Annotated Bibliography of Recent $Q^2$ Analyses of Poverty

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<tr>
<td>AIACC</td>
<td>Assessments of Impacts and Adaptations of Climate Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPRC</td>
<td>Chronic Poverty Research Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DA/S</td>
<td>Dynamic Actor/Structure</td>
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<tr>
<td>DFID</td>
<td>Department for International Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>ESRC</td>
<td>Economic and Social Research Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>GIS</td>
<td>Geographic Information System</td>
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<tr>
<td>GPRG</td>
<td>Global Poverty Research Group</td>
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<tr>
<td>GPS</td>
<td>Global Positioning System</td>
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<tr>
<td>LSMS</td>
<td>Living Standards Measurement Survey</td>
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<tr>
<td>MFO</td>
<td>Microfinance Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>PEAP</td>
<td>Poverty Eradication Action Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLA</td>
<td>Participatory Learning and Action</td>
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<tr>
<td>PPA</td>
<td>Participatory Poverty Assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td>PRA</td>
<td>Participatory Rural Appraisal/Assessment</td>
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<td>PRSP</td>
<td>Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers</td>
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<tr>
<td>PWR</td>
<td>Participatory Wealth Ranking</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q² or Q-Squared or Qual-Quant</td>
<td>Qualitative-Quantitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAGA</td>
<td>Strategies and Analysis for Growth and Access</td>
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<tr>
<td>VOP</td>
<td>Voices of the Poor</td>
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<td>WeD</td>
<td>Wellbeing in Developing Countries</td>
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Introduction

This annotated bibliography was prepared to help promote a better integration of qualitative and quantitative approaches to poverty assessment in the developing world through the facilitation of information sharing. It attempts to assemble the literature on Q² analyses of poverty produced over the past two decades.

Over 100 papers have been reviewed in this compilation and divided into three main classifications: conceptual, methodological, and those focusing on ‘lessons learned’. Papers characterised as being ‘conceptual’ are further divided into two sections: (1) papers that primarily focus on addressing the theory behind the ‘Qual-Quant Debate’, including identifying the strengths and weakness of qualitative and quantitative approaches, as well as their differences; and, (2) papers that primarily discuss potential ways in which quantitative and quantitative data/research can be integrated, without necessarily providing specific examples or detailed information on the methodologies used, or simply papers that express a need for integrated research. ‘Methodological’ papers clearly identify methodologies utilizing a Q-Squared approach, and are typically in the form of case study analyses. These papers are further classified by region or country (e.g., Africa, South Asia, Russia). The methodologies used in these studies are clearly described in the bibliography. Papers included in the ‘lessons learned’ category also highlight specific case studies; however, rather than focusing on the methodologies used, they primarily address the results of the study and attempt to gain some insight into mixed method approaches. They may also have a strong conceptual underpinning. Like the methodological section, this one is subdivided by region or country.

An additional section is included at the end of this working paper which presents a number of books and reports that address the three sections discussed above. Each draws on examples from various regions of the world.

This bibliography draws heavily on the paper abstracts; however they are supplemented by additional information used to better highlight or clarify the authors’ views, or provide detailed accounts of the methodologies used.

To view a current listing of and obtain access to all other Q-Squared Working Papers visit http://www.q-squared.ca/.
Conceptual Issues

The ‘Qual-Quant Debate’


This chapter introduces the overall context of the book. The author begins with a brief history highlighting when the clash between the alternative research methods used by social analysts and economists became particularly evident. In an attempt to solve the ongoing differences between the methodologies and interpretations of these two groups, and explore ways of learning from one another's toolkits, conceptual categories, and methods of inquiry a workshop was put together in 1985 entitled "Rural Economic Change in South Asia: Differences in Approach and in Results between Large-Scale Surveys and Intensive Micro Studies". The workshop succeeded in increasing awareness of the limitations that the standard methods of their respective disciplines often imposed. This book acts as a continuation of the process started in that workshop, putting together a selection of papers by anthropologists and economists on different aspects of the measurement issues that are involved.

The author points out that at some levels of discourse the disputes between anthropologists and economists are insoluble; however, the book tries to focus on economic change measurable in some well-defined sense and tries to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of alternative methods of measurement. The author acknowledges that many of the problems arise from the bureaucratic organization of large-scale data collection systems, and not from the survey method. This then has an impact on the implementation of the method in the form of numerous compromises that have to be adopted at each level, which often results in the loss of information.

The author briefly discusses the content of each chapter in the book and recognises that "there is no way of ignoring fundamental differences in the concerns and perspectives of economists and anthropologists; such differences transcend their distinct methods of collecting information". Yet, he concludes by acknowledging that starting a discussion that highlights unsuspected areas of potential agreement and coordination, and exposing legitimate differences can help in ones rethinking of the issues at hand.


In this paper the authors argue that one of the major barriers to interdisciplinary work between economists and anthropologists is differences in methodology and epistemology. In other words, differences in what the two disciplines consider important to explain, and how they evaluate the criteria for a good explanation. The paper is an introduction to three papers on economics, anthropology, and the question of the commons, that illustrate some of these differences, and that suggest both the potential and the pitfalls of trying to bridge these methodological gaps. The authors do not attempt to ‘resolve’ these methodological divides, but rather to understand what is important to each discipline and see the divides in the light of that understanding. This is important for interdisciplinary work and for respectful conversation. The authors highlight three foundational dichotomies that broadly divide mainstream economists from mainstream social and cultural anthropologists: (1) autonomy versus embeddedness; (2) outcomes versus processes; and, (3) parsimony versus complexity. In exploring the roles of these dichotomies within the two disciplines, they hope that their essay will lead some economists and anthropologists to critically re-examine the assumptions and modes of analysis that sometimes go unquestioned within their disciplines.

Bourguignon, F. 2003. 'Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches to Poverty Analysis: Two Pictures of the Same Mountain?' Pages 68-72 in R. Kanbur, editor. Q-Squared: Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Poverty Appraisal. Permanent Black, Delhi.


This chapter tries to illustrate the intimate complementarity of the qualitative and quantitative approaches to poverty analysis by considering various dimensions of these approaches and various points of view from the perspective of analysts and policy makers. It addresses the issue of which approach is "better" and concludes by stating that the disappointments with quantitative approaches to poverty are not sufficient enough to warrant a switch to a purely qualitative analysis. Indeed, this should be a motivation to improve existing methods or instruments thanks to a better understanding of the definition of poverty and poverty determinants provided by qualitative techniques.


Available at: http://links.jstor.org/sici?sici=0007-1315%28198403%2935%3A1%3C75%3ATDAQAQ%3E2.0.CO%3B2-U

The main dimensions of the debate about the relative characteristics and merits of quantitative and qualitative methodology are outlined, emphasizing the philosophical issues which underpin much of the discussion. A distinction is
drawn between epistemological and technical issues in relation to the controversy. Three areas are then selected which demonstrate a tendency for the debate to oscillate between epistemological and technical modes of expression: technique and sensitivity; qualitative research as preparatory work; and, combining methods. The question is raised as to whether it is possible to establish a clear symmetry between epistemological positions (e.g., phenomenology, positivism) and associated techniques of social research (e.g., participant observation, social survey). The author is sceptical about the extent to which a neat correspondence can be established.


This paper highlights the key characteristics of the quantitative and qualitative approaches to poverty measurement and analysis. It begins by explaining the various ways in which qualitative and quantitative approaches differ, including their definition of poverty, which determines the type of data to be collected and how it is analysed, their philosophical underpinning, interview format, sampling, geographic coverage, time, and cost. The authors then go on to examine the strengths and weaknesses of each approach. They identify three key ways to combine the quantitative and qualitative approaches: (1) integrating methodologies; (2) confirming, refuting, enriching, and explaining the findings of one approach with those of the other; and, (3) merging the findings of the two approaches into one set of policy recommendations. The authors describe numerous options in which the three techniques can be undertaken.

1) Some ways to integrate methodologies include: using quantitative survey data to determine the individuals/communities to be studied through the qualitative approach; using the quantitative survey to design the interview guide of the qualitative survey; using qualitative work to determine stratification of the quantitative sample; using qualitative work to determine the design of the quantitative survey questionnaire; using qualitative work to pre-test the quantitative survey questionnaire; and/or using qualitative analyses to refine the poverty index.

2) "Confirming" or "refuting" are achieved by verifying quantitative results through the qualitative approach. "Enriching" is achieved by using qualitative work to identify issues or obtain information on variables not obtained by quantitative surveys. "Examining" refers to generating hypothesis from qualitative work for testing through the quantitative approach. "Explaining" involves using qualitative work to understand unanticipated results from quantitative data. In principle, each of these mechanisms may operate in either direction - from qualitative to quantitative approaches or vice versa.
3) "Merging" involves analyzing the information provided both by the quantitative approach as well as the qualitative approach to derive one set of policy recommendations.

The main conclusion of this paper is that sole reliance on only one of the approaches in measuring and analyzing poverty is often likely to be less desirable than combining the two. This is because there are limits to a purely quantitative or qualitative approach. Each approach has an appropriate time and place, but in most cases both approaches will generally be required to address different aspects of a problem and answer questions which the other cannot adequately answer.

The paper is primarily aimed at policymakers and staff from donor agencies.


This chapter begins by addressing some strengths of quantitative approaches and provides self-criticisms of qualitative approaches. It then goes on to list some things that can go wrong in poverty appraisals and research, pointing out some of the weaknesses, dilemmas, dangers, tensions and trade-offs of combining quantitative and qualitative approaches, focusing on methodological (design, fieldwork, and analysis) and ethical components.


Interdisciplinary citation patterns and other indicators of the flow and sharing of academic knowledge suggest that economists and anthropologists do not talk to each other. Previous studies of this puzzling trend have typically attributed the problem to methodological differences between the two disciplines. Although there are significant differences between economics and anthropology in behavioural assumptions and modes of inquiry, similar differences exist between them and other disciplines (some with much heavier volumes of cross-citations with economics or anthropology), suggesting that the source of the problem lies elsewhere. This paper considers the problem at a deeper level by examining systematic differences in the preferences, capabilities, and literary cultures of


The purpose of this paper is to rehearse the main conceptual tools with which the disciplines of economics and sociology have historically sought to organize and make sense of inequality and poverty. An emphasis is placed on conceptual issues because the authors think that pressing problems of policy cannot be adequately addressed without first making major conceptual advances.

The paper begins with a characterization of the first 30 years of research on distributional questions in economics. It then divides these 30 years into three phases. The first phase started in the 1970s and conceptualizes four broad questions: (1) how should inequality and poverty be measured?; (2) should policy recommendations on issues of poverty reduction and equalization rest on simple utilitarian premises?; (3) are households best treated as unitary entities?; and, (4) can the complicating effects of social interaction be readily incorporated into analyses of poverty and inequality? The authors consider each question in turn, as well as the conceptual ferment that they engender.

The second phase, beginning in the mid-1980s, was a phase of consolidation, application, and policy debate. To examine how this phase played out, the authors address the previous four questions and consider how the literature in each of the four arenas developed. They then move onto discuss the third phase, which attempts to rethink the economic analysis of poverty and inequality. The authors focus on three key features of this approach: (1) the assumption of fixed and rational individual preferences; (2) the neglect of individuals in relation to each other and in relation to groups; and (3) the focus on income in policy goals. They
show that these three features are related to each other; therefore a conceptual questioning of any one entails a conceptual questioning of the others.

After considering the economic context, the authors then consider how the discipline of sociology has approached issues of poverty and measurement, following the same format as outlined above. In the first phase, social class models emerge that provide sociological solutions, albeit very primitive ones, to the conceptual problems that emerge when one attempts to develop multidimensional measurements, distinguish capabilities from outcomes, and understand the sources of social isolation. The social class models developed in the second phase are oriented, by contrast, to the problems of adaptive preferences and needs. The authors believe that although terms, such as “adaptive preferences,” “capabilities,” and even “social isolation” are not well diffused within sociology, it is nonetheless useful to understand conventional class models as engaging with the ideas and concepts behind these terms, however indirectly and unsatisfactorily. The final phase of analysis within sociology is more self-critical. It is a phase marked by a growing sentiment that class models are diminishingly useful in understanding new patterns of inequality and poverty.

The authors believe these conceptual exercises will help to set an agenda for the social sciences and cognate disciplines so that either discipline could contribute in its own particular way, singly or in concert.

Hanton, D. 2002. 'From Words to Numbers: A Basis for Translating Ethnographic Description'. Presented at the Conference on Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Development Research, July 2002. Centre for Development Studies, University of Wales Swansea, Swansea

Available at: [http://www.swan.ac.uk/cds/pdffiles/HANTON.pdf](http://www.swan.ac.uk/cds/pdffiles/HANTON.pdf)

In this paper, the author addresses some of the various problems that arise from the attempt to apply quantitative methods to qualitative data. Though capriciously assigning numbers to qualitative data allows analysts to use quantitative methods, this practice is highly problematic. Before using quantitative methods, the author asserts that it is necessary to first deploy a suitable method of “quantification” that precisely renders relational and meaningful cultural patterns along the relevant continua.

Hanton claims that the quantitative analysis of qualitative data usually fails because the mathematical approaches fail to abide by the requirements of “fundamental measurement.” The anthropological tradition of “quantification” reached a dead end during the 1950s because extant mathematical models were inadequate to the task at hand. Anthropologists who have subsequently used the 1950s method (Guttman scaling) that Kroeber deemed “most promising” have found it both useful and problematic. The author mathematically demonstrates why these difficulties of interpretation arise and diagnoses the resulting problems of cultural representation, arguing that Rasch measurement (a stochastic refinement of Guttman scaling that satisfies all the requirements of “fundamental
measurement”) supersedes the limitations of Guttman scaling and provides a basis for translating ethnographic data into precise, stable, and interval-level measures. Only after this translation from words to numbers has occurred can quantitative methods be deployed without bias and loss of meaning.

In order to demonstrate these points and illustrate the way forward, the author contrasts and critiques two methods of quantification published in consecutive articles of the November 2000 issue of Field Methods. The first article, by Kuznar, capriciously assigns numbers to cultural data, while the second article, by Guest, uses Guttman scaling. Finally, Rasch measurement of the published portion of Guest’s data demonstrates how mathematically valid quantification depicts the nuanced variations within cultural constructs and renders highly interpretable pictures patterned relation between informants and their cultural configuration.


The author examines the role of different data collection methods, including the types of data they produce, in the analysis of social phenomena in developing countries. He points out that one confusing factor in the ‘Qual-Quant’ debate is that a distinction is not clearly made between methods of data collection used and types of data generated. He maintains the divide between quantitative and qualitative types of data but analyzes methods according to their ‘contextuality’: the degree to which they try to understand human behaviour in the social, cultural, economic, and political environment of a given place. He emphasizes that it is most fruitful to think of both methods and data as lying on a continuum stretching from more to less contextual methodology and from more to less qualitative data output. Using characteristic information needs for health planning derived from data on the use of health services, he shows that each combination of method (more or less contextual) and data (more or less qualitative) is a unique primary source that can fulfill different information requirements. He concludes that: 1) certain information about health utilization can be obtained only through contextual methods, in which case strict statistical representability must give way to inductive conclusions, assessments of internal validity, and replicability of results; 2) often contextual methods are needed to design appropriate noncontextual data collection tools; 3) even where noncontextual data collection methods are needed, contextual methods can play an important role in assessing the validity of the results at the local level; and, 4) In cases where different data collection methods can be used to probe general results, the methods can, and need to be, formally linked.
This chapter attempts to provide some classification of when and why combination of qualitative and quantitative methods to analyze social realities is fruitful, and offers pointers as to how this could be done. The author starts off by drawing a distinction between the methods of data collection and the type of data collected under both approaches. He suggests the reader consider both methods and data lying on a continuum stretching from a more to a less contextual methodology and from a more or less qualitative data output.

The author goes on to explore the link between different data collection methods by considering the different functions they perform: primary, lead, check and follow-up. He reasons that the argument whether data collection methods should be done simultaneously or in sequence depends on the nature of the specific information needed. The author concludes with thoughts regarding the progress of future research, stating that future research will have to tackle how data generated by contextual methods can best be combined with data generated by non-contextual methods. He believes that the crucial building block will be an assessment when and how contextual information can and needs to be ‘generalized’ to lend itself for the combination with (representative) non-contextual information.

This chapter addresses the author's experiences with data. He purports that data are products of social interactions, with each product being embedded in a specific social matrix of production. In either qualitative or quantitative traditions, the variable relations of production determine the correspondence between reality and its condensation and representation as values of a variable. Stating this, the author then points out that the qualitative/quantitative divide may be less important than the methodological conundrums that arise in assessment of poverty in either tradition. The author discusses the instrumental nature of knowledge, focusing much attention on impacts to (e.g., cost to respondents) and effects of respondents (e.g., responses may not be truthful). Because of these issues, he claims that interest and trust in the social relationship of data production between
interviewer and subject may be more important than instrument and method. The more removed a researcher is from the field investigation, the greater the likelihood that distortions unbeknownst to the analyst will undermine the accuracy of results.

The author then proceeds to discuss the validity of questionnaire response, claiming that they are not attitudes nor facts, but rather markers of behaviours, regardless of the format used to obtain them. He further probes this concept by addressing issues such as researcher subjectivity, driving interests of powerful people or organizations, regime interests, and effects of small errors. This discussion flows into another on whether these errors can cancel each other out. The author concludes by stressing that if data are social products, it is imperative to understand the society that produces them, specified from very micro to very macro levels. Failure to understand the relations of power, interests and values that condition the production of either qualitative and quantitative data reduces the confidence that can be placed in the results of analysis, which can have large negative implications in policy.


Available at: http://www.q-squared.ca/pdf/Q2_WP19_Hulme&Toye.pdf

Arguments for cross-disciplinary research in development studies have been applied recently to work on poverty, inequality and well-being. However, much research on these issues remains fragmented and, in particular, the intellectual barrier between economics and the other social science subjects continues to be powerful. As a result, the authors felt it was necessary to re-assess this cross-discipline research to see how much validity it retains and where it needs to be supplemented. This paper begins with an introduction to some relevant key ideas from a cross-disciplinary collection of papers and an explanation of their relationship to the quest for cross-disciplinary research on poverty issues. The authors consider both the reasons why cross-discipline research is essential for future investigation of poverty and well-being, and the incentives that have favoured ever more specialised single-subject research. The authors then argue against the application of dichotomous stereotypes to economics and non-economic (sociology, anthropology, politics, and human geography) subjects alike, by addressing those that are the most commonly applied (objective versus subjective, quantitative versus qualitative, and positivist versus post-positivist).

The authors go on to explore the meaning of an intellectual discipline. They suggest that it is the normative practice of a 'knowledge community', and that it shapes both cohesion within social science subjects and the degree of affinity between researchers in different subject areas. They then decompose cross-disciplinary research by distinguishing between multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches. The authors make a qualified defence of those
researchers, and particularly economists, who ‘trespass’ beyond the assumed boundaries of their disciplines against charges of intellectual imperialism.

In the penultimate section of this paper, the authors examine the ways in which different disciplines do and do not relate to practising professions, which could have profound implications for cross-disciplinarity. The paper concludes with some ways in which the benefits of cross-discipline research can be realized. The authors stress that both interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approaches can benefit research on poverty and well-being, provided that their specific merits and demerits are evaluated in relation to the research task at hand.

This paper draws on the existing literature and the cross-disciplinary seminars mounted by the Economic and Social Research Council’s (ESRC) Global Poverty Research Group (GPRG) at the universities of Manchester and Oxford. In addition, it makes use of the results of two types of empirical analysis. Content analysis and citation analysis studies, applied to articles in academic journals by economists and other social scientists, are used to give an account of how social sciences differ with respect to quantification, and how they communicate with each other.


This book brings together the world leaders in analysis from qualitative and quantitative poverty research in an attempt to push the dialogue further. In brief chapters or notes, authors characterize the main strengths and weaknesses of each approach, discuss these with concrete examples, and propose a way forward for combining the two approaches successfully. Each chapter is summarized in this annotated bibliography.


This chapter provides a summary of the proceedings of a workshop held in March 2001, entitled "Qualitative and Quantitative Poverty Appraisal: Complementarities, Tensions, and the Way Forward". The central tenet to the meeting was self-criticism. Representatives from the two traditions of poverty
analysis (quantitative and qualitative) were asked to identify the weaknesses of their tradition and the strengths of the other to help gain a better understanding of poverty assessment and reduction. The second tenet was the search for best practice in combining the two approaches.

The author highlights the major points emerging from the subsequent chapters and the workshop discussions. He characterizes the qualitative and quantitative traditions along five dimensions in an attempt to provide a clear and concrete picture of what they are and what they do:
1) Type of population information: Non-numerical and Numerical
2) Type of population coverage: Specific to General
3) Type of population involvement: Active to Passive
4) Type of inference methodology: Inductive to Deductive
5) Type of disciplinary framework: Broad Social Sciences to Neo-classical Economics


This chapter reviews the state of play of discussions assessing the costs and benefits and the ways in which the qualitative and quantitative approaches can best be combined. The author highlights three ways of combining the two approaches: 1) integrating methodologies; 2) examining, explaining, confirming, refuting, and/or enriching information; and 3) merging the findings from the two approaches into one set of policy recommendations. He concludes by posing possible ordinary, fundamental and procedural questions for discussion.


This paper also brings together the proceedings of the workshop entitled “Qualitative and Quantitative Poverty Appraisal: Complementarities, Tensions and the Way Forward.” Contributors were asked to submit short summaries of their positions, with detailed references to the literature as necessary. This compilation represents a remarkable statement of the state of the art and the debate on ‘Qual-Quant’, at a time when the complementarities between the qualitative and the quantitative traditions in poverty analysis are being recognized, but the tensions are ever present, and analysts and policy makers are
looking for a way forward in using the two approaches to design effective poverty reduction strategies.


This short note is in the form of a “talk and response” exchange, coming as close to a conversation as it is possible to do on the printed page. It is the authors' contribution to the project on Conversations between Anthropologists and Economists, focusing on analysis of the Commons. The authors start by specifying what each believes the Commons problem to be, and then specifies the weaknesses of their discipline and the strengths of the other in analyzing the problem as they have defined it. Finally, the authors discuss the way forward in light of the exchange. At every point in the exchange, each gets the opportunity to respond to the previous argument made by the other author.


Available at: http://www.q-squared.ca/pdf/Q2_WP2_Kanbur_Shaffer.pdf

While the benefits of mixing qualitative and quantitative approaches in the analysis of poverty are not in doubt, the authors of this paper feel the tensions involved in so doing have not received adequate attention. As a result, the aim of this paper is to address this gap in the "Q-Squared" literature. The authors argue that there are important differences between approaches to poverty which operate at the levels of epistemology and normative theory.

With regards to epistemology, the authors address differences between empiricism and critical hermeneutics which relate to units of knowledge (and numerical transformation) and truth or validity criteria. When discussing normative theory, the authors acknowledge that the consumption and participatory approaches to poverty draw on different normative traditions to arrive at their objects of value (the conceptions or dimensions of poverty which they use). This is important for Q-Squared analysis because, even though there are ways to address these differences, all involve tradeoffs between retaining the comprehensiveness and richness of people's perceptions of well-being and meeting the requirements of standardization to make consistent interpersonal comparisons of well-being. Accordingly, there is no easy fix.
The authors conclude with their recommendations on: 1) how to incorporate features of validity criteria based on inter-subjective observability into dialogic/qualitative inquiry; and 2) using standardization as a means of ensuring validity.


The Qual-Quant Debate has been sustained by such factors as: implicit, conflicting philosophical orientations; intense intellectual and stylistic commitments; maintenance of group identity and resources; and variable criteria of research success. By clarifying these factors it is hoped that a climate can be created for resolving this seemingly intractable controversy. The author suggests possible reformulations of the debate, in light of similar issues and alternative practices in the field of psychotherapy. He gives particular consideration to the strategies of technical eclecticism and theoretical ‘integrationism’.


In this note, the author reviews the book "Conversation between Economists and Anthropologists: Methodological Issues in Measuring Change in Rural India", edited by P. Bardhan in 1989. The four main topics addressed are: (1) processes and outcomes; (2) surveys, studies, and samples; (3) microeconomies and social relationships; and (4) villager-researcher translations and anthropo-economic conversations. In each section the author compares and contrasts the view points, approaches, and techniques utilized by anthropologists and economists, highlighting excerpts from different chapters of the book to stress his point. This note emphasizes that conventionalized and ritualized village studies and sample surveys can only be transcended when the conceptual channel between economists and anthropologists are cleared. In addition to the main claim of the book that this can be achieved by "getting the data right", the author emphasizes two other possible preconditions: (1) topic-specific cross-section comparison of micro-surveys (building on, updating and developing databases such as the Village Studies Programme), and (2) grounding micro-economics in an anthropologically and politically researched understanding of inter-group, inter-role processes.

This chapter presents some reactions to questions from the workshop, "Qualitative and Quantitative Poverty Appraisal: Complementarities, Tensions and the Way Forward". It considers terminological and conceptual issues, the differences between qualitative and participatory research and research ethics; and, comments on the status of qualitative compared with quantitative methods. The paper concludes by addressing the question of what is required to reduce tensions and increase complementarity. The author feels that "the single most important challenge is to sharpen, update and enrich--through empirical research, among other ways--our understanding of the policy processes into which we feed information".


In this chapter, the author highlights a number of issues he considers important in reconciling some of the contradictions between the quantitative and qualitative approaches. He briefly addresses two important questions: 1) Can qualitative data be robust or representative?; and, 2) Is it useful to quantify qualitative data? The author then draws on the research methodology from a variety of research projects in an attempt to answer them. In doing so, the author poses many more questions about quantifying qualitative data, thus stressing the importance of continued debate on the issue.


Available at: http://www.q-squared.ca/pdf/Q2_WP26_Olsen.pdf

In this paper, the author surveys an area of research that illustrates the benefits of methodological and theoretical pluralism to studies of poverty. In an attempt to be more specific, the author discusses some competing studies of Indian rural tenancy relations.

In the first section the author introduces pluralism in social research. She defines it as a realist alternative to extremes of idealism and relativism. In the area of tenancy studies, idealised rational choice theories are often seen as contrasting
with political economy approaches. The author addresses the dangers of ‘essentialism’.

In section 2, the author reviews the choice versus power debate in the theorization of tenancy. The author shows that several authors cut across borderlines, used bridging discourse, and attempts to integrate or challenge competing theories. Power and poverty issues are taken up by all four schools of thought on tenancy. Choice and freedom, too, have been the subject of research in political economy, as well as in neoclassical economics. Productivity and its measurement create an interesting area for further operationalisation work, since disaggregated measures of remuneration and productivity are needed if tenancy is to be linked empirically to poverty outcomes.

In section 3, the author examines issues of commensurability. She shows that both economic theories and political theories of tenancy moved toward an analysis of state action, aimed at helping people. She states that land reform and the rights of tenants have been subject to particular scrutiny. She feels that where a topic links two theories, both theories deserve attention (e.g. class trajectory theory and moral hazard theory). In section 4, the author reviews some strengths and limitations of theoretical pluralism in general. The paper concludes with notes on the limits to theoretical pluralism. In particular, practical limits to pluralism and the fallibility of all theories are stressed.


This chapter focuses on the problems of poverty measurement. It begins by looking at the differences between qualitative and quantitative approaches. The author points out that the qualitative-quantitative divide is not as deep as some debates suggest, and that the differences are often stylistic and are methodologically and substantively unimportant. The author identifies two problems of poverty measurement (the identification problem and the referencing problem) and addresses how qualitative methods might help to solve them. He tempers the benefits of using a mixed-method approach by also addressing the general challenges and problems qualitative methods may introduce to quantitative research, however, he does stress that quantitative data on its own cannot solve some fundamental problems of poverty measurement.

The authors contend that the social sciences are particularly self-conscious about their methodologies, and that the distinction between quantitative and qualitative methods is more distinctly drawn than it should be. To some extent, proponents of both approaches have exaggerated the differences. The authors feel arguments opposed to quantitative methods are refutable, and assert that methodological pluralism is needed and should be encouraged. They distinguish two broad, yet distinct, approaches of inquiry: clinical and formulaic. Although they are separate approaches, the two may be used within the same line of inquiry, but at different stages in the process leading from data collection, through analysis and interpretation, to utilization of information. In fact, both approaches may be used at the same points with the additional benefit of permitting triangulation on a closer approximation to the truth.


One of the important benefits of the qualitative-quantitative debate in evaluation has been the increased awareness it has brought evaluators about philosophy of science. But evaluators are rarely philosophers, and consequently their presentations of philosophical material may contain errors. This article highlights thirteen common errors of this kind, and discusses some implications of these errors for the quantitative-qualitative debate with the aim of correcting them.

The thirteen errors are:
1) Some evaluation theorists are logical positivists.
2) Some philosophers are logical positivists.
3) Most practicing evaluators (or their clients) are implicit logical positivists.
4) Realism is dead.
5) Logical positivists are realists.
6) Causation is dead.
7) Logical positivists are committed to causation.
8) The experiments is about confirmation, not discovery.
9) Experiments are inherently quantitative.
10) Experimenters are naive realists or naive positivists.
11) Quantum physics shows there is no reality.
12) The social sciences are radically discontinuous from the natural sciences.
13) Vexing philosophical problems require radical solutions.


This brief article acts as the introduction to four articles in a special feature addressing the Qual-Quant Debate. The author begins by highlighting the complexity of the debate, pointing out that it is not simply one debate, but many involving controversy with methodology, social recognition, and the conceptual
and philosophical frameworks, to name a few. He then provides a summary of each article and hopes that readers will come to accept and realize the complexity of this debate in order to advance the field and application of quantitative and qualitative approaches to poverty assessment.


Within development circles, two approaches to poverty have increasingly come into prominence: the income/consumption approach and the participatory approach. It is argued that the different results which these two approaches generate with respect to both identification of the poor and policy prescription may be attributable to underlying philosophical differences. In this paper, the author presents an overview of salient features of the income/consumption and participatory approaches to poverty. He examines the different epistemological underpinnings of the two approaches, as well as the methodological implications associated with each. The author then examines the different ethical underpinnings of the two approaches and looks at the implications for conceptions of ill-being. The author concludes that if the argument is accepted (that the two approaches are different), it is no surprise that they generate conflicting results. They ask different questions in very different ways about potentially different conceptions of ill-being. He closes by stating that the real issue facing policymakers relates to the importance afforded the priorities and knowledge of the poor.


Paper first presented at the Conference on Combining Quantitative and Qualitative Methods in Development Research, University of Wales, Swansea, July 2002.

In 2003, at a conference on qualitative and quantitative poverty analysis, Ravi Kanbur identified five dimensions that he felt could capture most of the key features (or differences) of information collection and analysis between the two approaches. The five dimensions were: (1) type of information on population (non-numerical to numerical); (2) type of population coverage (specific to general); (3) type of involvement (active to passive); (4) type of inference methodology (inductive to deductive); and, (5) type of disciplinary framework (broad social sciences to neo-classical economics).

Shaffer argues that key elements of the Kanbur typology are derived from more basic distinctions in the philosophy of social sciences between three research programs: empiricism/positivism, hermeneutics, and critical theory/critical hermeneutics. He briefly comments on each of Kanbur's dimensions and briefly addresses epistemological and methodological differences drawing from these three research traditions. He then reviews two different traditions of normative
theory (naturalist versus discursive), which bear on how the conception of poverty is derived. The paper concludes by explaining the relevance of the argument for development research, stating that the point is not simply of academic interest, but has practical implications for aspects of poverty analysis, including numeric transformation of data, assessment of the validity of empirical findings, and inferring policy implications from research results.


This chapter attempts to highlight some of the major contrasting features of qualitative and quantitative approaches to poverty analysis, as well as their strengths and weaknesses. The author addresses methodology, measurement, the match between researchers' objectives and data, the definition of poverty, the barrier between qualitative and quantitative approaches which is accentuated by the barrier among disciplines, the crucial importance of taxonomy in both approaches, and the trade-off between consistency and specificity. He aims to suggest what each approach can learn from the other and how bridges might be built to enhance the potential complementarity between them. The author concludes by providing two suggestions for improving the integration of qualitative and quantitative research: 1) the creation of mixed Qual-Quant teams to address specific poverty issues; and 2) multiplex surveys and panel data focusing on the same household.


This paper challenges the assumptions that economics is a more rigorous discipline because of its use of quantitative methods compared to other social sciences, which are in turn associated with the application of qualitative methods, and presumed to be less rigorous. The author argues that the more serious distinction between disciplines, which applies both to quantitative and to qualitative research, is between data analysis and data mining.

The author classifies data analysis as the pursuit of an interpretation most consistent with the data (i.e., letting the data tell the story); whereas in data mining, the researcher tries to force the data into a preconceived view of the world. The 'miner' knows what he or she is looking for and keeps digging until it is found. The paper takes this argument down to the level of a number of specific cases all falling within the realm of poverty analysis.
Opposing the opposition of quantitative and qualitative analyses, the paper shows how a productive synergy may be established both between methods, and between disciplines, using examples from studies of labour in rural Africa, of the relationships of household size and poverty, and of child survival.


In this chapter, the author addresses some fundamental questions he feels exist regarding how people carry out research, and the assumptions that underlie poverty. He first discusses community-researcher interactions by considering the question, "To what extent does poverty analysis empower the people it studies?" He feels that if research was geared more towards all stakeholders - presenting data and results for different audiences - researchers would be forced to communicate more clearly, specify their assumptions, spend more time with communities, and ensure that data are validated and owned or co-owned by local communities.

The author then goes on to discuss the multidimensionality of poverty and the challenges this poses for researchers strictly embedded in quantitative approaches. He points out some hindrances of quantification and reasons that economics should come to recognize itself as a discipline more closely allied with sociology, anthropology, politics and psychology rather than the physical sciences. He concludes the chapter suggesting methods to help push poverty research forward, such as using decision-facilitating tools like multi-criteria analysis or scenario modelling.

**Integrating Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches**


Available at: [http://www.swan.ac.uk/cds/pdffiles/ABEYASEKERA.pdf](http://www.swan.ac.uk/cds/pdffiles/ABEYASEKERA.pdf)
This paper concentrates on some quantitative analysis approaches that can be applied to qualitative data. It aims to demonstrate how qualitative information gathered during Poverty Rural Assessment (PRA) work can be analysed to provide conclusions that are applicable to a wider target population. Abeyasekera discusses the benefits of ranking and scoring methods, but the majority of the paper focuses on the analysis of data that can be put in the form of ranks. It highlights a few types of research questions (the 'why', 'when', and 'how' questions) that can be answered on the basis of qualitative information, and discusses the types of data format that will lend themselves readily to appropriate data analysis procedures.

The author stresses the importance of data structure in conducting the correct analysis as it forces the researcher to focus on what constitutes replicates for data summarization, it helps to identify numerous factors that may have some bearing on certain components of the qualitative information that cannot be ranked or scored, and it helps to recognize the different hierarchical levels at which the data resides.


Much of the early work on poverty was highly quantitative. It became increasingly clear, however, that while numbers are essential for policy and monitoring purposes, it is also important to understand people's perception of poverty and their mechanisms for coping with poverty and other situations of extreme economic and social stress. Researchers have recognized over the past few years that quantitative analysis of the incidence and trends in poverty, while essential for national economic development planning, must be complemented by qualitative methods that help planners and managers understand the cultural, social, political, and institutional context within which projects are designed and implemented. This report is based on a two-day workshop held in June 1998, where outside research specialists and World Bank staff discussed the importance of integrating these research methods. The participants reviewed experiences in the use of mixed-method approaches in Bank research and project design. This report is a result of those discussions. The report examines the need for integrated research approaches in social and economic development, presents case studies of integrated approaches in practice, and talks about lessons learned. Part I describes the evolution of interest in, and the potential benefits of, integrated research. Part II presents case studies on how integrated approaches have been used in poverty analysis, education, health, and water supply and sanitation; and, part III discusses lessons learned with respect to the use of integrated approaches, and assesses the benefits that can be achieved.
This chapter provides an introduction to the book - highlighting the major characteristics of quantitative and qualitative approaches presented in each chapter. It starts off by discussing the evolution of the World Bank's interest in integrative approaches from a strictly quantitative assessment of poverty to a more integrated approach using qualitative techniques to understand people's perception of and their mechanisms for coping with poverty. It then defines quantitative and qualitative methods, and describes the characteristics or techniques each method utilises during sample selection, designing of the research protocol, data collection and analysis. The chapter concludes with guidelines for developing an integrated research methodology that ensures that full integration of quantitative and qualitative methods is achieved in the analytical framework and at all stages of the research process.

This chapter brings together all of the lessons learned from the workshop held in June 1998 which discussed the importance of integrating quantitative and qualitative research methods using experience from the field. The author outlines the strengths and weaknesses of both methods, and summarizes the benefits obtained from integrating the two. He then identifies how they can be implemented at each stage of the research process, from the formulation of the research questions to research design to data collection, analysis and interpretation. The operational implications of integrated approaches with respect to cost, timing, and coordination are also discussed, and some of the major challenges in using integrated approaches are identified. A comprehensive table of all case studies presented in the chapter - their methods and applications - is provided.

This paper acts as an introduction to why integrative approaches to poverty assessment should be adopted. Barrett describes the dynamics of poverty and in doing so explains why no single measure could ever be successful in fully...
addressing so complex a concept as poverty. He claims that the current social methods used are too narrow to properly address poverty, and states that we must learn how to integrate methods, using simultaneous and sequential mixing, to improve the poverty analyses.

The paper outlines the author’s thoughts and experiences on mixing quantitative and qualitative methods, focussing mainly on rural Kenya. He goes over four key differences between quantitative and qualitative methods and addresses common myths or misconceptions about them. He argues that neither method is necessarily better nor worse, simply different. Many individuals have, until recently, misunderstood these differences, thus preventing them from properly benefiting from the useful insight and knowledge these methods could provide due to their complementarities. He concludes this paper by describing three research projects where he tried to incorporate quantitative and qualitative methods: PARIMA, BASIS Collaborative Research Support Program (CRSP), and Strategies and Analysis for Growth and Access (SAGA).


Available at: http://www.bath.ac.uk/~hsspgb/Time%20and%20Poverty%20Final.pdf

The dominant forms of international poverty research involve statistical analyses of household surveys and 'qualitative' information produced using 'participatory' techniques. The expertises of other social scientists are rarely used to inform development policy. This paper critiques the muddled conceptualisations of 'chronic poverty' in the World Development Special Issue on Chronic Poverty by Hulme and Shepherd (2003), and outlines a Dynamic Actor/Structure (DA/S) framework for analysing poverty processes based on human and social ontologies, which are clearly spelled out. This methodological approach to log-lasting poverty relies on cases and stories rather than variables and populations; it also builds on the foundational insight of sociology (that the social world is made up of situated actions, of social relations, not of independent stories). This approach involves the interactive use of conceptual frameworks at three structural levels (actor, lifeworld, and 'big structure'), with the different conceptualisations of time implicit in the concepts of calendars and clocks, rhythms and histories.

For this framework, the author assumes that people are biologically, psychologically, and socio-culturally constituted actors, with agency, located in space and time. She believes everyone in the world socially constructs, and is constructed by, dynamic local livelihood structures and lifeworlds. Taken together these small unequal structures constitute larger unequal social structures (political economies/cultural structures), which must also be seen as dynamically constructed, reconstructed and occasionally destroyed through ongoing interactions among people with differential power. In turn, these larger social
structures constitute, and are embedded in, the global economy and cultural structure.

The author uses her proposed framework to analyse and understand four episodes of chronic poverty in Brazil, Sierra Leone and Haiti. The sociological analysis of these anthropological studies reveals some of the complex structures and processes involved in the generation of poverty. The author concludes by stressing the need to re-examine and negotiate ontological and epistemological assumptions, clarify concepts, develop theoretical frameworks appropriate to the realities of poverty, design integrated multi-method strategies, and find languages for presenting empirical conclusions that are comprehensible to all social scientists, policymakers, and so on. She contends that the goal of such an empirical research programme should be theory-oriented, situation-oriented, and policy-oriented, with household survey analysts and participatory poverty assessors taking on less dominant roles.

Bevan, P. 2004. 'Studying the Dynamics of Poverty: Getting to Grips with Structure'. WeD ESRC Research Group, University of Bath, Bath.

Available at: http://www.bath.ac.uk/~hsspgb/Structuresfinal.pdf

This paper describes a conceptual framework for guiding empirical research into the dynamics of poverty and inequality. Using ideas generated in the ‘critical realist’ tradition, the author argues that the study of the production, reproduction and reduction of poverty and inequality can be considerably advanced by the use of an ontology that recognises that all aspects of the world, including people, are structured in space and time. She briefly describes and expands on the important ontological elements of the 'critical realist' approach which underpins the argument. She explains what she means by structure, and identifies the objects of study adopted in the application of the DA/S Approach. In the subsequent section, she briefly discusses the ways in which neo-classical economics and participatory poverty researchers (fail to) conceptualise poverty. The author states that ontology and epistemology are inextricably imbricated with each other (given a realist ontology there are certain epistemological stances which are ruled out, in particular 'strong essentialism' and 'strong social constructionism), impacting on the way 'official poverty research' is carried out in poor countries.

In Section IV, the author describes a theoretical framework to guide the empirical analysis of the real and actualised powers and liabilities of any structured object, involving exploration of the object's anatomy, physiology, dynamics (these three constitute the real) and its contextualised history (the actual). In the following three sections of the paper, the author provides examples of ways in which the structures and dynamics of material things are relevant for poverty and inequality. A four-perspective analysis of the 'structure of being' generates a conceptualisation of human poverty in terms of poverty-driven action, resource failures, personal suffering, unmet needs, and seriously harmful beliefs, all embedded in particular local livelihood and cultural contexts. The author
concludes by asserting that the next step is to develop and use appropriate methods for researching the ways in which the anatomies, physiologies, and dynamics of local material, human and social structures are involved in particular historical instances of poverty and inequality. She stresses the need to use the described conceptual framework inter-actively with grounded empirical research to develop and use an integrated suite of research instruments and modes of comparative analysis with both qualitative and quantitative aspects.


Available at: http://www.q-squared.ca/pdf/Q2_WP15_Bevan.pdf

This paper takes forward three key issues or themes related to poverty measurement developed in a paper published in 1997 which was based on data from rural Ethiopia: the multi-dimensionality of household poverty; the emergence of a concept of human poverty; and the utilization of social science research by donors and policymakers. The author points out the problematic relationship between academic research and 'policy-messaging' research; claiming that the focus of policy has been on finding ways to measure the Millennium Development Goals, rather than how to achieve them. This paper engages with these issues, describing changes in the context of poverty measurement. In particular, the author discusses the institutionalization of poverty assessments based mainly on quantitative analyses of household survey data and participatory poverty assessments (PPAs) in the context of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP) process - otherwise known as the 'Q-Squared' approach. The author provides a critique of the narrowness of this 'Q-squared' approach, identifying its strengths and, to a greater extent, its flaws, and argues for the inclusion of ideas and research approaches from other social science areas.

She acknowledges the wide scope of using 'combined methods' to study poverty, and provides an alternate approach to 'Q-Squared', which she terms 'Q-Integrated'. 'Q-Integrated' is rooted in sociology, but has room for expertise in many other disciplines, including economics, political science, social anthropology and psychology. It is a multi-level approach to multi-dimensional poverty with scope for the integrated use of a range of research instruments and qualitative and quantitative modes of analysis. The author describes the ontology and epistemology, theorizing, and research strategies and empirical conclusions of this approach, and illustrates how it is informing research into poverty, inequality and subjective wellbeing currently in progress in Ethiopia.


This chapter focuses on the development of better practices for achieving integration of survey-based and contextual methods, in the context of a nationally-led policy oriented process such as the PPA in Pakistan. The author mainly discusses triangulation and linkage, and concludes with some personal concerns about convergence.

To begin his discussion on triangulation, the author first introduces the PPA in Pakistan. He briefly explains triangulation, noting that the PPA fieldworkers were encouraged to triangulate everything for the purposes of both validation and analysis. This would involve cross-referencing between different focus groups and instruments of participatory reflection and action facilitation, drawing evidence from key-informant interviews and direct observation, and drawing from the results of sociological studies and small-scale surveys.

The author then goes on to discuss two approaches (strong and weak) to how surveys and other poverty assessment instruments can be linked through their design, particularly focusing on how PPAs can be linked to major household surveys. The strong approach involves using the household survey's sampling frame in order to integrate PPA case studies with data from the survey on the same communities and households. Since the conditions needed to use this approach are not very common, the weak approach was adopted for the Pakistan PPA. The weak approach involves the PPA sampling sites selected purposively to allow for possible comparative studies or control groups, PRA work to administer short community and household questionnaires, and statistical work to generate a good set of predictors of consumption poverty. These processes are expected to place households in the national distribution of consumption poverty based on which poverty-line and income-distribution studies are done, as well as the distributions for the indicators covered by the questionnaire.


The value of a multi-disciplinary approach to the understanding of poverty and the design of poverty-reduction strategies is now widely accepted. However, this paper argues, current expectations about the potential contribution to poverty analysis from disciplines other than economics remain rather too slanted towards
what are presumed to be the special strengths of PRA-based PPAs: capturing poor people’s perceptions, identifying their priorities and describing their coping strategies. Properly understood as centring on the observation and interpretation of behaviour, anthropological enquiry has relevant things to say at all the three levels that concern a poverty status report: 1) Who are the poor? 2) Why are they poor?; and, 3) What can be done to reduce poverty? The sections of this paper develop these in turn.

Section 2 examines the implications of anthropological evidence for the treatment of poverty concepts and the construction of poverty profiles, including the use of data from ‘wealth ranking’ exercises at the community level. Section 3 addresses the ‘why’ question, drawing particularly on work by anthropologists and social historians on people’s responses to sources of long-term change. Lastly, section 4 turns to the implications of these findings and other anthropological evidence for the design of anti-poverty interventions.

The key findings of the paper are: (1) while anthropological work can help to enrich statistical poverty profiles, a more important contribution may be in documenting the variable, fluid, complex and contested categorisations and relationships that constitute the reality that poverty-reduction efforts must contend with on the ground; (2) documented responses to structural change are sufficiently diverse and affected by the particularities of local structures, including notably gender relations, that multiple paths of impoverishment or dis-impoverishment remain more likely than homogeneous national or regional trends; and, (3) anthropological studies help to remind us that the primary stakeholders in anti-poverty operations are, of necessity, active participants in constructing their own future, while the activities of states and development agencies are not always empowering of poor people.


Available at: http://www.swan.ac.uk/cds/pdffiles/CAMPBELL.pdf

This paper explores the relation between theory and method in three methodologically innovative studies of rural poverty. Given the current interest in combined methods for poverty research that link a search for 'objective' economic concerns with an understanding of 'subjective' and context specific issues, the author felt it necessary to examine studies of poverty that pursued different theoretical and methodological choices. In doing so, the author hoped to understand how theory has influenced methodological choices, and whether such choices produce distinct understandings about poverty. He wanted to assess whether poverty research forces data into preconceived views of the world and whether research that is concerned with methods and eschews theory is a satisfactory response to the analytical problems posed by the study of poverty.
The studies reviewed include a poverty, class and gender study in NE Tanzania; a study of poverty in pastoral societies; and, the 1994 World Bank Participatory Poverty Appraisal of Kenya. Campbell critically examines these studies, noting their flaws and concludes that they fail to contribute significantly to the development of the general understanding of rural poverty due to the absence of explicit accounts of the research processes used to conduct them. He cautions contemporary researchers interested in combining quantitative and qualitative research methods to heed Robert Merton's warning that "unless empirical research is theoretically informed and methodologically wise, it is likely to be 'sterile' in the sense of failing to address significant issues and failing to advance conceptual understanding".


Available at: [http://www.iapad.org/publications/ppgis/participatory_numbers.pdf](http://www.iapad.org/publications/ppgis/participatory_numbers.pdf)

This paper seeks to explore evidence, experience and questions concerning the generation of numbers using participatory approaches and methods; and hopes to encourage or provoke readers to add their own evidence and improve the tentative and provisional categorisations and analysis which the author provides.

The paper confronts two assumptions which are still quite common: that participatory approaches only generate qualitative insights, and that quantitative data can only or always best be produced by questionnaire surveys or scientific measurement. The author shows these assumptions to be false by providing examples of experiences from the early 1990s and onwards. He also notes that increasing attention has been paid in recent years to combining qualitative and quantitative methods in research, especially through depth and detail from qualitative research and representativeness from quantitative methods.

Chambers describes a range of participatory methods that have been developed since the early 1990s, by which local people themselves produce numbers, including counting, mapping, measuring, estimating, valuing and comparing, and combinations of these. Some of the better known methods are social and census mapping, and aggregation from focus groups. The methods are independent of discipline and profession. Questions are raised of replacing questionnaires, of ownership and of how participatory processes generating numbers can be empowering. He states a big challenge is to spread good practice, benefiting from serious professional interest, learning from the pitfalls of PRA, and through a code of ethics.
In this chapter, the author highlights two common assumptions that are related and wrong in the field of poverty assessment. The first is that participatory approaches can only generate qualitative insights; and the second is that quantitative data can only be produced by questionnaire surveys or scientific measurement. He then poses the question of whether participatory approaches and methods can generate both qualitative and quantitative data. The author answers this question by examining three ways in which participatory approaches have been used to generate both forms of data: 1) small-scale, directly through participatory analyses by groups or individuals; 2) larger-scale, with degrees of standardisation of method and/or categorisation; and 3) participatory spatial analysis: mapping, aerial photographs, geographic information systems (GIS) and 3-D modelling. The author provides numerous examples of studies where participatory approaches generated quantitative data in the form of counting, estimating and comparing, ranking, and maps. He points out that the participatory approaches and methods used in the studies examined provided access to sensitive or surprising information that would have been difficult to obtain through questionnaires; and as such, should complement existing practices (questionnaire surveys). The author argues that the capacity and opportunity for participatory approaches to replace questionnaire surveys (in order to gain the best of both worlds) are greater than most development professionals have recognised.


Chambers looks to refute assumptions that participatory approaches only generate qualitative insights; and that quantitative data can only be generated by questionnaire surveys or scientific measurement. He does so by identifying three ways in which numbers can be produced using participatory methods. The first method is the "ours" approach, where numbers are derived by the researchers/analysts. The second is the "theirs" approach, where numbers are derived, used and owned by the local people. The last method is the generation of numbers from several sources using participatory approaches, methods and behaviours which are standardized and predetermined to some degree.

The paper focuses on the latter approach and provides various examples of methods used to generate these numbers, such as participatory mapping, modelling, pile sorting, pie diagramming, card writing, marking and sorting, metric ranking and scoring, linkage diagramming, and pocket voting. These methods use counting, calculating, measuring, estimating, valuing, ranking,
scoring and comparing, often using combinations of these techniques. Some of the better known methods are social and census mapping, and aggregating from focus groups. The methods are independent of discipline and profession.

Chambers goes on to discuss key areas to methodological and research issues that can ensure quality of the data collected such as a strong commitment by facilitators, their proper training by devoting adequate time and resources, and group dynamics (included in this is good selection in judging the size and representativeness of each group). He concludes by addressing the importance of ethics, time, and feedback to achieving good professional practice and success using participatory numbers, which he has acquired learning from the pitfalls of PRA.


This chapter begins with a brief discussion of the assumptions made about the epistemology of qualitative and quantitative methods, and the best ways of gaining access to it to formulate knowledge. The author views the extreme differences between quantitative and qualitative poverty assessment as dichotomies of objectivity versus subjectivity, fixed versus emergent categories, outsider versus insider perspectives, facts versus values, explanation versus understanding, and single versus multiple realities, with the left being representative of quantitative methods and the right qualitative methods. The author claims that the manner and extent to which either/both method(s) are used will affect the realities discovered. He then illustrates how these philosophical considerations partly drive the methodological choice by examining two sets of inquiry methods to assess under-nourishment. In addition to their differences, the author points out the great scope for combining the two methods in the design of studies and in the collection of data. However, he cautions analysts that each methodology is typically better at revealing a particular kind of reality. Analysts, therefore, need to watch the extent to which the use of a particular method confounds the findings about the reality they actually want to examine. The author concludes by pointing out additional driving forces that may affect an analyst’s choice of inquiry method, such as practical and budgetary considerations.
This paper represents a short introduction to the use of qualitative methods for collecting data. It begins with the author defining qualitative data in terms of what data is to be used (format) and how it is to be collected (process). It draws comparisons between the collection of structured survey data (quantitative approaches) and less-structured, qualitative approaches to data collection. The author briefly discusses six types of qualitative data collection methods (informal or semi-structured interviews with individuals; focus groups; community meetings; direct observation of events, behaviours, or physical structures; systematic data collection methods, such as pile sorts, triadic comparisons, and ranking; and, methods popularized by the Participatory Research Movement) and provides her view of what participatory research is - any research that "incorporates the views of the community (or target group) in a process that leads to changes they value".

The author addresses some common objections that survey researchers raise about qualitative data or qualitative analyses and identifies two reasons for integrating the two research techniques: 1) use qualitative data to improve research conducted with surveys; and 2) to improve responsiveness of programs. She presents options for structuring an integrated study, noting that the key is to have clear goals for the qualitative component, which can be integrated with the quantitative work from the outset of the study, and states prerequisites for conducting such research. The author cautions that researchers experienced with collecting and analyzing qualitative data hail from diverse epistemological backgrounds. As such, it is common to encounter differences of opinion on the purpose, uses, and analysis of qualitative data. In addition, as with all other methods of data collection and analysis, no single approach will be best for all possible situations. Ultimately, the choice of method will depend on the goals of the study as well as budget, time, and personnel.

Researchers in the fields of demography, health, and agriculture (among others) have demonstrated that combining qualitative and quantitative methods has improved the quality of their research and policy recommendations. The "either/or" attitude toward research methods prevents many analysts from realizing the benefits of using qualitative and quantitative approaches to complement each other. In this chapter, the author attempts to illustrate the benefit of using a mixed methods approach, by showing how qualitative methods can be used to improve the collection and analysis of data from Living Standards Measurement Survey (LSMS)-type surveys. She focuses on the use of qualitative methods.
data that are collected outside of a survey. Typically, these are textual or visual data that have been derived from interviews and/or observations (often repeated encounters with a small number of people in their natural environment), documents, or records.

The first section of this chapter provides a working definition of qualitative data, describing how methods of collecting qualitative data differ from methods of collecting quantitative survey data.

The second section identifies three distinct ways in which qualitative data can be useful for improving household surveys: (1) they can produce hypotheses and shape a survey's conceptual framework; (2) they can clarify the questions and terms that are used in a survey, which make it easier for researchers to communicate effectively with respondents and to obtain meaningful answers to their questions; and (3) qualitative methods can be used to explain counterintuitive or inconclusive survey findings. The author readdresses these strengths in greater depth in section four.

In the third section, the author briefly describes five different techniques commonly used in qualitative research. These include: (1) qualitative interviews with individual respondents, which include both informal and semi-structured interviews; (2) group interview techniques, including focus groups, community interviews, and spontaneous group interviews; (3) direct observation; (4) systematic data collection which are elicitation, grouping, and ordering exercises such as free listing, pile sorting, triadic comparisons and ranking exercises; and (5) pictorial methods drawn from participatory research such as seasonality maps, metric ranking, and social or resource mapping.

The fifth section discusses the timing of qualitative work relative to survey work. The author identifies two approaches in combining quantitative and qualitative research. The first uses quantitative and qualitative data concurrently so that they can be used to crosscheck one another while the project is still in progress, thus improving the quality of the data produced by each of the two components. The second approach uses qualitative and quantitative data separately during the collection process, but they are used jointly during the analysis phase. The author stresses that although the first approach can improve data quality, in order for it to be successful, researchers must be well acquainted with the setting and have a clear sense of what data they need.

The sixth section discusses the role that qualitative methods can play in the design and analysis of LSMS survey data. The author addresses the question of how much qualitative work should be done, as well as staffing and quality control issues.

The author concludes the chapter by taking the view that many research paradigms are valid, although they are distinct and philosophically irreconcilable. She stresses that the use of qualitative methods should not preclude the use of quantitative ones. Instead, quantitative and qualitative techniques can and should be mixed according to the requirements of the research project.
This paper is divided into four main sections. Section 1 sets the context by discussing the nature of demand for and supply of information on the impact of microfinance. On the demand side, it makes a distinction between demand from within microfinance organisations (MFOs) themselves for organisational development, and from donors and regulators for public policy purposes. On the supply side, it argues that there is a case for more use of rigorous qualitative methods that occupy an intermediate position between "positivist/quantitative" and "participatory/interpretive" approaches. The Imp-Act programme is presented as an appropriate network within which a protocol to popularise the use of such an approach might be developed.

Section 2 further clarifies the distinction between positivist/quantitative, participatory/interpretive and more rigorous qualitative methods. To illustrate the nature of the latter it presents brief case studies of how such tools have been used by the authors in Kenya, Zambia, Malawi and Peru. Section 3 then takes a further step by suggesting what a standard protocol for a more rigorous qualitative impact protocol (referred as QUIP) might look like. The protocol stresses the importance of adequate training of field researchers and the incorporation of guidelines for ethical practice to help build trust and minimise response bias. In terms of interviewing, the author recommends that researchers begin by identifying a broad agenda of topics, and then pose the more general questions first and move on to the more specific (the ones that relate directly to the service under review). Topics can be introduced with a predetermined and tested open-ended 'generative question, followed by a set of optional supplementary questions. The authors acknowledge that it is often the lack of clarity about how to systematically analyse qualitative data that inhibits organisations from using these approaches more. They therefore suggest two ways of analysing the data: 1) written reports that summarize the findings from a set of individual in-depth interviews; and 2) simple scoring methods. Section 4 concludes the article by emphasising the key reasons why QUIP might meet unsatisfied demand, then outlining the steps required for its future development.


Poor rural and urban households in developing countries face substantial risks, which they handle with risk-management and risk-coping strategies, including self-insurance through savings and informal insurance mechanisms. Despite these
mechanisms, however, vulnerability to poverty linked to risk remains high. This article reviews the strategies households and individuals use to avoid consumption shortfalls caused by risk. It draws on a growing empirical economic literature based mainly on panel data studies, which the author supplements with his own work on Ethiopia. The author focuses on the constraints households face in using these strategies and on the policies needed to strengthen the ability of communities, households, and individuals to avoid the severe consumption shortfalls.

The paper shows that risk and lumpiness limit the opportunities to use assets as insurance, that entry constraints limit the usefulness of income diversification, and that informal risk-sharing provides only limited protection, leaving some of the poor exposed to very severe negative shocks. Public safety nets are likely to be beneficial, but their impact is sometimes limited, and they may have negative externalities on households that are not covered.

The author concludes by stressing the need for more information on households' vulnerability to poverty through both quantitative and qualitative methods. He feels that cross-sectional surveys could yield useful insights by providing information on the underlying determinants of risk-reducing strategies (physical, human, and social capital), and on the risks faced by households and the opportunities they have for dealing with those risks (past and present). The author emphasized that qualitative studies alone could provide useful information; however a deeper understanding of changes in welfare and vulnerability could be best accomplished by incorporating qualitative research into large quantitative household surveys. Integrating the two approaches would also work to better inform policy design.


This article considers the potential contribution of social anthropology to understanding poverty as both social relation and category of international development practice. Despite its association with research in communities and countries now considered poor, the author contends that anthropology has remained disengaged from the current poverty agenda. She states that this disengagement can be partly explained by the disciplinary starting point of anthropology, which explores the processes though which categories come to have salience. It is accentuated by the relationship of anthropology as a discipline to the development policy and the research commissioned to support it.

The author argues that an anthropological perspective throws considerable light on the constitution of poverty, as both a category of development thinking and as a label applied to particular social categories. The application of these categories
and the political implications of such classifications are examined through an exploration of some recent ethnographies of poverty as a process of classification.

The final part of this article explores the social processes involved in attempting to establish the necessary systems for measuring and classifying poverty as the target of development through a brief analysis of the ongoing attempt to institutionalize internationally promoted definitions of poverty as the target of development interventions in Zanzibar.


Available at: [http://www.eldis.org/static/DOC8885.htm](http://www.eldis.org/static/DOC8885.htm)

This paper contends that survey techniques have particular limitations as research tools in an environment where local level case studies are scarce and where a host of new socio-economic processes are creating fundamental shifts in the landscape of social provision, redistribution and employment. These limitations are illustrated by drawing upon a household survey conducted by the author in four villages from two regions in Uzbekistan, Andijan and Kashkadarya, between October 1997 and August 1998. The ambiguities surrounding five basic concepts (those of household, employment, access to land, income and expenditure) are discussed in detail, as are the changes in their contents and meanings in the context of transition. The gender differentiated outcomes of current changes and their possible implications are highlighted throughout the text. The conclusion suggests that Uzbekistan finds itself at an uneasy juncture where the policies deployed to 'cushion' the social costs of transition may reach the limits of their sustainability. A more contextually sensitive approach to the mechanisms that generate new forms of vulnerability and the use of qualitative and longitudinal methodologies are essential to an adequate monitoring of further changes.


Despite Uganda’s impressive reduction in income poverty during the 1990s, recent evidence has shown there to be substantial mobility into and out of poverty. This paper represents one of the first attempts to combine qualitative (using participatory poverty assessments) and quantitative (national panel surveys) information to understand the factors and processes underlying poverty transitions and persistence. In some instances similar factors were identified by both
qualitative and quantitative approaches, including lack of key physical assets, high dependency ratios and increased household size. In other instances though, one approach identified additional factors not so easily identified by the other, for example the impacts of excessive alcohol consumption in many cases. The paper argues that there is considerable value added in combining the two approaches allowing us to provide a much richer understanding of many of the processes underlying poverty and poverty transitions.


Available at: [http://www.uncrd.or.jp/hs/doc/01a_mani.pdf](http://www.uncrd.or.jp/hs/doc/01a_mani.pdf)

This paper can act as a set of guidelines or general reference manual for anyone conducting integrative poverty assessment research. It begins by addressing the strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative research methods separately, and points out some benefits for combining methodologies. The author then goes on to discuss how the two approaches can be integrated using a 4-step project design layout, specifically providing guidelines for how to combine methods sequentially. Some tips on how qualitative data can be collected, analysed and reported are provided. The paper ends with a checklist of things to consider to ensure accurate and complete analysis.


Recent debates about integrated impact assessment have tended to treat participatory approaches and methods as a fashionable frill added on to more ‘expert’ quantitative and qualitative investigation. This paper argues that, far from being an optional add-on, participatory approaches, methods and behaviours are essential for the new agendas of pro-poor development and ‘improving practice’. Recent evidence shows that participatory methods can generate accurate quantitative data as well as capturing local priorities, different experiences of poor people and potential for innovation in relation to causality and attribution. They can also be cost-effective for focusing quantitative and qualitative investigation. The main challenge is ensuring that mainstreaming them does not compromise their role in giving poor women and men more voice in development priorities, policies and practice.

This paper discusses new evidence and innovations to argue the case for ‘reversing the paradigm’ to bring systematic and rigorous use of participatory methods to the centre of most monitoring, evaluation and impact assessment. It argues firstly that the new impact assessment agenda means that simple ‘rigorous’ measurement of before and after situations for random samples with control group
is now rarely sufficient. The new agendas of pro-poor development and improving practice imply new questions (specifically what, who, and why), methods and processes to address local priorities, differences between poor people, causality and attribution and to identify and bring about pro-poor change—i.e. the underlying and explicit justification for the large amounts of money spent on impact assessment.

The authors argue that the challenges for participatory approaches and methods are not so much assuring rigour and reliability as ensuring that their mainstream use achieves their potential for enabling very poor women and men to have an equal voice in priorities and policies for pro-poor development. This requires enough people with the attitudes, behaviours and skills to conduct and document them well. Poor people themselves must be involved not only as respondents, but as active participants in learning and teaching for their own development. They must have access to the information generated, as well as play a role in its analysis and in identifying the practical implications for change. In the new paradigm, the assessment process itself must prioritize the building of peoples’ skills, knowledge and networks to participate equally in the definitions, priorities and policies of the development agenda. The authors conclude that unless people themselves are fully involved in articulating and presenting their own perspectives and ideas for the future on an ongoing basis, it is unlikely that their voices will become strong enough to persuade those with the necessary power and influence to really listen and take action.


Available at: http://www.saga.cornell.edu/saga/q-qconf/proceed.pdf

Poverty is primarily a social problem, and as such it requires meticulous definition, identification of constituent parameters and verifiable and measurable indicators. This paper begins by defining absolute, relative and subjective poverty, and moves on to discuss the poverty debate. It then discusses the conceptualization of poverty and human security as outlined by the United Nations.

The author recognizes qualitative research as a way to gain empathic understanding of social phenomena; facilitate recognition of subjective aspects of human behaviour and experiences; and develop insights into group's lifestyles and experiences that are meaningful, reasonable and normal to those concerned. Selected key qualitative approaches are presented, including key informant interviews, in-depth interviews, participation observation, narrative interviews, case study analysis, and triangulation. The author also briefly discusses some participatory poverty assessment methodologies, such as focus group discussions,
time lines, trend analysis, gender analysis, social mapping, seasonal calendars, and wealth ranking.


In this chapter the author makes two confessions and one observation based on his work on 'Voices of the Poor' (VOP), drawing especially from his experiences preparing volume three entitled 'From Many Lands'. The author admits to disregarding quantitative and qualitative poverty studies while trying to be true to poor people's "voices". However, he confesses that these other studies have added important depth to the third volume by strongly reinforcing and adding credibility to poor people's reports about the extent of and trends in poverty where they live. The author provides examples from Ghana and Argentina to illustrate his point. The author also confesses that he and his colleagues were not been able to find any shortcuts in drafting the country case studies in 'From Many Lands'. Additionally, the author points out that while the qualitative-quantitative divide is shrinking within the World Bank (e.g., VOP findings can be found in most of the Bank's strategy documents for countries where the studies took place), it is still large. He uses Argentina as an example to make his point and stresses that quantitative and qualitative strategies to reduce poverty need to be more grounded in poor people's realities. The author suggests that more inclusive poverty research and policy-making processes are needed to ameliorate this.


This chapter stems from the realization that most econometricians are too disconnected from the very people whose lives they are attempting to understand. To remedy this, the author proposes an integrative exercise that employs a combination of econometric, ethnographic and participatory techniques to develop a methodology of evaluating living standards, entitled ‘Participatory Econometrics’. It combines Participatory Appraisals, focus group discussions, and participant representative samples. To illustrate this method, the author discusses a research project in Southern India. He concludes by drawing some generalizations on the added value of participatory econometrics over more conventional methods of analysis. He emphasizes this method's ability to generate
hypotheses grounded in the reality of the poor by using qualitative data to understand the direction of causality, the nature of bias and measurement error, and to facilitate crosschecking and replication.

The Participatory Econometric approach in Southern India entailed the implementation of a series of PRA exercises, focus group discussions, and in-depth interviews, and administered a structured quantitative questionnaire to every household in the community. A key element of this method is its malleability - the reorienting of the analysis on the basis of observations in the field. This adds value to traditional econometric practice by discovering and locating important but understudied issues within the research discourse. For example, with time among the people trust was established and participants felt more compelled to be honest during interviews which enabled researchers to discover aspects of the community unaccounted for in the surveys, such as domestic violence and specialized expenditures.


In this chapter, the authors outline some of the ways and means by which integrating qualitative and quantitative approaches in development research and program evaluation can help yield insights that neither approach would produce on its own. In assessing the impact of development programs and policies, it is important to recognize that the quantitative methods emphasized, while very useful, have some important limitations and that some of these can be overcome by incorporating complimentary qualitative approaches. The authors examine the strengths and weaknesses of stand-alone quantitative and qualitative approaches, and follow this by a basic framework for integrating the two. This integration distinguishes between data and the methods used to collect them. The authors evaluate different practical examples of mixed-method approaches, and conclude by highlighting key points that explain what qualitative methods add to quantitative research.


Poverty assessments are typically clouded in conceptual and methodological uncertainties. How should living standards be assessed? Is a household survey necessary, and is it a reliable guide? Where should the poverty line be drawn, and
does the choice matter? What poverty measure should be used in aggregating data on individual living standards? Does that choice matter? This paper surveys the issues that need to be considered in answering these questions, and discusses a number of new tools of analysis which can greatly facilitate poverty comparisons, recognizing the uncertainties involved. Various applications in poverty assessment and policy evaluation for developing countries are used to show how these methods can be put into practice. Recommendations are made for future applied work.


The author begins this chapter by discussing some weaknesses in traditional quantitative survey methods, such as in gender relations and the valuation of non-market goods. He asserts that such deficiencies can be ameliorated by defining poverty in terms non-money metrics (such as capabilities) rather than money metrics. Some benefits of employing non-money metric measures include insight into intra-household issues, valuation of many forms of public goods, and the avoidance of difficulties identifying appropriate price deflators and purchasing power parity indices for cross-country or intertemporal comparisons. However, the author acknowledges that by broadening the dimensions across which poverty is measured, empirical methods become more complex.

To help reconcile these complexities, the author elucidates on his current research which shows that it is theoretically and empirically attractive to make statistically-based multidimensional poverty comparisons. He considers an indicator of well-being and defines people who fit into that category or not. He then compares their levels of a continuous variable (such as income). He ranks the sample according to one indicator and compares the cumulative distributions of that indicator and another. In this way, the author can obtain a more general comparison of the correlation between two or more welfare variables. So instead of a single poverty measure, the author considers a poverty surface defined by functions of the cumulative densities of each of the different measures of welfare. This technique partially bridges the quantitative and qualitative divide in so far as it provides an analytical approach for incorporating contextual and qualitative questions with money metric indicators closely associated with quantitative methods.

There are many ways to combine different approaches to the analysis of poverty. In this chapter, the author focuses on some ways not to in an attempt to better inform practice. The author identifies a number of difficulties that arise when combining the income/consumption and participatory approaches to poverty. The key differences include the measure of well-being, the basis of extrapolation, the conception of well-being, and the prioritization of policies. These differences stem from the different types of data collected and the different processes of data collection and analysis. The author provides empirical examples to illustrate the issues raised. The qualitative/quantitative distinction does not illuminate the most important of these differences.


Through detailed discussion of a methodology developed to quantify destitution in rural Ethiopia, this paper raises a number of issues and ideas concerning the integration of qualitative and quantitative approaches during survey analysis. It highlights the critical importance of using contextual data to inform quantitative analysis, for example in defining and scaling locally-appropriate indicators of such basic parameters as human capital and housing quality.

An index of physical labour capacity, adjusted for chronic illness and disability, is suggested as a more meaningful measure of household human capital in such a low-skill, low-opportunity livelihood system than the more commonly-used education or literacy variables. The potential application of this index to calculating “real” or effective household dependency ratios is also explored. The advantages and disadvantages of “qualitative” versus “objective” methods of weighting composite indices are compared.

Among the innovative aspects of the analysis is the triangulation of an “idea” destitution index constructed from discrete quantified variables with a subjective, holistic self-assessment of the household’s status. The very high correlation of results from the two approaches validates both the methods and the findings, and exemplifies the value of combined data types in representing the multi-dimensional reality of extreme poverty.

In operationalising the livelihoods approach, the focus is on quantifying access to (not merely ownership of) key assets, and outcomes. Again, the importance of contextual data and of locally-appropriate interpretations of the framework’s parameters emerges as of key importance. Although the discussion necessarily involves a degree of Ethiopia-specific information, the methods and issues raised
are of much broader application to applied development research, and to the current “Q-squared” debate on combining methodologies.


This paper is based on work conducted by Imp-Act – a three-year action-research programme aiming to improve the quality of microfinance services and their impact on poverty. Learning from the experiences of 30 MFOs in four continents, Imp-Act is developing and encouraging the use of internal practitioner-focused impact assessment that can serve as a means to improve practice and service delivery, not merely satisfy the needs of external stakeholders.

The paper looks specifically at the benefits of designing and implementing effective practitioner-focused client and impact assessment. It considers the types of questions MFOs should be asking in terms of use of impact assessment tools, such as indicators. It makes the point that impact assessment must be context-specific, taking into consideration the type of information to be gathered and the purpose of this information. The author recognises a range of methodologies, including standard qualitative, quantitative and participatory tools. Each tool has its strengths and weakness; however, by combining a number of different tools, credibility, cost-effectiveness and usefulness of the tools to the work may increase. Above all, the author stresses that impact assessment is an ongoing process, rather than a one-off event which benefits neither the clients nor the organisation.


This chapter presents a sociologist's perspective on research methodologies, with an emphasis on approaches for studying gender issues. The author stresses the danger of creating a false divide between quantitative and qualitative methodologies. She emphasises the importance of employing methodologies that not only give underrepresented women a voice in the policy process, but provide valid measures of persistent gender inequalities. She urges combining a variety of research strategies, including survey research done for other purposes, and provides examples of studies that use an integrated approach. In these examples, the studies initially employed a questionnaire or survey followed by an interview (in person or via telephone).


This chapter aims to proffer some self-criticisms of qualitative approaches to poverty appraisal by raising three questions or concerns the author feels must be addressed by anyone who is concerned with the well-being and future of the poor: (1) How can we know how representative the people surveyed are to the overall "set of poor people"?; (2) How can the different aspects of poverty be summarized to gain a better idea of the severity or magnitude of personal poverty?; and (3) How can we know trends among the poor (i.e., Over time, are their numbers increasing? Is poverty getting "deeper" or more bearable?).

To answer question (1), the author looks to sampling techniques as they can provide researchers some idea of how common or frequent some characteristics or experiences are being reported. He urges researchers to put qualitative data into enough of a quantitative framework to be meaningfully interpreted. With respect to question (2), the author suggests that researchers construct indicators (both qualitative and quantitative) from a variety of measures, so as to combine different facets of the multidimensional phenomenon of poverty into some summary measure. To locate trends in poverty, the author stresses the need for time series data to contrast and compare different groups within a population or in comparable populations. Although trends are difficult to trace without some quantitative bases, the author recognises the importance of qualitative trends in enriching one's understanding of poverty.

The author also recognises that any measure or indicator is no better than the constructs on which it is based and on the operationalisation of concepts. He provides examples of studies that have demonstrated the inaccuracy of some quantitative measures and how qualitative approaches have helped to clarify them. For example, he discusses a study that revealed that non-sampling errors in gathering and interpreting data from households were several times greater than errors due to unrepresentativeness from poor or improper sampling. By examining the deficiencies of both qualitative and quantitative approaches, researchers should be able to tackle the difficult, yet necessary, task of combining the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative approaches that will offset and minimize the respective weaknesses of each.


This paper considers the use of participatory methods in international development research, and asks what contribution these can make to the measurement of well-being. The authors begin by very briefly setting out some main dimensions of well-being and participation, and noting some connections between them. They then identify the two main issues that the paper considers: the contribution of participatory methods to the definition of well-being and its measurement. Discussion of each of these issues concerns not only technical, but also political questions, regarding how participatory methods are placed within the broader context of institutions and policy processes.

In the next section, some of the main techniques and principles of participatory research in international development are introduced. The main body of the paper then considers how these have been used in practice to define and assess poverty and well-being. This draws on general lessons arising from the practice of participatory research at the project level, and on the experience of two larger-scale policy research processes, as well as the experience of quality of life studies. It also considers emerging experiments with using participatory methods to generate quantitative data.

The authors then reflect on a 2002 discussion by Kanbur of the potential for complementarities between qualitative and quantitative methods in poverty appraisal, and the emerging experiments with ‘participatory numbers’: using participatory methods to generate quantitative data. This is followed by considerations of some more general issues concerning the validity and limitations of participatory methods. The paper closes by assessing the future trajectory of participatory approaches in well-being research, and reflects on some dilemmas regarding the use of participatory data on well-being in the policy-making process.

Wilson, I. 2002. 'Some Practical Sampling Procedures for Development Research'. University of Reading, Reading, United Kingdom.


This paper is about how, despite appearances to the contrary, elements of the quantitative approach to sampling can be applied to certain sorts of mixed mode and qualitative research, and aid their generalisability. It is written from the perspective of statisticians familiar with teaching, and providing help to, non-statisticians. The advice from the authors is often at stages of the research process when informal qualitative studies have already been done.

This paper summarises the authors' experience of advising, reviewing, or participating in various Department for International Development (DFID) projects. It begins by discussing the limitations of traditional statistical theory, specifically addressing sampling theory and random sampling. He then goes on to discuss types of objectives, comparative sampling, combining and contextualising...
studies, ranked set sampling, sample stratification, and target sampling. The paper concentrates on hierarchical sampling situations with several levels of unit (e.g., region, district, community, household). These are common, but problematical, involving practical decisions which may be under-conceptualised in qualitative literature.

Throughout the paper, the author provides examples, actual or hypothetical, to illustrate his point.

Q-Squared in Practice: Case Studies Integrating Q-Squared Approaches

Africa


Available at: http://www.q-squared.ca/pdf/Q2_WP6_Adato.et.al.pdf

This paper presents the qualitative methodology used in a mixed-methods longitudinal study of poverty dynamics in KwaZulu-Natal Province in South Africa. The study focused on changes in the poverty status of households in the period surrounding and following South Africa's transition to democracy, which sprung from concern about the extensive and deep poverty and inequality in South Africa, and the desire to understand what contributes to the persistence of poverty in order to transcend it. The paper is reflexive on the research process, emphasizing the importance of giving back to research communities in longitudinal research.

The study opens up with the definition of ‘the household’ and goes on to discuss the combination of socio-economic panel survey data that had been collected five years apart with qualitative data collected three years later, retrospectively tracing events and changes between 1993 and 2001. An innovative participatory method called “household events mapping” was used during household interviews to enable multiple household members to construct family trees and visual family histories. Household members also used detailed stories to trace and explain changes in household poverty status over time. These methods stimulated recall, uncovered meanings, ambiguities, and under-reporting in survey data and led to more nuanced information about the dynamics of poverty. They enabled researchers to see the types of events that had an impact on the households, relationships between household events, and between household and community events, all the while relieving restlessness and boredom and acting as an invaluable management tool for all of the information. In this way, qualitative methods were used to delve underneath apparent relationships derived from the
quantitative data, in order to understand what the numbers were measuring or missing.


Available at: http://www.q-squared.ca/pdf/Q2_WP11_Barahona_Levy.pdf

In this paper, the authors present their experience combining statistical principles and participatory methods to generate national statistics, specifically focusing on two research studies. The methodology was developed in Malawi between 1999 and 2002. They believe that if PRA is combined with statistical principles (including probability-based sampling and standardization), it can produce total population statistics and estimates of the proportion of households with certain characteristics (e.g. poverty). It can also provide quantitative data on complex issues of national importance such as poverty targeting. This approach is distinct from previous PRA-based approaches, which generate numbers at community level but only provide qualitative information at national level.

In the first study presented, the researchers started off by selecting an extension planning area using simple random sampling. Within each EPA, two villages were selected at random. Key informants participated in social mapping which helped draw a map of the community and marked geographical, institutional, and social reference points. Participants then marked every household in the village on the map, based on an agreed upon definition of a household. Through these activities, a participatory household listing was produced. The heads within each household were interviewed using a two-page questionnaire.

In the second study districts were selected at random within each region, and then villages were selected at random within each district. Village participants worked with researchers to develop a definition of poverty based on the availability of food. Participants were asked to show on the map the location of every household in the village and to prepare a card for each household. The result was equivalent to a village census. Participants were then asked to place each household card into the appropriate food security category - food secure, food insecure, extremely food insecure.

For both studies presented, there was a minimal level of standardization on the research teams which encouraged flexibility within the participatory approaches, and study sites were selected in a way to ensure good coverage of the population (in both studies all households were involved). Additionally, the same definitions were used in every site thereby providing comparable results between villages that could be aggregated to national level.
In this chapter, the author shares how he and his colleagues combined quantitative and qualitative approaches in field-based research on rural Africa, paying particular attention to a multi-year Pastoral Risk Management project in southern Ethiopia and northern Kenya, entitled PARIMA. A brief background of the project is provided, followed by an explanation of the methodology used, a case study utilizing participatory risk mapping, and then a brief commentary on lessons learned from the field.

In terms of the methodology, the author began by reviewing relevant ethnographies of the study area and used PRA qualitative data to draw out any patterns and explanations from a relatively small sample of non-representative respondents. This enabled the researchers to clarify often misunderstood dynamics and identify issues that had not been sufficiently emphasized. At the time of this publication, researchers continued to follow up on the initial qualitative work with collection and preliminary analysis of quantitative data generated by repeated quarterly surveys among households across southern Ethiopia and northern Kenya. This process involves ongoing dialogue between the qualitative and quantitative components of the project.

The author also discusses an example of a mixed qualitative-quantitative tool that has proven useful in the field - participatory risk mapping. Researchers developed an open-ended technique for getting people to identify and rank threats that concern them. They recorded the data numerically and constructed a simple, pseudo-cardinal index. A geographer was employed to geo-reference all points using a Global Positioning System (GPS) unit, which enabled the team to construct contour maps of risk assessment, polygonal maps of ethnic territories, and link these to extant biophysical data. In doing so, useful and original spatial analyses were conducted, and important structural patterns for heterogeneous risk assessment were uncovered. To account for the concerns of representativeness of risk assessments by purposively selected groups, the author and his team built the mapping technique into individual-level questionnaires fielded every three months over the course of two years. This enabled them to track more micro-level and temporal variation in risk assessment and to match randomly sampled individuals' ex ante risk assessment to their ex post experiences of shock.
In this paper, the authors suggest the use of participatory wealth ranking (PWR) to generate thorough poverty appraisals on a scale suitable for the generation of statistics that can be used to inform policy. The authors applied a mixed-methods approach to PWR to identify the number of poor households in eight villages of rural South Africa and to describe how poor they are. This novel approach to wealth ranking generated a rich appraisal of poverty.

At the beginning of the study, community members were invited to an open meeting. Groups of individuals were then brought together to draw a map of their residential area and a list of household heads. Subsequently, smaller meetings were held, made up of predominantly women from poor households. Participants were asked to characterize households there were “very poor”, “poor, but a bit better off”, or “doing OK”. Households of a given section in the community were then ranked from the poorest to the most well off according to the definitions provided. Households from the map were randomly selected and the smaller groups were asked to compare them with other households in the area. A number of piles of similarly ranking households were formed from the poorest to the wealthiest. At the end of this process, participants were asked to describe characteristics of the households in each ranking pile. The ranking process was repeated twice more with different groups.

Data in the form of text statements (general and pile) were collected at two stages of each ranking process, and then entered into a database. Each statement was designated a particular code based on themes, sub-themes and specific statement codes. These statements were also given a particular score. A household wealth index was developed based of the ranking process and statements made on standard of living. Of 9,671 households, 3,113 (32.2%) could be considered “very poor” or “poor”.


Available at: http://www.q-squared.ca/pdf/Q2_WP3_McKay_Howe.pdf
quality nationwide participatory poverty assessment) and quantitative sources (a household survey) it is possible to identify and characterize a clearly distinct group of chronically poor households, whose characteristics are different from the poor as a whole.

The authors begin by discussing the concept of chronic poverty, setting out a case for utilizing both qualitative and quantitative methods in a multi-disciplinary approach. They then go on to provide relevant background on Rwanda, including recent poverty findings, and follow this with a discussion of the PPA that forms the basis of their analysis. The authors explain how the PPA is combined with the household survey to identify chronically poor households in Rwanda, and show that this core group have important distinct characteristics that differentiate them from other poor households (e.g., more likely to have a smaller than average household, be female-headed, be underemployed, and less likely to have even small livestock). The authors conclude by briefly discussing policy implications, and focusing on the value of a combined qualitative and quantitative approach in assessing chronic poverty.

The PPA highlighted in this paper was conducted as part of Rwanda's Poverty Reduction Strategy process. Because of a national training team that trained over two thousand facilitators and working closely with the Ministry of Local Government, the PPA was able to achieve wide coverage, generating information and discussion in each district in Rwanda (covering all twelve provinces). Nationally, PPA discussions took place at sector level, generally selecting one sector per district. Teams of two to three facilitators worked with communities, typically three hundred people per event, over a period of between three to five days. Discussions took place in the afternoons, after agricultural work was completed. A variety of participatory techniques were used, including mapping, to focus on six main areas: people's definition of poverty, at individual, household and community levels; social categories and their characteristics; mobility factors among categories; causes and consequences of poverty; problems that affect community members; and strategies to address problems that affect the community.

In one region, Butare, the PPA was conducted in every cell of the province to deepen the analysis and provide a pilot for a community action approach using public resources to meet problems and opportunities identified in the PPA. Data gathered was aggregated to twelve provincial levels, approximately nine sectors per province, and ranked.

In defining causes of poverty participants highlighted ill health, ignorance, lack of livestock, reliance on insecure agriculture, scarce land, insecurity and conflict, poor quality housing and absent family members - often in prison. Social consequences of poverty were reported as loss of pride; lack of social support; pervasive feelings of loneliness, lack of dignity and a lack of openness amongst communities.

Across all provinces, more than half of all responses on the causes of poverty grouped around five factors: agriculture, lack of training, culture, land and health,
respectively. In identifying what it was about agriculture that caused poverty, two factors were mentioned three times as often as the other nine: bad weather and lack of livestock/manure.


Available at: http://www.q-squared.ca/pdf/Q2_WP5_Jha.et.al.pdf

The authors used detailed ethnographic evidence to design and interpret a broad representative survey of 800 households in Delhi's slums, examining the processes by which residents gain access to formal government and develop their own, informal, modes of leadership. The study found that while ethnically homogeneous slums transplant rural institutions to the city, newer and ethnically diverse slums depend on informal leaders who gain their authority through political connections, education and network entrepreneurship. Education and political affiliation are more important than seniority in determining a leader's influence. Informal leaders are accessible to all slum dwellers, but formal government figures are most accessed by the wealthy and the well-connected.

The study began with qualitative work gathered from four slums. The slums were selected along two dimensions: the proximity of residents' states of origin, and the age of the settlements. Two additional newly-settled slums (thus totalling six) were chosen to provide contrast with two long-established settlements. Over a three-week period, eleven specialists from economic and sociology backgrounds conducted approximately 100 field discussions, which involved neighbourhood focus groups and interviews of slum dwellers, community leaders and government officials. At the end of the three-week period, a review workshop with the entire team was organized to construct a questionnaire that covered issues ranging from basic household information and social networks to marriage practices. The questions were tailored to address specific questions that arose during the course of the qualitative fieldwork. At the end of the workshop, the same team went back into the four slums to conduct three more weeks of interviews. During this time the survey instrument was pre-tested and modified. In the seventh week, the final survey was administered to a clustered random sample of 802 households drawn from 30 slums in Delhi. The four slums selected for the ethnographic study were augmented with 26 slums selected at random from the Delhi government's newest city-wide slum register. The qualitative data were transcribed and entered into a QSR-Nudist database, and the quantitative data were entered into a computerized database.

This article addresses the methodological complexities inherent in researching poverty, examining how to differentiate the poor from other social groups, and how to assess the relationships between poverty and technology adoption and impact using a study of the impact of agricultural research on poverty in Western Kenya. At the start of this article, the authors attempt to analyze how and when to combine quantitative and qualitative methods to improve one's understanding of how to identify the poor, the nature of poverty, its causes, and its consequences for agricultural practices. The authors then describe the study areas and the background of technology dissemination in the region. The third section describes the different methods that were combined, including their sequencing and interaction; while section four discusses how these methods were used in generating the key empirical findings. The article concludes with an evaluation of the areas in which integration of methods was instrumental in achieving key empirical results.

This study built on some quantitative baseline data, but was designed to combine quantitative and qualitative methods in order to uncover important non-economic factors and paths of explanation. To design the research questions for their study, the authors organized a stakeholder workshop. The qualitative study of poverty used household case studies and some supplemental focus groups. 40 individuals and their households were selected from the quantitative panel study for the household case studies, examining how they see their lives and the changes occurring around them. Fieldworkers lived in the villages for over six months, collecting contextual data about the individual and household. Based on these data, focus group discussions were conducted to follow up on certain findings.

Within each village, households were selected to capture variation among poor and non-poor, adopters and non-adopters. Across these categories, other variations were sought, including female-headed, male-headed, and child-headed households; those with different relative dependence on agriculture for family income; young and older households; and monogamous and polygamous households.

A second set of focus groups was conducted to collect information on methods of technology dissemination used by government and non-governmental organisations (NGOs), and the ability of these methods to reach different categories of people. Discussions, along with visual exercises were designed to yield information directly relevant to the research questions, and generated both qualitative and quantitative data. Key informant interviews were also used, involving representatives from the organizations responsible for the dissemination design and activities. Within each village, four separate focus groups were conducted, disaggregated by poor and non-poor, and then further by men and women in order to discern different patterns of responses.

Quantitative analyses relied on data collected from surveys sampling 1,600 households in pilot sites and 360 non-pilot sites. Starting in 1998, the households were visited once per year to monitor their use of technology. Rigorous
measurement of assets, expenditure, and food consumption was done for 103 of
the 1,600 pilot site households in 1999-2000 and again in 2002, creating a short
panel dataset.

Development 26(12): 2119-2135.

The article examines the relationship between gender and consumption poverty
and between gender and deprivation in the Republic of Guinea. The author used
data collected from a national household survey conducted over 1994-1995 to
examine the relationship between gender and consumption poverty. The author
also addresses this relationship drawing on micro-level data he and his colleagues
gathered from a PPA undertaken in a village in Upper Guinea.

The national household survey data reveal that women are not more likely than
men to be consumption poor or to suffer greater consumption poverty. PPA data
from the village of Kamatiguia reveal that women are "worse off" than men when
deprivation includes, inter alia, excessive work load and reduced decision-making
authority. When consumption poverty poorly correlates with other dimensions of
deprivation, it should not be the sole guide for equity-based policy intervention.

The national household survey representative sampled 4,416 households with
approximately 29,000 individuals. The data from this survey were used to
address three questions regarding the relationship between gender and
consumption poverty in the Republic of Guinea. First, is the incidence, intensity,
or severity of consumption poverty greater in female-headed households? Second,
are women or girls overrepresented in poor households? Lastly, is the
intrahousehold distribution of food or health care skewed to the disadvantage of
women and girls? Stratified random sampling was used to ensure sufficient
representation of 10 socioeconomic groups. In this survey, a household was
defined as people who usually live and eat together and accept the authority of the
household head. For the collection of consumption data, rural households were
visited seven times in a 140-day period, while urban households were visited ten
times over a 30-day period. A major factor influencing the high quality of the
data gathered was the use of laptop computers in the field, which allowed data to
be entered immediately and computer tests for internal coherence to be performed
before surveyors left the study area.

The PPA took place over the span of a week; however five weeks were spent in
the village gathering data via household surveys and interviews. The location was
chosen because Kamatinguia is the poorest region in Guinea with respect to
incidence, intensity, and severity of consumption poverty, and it was the home
area of the research associates which was important for logistical reasons as well
as in facilitating interpretation of local perspectives. Additionally, the village
possessed a minimal number of households, yet not so many as to make the PPA
intractable, and its occupants were resident during the gold mining season. The
PPA was conducted in French and Malinké.
This paper reflects on an experience of integrating qualitative and quantitative approaches to sampling, data collection, data types and analysis in a study of destitution in Ethiopia. Section 1 provides an introduction. Section 2 gives a brief overview of interlinked qualitative and quantitative elements at each stage of the research process, from design to report writing. Section 3 focuses on three “qualitative” elements within the household questionnaire: (1) a holistic self-assessment of household dependence; (2) household-level recall questions to estimate trends in the absence of time-series data; and (3) proportional piling (a quantification technique widely used in participatory fieldwork) to estimate income diversification. The final section draws some conclusions about the strengths and weakness of the study’s mixed methods approach. The author contends that the pragmatic combination of qualitative and quantitative elements was successful, and indeed essential, in addressing the study’s policy-oriented research questions; however, tensions and trade-offs remain. This paper considers the Q-Squared effect not only in the sense that combining methods produces more than the sum of parts, but also in the sense of reconciling or making consistent the different insights contributed by each approach, through iterative triangulation.

Two parallel strands of data were collected: one quantitative (standardised household questionnaire), and one qualitative (flexible combination of participatory and open-ended methods, such as semi-structured and unstructured interviews, focus groups, life histories, time lines, mapping, wealth ranking, and matrix scoring). The qualitative and quantitative fieldwork and analysis were conducted simultaneously. An advantage to this is the continuous cross-checking of facts and interpretations, and exchange of thoughts and observations, between methods and teams. A total of 2,160 households were sampled selected through random sampling.

**Russia**


The authors argue that the welfare inferences drawn from subjective answers to questions on qualitative surveys are clouded by concerns about the structure of measurement errors and how latent psychological factors influence observed respondent characteristics. In an attempt to remedy this, they propose a panel data model that allows more robust tests. In applying the model to high quality panel data for Russia for 1994 and 1996, they find that some results widely...
reported in past studies of subjective well-being appear to be robust but others do not. Household income, for example, is a highly significant predictor of self-rated economic welfare; per capita income is a weaker predictor. They found that ill health and loss of a job reduce self-reported economic welfare, but demographic effects are weak at a given current income. Additionally, they found that the effect of unemployment is not robust. Returning to work does not restore a sense of welfare unless there is an income gain. The results imply that even transient unemployment brings the feeling of a permanent welfare loss, suggesting that high unemployment benefits do not attract people out of work, but do discourage a return to work.

The panel survey used was entitled the 'Russian Longitudinal Monitoring Survey for 1994 and 1996'. It is based on the first nationally representative sample of several thousand households across the Russian Federation. It enabled the authors to track 5,588 adults over the rounds for 1994 and 1996. Slightly over 5,000 had complete data.

Amongst other questions, the survey included the following questions: "Please imagine a nine-step ladder where on the bottom, the first step, stand the poorest people, and on the highest step, the ninth, stand the rich. On which step are you today?" The authors called this the Economic Ladder Question. All adults sampled were asked this question. During the study, the authors decided to condense the 7th, 8th, and 9th rungs into one due to the small number of respondents who assigned themselves to these rungs. As a result, data were treated as a seven-rung ladder. The income variable the authors used was total real monthly disposable household income, which includes salaries, social security, private transfers, income in-kind and from home production. To convert these data into real values they used well-established region-specific poverty lines as deflators.


Available at: http://www.q-squared.ca/pdf/Q2_WP20_Vajja&white.pdf

The adoption of the notion of 'social capital' at the World Bank has been paralleled by the rise of Community Driven Development projects, of which social funds are a prime example. Critics of the Bank's use of social capital argue that it ignores power structures, but these critics have focused on the Bank's research rather than its operations. This paper examines 'social capital' in a project context: social funds in Malawi and Zambia. In contrast to the model of collective action suggested by proponents of social funds, it is shown that the nature of community participation is indeed shaped by existing power and social relations. Project identification and execution is led by a small number of people in the community, usually the head teacher in cooperation with the PTA and traditional authorities. The community is then mobilized using the traditional structures of village headmen. Most community members participate actively in making bricks,
but passively in decision making. However, this process should be seen as an institutional adaptation to what social funds offer, not elite capture. Most community members are satisfied with the outcome, although the chosen project is not what they would have chosen themselves. Given these processes, social funds do little to build social capital, but rather appear to be users of existing social capital.

The data used in this paper came from two sources: 1) a study of ten communities in each of the two countries, which included a structured household survey, key informant interviews, and focus groups; and 2) field visits to another 19 sub-projects in Zambia and another 17 in Malawi. For the survey work, five districts were selected at random in each country. The household survey was administered to approximately 50 randomly chosen households in each community. In each household, two interviews were conducted: first with the principle respondent of the household, and the second with an adult of the opposite sex chosen randomly from the adults in the household. For the sub-projects, a questionnaire was provided to identify the respondents' highest priority for the community prior to the social fund investment and at the time of the interview.


This article attempts to evaluate the reliability of local relational poverty assessments in Limpopo Province, South Africa using triangulation. The article starts out with a definition of deprivation, and then describes poverty in South Africa, which was largely identified through the use of participatory methods.

The study uses data previously gathered at the Small Enterprise Foundation using PWR, whereby community members define conditions of poverty in their village and rank community members according to those conditions. An independent survey using the Poverty Assessment Tool was conducted, which helped construct a composite poverty index. Households were assigned a score and ranked along the index. The relative poverty scores from this survey were matched to the PWR scores. Absolute poverty levels of households with similar scores were estimated using a national income and expenditure survey. The findings of the study highlight the usefulness of triangulating research results using both qualitative and quantitative data sources. They illustrate the relationship between a composite indicator, participatory poverty measures, and money-metric poverty lines.


Presented at the Conference on Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Development Research, July 2002. Centre for Development Studies, University of Wales Swansea, Swansea. Available at: http://www.swan.ac.uk/cds/pdffiles/OIRSCHOT.pdf
The translation of qualitative information into quantitative data allows for statistical analysis and more accurate monitoring of changes. There are various models that have been developed which can be selected to fit the goals of research. This paper gives some suggestions of how different sensory evaluation models can be used in development-based research.

A model for consumer preference testing was applied in rural Tanzania, to assess acceptability of newly developed products. This paper explains how the tests were conducted in a participatory way, and outlines important adaptations such as training of interviewers and a simplified design. It also discusses how the outcomes related to the findings obtained by conventional qualitative assessments.

A model using a semi-expert trained panel was applied to monitor changes in estimated market value of products. It outlined the importance of priming semi-trained panellists. The findings were compared to qualitative appraisals at the markets. Line-scales were used as a tool during stakeholder workshops. This technique assisted in the prioritisation of different development alternatives. The use of line-scales proved to be a powerful tool because it is visual for the stakeholders and thus was understandable for a large range of people. It also produced quantitative data allowing various methods of statistical analysis.

**South America & Jamaica**


Available at: [http://www.q-squared.ca/pdf/Q2_WP24_Kristjanson_%20et.al.pdf](http://www.q-squared.ca/pdf/Q2_WP24_Kristjanson_%20et.al.pdf)

Livestock play an important role for poor rural households in regions such as the Peruvian Andes. Research methods leading to a better understanding of the role of livestock in household poverty dynamics, and what better targeted policies and interventions may enhance that role, however, are not readily available. The authors utilized a Stages of Progress approach and household surveys, which provided a combination of qualitative and quantitative results. The authors examined how over the last 10 and 25 years households have moved into and out of poverty in two different highland regions of Peru. They also examined the role played in these movements by different livestock assets and strategies. The results revealed that a significant number of households had escaped poverty, while at the same time many households have fallen into poverty. The reasons for movements up versus down are not the same, with different strategies and policies needed to address escapes versus descents. Diversification of income through livestock and intensification of livestock activities through improved breeds has helped many households escape poverty and this method allowed us to explore
what exactly this means in the diverse areas studied. The authors feel these findings can contribute to better-targeted livestock-related research and development strategies and policies, not only in Peru, but in other regions where similar livelihood strategies are being pursued.

Twenty diverse communities were selected from each region for the study based on five criteria that largely define rural households' livelihood options: altitude, agricultural activities, market access, size of community, and ethnic group and language.

For the Stages of Progress approach a representative group of a community was selected that defined the typical stages of progress that households make toward improving their level of well-being for their particular village. Community members were led by a trained facilitator to reach consensus on the stages (assets) that households wish to purchase as they obtain incremental amounts of money, starting from the baseline of an extremely poor household. The group then drew their own poverty lines to show at what stage poor versus non-poor households were at. Facilitators then asked the group to describe what stage each and every household in their village was at at the time of the study, 10 years ago and 25 years ago. A formal survey including questions regarding household characteristics and livestock holdings, production and marketing at the time of the survey and 10 years ago was also implemented. The full study was implemented in 40 communities and the household/livestock survey was carried out with 1,041 households.


Qualitative data from a case study of the Jamaica Social Investment Fund (JSIF) revealed that the social fund process is elite-driven and decision making tends to be dominated by a small group of motivated individuals. However, there is broad-based satisfaction with the outcome. Quantitative data from 500 households mirror these findings by showing that, ex-ante, the social fund does not address the expressed needs of the majority of individuals in the majority of communities. By the completion of the project, however, 80 per cent of the community expressed satisfaction with the outcome. An analysis of the determinants of participation reveals that better educated and better networked individuals dominate the process. Propensity-score analysis demonstrated that JSIF has had a causal impact on improvements in trust and the capacity for collective action, but these gains are greater for elites.

For this study, five community pairs were used. Each pair was matched on the basis of observable and unobservable characteristics. Observable characteristics
include the availability of public services and levels of poverty; unobservables include geography, political culture, and social structure. Within each community, 50 households were selected at random to be administered the questionnaire. Within each household an attempt was made to interview two adults: the household head and one other randomly chosen member of the opposite sex. Because Jamaica’s family structure has a great proportion of single-parent households, it was difficult for the researchers to locate a second adult in many households. As a result, the study was made up of a sample of about 500 households with 684 individuals, spread evenly between social and non-social fund communities.


This chapter examines the relative strengths and weaknesses of using quantitative and qualitative data. It draws on a research project that integrated both approaches in a study on the role of interhousehold transfers as a survival strategy of poor families in the South-eastern Zone of Cartagena, Colombia in 1982. The authors discuss the design and implementation of the study and present their observations regarding integrated research. The issues addressed include survey design, sampling techniques, selection and training of interviewers, and timing and cost of research activities. The authors conclude that the relative importance of qualitative and quantitative data needs to be re-examined.

In this follow-up study, the quantitative research entailed the design and implementation of a questionnaire. The researchers tested out the questionnaire on five households in the sample area to ensure questions were easily understood.

For the qualitative component, in-depth interviews with five families were conducted. All five families participated in the original World Bank study in 1982. These interviews took place over an eight-day period. Additional time was spent developing codes for organizing the qualitative data in a manner consistent with the survey questionnaire. Two pairs of interviewers conducted the interviews, which helped facilitate the collection of more data in a short time period.


Available at: [http://www.swan.ac.uk/cds/pdf/files/PRADO.pdf](http://www.swan.ac.uk/cds/pdf/files/PRADO.pdf)
This paper presents the findings of a research project on social mobility in four cities in Bolivia: Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Trinidad, El Alto and Valle Alto. For each site, eight people who were considered leaders of social mobility processes were interviewed to obtain their life stories. Life stories were employed as the mechanisms for exploring social mobility. By knowing the employment history of the individuals, the author and her research team could access the channels or mechanisms that made social mobility processes possible. Additionally, the team was able to get closer to the conditions that surrounded these processes and estimate the influence of public policies over creating opportunities for the people to improve their living conditions. The life stories of the participants were compared either with the situation of their parents (intergenerational mobility) or with themselves at the start of their working life (intragenerational mobility). At the time of the interview, each person had to have social recognition and a place of leadership inside their group of reference.

The paper argues that this research method should be part of a sequence of methods that can enhance social analysis and policy learning, with quantitative methods indicating the extent to which insights can be aggregated and providing the criteria for effective public policy targeting and policy support for social mobility. It is also important, however, for research-generated findings to be mediated by an awareness of the ideological and ethical values underpinning state and government policies. Furthermore, the author contends that the evaluation of results must respect the particularities of the geographical areas in both qualitative and quantitative dimensions.

Using the merging sequence of methods to be employed in this research process, the author concludes with a call for a systemic methodology through which individual components of any investigation become an integral part of a holistic research and policy process. Crucially, the institutional implications for stronger engagement between research generation and policy audiences cannot be de-linked from the more technical aspects of a systemic approach to research.

**South Asia**


This chapter summarizes an innovative study of poverty in rural India that combined quantitative and qualitative research approaches. The authors discuss the objectives, methodological approaches, and preliminary findings of the study, with particular attention to issues such as underlying assumptions, sampling techniques, and lessons learned in the process of implementing an integrated research design. Recommendations for future research are also presented.
In terms of methodology, the study was organized in a very flexible and iterative manner; the approach and research tools evolved throughout the study period in response to what was learned at each stage. The research was conducted in two phases: the qualitative research phase and the survey questionnaire phase. The first phase consisted of rapid rural appraisal and participatory rural appraisal methods. Six research instruments were prepared and a general protocol for their use was developed in an attempt to maintain a consistent methodological approach. Team leaders were trained in the use of all instruments and participated in their pre-testing and revision. The instruments were used in exercises including social mapping, wealth ranking, an assessment of services and programs, and an inventory of social capital, and an exploration of gender roles. Along with the primary researcher, the team leaders spent months working to form the research teams and discussing the objectives of the study. Toward the end of the qualitative phase, the researchers designed the survey questionnaire, which drew from the results of the qualitative research. The questionnaire utilized the LSMS developed by the World Bank to measure income, consumption, and a wide range if other variables. The researchers added extra sections to the survey in order to better reflect some of the findings of the qualitative study.

The authors believe that the most important lesson learned from this study is that there is significant value added by using both qualitative and quantitative methods to think and learn about poverty. New insights were gained that were unlikely to have been gained from either approach alone.


This paper examines poverty and vulnerability using a multidisciplinary approach in which household survey data and poverty analysis were applied in interaction with open-ended qualitative research methods. The study uses a variety of quantitative survey-based methods in combination with qualitative PRA methods to explore key issues concerned with poverty, risk and vulnerability in some of India’s poorest regions. It documents poverty as a multi-dimensional phenomenon and the poor as a highly heterogeneous group; efforts to reduced poverty in its many dimensions must recognize this diversity and how it is reflected in constraints and opportunities for rising out of poverty. Poverty reduction policies and programs must be designed accordingly.

Qualitative work in the form of a sub-study featuring PRA techniques and in-depth, semi-structured interviews was implemented in 30 villages. Each village was visited for a period of about one week by a team of four to eight people, which basically listened and learned from the poor themselves. A series of research instruments were developed in order to capture the views of a wide range
of villagers, including village overview maps, social mapping, wealth ranking, social capital inventories, user perceptions of government programs and surveys of facilities, women's roles and gender issues, and case history interviews.

Based on the results of the sub-study, researchers identified issues and themes to follow-up on in the planned multi-topic household survey. The questionnaire had ten core sections: (1) the household roster; (2) economic activities; (3) housing; (4) education; (5) health; (6) marriage and maternity history; (7) consumer expenditures and durable goods; (8) vulnerability; (9) farming and livestock; and (10) remittances and transfers. The field survey was administered to 120 villages. Of the sample of villages, 30 had been visited previously in the qualitative phase of the work and 90 were drawn at random from sample districts. The overall size of the household sample was 2,252 households.

In addition to the household survey, a village questionnaire was administered to expert informants to complement and expand upon the earlier qualitative component. The questionnaire yielded a range of quantitative information at the level of the revenue village. Within the village questionnaire was sections on (1) village characteristics, including size, caste composition, and political structure and infrastructure; (2) access to facilities and services; (3) agriculture, irrigation, and forestry; (4) employment and migration, including wages; (5) anti-poverty programs and organizations; (6) changes over time; (7) visits to facilities, including primary schools, health posts, and shops.


This paper examines the paradox that very poor households spend large sums of money on celebrations. Using qualitative and quantitative data from South India, it demonstrates that expenditures on weddings and festivals can be explained by integrating an understanding of how identity is shaped in Indian society, with an economic analysis of decision-making under conditions of extreme poverty and risk. The author argues that publicly observable celebrations have two functions: (1) they provide a space for maintaining social reputations and webs of obligation, and (2) they serve as arenas for status-enhancing competitions. The first role is central in maintaining the networks essential for social relationships and coping against poverty, while the second is a correlate of mobility that may become more prevalent as incomes rise. Development policies that favour individual over collective action reduce the incentives for the former while increasing them for the latter, thus reducing social cohesion while increasing conspicuous consumption.

To assess wedding celebrations, 800 households were randomly chosen from five districts spread across north and south Karnataka. Seven villages from each district were randomly chosen, and 20-30 households were then randomly selected from each village. The marriage data were collected retrospectively from the married women in the sample. 300 women spread across the five districts were sampled.
Data pertaining to festivals came from a census survey of an endogamous subcaste of potters spread across three villages.


Available at: http://www.q-squared.ca/pdf/Q2_WP8_Rew.et.al.pdf

This paper examines a study conducted as a result of a previous study that found that existing institutions could not supply the more ethnographic Q-Squared data required for comprehensive poverty assessments in chronically poor tribal areas of eastern India. The Department for International Development agreed to support the training and institutionalization of a research platform using integrated assessment methods implemented in northern Orissa.

An integrated, in-depth 'Q-Squared' panel survey was conducted using 60 households. It looked at their changing livelihood activities over the three agricultural seasons of a complete year. Four villages were selected on a quota sample basis. Households were then randomly sampled within each village. The importance of in-kind agricultural wage payments (in the form of traditional measures of paddy) opened up a specific research opportunity to develop integrated income/expenditure data based on paddy and days of food security as the enumeraire. The income sources of livelihood activities and expenditures were recorded in the same framework. Numerical analysis from the changing seasonal data plus qualitative analysis of topics and situations were then extracted. Open ended case studies, especially of women's livelihoods as labourers and off-farm entrepreneurs were undertaken; and more conventional social anthropological studies were carried out in a further three large villages, mainly for 'control' and training purposes.

The methodology relied on the investigative abilities and cultural analysis aptitudes of local graduates, who were trained and likely to remain in the local area upon the completion of the project. Compared to the PRA team from the initial study, the graduates became far more accountable to the communities in which they worked, and gave more evidence of democratic research.

Investigations successfully completed through the platform have included: surveys of new economic enterprises; rolling PRAs in 13 villages of northern; sample surveys in Jharkand of more than 100 households; and village profiles and assets surveys in program and non-program villages in northern Orissa. Institutional analyses included: communication channels in northern Orissa; local government dynamics; and an institutional and cultural accounts of district government.
This chapter begins by examining the scope and limitations of participatory and economic analyses of poverty dynamics, specifically drawing attention to a number of problems in PPA-type analyses which relate to issues of comparability, reliability, generalisability and casual weighting. It then illustrates some of the issues addressed by drawing on the Myanmar PPA. Specifically, the author points out that issues of comparability were addressed by acknowledging the impossibility of making interpersonal comparisons of wellbeing, and by clearly linking specific aspects of poverty with specific processes of change. Reliability was addressed by attempting to minimize the investigator effect. This was accomplished by the development of a training manual with guidelines for focus group discussion, by conducting semi-structured interviews in pairs, and by requiring all team members to draft village reports that were later critiqued by the group and revised. Issues of generalisability were addressed by attempting to base site selection on region-specific typologies of conditions that had important bearings on livelihood patterns. Lastly, issues of casual weighting were addressed subjectively based on the respondent's sense of the frequency and relative importance of different forces of change in their lives. By acknowledging the limitations of the study, the author believes the credibility of its results will be enhanced. The author concludes by pointing out that all studies (in general) have their limitations, so rather than dismissing their validity, he believes it might be useful to learn from the insights without attempting to over-extend their reach.

The aim of the Myanmar PPA was to understand the dynamics of poverty. Particular emphasis was placed on village and life histories with a view to understanding major reasons for changes in well-being over time. An assortment of ranking, mapping and diagramming techniques (such as social maps, natural resources maps, time lines and Venn diagrams) were also used. The PPA was conducted in 12 villages in four different regions of Myanmar: Northern Rakhine State, Shan State, Delta Region, and the Dry Zone. Two study teams made up of four to six people visited six villages over a span of approximately two months. The teams were comprised of PRA specialists, agricultural specialists and economists. The teams remained in each village for one week.

Within the village studies, various exercises, including focus group discussions, semi-structured interviews and priority ranking, were carried out to specifically address issues related to social change and seasonality, gender and the environment. The exercises sought to answer several key questions to address these issues. The author felt that the methodology allowed for comparison of views of better-off households/women, who presumably dominated the focus group discussions, and households/women identified as worse-off in the wellbeing ranking, who participated in the semi-structured interviews and the priority ranking.
This paper describes the Great Plains Rural Collaborative project, which explored rural poverty through the experiences of people living at or below 185% of poverty. It sought to identify the specific and concrete obstacles rural families face each day, mainly focusing on how accessibility to and availability of resources played into the identified obstacles.

The project combined qualitative focus group research design with quantitative national census data. Focus groups participants were selected based on the definition of “rural” and “low-income”. All participants had at least one child younger than age 18 and as many as nine children. Eight to ten participants were sought in each location. The actual number of participants across the three participating states (Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota) ranged from 2 to 11, and their ages ranged from 22 to 76 years. 16 males and 65 females participated.

During a collaborative workshop, facilitators of the focus groups were trained and questions were developed that identified the obstacles rural families face when trying to access economic opportunities, social networks, and services and supports. Facilitators used discussion probes to fully explore these obstacles. Families were contacted through agencies and individuals working with them such as program directors, tribal and regional social service agencies and churches. Child care, food, beverages, transportation, and stipends were provided to each participant to maximize participation, and meeting times and locations convenient for participants were scheduled. The total time taken for each focus group was 2.5 hours.

Key informant interviews were conducted to validate, refute or expand upon focus group discussions. 33 of these interviews were conducted across the three states, one-third of which were conducted in person (the remainder took place over the phone). They proved to be useful in providing historical information about schools, businesses, rural lifestyles, as well as projections about future trends.

The study revealed that no single data indicator was "best"; different indicators provided different perspectives of what was happening in any particular area. Additionally, the need for employment opportunities, sustainable and liveable wages, and better and more social service support (e.g. child care) was stressed by participants.
Community-based decentralized decision-making is advocated increasingly by the national government of the United States and by international agencies such as the World Health Organization. The purpose of this approach is to empower local citizens to analyze their own needs and determine their own service priorities. Such an approach may be particularly important for indigenous people who frequently do not utilize fully human care services prescribed by professionals who often represent the dominant culture group. This article describes a series of qualitative and quantitative methods used to test a community based needs assessment model that is bias free and socio-culturally relevant for indigenous populations. It presents the results of the field tested model and offers implications for policy formation and the way needs assessments are conducted in general and with indigenous populations in particular. While a summary of the results is presented, it is the model that is reviewed primarily.

A series of qualitative investigative steps were employed, using foldback analysis (a qualitative research method used to explore the issues of importance within the target population) to develop a survey instrument to be used to measure and rank the perceived service needs of the community. Information was gathered through personal interviews and/or focus group discussions. The data was then transcribed for Nominal Groups drawn from the same population to itemize and cluster issues keeping the language, vocabulary, and vernacular consistent with that of the target population. The clusters are then 'folded back' to develop a questionnaire to be used with a second sample from the same target population. Nominal Group techniques provide a structured group process for questionnaire issue explorations that are particularly applicable to the subjective character of the perception of 'need'. In combination with the personal interviews, the Nominal Group process provides an organized approach to the development of data collection measures, and a qualitative understanding of major parameters of targeted issues as perceived by the target reference group.

Personal interviews were held with a small sample of Hawaiian and part-Hawaiian parents of children under the age of six living on the Coast. These people were selected by agency representatives known to the researcher through a variety of sources (e.g., church congregations). Each interview was conducted in person and varied in length. Initial questions were general, and acted as an ice-breaker; subsequent questions were more focused. Two people conducted the interviews: they were Hawaiian (or part-Hawaiian) outreach workers, one was male, the other female. Each was trained by the researcher. After the first sample interviews were conducted, transcribed interviews were distributed (to be read by participants) to a second sample drawn from the same community, recruited in a similar fashion. These participants were then asked to participate in a Nominal Group discussion to generate consensus among readers.

After the transcripts were reviewed, personal meetings were conducted, where members of the population were each afforded a limited amount of time, in turn, to discuss selected aspects of 'community needs' mentioned in the interview transcripts. The participants' comments were recorded and posted. The Nominal Group then used rank-ordering and item-scoring to identify and group these needs. Once completed, a sample of 100 people were selected to signify how
'frequently' they experienced each need item, and assessed how 'severe' the need was when it occurred. To measure frequency and severity, two four-point scales were developed by the Nominal Group. Standardized scores for these two parameters were combined equally to determine priority needs.

**Multiple Regions**


Available at: [http://www.livelihoods.org/info/docs/IFPRI_fcnd.pdf](http://www.livelihoods.org/info/docs/IFPRI_fcnd.pdf)

As the goals of international agricultural research move beyond increasing food production to the broader aims of reducing poverty, both agricultural research and studies of its impact become more complex. Yet examining the magnitude and mechanisms through which different types of agricultural research are able to help the poor is essential, not only to evaluate claims for continued funding of such research, but more importantly, to guide future research in ways that will make the greatest contribution to poverty reduction. This paper reports on the Sustainable Livelihoods approach used in a multi-country study of the poverty impact of research programs under the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research.

It provides an overview of how the approach can be applied to agricultural research, and describes detailed methods and results from five case studies: (1) modern rice varieties in Bangladesh; (2) poly-culture fishponds and vegetable gardens in Bangladesh; (3) soil fertility management practices in Kenya; (4) hybrid maize in Zimbabwe; and (5) creolized maize varieties in Mexico. Applying the sustainable livelihoods approach highlights the multilayered interactions between technologies and the vulnerability context of households, their asset base, intervening institutions, and livelihood strategies. However, additional aspects of culture, power, and history need to be integrated with the framework to understand the role of agricultural research in the lives of the poor. The author asserts that additional explicit attention must be given to the implications of gender, ethnicity, class, or other types of social differentiation. Although this approach is more difficult for research than conventional single-disciplinary analyses, the author feels that it leads to a more complete understanding that can help develop technologies that better fit in with complex livelihood strategies, especially of the poor.

All case studies include household surveys. Some have panel data for the same households over a number of years, which allowed for analysis of changes over time. Some of the surveys collected data at the level of the individual household member, which enabled the researchers to compare men and women, and assisted them in capturing the full range of livelihood strategies within the household. Additionally, all case studies made use of focus groups to elicit collective
experience and opinions. Wherever possible, households selected from the surveys were included in the focus groups to improve comparability of the information obtained from different sources. During the focus groups a variety of exercises were conducted: seasonality mapping, identification and ranking of livelihood activities and sources of vulnerability, as well as discussions of technologies being studied and dissemination approaches. Key informant interviews allowed the researchers to follow up in more detail with individuals possessing specialized knowledge. Semi-structured interviews enabled the researchers to gather a core set of information, as well as follow-up on issues addressed during discussion. In-depth household case studies were also conducted. Researchers lived in sample villages for three to six months, spending time in the homes of a subsample of the survey households, conducting informal interviews, observing and participating in their daily activities and social interactions.

**Lessons Learned**

**Africa**


This paper is divided into five main sections: 1) introduction; 2) strengths and weaknesses of survey-based and participatory methods; 3) monitoring poverty outcomes and trends; 4) monitoring the implementation of a poverty-reduction plan; and 5) stakeholder roles and information use.

The paper gives great consideration to issues in poverty outcome monitoring; however, the authors recommend that this should get less attention overall. Continued collection of data on monetary indicators and other quantifiable poverty outcomes, such as weight-for-height and mortality indicators, is important for both monitoring and analytical purposes. Nevertheless, they stress that more use could be made of the resources of the surveys for monitoring service use and other intermediate outcomes. They argue that the case for introducing a Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire survey on the grounds that it would focus on these variables does not seem persuasive on cost or coverage grounds. On the other hand, the authors feel a basic change-of-gear for the Uganda Participatory Poverty Assessment Process does seem to be called for, and think that it should become more focused and scheduled in relation to important Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) implementation initiatives. Its primary objective should be to quickly pick up evidence on whether the PEAP’s intermediate targets identify correctly the key bottlenecks affecting progress towards poverty reduction goals in Uganda, and whether they look like they are being achieved in particular cases.
The paper argues that data use and the role of PEAP stakeholders in ongoing monitoring are important topics. Analytical use of survey data for Uganda is reasonably well developed, partly on account of the quality of the data. In this respect, continuing the panel of households surveyed in 1992 and 1999/2000 is a clear priority for future statistical analysis.

In the last three sections of this paper, the authors discuss the contributions that different methods can make, or have in practice made, in Uganda or elsewhere. Specific institutional arrangements that might be applicable in the Ugandan case are not suggested. However, by distinguishing tasks, clarifying issues and drawing lessons from past experience in Uganda where appropriate, the authors hope to provide a solid structure in which the discussion of specific proposals can take place with a minimum of misunderstanding and maximum appreciation of the opportunities that lie ahead.


The objective of this report is to contribute to the wider adoption of participatory principles and combined methods in poverty assessment research by illustrating more fully the added value to be derived from these approaches. Intensive use is made of formal poverty assessments, especially for Zambia and Tanzania, but the report also draws on other substantive work for the African region as a whole, and reflects methodological advances that, in some cases, are best illustrated with examples from outside the region.

This report identifies and tries to distinguish the main arguments about the added value from participatory and combined approaches. Major insights obtained from the first round of African Poverty Assessments are discussed, followed by insights to be expected from new (or old and neglected) emerging themes. The central suggestion of this report is that poverty assessment work can be regarded as coming of age in three interrelated senses, which imposes some important challenges and risks in regard to both strategic policy development and the building of local constituencies and capacities.


This chapter addresses the employment problem in South Africa. The author was requested to estimate the wage elasticity of demand for labour based on data from the 1980s and 1990s. To do so, he collected time series data on key variables (employment, wages, user cost of capital, and per capita national income) and analysed these data starting with time series regressions, and then cointegration techniques. No relationship between employment and wages was found.

The author then looked to qualitative analysis, which revealed that a regime shift in the 1990s was responsible for observed discrepancies between the decades. In the 1980s, real wages rose and employment did too due largely to supply and demand. In the 1990s, real wages continued to rise but employment fell due to trade unions and other institutional forces which enforced job security (i.e., making it difficult for an employer to dismiss a worker if business conditions worsened or if the worker did not perform adequately).

Based on these realizations, the author and colleagues estimated labour demand equations as functions of real product wage, real user cost of capital, and real output. Results revealed that labour demand elasticities in the private sector were quite different in different time periods. This lead the author to conclude that part of the reason of falling employment in South Africa was rising real wages; the other part was due to rising wage elasticity of demand for labour. This implied that the country faced a trade-off between earnings levels of those employed and the number employed. The author closes the chapter by expressing his preference of quantitative techniques to initially addresses problems; yet stresses that a researchers do not and should not chose between quantitative and qualitative approaches. Both techniques are valid and useful in elucidating a more complete idea of the problem at hand.


This paper reviews the recent quantitative and qualitative evidence on urban poverty in Ethiopia. It attempts to synthesize the little evidence that exists on urban chronic poverty in some detail, and discusses the consistency of findings in the context of different methodological approaches. The review covers the discussion of key correlates/dimensions of poverty, such as livelihood insecurity, gender, household income, prices and HIV/AIDS. Most of the studies reviewed present a static picture of urban poverty rather than focusing on the dynamics of poverty over time. The paper suggests that future research should focus on a more dynamic analysis of household welfare. The studies reviewed here are heterogeneous in terms of their sources, and include academia, NGOs, independent research institutions and the World Bank. Despite differences in methodological approach, there was overlap in the research agenda, and a consistency of findings on key correlates of urban poverty and its trends.
Qualitative and quantitative methods in social science research have long been separate spheres with little overlap. However, recent innovations have highlighted the complementarity of qualitative and quantitative approaches. The Accra Food and Nutrition Security Study was designed to incorporate the participation of a variety of constituencies in the research, and to rely on a variety of approaches—both qualitative and quantitative—to data collection and analysis.

This paper reviews the way in which qualitative and quantitative methods were used in the Accra study. The Accra Study followed six steps: 1) review of literature; 2) roundtable workshop to bring together members of the research community, policymakers, urban administrators, NGOs, international agencies, community-based organizations, and the media to discuss the objectives of the study; 3) community studies, which relied heavily on participatory methodology; 4) household case studies; 5) design and administration of an integrated household survey; and 6) post-survey follow-up with qualitative and quantitative studies, such as further ethnographic interviews and structured observations.

The author found that preceding the survey work with qualitative work enhanced the study by providing a contextual framework on which to base the study and by providing context-specific information necessary for the development of the quantitative questionnaire. Additionally, it provided the researchers with an understanding of the differences between emic and etic definitions used in the study and helped to formulate specific hypotheses.

The argument of the paper is that the complementary use of qualitative and quantitative approaches provides a greater range of insights and perspectives and permits triangulation or the confirmation of findings by different methods, which improves the overall validity of results, and makes the study of greater use to the constituencies to which it was intended to be addressed. But the search for truly complementary methods presents substantial challenges as well. These include extra costs, both in financial and human terms, ethical dilemmas regarding follow-up, and the need for teamwork and respect for different methodological and epistemological positions.
In this chapter the author aims to raise a set of conceptual issues, place them in an anthropological perspective, reflect on his own efforts to integrate qualitative and quantitative work at the village level, suggest some hypotheses about the divergence between results at the two levels, propose a specific strategy for improved dialogue between analysts working at disparate levels, and provide an analysis of the reason why such dialogue faces certain major obstacles.

The author begins by clarifying terminology, specifically the terms 'micro' and 'macro'. By discarding these terms the author contends that three pairs of terms cluster together: (1) small- versus large-scale; (2) qualitative versus quantitative; and (3) aggregative versus non-aggregative. He points out that village studies by anthropologists tend to be small-scale, qualitative, and non-aggregative; while such studies carried out by economists and agronomists tend to be large-scale, quantitative, and aggregative.

The author then goes on to discuss some deficiencies within both types of studies. He asserts that macro-sociological theory must begin to take into account well-being as well as welfare; subjective as well as objective criteria of well-being; and emotional and ideological states. Additionally, he points out the problem created at the intersection of scale and aggregation, and attempts to clarify his view by reflecting on a personal field experience in Maharashtra.

For small-scale (village) studies, the author addresses an emerging trend among some anthropologists to proclaim that things have 'improved' over the decades. The author attributes this trend to six factors or tendencies: (1) the tendency for anthropologists to end up in villages that are largely prosperous regions, or in highly developed pockets in poor regions; (2) the tendency to miss serious economic downturns in the seasonal cycles of their study sites; (3) the tendency to become restricted to the world of the powerful and the prosperous; (4) the tendency to be excessively impressed by the presence of new commodities and increased amounts of them; (5) the random observations and free-floating dyadic exchanges in which anthropologists gather most of their data; and (6) the timeframe in which much anthropological fieldwork is undertaken is too short for analysts to accurately assess trends.

The author’s central claim is that large-scale approaches to the problem of measuring rural economic change need to move from the distributional to the relational analyses, especially in South Asia.
This paper uses selected qualitative and quantitative indicators to collect information to analyze several features of poverty and gender dimensions at the local level in Bangladesh. The pilot study was conducted by local people under the leadership of elected members of the local government institution. A group of locals were provided training to develop the local capacity to perform survey-related activities. The data collection technique for the qualitative and quantitative indicators covered several methodologies including household surveys and various forms of PRA. Household level data was done using a pre-designed format specifically prepared for the purpose. The gender-related data were collected by women using specific questionnaires on participation in decision making, violence, security, stress and anxiety.

For measuring poverty, a survey was used that adopted four alternative methods. The first method measured the calorie intake based on a dietary survey of all village households using twenty-four hours recall. The second used self-perception of the households in terms of meeting food requirements over the year to categorize them into four groups - chronic deficit, occasional deficit, break even, surplus households. The third method involved the categorization of households by a representative group of villagers in terms of four groups - rich, middle class, poor, very poor. The final method used the costs of basic needs approach.

The analysis covered physical characteristics and the village economy; demographic characteristics of the village population; measurement of poverty incidences; land ownership and non-income dimensions of poverty; measures of employment and income; organisational involvement and access to credit; household crisis and crisis-coping capacity; and, women’s participation in decision making. The results of the survey draw out villagers’ perception of well-being covering both qualitative and quantitative aspects of life. The analysis demonstrates that an increase in well-being in their lives depends on positive changes in access to employment and income earnings, ownership of cultivable land and cattle for draught power, some surplus for savings and investments, ownership of brick/tin built house, provision of ‘good’ clothes for household members and education for children, and the means to ensure healthy and disease- and anxiety-free lives of the family members.

The author recommends that when collectively designed and appropriately combined, a carefully selected set of qualitative and quantitative indicators can provide policy-relevant information on issues that cover the dynamics of poverty and associated processes at the local level. Additionally, the author feels that micro-level monitoring mechanisms are useful for local policy makers for designing, fine-tuning and implementing need-based and demand-responsive
programs at the local level, and recommends that the system can be expanded to cover pertinent social issues.

**United States**


Researchers have made significant efforts to combine quantitative and qualitative methods in welfare reform policy research in the United States. This paper draws on several examples arising from the American experience to argue that mixed-methods research (particularly, but not exclusively, with integrated sampling, data collection, and data analysis) can yield important and unexpected insights that neither method alone could generate. The authors discuss some of the promises and pitfalls of combining qualitative and quantitative methods, and identify several factors that they believe will enhance the value of using a mixed-methods approach. They conclude the paper by cautioning researchers that each method has strengths and weaknesses that must be borne in mind so as not to oversell the promise of mixed-methods research. Researchers must be careful to specify the types of questions that these different types of research methodologies and data can and cannot answer, and the kinds of contributions they can and cannot make.

The examples provided by the researchers used population-based survey data and qualitative (in-person) interview data. The Urban Change Project, for example, included comparative city and neighbourhood studies nested within a larger, quasi-experimental analysis of administrative records and neighbourhood change, and a population-based longitudinal survey. The structured survey and the open-ended interviews covered similar topics; however, the qualitative interviews yielded richer, narrative data about how families or individuals cope and what they experience, which is an important basis for policy evaluation. Additionally, the qualitative data provided nuance to the researchers' understanding of unclear survey findings.

**Other Literature**


This report consists of a collection of case studies from Latin America combining qualitative and quantitative research methods for the analysis of poverty within a social exclusion framework. The first chapter provides an overview of the differences between quantitative and qualitative methods, and the gains from using both types of methods in applied work. The other chapters are devoted to three case studies on reproductive health in rural Argentina, the targeting of social programs in Chile, and social exclusion in urban Uruguay. Each case study was prepared within the broader context of country-specific economic and sectoral work at the World Bank.

The following lists the chapter contents of the report:

CHAPTER 1. Combining qualitative and quantitative methods for policy research on poverty within a social exclusion framework
   Introduction
   Arguments for combining quantitative and qualitative methods
   Arguments for using a social exclusion framework
   Quantitative and qualitative methods in a social exclusion framework
   Presentation of the case studies
   Conclusion

CHAPTER 2. Reproductive health in Argentina's poor rural area
   Introduction
   Reproductive heath in rural Argentina: Basic statistics
   Quantitative analysis: Contraception, deliveries, and work patterns
   Qualitative analysis: Obstacles to contraception and reproductive health
   Conclusion

CHAPTER 3. The targeting of government programs in Chile
   Introduction
   Background
   Quantitative evaluation
   Qualitative evaluation: An actor-oriented approach
   Conclusions and policy implications

CHAPTER 4: Social exclusion in urban Uruguay
   Introduction
   Quantitative analysis
   Qualitative analysis
   Conclusions

This book draws together lessons about emerging best practice with regard to combining qualitative and quantitative methods and approaches to generate ‘numbers’ from qualitative/participatory methods and to monitor and evaluate development processes. It builds and expands upon innovation and reflection from practice in developing and developed societies, from within development agencies and academia, government departments and civil society organizations.

By drawing on current research in many sectors and countries, the book situates current development research issues squarely within debates about development policy and social research. In doing so, it helps the process of defining best practice in the use of participatory/qualitative and quantitative methods, and issues of methodological triangulation which are of considerable interest to academics, practitioners and policy-makers.

**Part I. Combining Methods and Data: The Practice and the Potential**

1. Applying the Method-data Matrix to Health Service Utilisation in Developing Countries
2. Some practical sampling procedures for development research
3. Trade-offs between Management Costs and Research Benefits: Lessons from Forest and Farm Research
4. Qualitative Data Analysis to Promote Poverty Impact Assessment within Microfinance Organizations
5. Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Evidence for Project Evaluation: Some Findings from PRODERS experience in Mexico
6. Sequencing Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Evaluating Rural Tourism in South Africa and the UK
7. Combining Forest Measurements and Participatory Methods: Cases from Indonesia and Zimbabwe

**Part II. Quantifying the Qualitative in Development Research: How Far Can We Go?**

1. Quantitative Analysis Approaches to Qualitative Data: Why, When and How?
2. The Limits to Convergence: Reflections from Participatory Poverty Assessment in Africa and Asia
3. From Words to Numbers: A Basis for Translating Ethnographic Description
4. Applying Analytical Sensory Evaluation Techniques to Translate Perception into Numerical Data in Rural Tanzania
5. Quantifying Social Capital: The use of the Case study review method in Tanzania

**Part III. The process of combining methods: Democratizing Research, Empowerment and Institutional Change**

1. Quality, Quantity and the Third Way
2. Participatory Indicator Development for Sustainable Natural Resource Management: Kalahari, Botswana
3. Exploring the Temporal Logic Model: A Colombian Case Study Evaluating Assistance to Internally Displaced People
4. Evaluating Democracy Assistance: The inadequacy of numbers and the promise of participation
5. Monitoring Social Policy Outcomes in Jamaica


Available at: [http://www.ucl.ac.uk/dpu/publications/working%20papers%20pdf/WP124.pdf](http://www.ucl.ac.uk/dpu/publications/working%20papers%20pdf/WP124.pdf)

Introduction

Section One: Quantitative Poverty Research Methodology
1. Some Reflections on the Use of Household Panel Data for the Microeconomic Analysis of Poverty
2. Challenges and Prospects for Panel Data on Income Mobility and Subjective Well Being
3. Assessing Poverty Dynamics: Lessons for Urban Longitudinal Studies

Section Two: Anthropological Approaches
1. Accumulating Advantage and Disadvantage: Urban Poverty Dynamics in Peru
2. Identifying Causes of Long-Term Poverty within Families: An Illustrative Study of How to Use an Anthropological Data Base

Section Three: Sociological Approaches
1. Longitudinal Research Methodologies in Rio de Janeiro’s Favelas
2. A Town in South India: Two Decades of Revisits

Section Four: Combined Sociological Approaches
1. Innovations in Mixed Methods to Understand Poverty Dynamics: A Multidisciplinary Approach to Longitudinal Research in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa
2. Advantages and Disadvantages of Combining Qualitative Methods: The Experience of a Four City Comparative Study
3. Discussant’s Comments on Caroline Moser’s Paper


Available at: [http://www.saga.cornell.edu/saga/q-qconf/proceed.pdf](http://www.saga.cornell.edu/saga/q-qconf/proceed.pdf)
Success on poverty reduction in most developing countries depends on the availability of reliable, accurate and timely information on the nature and causes of poverty. Policy makers and development partners require information on the poor, especially their population sizes and location. Additionally, issues of the severity and dynamics of poverty, and the urge to understand the causes of poverty or avoid it, need to be addressed. All these demand a rethinking of the methods that social scientists use in the analysis of poverty. Fortunately, there have been significant advances in these methods in recent years.

The seemingly differing positions of practitioners and professionals in the analysis of poverty suggest that there is no single perfect approach to poverty analysis. It would appear, however, that the approaches are not in conflict, but are complementary in as much as they attempt to capture the many dimensions of poverty. This calls for efforts to integrate qualitative and quantitative approaches or to “sequentially” or “simultaneously” mix the approaches.

This report is based on a one-day workshop in Nairobi to discuss issues on qualitative and quantitative poverty analysis. The workshop sought answers to the following key questions: (i) How do quantitative and qualitative approaches differ? What are the similarities?; (ii) How can the gap between quantitative and qualitative approaches be bridged?; and (iii) What are the experiences in using quantitative and qualitative approaches in Kenya?

The workshop was divided into three main sessions. A list of the topics/papers discussed in each of these sessions are provided below:

**Session 1: Methods for poverty analysis**
1. Quantitative poverty analysis
2. Bridging the qualitative-quantitative methods in poverty analysis
3. Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods in analysing poverty dynamics

**Session 2: Case studies**
4. Researching poverty in rural Kenya: Methodological concerns arising from methods adopted
5. Poverty mapping: The case of Kenya
6. Social aspects of dynamic poverty traps: Cases from Vihiga, Baringo and Marsabit Districts, Kenya
7. Indices and manifestations of poverty: Informing anti-poverty policy choices
8. Poverty in Kenya: A review of quantitative and qualitative studies

**Session 3: Plenary panel discussion and way forward.**

This report was developed to serve as an internal “blueprint” for the research component of the joint HCENR/SEI-B project. The contents of the report are listed below:

1. Background
2. Research Goals
3. Research Scope
4. Methodological Approach
   4.1 Climate variability and extremes as a proxy for climate change
   4.2 Sustainable livelihoods approach, framework and assessment tools
   4.3 “Successful” resilience-building experiences
   4.4 Targeted Participation
   4.5 Resilience Indicators
   4.6 Micro-Macro Linkages
   4.7 Nested Assessment
   4.8 Validation
5. Case Study Protocol
   5.1 Background and Preparation
   5.2 Fieldwork
   5.3 Policy Process Analysis
   5.4 Progress reporting
   5.5 Synthesis


This book was created due to the increasing interest in the study of mixed method and mixed model studies. Tashakkori and Teddlie have created a logically exhaustive typology of mixed models and mixed-method studies, and present a "how-to" guide for each of the major types of studies.

In Part I, the authors develop a logical taxonomy of both mixed-methods and mixed model studies, pointing out similarities in the methods that they perceive across these fields. They distinguish between the two stating that mixed-methods combine qualitative and quantitative approaches in the methodology of a study, while mixed model studies combine these two approaches across all phases of the research process. They feel that the latter approach is the growing trend in social and behavioural sciences.

In Part II, the authors present the methods and strategies of the two approaches (e.g., sampling, measurement, data collection, data analysis). They summarize traditional approaches to these topics and then demonstrate how researchers have
mixed the techniques when doing their research. They present examples of unique mixed methodological approaches from a variety of fields.

Part III presents simple and extended examples of mixed-model designs. Most of the examples presented use either sequential or parallel mixed-methods in which the two basic approaches are used alternatively or together to examine the same phenomenon. These examples provide more information on precisely how these studies are put together.

The authors believe research should be conducted with a clear intent to answer a question, solve a problem, or evaluate a program. Thus, they stress the importance and predominance of the research question, and encourage researchers to use appropriate methods from both approaches to answer their research question. For most applications in the social and behavioural sciences, the authors state that the research questions are best answered with mixed-method or mixed model research designs rather than with a sole reliance on either the quantitative and qualitative approach.

The following lists the chapter contents of the book:

Part I. Paradigms and Politics of Research
   1. Introduction to Mixed Method and Mixed Model Studies in the Social and Behavioural Sciences
   2. Pragmatism and the Choice of Research Strategy
   3. Research Design Issues for Mixed Method and Mixed Model Studies

Part II. Methods and Strategies of Research
   1. Sampling, Measurement, and Quality of Inferences
   2. Data Collection Strategies and Research Procedures
   3. Alternatives to Traditional Data Analytic Strategies

Part III. Applications, Examples, and Future Directions of Mixed Model Research
   1. Examples of Mixed Model Designs
   2. Extended Examples of Mixed Model Designs
   3. Conclusions and Future Directions


This book contains numerous articles by leading scholars on mixed-methods in social research. It aims to survey the different viewpoints and disciplinary approaches of mixed-methods by examining the research enterprise, pragmatic issues of methodology, and application of this approach across disciplines. The book discusses the strengths and weaknesses of mixed methods design and provides a variety of specific examples in a variety of disciplines. It concludes
with a brief section on how to teach and perform collaborative research using mixed methods research design.

Below is a list of the chapters found within each of the four sections.

Section One: The Research Enterprise in the Social Sciences: Then and Now

1. Major Issues and Controversies in the Use of Mixed Methods in the Social and Behavioural Sciences
2. Pragmatic Threads in Mixed Methods Research in the Social Sciences: The Search for Multiple Modes of Inquiry and the End of the Philosophy of Formalism
3. Making Paradigmatic Sense of Mixed Methods Practice
4. Cultural Distance, Levels of Attraction, and the Advantages of Mixed Methods
5. Mixed Methods and the Politics of Human Research: The Transformative-Emancipatory Perspective

Section Two: Methodological and Analytical Issues for Mixed Methods Research

6. A Typology of Research Purposes and Its Relationship to Mixed Methods
7. Principles of Mixed Methods and Multimethod Research Design
8. Advanced Mixed Methods Research Design
10. Mixed Methods Sampling Strategies in Social Science Research
11. Data Collection Strategies in Mixed Methods Research
12. Tables or Tableaux? The Challenges of Writing and Reading Mixed Methods Studies
13. A Framework for Analyzing Data in Mixed Methods Research
14. Computerized Data Analysis for Mixed Methods Research
15. Impact of Mixed Methods and Design on Inference Quality

Section Three: Applications and Examples of Mixed Methods Research Across Disciplines

18. Research Methods in Management and Organizational Research: Towards Integration of Qualitative and Quantitative Techniques
19. Status of Mixed Methods in Health Sciences
20. Status of Mixed Methods Research in Nursing
21. Mixed Methods in Psychological Research
22. Multimethod Research in Sociology
23. The Pragmatic and Dialectical Lenses: Two Views of Mixed Methods Use in Education

Section Four: Conclusions and Future Directions

25. Collaborative Mixed Methods Research
26. The Past and Future of Mixed Methods Research: From Data Triangulation to Mixed Model Designs