally available problem-solving potentials.

10. **Checking questions on other ‘might-be issues’**: After having exhausted the priority list, touch other issues which might be relevant according to information obtained from other sources. Avoid suggestive questions and avoid relating such issues to problems. In case such issues reveal to be problematic ones, ask for problem-causing factors and problem-solving potentials.

11. **Summarise results and explain further procedure:**
    - inform people about further steps of planning done by the planning team
    - ask participants to enter into internal problem-solving discussions and, thereby, prepare themselves for a next meeting with the planning team.
**Sub-step 2: Analysis of identified problems**

**Overall procedure:**

Problem perceptions from all sources of investigation are compiled and summarised in

- *priority lists overviews*
- *“problem trees”*

A matrix can show which sources of information will enter which type of analysis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Information</th>
<th>Type of analysis</th>
<th>Priority list overviews</th>
<th>Problem by District and sector</th>
<th>Problem by Province and sector</th>
<th>Trees by Province and sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Persons concerned/ Community level</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persons concerned/ TG-level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource Persons on communities</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource Persons on target groups</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource Persons on district level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource Person on provincial level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting Agency Community level</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting Agency District level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting level Provincial level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**a) Priority lists overview:**

This provides a systematic overview of problems of different people at different locations, and of problem perceptions of different actors. It can assist in

- Identifying *priority areas* for intervention (by aggregating priorities)
- applying *regionalised approaches* (by classifying sub-regions according to occurrence of problems)
- planning *location-specific support* measures (by providing all priority-lists at one glance)
- planning *considering different perspectives* (by being able to compare different problem perceptions of different role players at one glance).
### Example of a priority lists overview:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Problems</th>
<th>Drinking Water</th>
<th>Health Facilities</th>
<th>Transport</th>
<th>Lack of Jobs</th>
<th>...</th>
<th>...</th>
<th>...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aadorp</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Byanz</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cacupé</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>..........</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>......</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Community priorities can be differentiated by different target groups and by resource

### PA / TG - Priority List overview by Target Group and Community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target Group - Community</th>
<th>Problems/ key constraints</th>
<th>Lack of jobs</th>
<th>Lack of access to land</th>
<th>Lack of access to market</th>
<th>Lack of credit</th>
<th>Lack of skills</th>
<th>Lack of kindergarten</th>
<th>Work load</th>
<th>Low cash income</th>
<th>Insufficient food</th>
<th>Insufficient vegetables</th>
<th>...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Unemployed Young people</td>
<td>- Aadorp</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Byanz</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Cacupé</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- ........................</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>B. Female House-Hold Heads</td>
<td>- Aadorp</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Byanz</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- ........................</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>C. Farm Workers</td>
<td>- Cacupé</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Table can be extended by judgement of resource person
b) Analysis of cause-effect relationships between different problems and problem-causing factors (“problem tree”):

Different problems and different problem-causing factors are often inter-related. Problems may be caused by other problems and they may result in further problems.

Example: Poor health status may be caused by lack of access to clean drinking water and it may result in low income.

Sometimes the resulting problems and the causing problems may be inter-related (“vicious circle”):

Example: Low income (caused by high disease rate) may result in insufficient capacities to afford a better water supply system.

Such cause-effect-relationships have to be taken into consideration, if problem-solving action is planned. If important problem-causing factors are ignored, it may not be possible to solve a problem.

Identifying the interrelationships between the factors related to a problem allows to harmonise different problem perceptions by showing how they complement each other.

Example: Instead of arguing whether high population growth or lack of income opportunities is causing poverty, a problem analysis can show how these three aspects are interrelated.

Procedure:

The factors related to a certain problem are structured in a diagram in the form of a tree of which the causing factors form the roots while the resulting problems form the branches.
Steps:

1. Define the major problems. When doing so, cluster closely related problems. Ask which of these major problems is to be considered as the “starter-problem” of the “Problem Tree”.

2. Go from the starter problem one level deeper and identify the immediate causing factors (using “tight logic”) out of all factors which were mentioned during the problem identification process. Consider only those factors which are logically plausible and empirically relevant (i.e. which were named by several people).

3. Go from each of the identified causes one level deeper and identify their immediate causes in the same way as described under 2. Continue so until you have reached a level of causing factors which is not relevant anymore to be further analysed for planning purpose (e.g.: “low rainfall” or “unfavourable world market conditions” or “Apartheid system”). These are usually factors external to the regional system.

4. After all causing factors have been covered, identify the resulting problems by going from the “starter problem” step by step upwards. Apply again the rules of “tight logic”, of plausibility and of empirical relevance.

5. If resulting problems and causing factors are interrelated, indicate this by an arrow.

Rules:

* Be specific: formulate the problems (and causing factors) as precisely as the given level of information allows.

* Use negative formulations
  (e.g. “lack of water” instead of “water”).

* Avoid phrasing problems as the absence of a preconceived solution
  (e.g. “decreasing soil fertility” instead of “lack of fertiliser”)

* Be realistic: make sure that there is some empirical evidence of each factor. This rule should also apply to expected future problems (e.g. environmental degradation).

* Note: The importance of a problem-causing factor has got nothing to do with its position within the problem tree
  (e.g.: “Lack of rainfall” may be the crucial problem-causing factor and may still be found at the lowest level of the roots of the tree).
How to compile a problem tree in practice:

In general, there are two ways to arrive at a problem tree:

1. In a team in a planning workshop with all relevant role players. This can be a community level workshop with people directly affected by that problem or a workshop on a higher level where representatives of the people concerned and of the support system are invited to participate (suitable for intervention planning).

2. Through an analysis carried out by a core team of planners, based on the results of a number of problem identification procedures carried out on various levels and with various resource persons (suitable for regional development planning).

In the second case, some in-between-steps may be required to come from the problem identification forms filled at community, target group and resource person level to an aggregate problem tree:

Step 1: Identify problem fields by clustering problems on basis of the priority lists.

Step 2: Use for each of such problem fields one “problem analysis sheet” on which you summarise:
- all specifications given for that problem (by location and resource person),
- all problem-causing factors mentioned (by location and according to frequency),
- in addition: all problem-solving potentials (which are not relevant at this stage of problem analysis, but will become necessary for later stages of planning).

Step 3: Specify the “starter problem” according to the specifications listed from various locations during problem identification.

Step 4: Sort all problem-causing factors according to the above mentioned rules. If there are too many factors:
- summarise those which are similar
- select from among them according to relevance (frequency mentioned)

Step 5: Sort all resulting problems and place them according to cause-effect relationships at levels above the starter problem.
Example for an intermediate problem analysis format

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PA/INTERMED FORM/SPECIFICATIONS AND CAUSING FACTORS BY PROBLEM FIELD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PROBLEM FIELD: ____________________________________________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPECIFICATIONS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>________________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROBLEM CAUSING FACTORS:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>______________________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BY PEOPLE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>___________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROBLEM SOLVING POTENTIALS:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>__________________________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As a result of the step of Problem Analysis there should be

- priority list overviews for each level (community level, target group level etc.)
- problem trees for each problem field.

Unless the problem-causing factors differ strongly from place to place, one problem tree may be enough for one problem field. Otherwise area-specific problem trees should be worked out.
Example: “Problem Tree”

- Lack of funds for communal facilities
- Lack of investment
- Unfavourable age structure

- Poor living conditions
- Lack of savings
- Outmigration

- Insufficient cash income

- Low productivity of cash crop production
- Lack of job opportunities

- Lack of access to inputs/equipment
- Lack of access to markets
- Local business not competitive

- Lack of transport
- Purchasing power decreasing
5.2 Potentiality Analysis

5.2.1 Definition:

Potentiality Analysis is a systematic procedure

– to assess the perception of available problem-solving potentials (=natural resources, human resources, demand potentials) of people affected, local resource persons and subject matter specialists,

– to investigate - if necessary - selected promising problem-solving potentials in order to find out required specifications on quantity and quality aiming at the identification of under-utilised potentials and at gaining ideas about possible problem-solving activities which could make use of these potentials.

5.2.2 Expected Results:

– Problem-solving potentials are known by the planning team and are specified in terms of quantity, quality and location for each of the identified problems.

– The planning team has got a well structured overview of all relevant potentials and their interrelations (e.g. between available natural resources, unused skills and unsatisfied demand).

– Communities, specific target groups and other relevant actors have reached a joint awareness of their under-utilised problem-solving potentials. They are in a position to start discussing possibilities of making use of them in a structured and systematic manner.

5.2.3 Who should be involved in the identification of potentials?

– Local people (the possible users of local potentials): Often local people know better about the resources in their environment and on local markets (=demand potentials)

– Local resource persons

– Subject matter specialists

– Survey teams (e.g. soil survey, forest survey, demand survey).

Rule: Do not rely exclusively on the judgement of professional specialists or on the local knowledge of the people. Only by bringing both judgements together, does one have a chance of arriving at a realistic guess.
5.3.4 How to identify potentials

1. *Literature/documents:* Make use of already available information first; this can help to avoid duplication of effort, and to ask more focused questions.

2. *Brain-storming:* Collect and visualise ideas of all people involved in the process. Ask for specifications (as far as possible). If location of resource plays a role: make use of mapping. If seasonal availability of resources plays a role: make use of time diagrams (seasonal calendar).


4. Initiate *special surveys* wherever the knowledge gained from sources 1 - 3 is insufficient, vague or contradictory.

5.3.5. Methodological Issues

1. Selecting the appropriate *level of aggregation*:

There are two ways to assess resource potentials:

- *direct way:* assessing the primary factors of production (natural resources like soil, rainfall, water, vegetation and human labour)

- *indirect way:* assessing resources in terms of raw materials to be gained from them (e.g. grain, timber, livestock)

The *direct way* separates the factors influencing the potential for certain utilisation. It is a more open approach which avoids limiting oneself to preconceived ideas about modes of utilisation, but it is the more difficult way to arrive at conclusions.

The *indirect way* is based on a combination of all relevant factors which influence the expansion potential of a certain raw-material (in order to find out the quantity of maize or timber which can be grown in a certain area one has to combine information on soils, climate, seasonal labour availability, skills and to make assumptions on technology used, on prices and on the comparativeness of a certain field of production). It is based on
preconceived ideas about suitable patterns of utilisation and is more directly related to conclusions.

The direct and the indirect way can be combined in a step-wise approach by analysing primary factors of production first and drawing conclusions for the potential production volume of raw-materials on a basis of it in a second step. Sometimes the type of information available will determine the method.

For each of the two ways, there are different levels of aggregation:

- One can say ‘soils’ or desegregate by soil-type or ‘maize-soils’ ‘rice-soils’ etc.
- One can say ‘forest resources’ or ‘timber’ or ‘construction timber’/’firewood’/’furniture timber’ etc.
- One can say ‘labour’ or, e.g. ‘skilled male carpentry labour force during dry season’ or ‘labour force of young mothers during ploughing season’.

The appropriate level of aggregation is combining those activities or raw materials which belong to one production system by being interrelated.

For example:
Within a certain cultivation system tree crops, grains and cattle may be interrelated in a way that they make use of the same labour force and the same land in a complementary manner. In such a case the potentials of that whole system have to be identified instead of trying to get out the potential of each product in isolation.

2. Methods of quantifying:

Quantification of resource potentials can hardly ever be done precisely, but rather in the way of a sound professional guess (“principle of optimal ignorance”). Furthermore, each guess is necessarily based on certain assumptions as most resources can be used in very different ways. This vagueness is not really a problem, however, as we are not supposed to do exact production planning on the basis of the potentiality analysis, but rather aim getting reasonable ideas about means of problem-solving. Having some knowledge about rough magnitudes is important, however. (e.g. one should know whether suitable soils for crop cultivation are in the range of about 1 000 ha, about 10 000 ha or rather 100 000 ha).

Quantification has to be done considering

- sustainable resource use patterns (which are suitable to keep the level of utilisation constant in the long run),
- socially acceptable utilisation of existing labour force which does not create new problems by solving old ones (e.g. by leaving no time for reproduction or social activities)

If there is a high degree of uncertainty, alternative scenario calculations under different model assumptions can be made to get an impression of minimum and maximum estimates.
5.2.6 Steps:

A. List all natural resources potentials identified for each problem. Add all known specifications in terms of quantity, quality and location. Distinguish between potentials being used already and unutilised expansion potentials.

B. List all labour potentials identified for each problem with all known specifications in terms of quality (skills level), quantity, timing (seasonal/during peak season etc.) and location. Distinguish between utilised and non-utilised (idle) potentials.

C. In the case of income-related activities: List all local demand potentials. Demand potentials are related to those commodities or services which are
   – in short supply,
   – imported from other regions,
   though they are likely to be provided by local producers on a competitive basis. The identification of demand potentials may require a market analysis. The demand for each commodity or service has to be specified in terms of quantity, quality, location and - in some cases - per season.

   Note: Demand is the quantity customers are prepared and able to buy under consideration of their purchasing power and given prices. Demand should not be mixed up with needs (which are there irrespective of purchasing power).

D. Combine natural resources potentials and under-utilised labour potentials by using a matrix. Wherever they can be interlinked, one has identified field of potential expansion of primary production. Where the same natural resource and labour potentials can be used in different ways (e.g. for wheat or for grape production), the alternative resource use systems should be indicated as such.

E. Estimate the expansion potential of primary products under consideration of assumptions on the production technology.

F. In the case of economic marked-related activities: Combine the identified resource potentials for primary products and the identified demand potentials by using a matrix. Wherever they can be interlinked, one has identified
   a. expansion potentials for primary products
   b. potentials for local processing or local trade.

G. In the case of economic activities which are not based on local raw materials: Combine labour potentials with demand potentials by using a matrix. Wherever they can be linked, one has identified possible income-generating activities which are not related to local natural resources (e.g. service sector).
Here is an example of a simple resource-demand matrix interlinking resources and demanded goods, with instructions on how to construct it (figures as examples):

**Resource - Demand - Matrix**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DEMAND</th>
<th>flour</th>
<th>edible oil</th>
<th>furniture</th>
<th>transport</th>
<th>export</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actual purchases</td>
<td>3,000 t</td>
<td>50,000 l</td>
<td>500 m³ timber</td>
<td>50 oxen 50 carts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out of this: imported into the area</td>
<td>2,400 t</td>
<td>50,000 l</td>
<td>400 m³ timber</td>
<td>0 oxen 30 carts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsatisfied demand (known)</td>
<td>500 t</td>
<td>50,000 l</td>
<td>200 m³ timber</td>
<td>200 oxen 200 carts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total potential demand</td>
<td>2900 t</td>
<td>100 000 l</td>
<td>600 m³</td>
<td>200 oxen 230 carts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESOURCES</th>
<th>volume of production</th>
<th>out of this for external markets</th>
<th>potential for expansion</th>
<th>TRADE &amp; PROCESSING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cereals</td>
<td>1,000 t</td>
<td>400 t</td>
<td>OO</td>
<td>P (600 t) P+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livestock</td>
<td>5,000 units</td>
<td>4000 units</td>
<td>OOO</td>
<td>P (70 m³) P+ P+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forest</td>
<td>200 m³</td>
<td>100 m³</td>
<td>OOO (5,000 m³)</td>
<td>P (30 m³) P+ P+ P+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

OOOO = very high potential for expansion (several times the present volume)
OO = high potential (more than double the present volume)
O = limited potential (not more than double the present volume)
P = processing facilities existing
T = direct retail purchases of raw materials
P+ = sector with potential for processing

Points of intersection in the matrix:

---

OOOO = very high potential for expansion (several times the present volume)
OO = high potential (more than double the present volume)
O = limited potential (not more than double the present volume)
P = processing facilities existing
T = direct retail purchases of raw materials
P+ = sector with potential for processing

---
How to compile a resource-demand matrix:

1. **List resources** on one side of the matrix
   Include information about existing production volumes, how much is exported at present, and forecasts as to potential (assess potential in terms of factors like ecological possibilities, labour bottlenecks, etc.)

2. **List goods demanded** on the other side of the matrix.
   Include information about actual purchases/sales at present, how much is imported, and estimates as to additional purchasing power unmet by existing supplies. These goods should be listed in as far as they can be produced on the basis of local resources (land, labour, etc.)

3. **Indicate trade and processing linkages** between resources and demand.
   Where local resources are utilised for local demand, enter into the respective box in the matrix, differentiating between direct retail purchases of raw materials and existing processing.

4. **Indicate potentials.**
   Mark resources with potential which is not utilised or utilised for export, as well as goods for which there is unsatisfied demand or demand satisfied by imports. Enter possible linkages among such resources and such goods into the respective box of the matrix → sectors with potentials.

The sectors or activities identified in this way are relevant for further consideration and for further analysis. At this stage of analysis we only know that there are resources and there is demand. Whether or not the identified potential activities are economically viable, socially adjusted and whether they are attractive for the people, remains to be answered in the course of subsequent planning steps.
6.1 Introduction

The identification of problem-causing constraints as well as of problem-solving potentials in the frame of the regional situation analysis serves as an information basis for the following planning steps:

Identification

− of priority sectors for promotion
− of appropriate levels of technology
− and of relevant more specific fields for problem-solving interventions.

Moreover the planning team is now in a position to come forward with professional guesses regarding possible quantitative targets of problem-solving interventions. For example, one can arrive at estimates of the number of viable income opportunities in certain sectors, after consideration of resources and demand limitations and technological options.

Note: For all subsequent planning steps data-based knowledge on the local expansion potentials of production and their limitations is of utmost importance, if planning for poverty-alleviation in a sustainable manner is to give as many people as possible access to the limited potentials. The limited mass effect in many rural development interventions frequently has been caused by not taking resource and market limitation into account.

6.2 Example for a possible procedure:

1. List the identified potentials and their respective expansion potentials (on the basis of a problem-focused potentialities’ analysis) wherever income-increase is an objective, carry out resources and market analyses and gather information on technical alternatives.

2. Assess the sectoral alternatives taking into consideration economic (including feasibility) and development policy criteria. Deduct priority sectors (which are viable, feasible and relevant with regard to development policy objectives)

Note 1: Insights gained from such analyses are necessary (but not sufficient) prerequisites for making decisions on priority areas of promotion. A conclusive decision can only be taken on the basis of further planning steps (target group and gender analysis, organisational analysis and participatory dialogues with the people).
Note 2: The economic viability can only be estimated for specified technological options.

3. **Identify priority areas for interventions** by interlinking the results of the potentials' analysis with those of the constraints analysis. The priority sectors are connected to the identified constraints by a *potentials-constraints-matrix*. This matrix indicates which constraints have to be acted upon by respective problem-solving measures (by target groups or support service agencies).

4. **Clarify technological options**: The decision on technical alternatives determines whether identified problems can be solved (or rather may be aggravated), whether potentials can be adequately utilised (or remain unutilised or are over-exploited). The choice of technology decides on how many people are beneficiaries of a promotion, the amount of labour burden and the (soft or damaging) usage of natural resources. That is why the clarification on technological choices is part of a responsible “planning from above”.

**Note**: The most suitable choice of technology from the point of view of individuals among the intended beneficiaries is not necessarily the most suitable choice for the total number of intended beneficiaries. For example, high-technology options may pay under given market or resource conditions for a few early adopters to expand fast, but it may not be feasible for a large number of people.

**Steps:**

A. Gather information on available alternative technological options (both based on both local and external knowledge)

B. Appraise alternatives identified by suitable economic and development policy criteria.

**Note**: In this planning step it is alternative levels of technology which are at stake (e.g. hand-tools, animal draft, engines) but not specific types of machinery.

5. Appraisal of the possible contribution of the identified priority sectors and technologies to solving the problems. An answer to the questions: “how many people can benefit to which degree with respect to an improved satisfaction of their needs” has to be given. This implies the (preliminary) identification of target groups (including respective quantification).
6.3 A practical tool: alternative options analysis

a. Definition:

Alternative analysis is a systematic procedure to compare different problem-solving strategies or measures in terms of various criteria. It is a crucial prerequisite for arriving at a decision on the best ways and means of solving a problem or of achieving goals.

b. Expected results:

- Alternative options of solving a problem are identified and made known to all relevant actors.
- The impact of each alternative on achievement of objectives and with regard to certain agreed decision-making criteria is known.
- The pros and cons of each alternative are identified under consideration of the perceptions of all parties concerned.
- The most favourable alternative (or mix of alternatives) is identified under consideration of the judgements of all actors concerned.

c. WHO should be involved?

The method of Alternative Analysis can become relevant on all levels and in all stages of a planning process. It is an important step within each problem-solving dialogue. As a consequence, according to the principles of participatory planning, all relevant role players with regard to a certain decision should be involved.

In the case of regional development planning, it may not be feasible to bring all role players together at one time. Instead, there may be an interval of subsequent interrelated decision-making steps on various levels at various places. In that case, due to the interrelated nature of the decision-making procedure, none of these alternative analyses will result in final decisions, but rather in preliminary selection of suitable options (and exclusion of unfeasible options).

Example: On the provincial level, an alternative analysis will have to deal with very general policy options (like focal sectors for promotion of small-scale industries, or basic technological choices on areas of labour-intensive or capital-intensive construction or public facilities), while on community-level an alternative analysis would have to deal with more specific options considering specific local conditions (e.g. the type of water supply system or the location of a certain facility).
d. **WHAT kind of issues shall be dealt with by an Alternative Analysis?**

Depending on the stage of planning, there can be a number of alternative options, for example:
- sectoral alternatives
- technological alternatives
- organisational alternatives
- location alternatives
- alternative support instruments

On each of such issues the methodology of alternative analysis is applicable.

e. **Methodological Steps:**

A. Identify existing alternatives

B. Agree on criteria for assessing these alternatives such criteria can be related to
   - contribution to problem-solving
   - other principles of development (like basic needs, poverty alleviation, economic viability, environmental impact, gender-impact, employment generation etc.)
   - technical and organisational feasibility.

C. Analyse the impact of each of the alternatives according to the criteria. This step can be done by using a matrix:

*Example:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Problem-solving contribution</th>
<th>Poverty Alleviation</th>
<th>Environmental Impact</th>
<th>Economic Viability</th>
<th>Socio-cultural appropriateness</th>
<th>Gender Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alternatives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative A</td>
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<tr>
<td>Alternative B</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Alternative C</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
D. Identification of the most favourable alternative or mix of alternatives. For a
decision-making process within the team different prioritisation methods can
be used:

1. **Scaling** of each alternative with respect to each criterion by each team-
member (e.g. within a scale of -2 up to +2 for negative, neutral or positive
impacts). Such scaling can be done anonymously or by giving each role
player a special symbol. The latter way is the more useful one, if there are
subject matter specialists of different subject involved (e.g. one economist,
one sociologist, one ecologist) and if the team wants to pay special attention
to the specialist point of view.

2. Scaling with **weighted criteria**. Not all criteria may seem to be equally
important to the various role players involved. In that case they can be given
different weights according to importance. Then the resulting points made
during scaling would have to multiplied by the weight of the respective criteria
to arrive at the total number of sources for each alternative.

Note the special case of weighted criteria ( = exclusion criteria). These have
to be applied if an alternative would not work at all without fulfilling that
criterion (e.g. financial feasibility; technical soundness). These are usually
related to **minimum conditions** which have to be fulfilled.

At the conclusion of a situation analysis (including objectives analysis, problems
analysis, potentials analysis) and following analysis of alternatives for intervention
and/or promotion, the planning team will have completed a scan of the problem
situation which provides the context for more specific (sectoral) investigation. The
regional situation analysis is non-prescriptive at this stage, and should be flexible
enough to facilitate further investigation of the situation and the problem.