

GUIDELINES FOR DATA REQUIREMENTS, COLLECTION AND METHODS¹

1. For the purpose of defining poverty in ADB projects, the poverty line used is based on the poverty agreement established between ADB and the governments of its developing member countries. The poverty line is based on income/consumption poverty data and on an absolute poverty criterion.² Poverty data (including income poverty data) should be available for countries for which poverty assessments have been carried out. In fact, most countries now have poverty data in an acceptable form for overall poverty assessments and targeted interventions. Where poverty data are required for a particular area, however, caution must be used in relying on disaggregated national figures.³

2. In project areas, regional- or district-level estimates of the headcount index of income poverty may not be available, and it will rarely be justified to conduct a detailed household income survey to collect primary income data just for an individual project. If income poverty data is not available, it will be the responsibility of project teams to establish how the poor affected by a project can be identified. Possible alternative measurements are the following:

- (i) Derive approximate average income data from aggregate groups of beneficiaries by, for example, inferring income from data on household assets.
- (ii) Use alternative indicators of poverty. (Which indicators are the best proxies of poverty are very much dependent on the country and context. See Appendix 2.1.) In general, health and nutrition indicators are good proxies of income poverty and can indicate differences in poverty between regions and changes over time.
- (iii) Use other alternatives such as indicators of landownership, if available from agriculture ministries and related offices, and data on agricultural output, which can indicate short-term fluctuations in poverty.
- (iv) Given the difficulties in quantifying household and individual income, use local-level data such as availability and use, at household as well as at individual level, of education, health, water, and electricity, including economic and price information. It may be safer and more cost-effective to do so. Also, these nonincome measures of living standards make it easier to measure intra-household allocation and inequality. These data can be collected through local offices of the statistical institute or the Ministry of Finance.

3. Independently of the different methods to measure poverty, it is paramount that the interpretation of these results be complemented with qualitative studies. It is important to understand:

- (i) Why certain factors correlate with poverty;
- (ii) What factors influence poverty outcomes that are not easily quantifiable; and
- (iii) How qualitative data can be used to explain how intra-household resource distribution is structured along gender, age or ethnicity lines.

4. Qualitative data is particularly suited for “identification,” i.e., to address the question, “Who are the poor?” These data can readily measure the broad dimensions of poverty, including, for example,

¹ The information in this appendix is based on Combining the Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches to Poverty Measurement and Analysis, Soniya Carvalho and Howard White, World Bank Technical Paper No. 366 (1997), and World Bank (2001) Poverty Source Book. (draft).

² There are two important issues with respect to drawing the poverty line under the quantitative approaches: choosing between an absolute and relative poverty criterion, and choosing the location of the line. First, the absolute poverty line is commonly drawn based on the cost of meeting some calorie requirement and perhaps adding an allowance for other essentials. The relative poverty line refers to the position of an individual or household compared with the average income in the country.

³ Although aggregated national samples may be accurate, actual survey sample sizes are often quite small at provincial and district levels and the coefficient of variation correspondingly high.

vulnerability and lack of dignity and autonomy. Most important, however, qualitative data and approaches allow the community itself to analyze its own poverty and determine the most important manifestations and solution to poverty. At the project level, such information may be critical for the design for projects and policies aimed at reaching the poor.

5. Qualitative data and approaches also enable causality to be introduced between variables. Some of the variables used in the qualitative approach show how people became poor and how vulnerable they may be in the future. Qualitative data may focus on the following:

- (i) assessing the subjective meaning of poverty, and variations in that meaning, e.g., along gender, urban and rural, or ethnic lines;
- (ii) variation patterns in household income and consumption;
- (iii) the constraints the poor themselves believe are stopping them from advancing;
- (iv) intra-household dimensions of poverty;
- (v) poor people's priorities for action;
- (vi) cultural factors determining poverty, such as gender roles, traditions, beliefs, etc.;
- (vii) political factors such as trust, corruption, and conflict;
- (viii) certain social factors determining poverty, such as the role of community networks, social capital, etc.; and
- (ix) household strategies to reduce vulnerability.

6. An analysis of the factors discussed above will provide a better understanding of poverty and processes such as vulnerability, the nature of exclusion, and causes of poverty. However, good qualitative work requires a significant investment of time and effort. It does not pay to take shortcuts with qualitative work if the information is needed to explain complex processes as poverty.

A. Combining Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches⁴

7. The reason for combining quantitative and qualitative approaches is to tap the breadth of the quantitative approach and the depth of the qualitative approach. The exact combination of qualitative and quantitative works will depend on the purpose of the study and the available time, skills, and resources. In general, the following statements are true:

- (i) Integrating methodologies can result in *better measurement*.
- (ii) Confirming, refuting, enriching, and explaining can result in *better analysis*.
- (iii) Merging the quantitative and qualitative findings into one set of policy recommendations can lead to *better action*.

8. Some ways in which the *integration of methodologies* can be achieved are to use quantitative survey data to determine the individuals/communities to be studied through the qualitative approach; use qualitative work to determine the design of the quantitative survey questionnaire; to identify variables of importance to respondents; to identify types of questions that should be asked in the formally structured interviews; to determine the design of the quantitative survey questionnaire; to pre-test the quantitative survey questionnaire; and/or using qualitative analyses to refine the poverty index.

9. Qualitative approaches can enrich and explain findings of quantitative studies/surveys. Qualitative work can be used to identify issues or obtain information on variables not obtained by quantitative surveys. Qualitative work can also be used to understand unanticipated results derived from quantitative data. In principle, each of these mechanisms may operate in either direction—from qualitative to quantitative approaches or visa versa.

10. As indicated above good qualitative work requires time and money. The amount of time and money depends how much qualitative work is needed. Practicality is the main consideration when deciding how much qualitative work to perform. Although any study or survey can be improved by the

⁴ This section is mainly based on Carvalho and White 1997.

addition of qualitative work, there is always a limit to the amount of time and resources, that can be put into this activity. Of the various uses of qualitative work, improving the design of survey questionnaires, and clarifying quantitative research findings and generating new hypotheses requires the least investment of time and money. Since this work is explanatory, consultants only have to think, listen, and construct loose hypotheses about the phenomenon under study. This effort normally involves a small consultancy team, an international and national consultant. Since it is not necessary to have a large data collection team, the exercise can be relatively inexpensive to carry out.

11. By contrast, qualitative research that aims to improve the design of survey questionnaires or clarify quantitative survey findings is likely to require more time and money. It is therefore normally necessary to decide which subject area would benefit most from complementary qualitative work. It is the most cost-effective way to explore subject areas that have not previously been studied using qualitative methods. For example it may be more useful to use qualitative methods to study severe obstetric complications than to use these methods to study contraceptive use, since contraceptive use has already been the subject of many qualitative studies.

B. Data Collection Systems

1. Population Census

12. The population census contains basic information on all citizens of a country. The census is carried out for all households in order to obtain basic information on the population, its demographic structure, and its location. In most countries, it is carried out by the national statistics institute, which can then provide data to lower levels of government, tailored to local information needs. The information gathered is limited. Information on household income, consumption, disease patterns, and poverty perceptions are generally not included. Census data, however, normally provide the following:

- (i) information at different levels of disaggregation within the country or region;
- (ii) descriptive statistics of housing stock;
- (iii) access to basic services such as water, electricity, and sanitation; and
- (iv) employment patterns.

2. Household Surveys

13. Household surveys can be an important resource for poverty assessments and diagnostics and are essential for analysis of welfare distribution and poverty characteristics. Household surveys can be an indispensable tool for measuring the extent and distribution of income poverty. At the same time, an important shortcoming of aggregate household-level analysis is that it can provide only limited understanding of the intra-household distribution of resources, especially of income and consumption.

14. While the census covers the whole population, surveys interview only a subset, generally a small fraction. This sample of households is carefully chosen so that the results of the survey accurately describe living conditions in the country, and different parts of the country. Sampling should be based on mapping of actual settlements, including newly formed informal urban ones. Sampling is most often informed by a recent population census. The sample size—the number of households interviewed—will vary with several factors:

- (i) The indicator to be measured. A survey that aims to measure countrywide averages of income will require a larger sample than a survey designed to measure the percentage of the population with water connections.
- (ii) The level at which data are needed. Determining the national electricity connection rate will require fewer households to be interviewed than determining a regional or district rate.
- (iii) The population. Household surveys are much smaller than a population census and therefore also less costly.

3. Living Standard Measurement Surveys

15. The following types of household surveys are particularly useful in collecting poverty and social data for projects. Living standard measurement surveys (LSMSs), and other multi-topic surveys are generally geared toward measuring and analyzing poverty and are important instruments for poverty analysis. LSMS collect information on such factors as (i) household expenditures and income, (ii) health, (iii) education, (iv) employment, (v) agriculture, (vi) ownership of assets such as housing or land, and (vii) access to services and social programs.

16. Multi-topic surveys enable the analyst to measure and understand poverty and its different dimensions. Such surveys are also useful for assessing broad trends and the long-term changes in poverty.

17. LSMSs are based on a sample size of households, and the data is not represented at district level. In some incidences one should be careful to compare the LSMS from a different year, because the methods selecting sample household may differ. Data collection and subsequent analysis may take up to one year.

18. The participatory living standards assessment (PLSA) aims to understand poverty with respect to the multiple dimensions, causes, dynamics, and perceptions of poverty, and to ensure that the perceptions and voices of poor people themselves are brought forward. With the use of participatory research methodologies, the PLSA permits a deeper analysis of certain issues that LSMS methodology is not well equipped to address, such as poverty dynamics over time, and spatial dynamics in livelihood strategies.

19. The PLSA uses a broad range of methods developed over the last twenty years or so under the auspices of rapid and participatory rural appraisals (RRA/PRA). The methods used include matrix ranking and scoring, including wealth or well-being ranking, trend analysis, institutional analysis, and mapping and other diagramming techniques combined with semi-structured interviewing with individual informants or focus groups.

20. The sample selection will normally consider the following: (i) ensure complementarity and comparability with existing quantitative data; (ii) capture as much as possible of the diversity in living conditions among rural and urban communities; and (iii) balance sample size (number of participating communities) with depth of analysis.

4. Demographic and Health Surveys

21. Demographic and health surveys (DHSs) contain data on (i) health, infant mortality, fertility, contraception practices and family planning, health attendance during pregnancy, feeding practices, vaccination, health center use of mothers and children, satisfaction with health services and cost of treatment; (ii) educational attainment; (iii) occupation, male/female; (iv) migration; (v) access to basic service; sources of water, electricity access, sanitation, ownership of durable goods. DHSs can be used to calculate household wealth and to carry out poverty analysis.

22. DHSs Surveys do not contain household income or consumption data, however, wealth quintiles can nevertheless be constructed that will allow for a useful poverty profile. The household wealth indicator is constructed using all available information on assets in the surveys—durable goods, basic services etc., and then ranked to construct quintile distributions. If different DHSs exist, a potential analysis could compare development in time. Such comparisons could include how indicators such as access to education and health, basic service access in remote areas, and health and education spending have improved.

5. Employment Surveys

23. Employment surveys contain information on employment and unemployment patterns and fluctuations. They include questions about (i) household income, (ii) demographics, and (iii) housing features. They can be good sources for (i) employment statistics, (ii) income-based poverty indicators, and (iii) input indicators such as access to basic services. The wage data provided in employment surveys are indicative but imprecise measures of household welfare, because they do not cover the following:

- (i) changes in the number of unemployed who do not receive that wage;
- (ii) microenterprise and other informal activity that may be important in many economies;
- (iii) household production or wages paid partially in kind, which are particularly important in rural areas;
- (iv) changes in household net worth used to stabilize consumption; and
- (v) intra-family transfers.

24. While wage income is positively correlated with informal sector earnings at the macroeconomic level, there is little or no evidence for this at the local or household level.

25. Disaggregation of the collected data will increase their analytical usefulness. Unemployment and wage rates, for example, are likely to be particularly revealing for workers who are on the margin of the labor market (e.g., women) and for those with relatively low skills and schooling. Because the more vulnerable families gain income from subsistence agriculture, data on agriculture production for the domestic market, informal sector activities, and indicators of trends in relative prices will be most useful.

26. Gender is one of the many ways in which data can be disaggregated, and the rationale for doing so is that, in earning income, women face different constraints than men. Since policy reform is largely about changing constraints, if those facing men and women are sufficiently different, it is necessary to treat men and women as distinct groups. Men and women also often have radically different propensities to consume particular public services (e.g., health), and so budgetary changes can have powerfully gender-differentiated effects.

Table 3.1.1: Household Survey Types

Household Survey	Advantage	Limitation
Multi-topic surveys	Measurement and analysis of different poverty dimensions, their interrelationships and correlates.	Time intensive (collection and evaluation)
Demographic and health surveys	Health-poverty measurement, health behavior analyses, basic poverty diagnostics.	Limited measurement of other dimensions of poverty and limited diagnostics
Employment survey	Analysis of employment patterns, wage income analysis (link to education).	Limited use for poverty measurement and diagnostics

D. Qualitative and Participatory Poverty Analyses

27. In household surveys described above, population censuses provide important information on poverty and many of its linkages. To be effective, however, they have to be combined with an in-depth understanding of the social, cultural, and political environment in which the poor live. As described in Appendix 3.3, participatory rapid appraisal (PRA) uses tools for consulting the poor directly and systematically. Use of such methods can (i) deepen our understanding of poverty, (ii) explain processes of impoverishment, (iii) convey the priorities of the poor, and (iv) assist in analyzing poverty beyond the

household unit. Experience has shown that poor people speak of poverty in different terms than those typically used in policy analysis. They may refer to such characteristics as (i) vulnerability, (ii) physical and social isolation, (iii) lack of security and self-respect, and (iv) powerlessness.

28. PRA commonly involves qualitative methods such as semi-structured interviews with key informants and contact persons. Its aim is to obtain information from individuals who are thought to have sufficient knowledge about issues or groups of people. Key informants may be elderly people who know about the past situation, or women whose experiences may differ from those of men. A key feature of PRA is its concern with obtaining only “enough information” rather than as much information as possible. PRA techniques assist vulnerable groups to describe and analyze their own situation, including the impacts of the policy on their lives and livelihoods.

29. PRA or participatory poverty analyses (PPA) are especially useful in assessing potential impacts of proposed policy reforms, as well as in monitoring and modifying reforms during implementation. Where appropriate, the following measures can help increase policy impact of PPA:

- (i) Involve policymakers in the early planning of PPA.
- (ii) Bring key policymakers to the field to participate in PPA research.
- (iii) After the results are presented, convene workshops with policymakers and local people.
- (iv) Negotiate high-level commitment to the follow up PPA and monitor the implementation of key commendations.

30. It is unlikely that PPA will be able to accurately track the full primary and secondary effects of policy reforms. However, aspects of the consequences, such as relative changes in incomes and expenditures, may be assessed using PPA. To explore such policy impacts, wealth-ranking exercises can be used to indicate changes in inequality, and changes in livelihood activities can be examined through seasonal calendars and daily schedules. Information on market changes and intra-household inequalities can be explored through group discussions with women and by comparing calendars and schedules for women and men. By adding such depth of understanding to the quantitative data collected by large-scale household monitoring systems, analysts and policymakers can better assess the impact of changes on the poor and, where necessary, make better-targeted interventions.

31. No single methodology can guarantee comprehensiveness, accuracy, cost-effectiveness, and time efficiency. There is an inevitable trade-off between coverage and costs. Statistically representative household surveys are expensive and time-consuming in design, training, data collection, data processing, and analysis. Participatory techniques can be equally expensive and slow in terms of training, time spent in the field and replication across many field sites. Conversely, rapid assessments give reasonable and rapid qualitative impressions of the variables under examination, but only at the expense of accuracy and detail.

32. It is possible to combine various indicators and use various types of data gathering to form a suitable social and poverty monitoring system. There exists no prototype for this, because the exact mix depends on the existing data-gathering systems in specific countries. Where good agricultural data (and nothing else) exist, the first thing to do is to establish how well these can approximate poverty. Similarly, for countries that have good information on employment or health, the questions to ask are “How do these data reflect poverty?” and “How can these data be extended to give a closer approximation of poverty?”

Box 3.1.1: Poverty in the Lao PDR –Participatory Poverty Assessment

A participatory poverty assessment (PPA) was conducted in Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) in 2000 to initiate and identify more effective forms of public and private actions to reduce poverty.

The PPA process involved four main elements: (i) different forms of knowledge on poverty (statistical, cultural, anthropological, institutional, economic) combined and views of poor people included in the PPA (ii) mechanisms to ensure that the view from “below” incorporated in the formulation and implementation of public policies were identified (iii) specific follow-up action was formulated and initiated and; finally (iv) the capacity for participatory research and process management was consolidated.

The PPA began with a series of consultative processes consisting of stakeholder workshops, questionnaires on poverty sent to stakeholders, the establishment of steering and technical committees, meetings with line ministries, the Prime Minister's Office, and mass organizations, to refine the assessment instrument. The PPA was carried out in the wet season to better understand the problems of accessibility, to meet with villagers during the season of most intensive agricultural work, and to experience firsthand the hardships and frustrations endured by the poor.

To accurately obtain a representative sample of poor villages the sites selected for the PPA were identified through the use of both qualitative and quantitative information including identification through a quantitative analysis of the Lao Expenditure and Consumption Household Survey carried out in 1997–1998. To ensure that the diversity of less population areas were reflected in the PPA the statistical selection was combined with a polling of administrative committees from every province to select poor districts. Those districts which matched districts selected from the quantitative analysis were chosen for the PPA. The villages were selected through consultation with district committees.

One of the primary goals of the PPA was to obtain local definitions of poverty, what its components are, and to record how being poor is expressed by the poor. In addition, the PPA sought to understand how villagers define the causes of poverty, and what solutions they would propose to reduce poverty in the future.

What lessons can be learned in regard to combining qualitative and quantitative methods analyzing poverty in the Lao PDR? The study concludes that while the statistics in the Lao PDR point at economic growth, this has not resulted in a uniform reduction in poverty across provinces. The PPA has pointed out that some provinces may even have been adversely affected by rapid economic growth. This omission is due to the fact that statistical data does not reflect the diversity of societies and poverty issues as experienced by the poor themselves. In the case of the Lao PDR, for example, the statistical data indicate that landownership and access to land is very high, 86 percent. In the PPA, on the other hand, the poor villagers have ranked problems with access and ownership to land as the main cause of poverty. Therefore while from the point of view of the statistical analysis the Government should continue to follow growth-enhancing policies, it should, at the same time, target the specific groups in the society that are unable to reap full benefits of growth.

TRANSECT WALKS

1. For project designers, transect walks provide a useful orientation to local realities. They provide an opportunity to observe what is often “obvious” and therefore unarticulated by local people or is inappropriate to mention, such as poor governance and illegal practices, or what may be viewed by some as unsightly, such as untreated effluent. Transect walks simply involve team members walking through or otherwise traversing the project area (Figure 3.2.1) along a set line chosen between two points such as (i) a well or clinic to a distant household, (ii) the valley floor to a hilltop, (iii) an industrial plant to its residue outlet, (iv) a pier to a fish market, or (v) along an infrastructure easement.

2. Before any transect walks are conducted, an assessment should be made of the likely social dynamics that will occur and thus the likelihood of gaining useful information. The social dynamics will be affected by such factors as the size, appearance, gender, and prestige of the visitors, and the level of education, fear, and confidence of the local groups.

3. Team members are accompanied by one or more male and female informants who know the area well (e.g., residents, farmers, or factory workers).¹ Information and impressions are gathered by direct observation, questioning informants, and undertaking impromptu interviews with people encountered along the way. Periodic stops are useful to discuss significant features of the route, such as (i) sanitation or water-use problems, (ii) crop production techniques, (iii) land uses, (iv) transport methods, or (v) housing characteristics. It is also useful to sketch a map of the route and note key information.

Figure 3.2.1: Undocumented Informal Dwellings Along a Proposed Transmission Route



4. A helicopter survey of a proposed electricity transmission route in the Philippines, for example, revealed that a settlement of informal dwellers had congregated around an existing pylon (see arrow in Figure 3.2.1) and were using the structure for house support and other domestic purposes. The density of the dwellings also precluded easy site access during the proposed upgrading activities. Alternative transmission line routes were subsequently investigated that did not necessitate prolonged social and compensation negotiations.

¹ Before the walk, it is also important to understand the likely bias of the informants and their relations with the local community. For example, if the guide is a local official, and there are senior government people among the visitors, it is possible that the sites and translations provided may be *sanitized*.

PARTICIPATORY RAPID ASSESSMENT

1. Participatory rapid assessment (PRA) is an approach and range of techniques that enable stakeholders to analyze their problems and then plan, implement, and evaluate agreed-upon solutions. PRA emerged from concern among development practitioners that traditional research methods were neither cost-effective nor socially effective for many project planning purposes. Instead, methods were required that yielded timely analysis of sufficient accuracy and accepted validity to ensure stakeholder commitment to outcomes. This was best achieved by an astute combination of inclusive group discussions, individual interviews, and analysis of background information.

2. PRA techniques emphasize visual and verbal analysis (e.g., observing, interviewing, mapping, sketching, ranking) to ensure that data collection and discussion processes can be public, transparent, and group oriented. Commonly applied PRA techniques include (i) key informant interviews, (ii) semi-structured interviews, (iii) transect walks, (iv) participatory mapping and modeling, (v) wealth ranking and matrix ranking, (vi) oral histories, (vii) trend analysis, (viii) development of seasonal calendars, (ix) story-telling, (x) critical incident analysis, and (xi) problem census, among others. PRA also advocates a new *approach* to project-related research in which external planners resource and facilitate stakeholders to undertake analysis and provide feedback rather than directly perform these functions themselves. This approach fosters dialogue, mutual trust, and capacity to manage conflict and negotiate equitable outcomes.

3. More recent interpretations of PRA have emphasized the value of its participatory nature rather than just its rapidity. The sense of involvement and commitment—the ownership—that emerges when people work together to decide how to address their own problems is key to the effectiveness and sustainability of most development projects. Increasingly, PRA draws upon action research, which aims at raising people’s consciousness of the systemic problems underlying their immediate problems. PRA thus builds on respect for all people and for the expertise that they have about their own life—the poor are the experts on poverty!—and it fosters a process of open, shared learning in which participants take responsibility for their decisions. Community members or co-workers may learn about each others’ views and come to see their groups’ circumstances in a new way. Outsiders gain the chance to identify locally (or organizationally) significant issues about which they did not even know enough to ask. Because many of its tools are graphic and interactive, PRA does not require that a person be literate in order to contribute and be fully engaged. These tools are adapted for use among well-educated groups and may be used in conjunction with time-consuming research activities. (See Appendix 8 for methods of combining qualitative and quantitative data analysis.)

4. PRA requires expert facilitation based on high-quality, culturally sensitive listening and upon willingness to let others take over leadership of the process. It also requires excellent teamwork by people with contrasting backgrounds who tend to notice different information and features of group interaction. They must exchange their views in a mutually supportive way and adjust the next steps of the process in accordance with their growing understanding. Also required are:

- (i) a conducive policy environment,
- (ii) providing sufficient time (usually one week per community for a full PRA study),
- (iii) trust in the process,
- (iv) flexibility, and
- (v) scope for a community to assert its preferences.

5. A danger associated with PRA is that it may contribute to excessive expectations of forthcoming aid. Care must be taken to ensure that facilitators are as clear as possible when explaining their purposes for conducting the exercises—are the exercises just for background research or will a lengthy planning process involving citizens result in new economic opportunities for them? Care must also be taken to crosscheck information that is placed on maps or charts or given during interviews.

6. By understanding the fundamentals of PRA, ADB staff can better recognize competent practitioners among the many who claim to have expertise. To be effective, practitioners must be respectful of the views and feelings of minorities and disadvantaged people and must be capable of interacting with them with appropriate sensitivity. In societies with strong class, gender, or caste divisions, many practitioners have difficulty bridging these divides.

7. To assist project teams, several web sites are suggested below. Staff will be encouraged to check the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) subpage on participation on the ADB intranet when it is complete.

<http://www.ids.susx.ac.uk/ids/particip/index.html> (then to theory and practice)

<http://nt.oneworld.org.iiied>

www.eldis.org (an excellent search engine)

BENEFIT INCIDENCE ANALYSIS

1. Benefit incidence is a tool for assessing the level of effective demand among different income groups for goods or services that are supplied on a partly or wholly subsidized basis. It is necessitated by the lack of any direct indication of underlying demand such as might be revealed by household expenditure data, since even where subsidies are only partial, their existence means that data on the utilization of these services give a distorted picture of the true level of demand for them.

2. The technique is most commonly applied to analysis of health and education services in order to determine the extent to which lower-income groups are utilizing them. It involves comparing the amount of public spending on the particular service in a given area by income group—based on a breakdown of users or students by quintile or decile—averaged out across the total population of each group. The resulting average levels of spending per income group indicate the degree to which higher-income groups may be (as is usual) getting a significantly greater share of public spending on the service (proxy for benefits) per head.

Table 3.4.1. Data Collection Format for Benefit Incidence Analysis: Primary Education

Indicator	
Recurrent Expenditure (Total)	
Enrollments ('000)	
Expenditure per Student	
Expenditure per Head of Population (Total)	
Expenditure per Head of Population (Lowest Quintile)	
Expenditure per Head of Population (Highest Quintile)	
Share of Relevant Age Group in Lowest Quintile's Total Population (%)	
Share of Relevant Age Group in Highest Quintile's Total Population (%)	

3. This type of analysis—which would normally be undertaken in the context of sectoral research—may be done either at the national or (data permitting) regional level. In order to be most useful in relation to determining sector strategy, it will need to be supplemented by targeted sampling of opinion in order to find out why, for example, take-up of primary education among the poorest may be unusually low (e.g., location factors, dependence on children's labor).¹

¹ For an example of this type of analysis see Malawi Poverty Analysis and the Incidence of Public Expenditures on Education, The World Bank, Washington DC.