

| <b>Tool Name: Social Mapping</b> |  |
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| What is it?                      | Social mapping is a visual method of showing the relative location of households and the distribution of different types of people (such as male, female, adult, child, landed, landless, literate, and illiterate) together with the social structure and institutions of an area.  |
| What can it be used for?         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• showing data on community layout, infrastructure, demography, ethno-linguistic groups, health pattern, wealth, and so on</li> <li>• identifying different social groups using locally defined criteria and assessing the distribution of assets across social groups</li> <li>• learning about the social institutions and the different views local people might have regarding those institutions</li> </ul>  |
| What does it tell you?           | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• an overview of community structure and the socioeconomic situation</li> <li>• household differences by social factors</li> <li>• who lives where in a community</li> </ul>  |
| Complementary tools              | Community resource mapping, wealth ranking, transect walk  |
| Key elements                     | Participatory categorization of households using locally defined criteria  |
| Requirements                     |  |
| Data/information                 | This tool generates data and information; the only prior information required is for sampling analysts.  |
| Time                             | 1.5 to 2 hours   |
| Skills                           | Good participatory facilitation and social analytical skills; a natural resource disciplinary background is useful.  |
| Supporting software              | No software needed   |
| Financial cost                   | This tool will cost \$30,000 to \$100,000, as part of a participatory study, depending on the number of communities sampled and the geographical scope of the study.   |
| Limitations                      | Social mapping is easier when communities are small, but the process becomes much more complex when household numbers are high. It might be necessary to adapt the tool in these contexts.   |
| References and applications      | <p>Cramb, R. A., and T. D. Purcell. 2001. <i>How to Monitor and Evaluate Impacts of Participatory Research Projects: A Case Study of the Forages for Smallholders Project</i>. CIAT Working Document 185. Centro Internacional de Agricultura Tropical (CIAT). Cali, Colombia. <a href="http://www.ciat.cgiar.org/asia/how-to/WHOLE.PDF">http://www.ciat.cgiar.org/asia/how-to/WHOLE.PDF</a>; <i>Part B: Methods and Tools—Experiences with a Range of M&amp;E Techniques</i>. <a href="http://www.ciat.cgiar.org/asia/how-to/PART_B2.PDF">http://www.ciat.cgiar.org/asia/how-to/PART_B2.PDF</a>.</p> <p>Duijnhower, J. 1998. <i>Guidelines for Developing Baseline Studies, Experiences from CARE Nepal: Annex 1</i>.</p> <p>FAO. <i>The Forest Manager's Guide to Participatory Forest Management: Module 3. The Participatory Process in Forest Management</i>. Forestry Policy and Institutions Branch, Forestry Department. <a href="http://www.fcghana.com/pfma_fao/archive_docs/ref_docs/pfm_manager_guide_module3.pdf">http://www.fcghana.com/pfma_fao/archive_docs/ref_docs/pfm_manager_guide_module3.pdf</a>.</p> <p>Integrated Approaches to Participatory Development (IAPAD) website focuses on sharing information on participatory mapping methodologies and processes: <a href="http://www.iapad.org">www.iapad.org</a>; <a href="http://www.iapad.org/social_mapping.htm">http://www.iapad.org/social_mapping.htm</a>.</p> <p>Mishra, P., and G. Mohanty. 1995. <i>Social Maps and Geographical Transects: Some Recent Experiences in Orissa, India</i>. PLA Notes, IIED. <a href="http://www.iied.org/NR/agbioliv/pla_notes/pla_backissues/22.html">http://www.iied.org/NR/agbioliv/pla_notes/pla_backissues/22.html</a></p> |

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[http://www.mekonginfo.org/mrc\\_en/doclib.nsf/0/BA7AA16ECF97B14247256BC90030DFF1/\\$FILE/Annex11.html](http://www.mekonginfo.org/mrc_en/doclib.nsf/0/BA7AA16ECF97B14247256BC90030DFF1/$FILE/Annex11.html).

Sari, Kumala, and Pradipta Paramitha. n.d. *Participatory Monitoring of Sanitation: The Case of Wotawati Hamlet, Pucung, Indonesia*.

Sontheimer, S., et al. 1999. *Conducting a PRA Training and Modifying PRA Tools to Your Needs. An Example from a Participatory Household Food Security and Nutrition Project in Ethiopia*.  
[http://www.fao.org/documents/show\\_cdr.asp?url\\_file=/DOCREP/003/X5996E/X5996E00.HTM](http://www.fao.org/documents/show_cdr.asp?url_file=/DOCREP/003/X5996E/X5996E00.HTM).

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## Social Mapping: Procedures and Examples

### Time, Materials, and Skills Needed

Allow two to three hours to produce and analyze a community resource map and to ensure that a full discussion occurs with local analysts.

Markers and large sheets of paper are required. Notebooks/paper and pens are needed to make a copy of the diagram and for the note-taker to record the discussion generated during the diagram development. The map can be drawn on the ground; if this is the case, then a large area will be needed as well as a variety of objects such as sticks, stones, leaves, seeds, colored powder, and so on, which the analysts can use to represent features on the map.

The discussion group will include a facilitator, observer/note-taker, and selected local analysts. The facilitator and observer/note-taker should be experienced in both the principles behind the use of participatory tools and methods as well as in their practical use. Knowledge of the social structure of the community is required by the facilitator because community members might consider resource distribution, use, and access to be sensitive issues.

### Possible Approach

The following approach is a general example that can be adapted to suit the local context, views of local analysts, and the research objectives.

**Step 1: Select Local Analysts.** Identify the groups of people to talk to about their perceptions of social difference in their community. These decisions will be based on the objectives and depth of information required for the research. For example, separate groups of men and women might be useful to obtain different perspectives regarding the social structure of a community and the importance of various social infrastructures. Outputs differ consistently if generated by women, men, or children. However, it might be necessary to break down the population into further categories (such as ethnicity, well-being category, or caste). Groups of five to ten local analysts should reflect any relevant and important social divisions.

**Step 2: Provide Introductions and Explanations.** When working with each group, the facilitator and observer/note-taker should begin by introducing themselves and explaining carefully and clearly the objectives of the discussion. Check that the local analysts understand and feel comfortable with what will be discussed.

**Step 3: Produce a Social Map.** First decide what type of area the map will show or any limitations such as a village, an indigenous ancestral domain, a watershed, and so on. Social maps begin as physical maps of the residential area of a community. The principles followed in setting up the exercise and getting going for the social map are similar to those used with a community resource map; it might even be possible and useful to combine both and produce one map showing social and resource aspects of the community.

With the help of local analysts, select a suitable place and medium, such as on the ground using objects such as stones, seeds, sticks, leaves, and colored powder; on the floor using

chalk; or directly onto a large sheet of paper, using pencils and pens. Materials collected locally such as seeds are especially useful in enabling people to map distributions quickly and effectively.

Ask the local analysts to start by preparing the outline or boundary of the map. It might be helpful for them start by placing a rock or leaf to represent a central and important landmark. Another option is to ask the analysts to draw a simple village map showing some features such as roads, paths, and watercourses for orientation. Although it might take some time to get going, the process should not be rushed.

Ask the analysts to identify and draw on the map other institutions and landmarks that are important to them. These might include religious buildings, schools, health centers, traditional healers, places where people frequently meet, community centers, and other public and business buildings. Ask also about services or facilities such as irrigation, electricity, water, gas, telephone, and so on and mark these on the map. It is not necessary to develop an absolutely accurate map—the goal is to get useful information about local perceptions of resources.

Then ask for the location of all houses in the community and ask the analysts to mark each as a small empty square. The analysts can then mark the houses in different colors to indicate which belong to households of different well-being categories (such as rich, better-off, poor, and very poor). Ensure that the criteria used by local analysts to distinguish different well-being criteria are noted on the map and that they all have the same understanding of the criteria and characteristics.

The map can also be used to identify houses that belong to people from different social categories (such as ethnicity, female headed-households, and large households); people with special functions (such as a village chief); households with shops or other small businesses; and households with relatives abroad. These categories can all be identified by particular symbols, which should then be explained in a legend.

Once the map is underway, sit back and watch; only interrupt when absolutely necessary or if they stop drawing. Alternatively, it might be helpful to go away for a time and come back later.

If the map is being drawn on the ground, ask the local analysts to start making a copy on to paper (indicating which direction is north) once the broad outline has been established, making necessary amendments and additions as they go along. This process is important because extra information and corrections can often arise as a result. Also ensure that a copy or permanent record of the map is available if they want it.

Once the local analysts stop, ask whether anything else of importance should be added. When the map is completed, facilitators should ask the analysts to describe it. Ask questions about anything that is unclear.

**Step 4: Analyze a Social Map.** Once the map has been completed, use it as a basis for conducting semi-structured interviews on topics of interest and for enabling local analysts to conduct their own discussions and analysis. These discussions should be noted or recorded.

It might be useful to have a list of key questions to guide a discussion about community resources. Key questions might include the following examples:

- What are the approximate boundaries of the community with regard to social interaction and social services?
- What social structures and institutions are found in the community?
- How did public buildings develop?
- Who built the community centers?
- Who uses the community centers?
- What are the religious groups and where do they live?
- How do people in the community decide on places of worship?
- What are the ethnic groups and where do they live?
- How many households are in the community and where are they located?
- Which households are headed by females and where are they located?
- How is land distributed for housing?
- Is the number of households growing or shrinking?
- Has this rate caused problems for particular households or for the community in general?
- What do people do about new immigrants or growing households?
- How does access to community economic, social and political resources differ by household or social group?
- How might a proposed policy change impact on social differences access to resources, livelihoods or other opportunities in the community?

The social map produced will only be a snapshot of the current situation. If a historical perspective is needed or arises and local analysts have sufficient time, it might be useful to ask them to draw a series of maps to illustrate changes over time (such as how a village or community has grown). In the context of a poverty and social impact assessment, a social map can be used with local analysts to examine the potential impacts of policy change or implementation.

If there are several different groups, ask each group to present its map to the others for their reactions and comments. Are there serious disagreements? If so, note these and whether a consensus is reached.

**Step 5: Conclude the Activity.** Check again that the local analysts know how the information will be used. Ask the analysts to reflect on the advantages, disadvantages, and the analytical potential of the tool. Thank the local analysts for their time and effort.

## **Points to Remember**

Good facilitation skills are key. The approach outlined above is a general guide; be flexible and adapt the tool and approach to local contexts and needs.

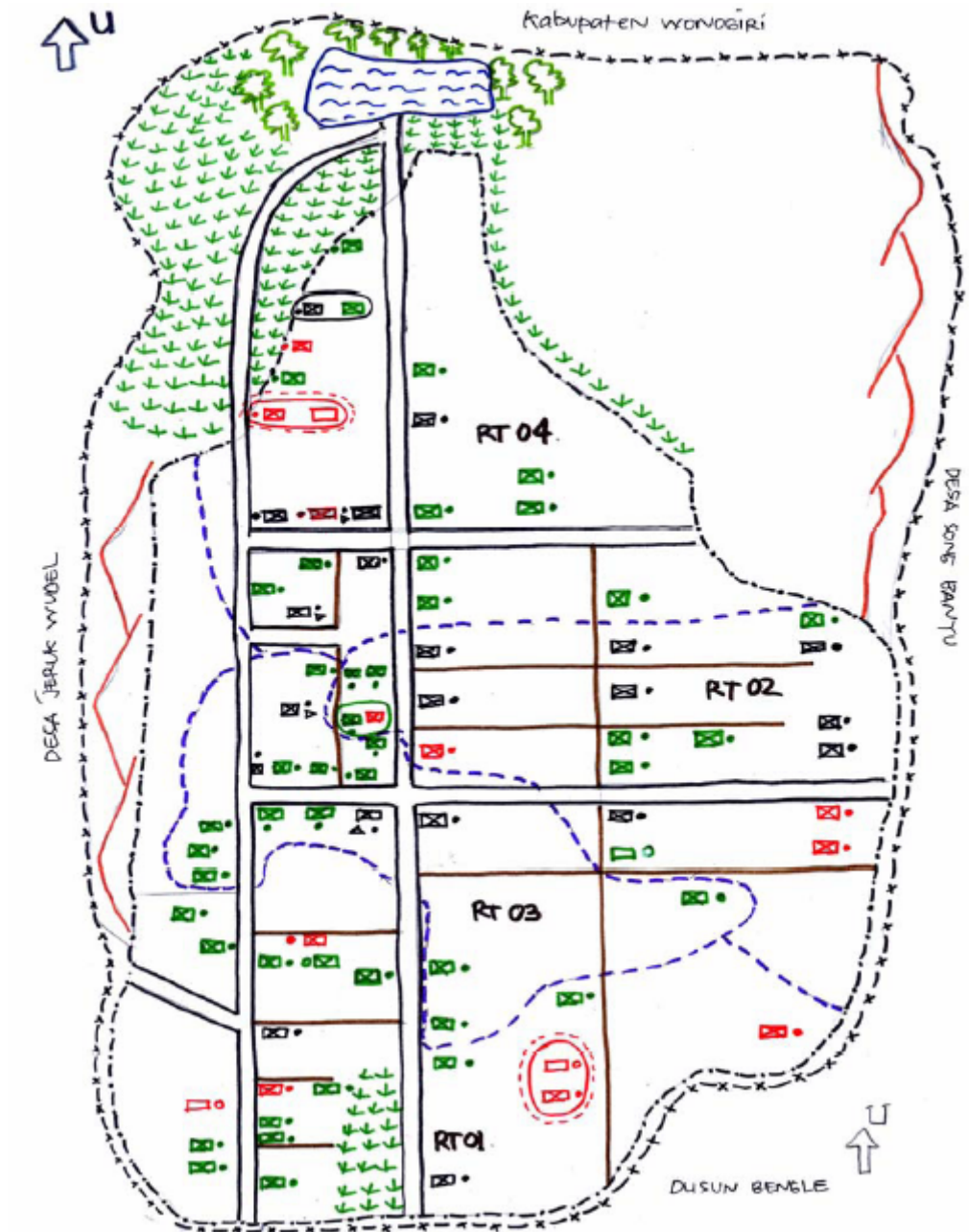
### **Case Study Example 1: Social Mapping in Wotawati Hamlet, Pucung, Indonesia**

In September 2000, local analysts in Wotawati, an isolated hamlet in Pucung village in Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta Province, evaluated their water supply and sanitation system using participatory methodologies and tools. In 2003, they used the same participatory approach to investigate changes that occurred over the previous three years. The focus of the second investigation was more narrowly on environmental sanitation and on the installation and use of latrines. One of the tools used was social mapping.

Wotawati has 78 households and a total population of 294 people. The houses are grouped together and are surrounded by farms and plantations. To determine local socioeconomic differences, local analysts conducted a household welfare classification using participatory tools. The outcomes showed that 20 households (26 percent) were categorized as better-off using locally defined criteria, 45 households (58 percent) were categorized as middle class, and 13 households (17 percent) were categorized as poor. Analysts then used this information to draw a social map that linked socioeconomic conditions with local water supply and excreta disposal conditions.

Local analysts produced a social map (see figure 1) that showed poor households in red, middle class households in green, and well-off households in black. Houses without a cross indicate that all the household members had migrated. The dots behind houses indicate latrines.

Figure 1. Social Map from Wotawati, Pucung Village, Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta Province, Indonesia Focusing on Environmental Sanitation and the Installation and Use of Latrines

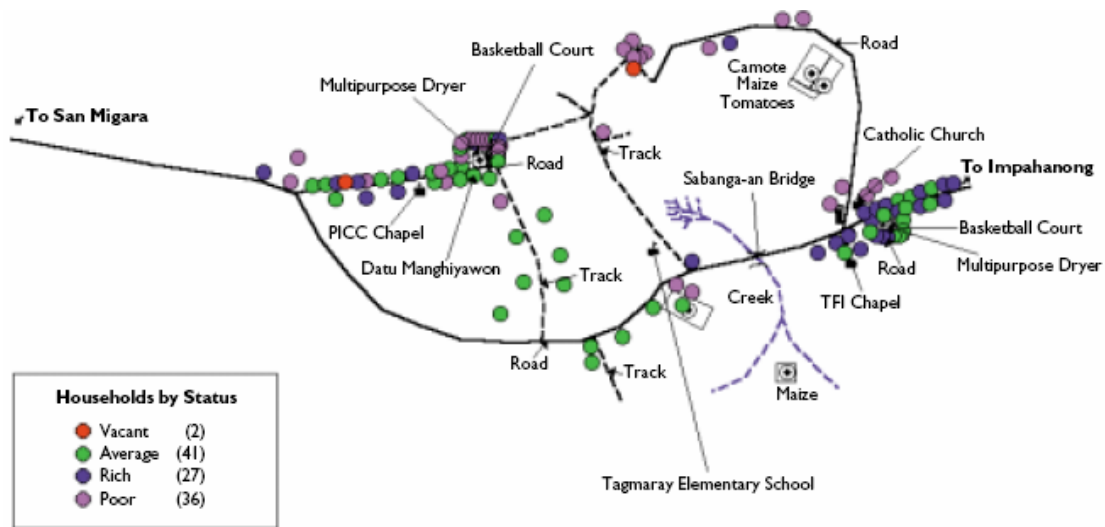


Source: Kumala Sari and Pradipta Paramitha n.d.

## Case Study Example 2: Wealth and Status Mapping, Malitbog, Philippines

Local analysts from seven villages used social mapping to examine the wealth and status of households in Malitbog, a municipality in the Southern Philippines (see figure 2). Analysts first decided the number of different wealth-status categories in their community before indicating on a social map the category to which each household belonged. The categories and criteria used to classify farm households included rich (large area of land, large number of livestock, off-farm/professional/salaried work, owns transport); average (1 to 3 hectares of land, 1 or 2 head of livestock, average income); and poor (farm laborer /tenant farmer, less than 1 hectare of land or landless, no livestock or caretaker of livestock, lack of food, not industrious).

Figure 2. Social Map by Farmers in Malitbog, Philippines



Source: Cramb and Purcell 2001.