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**CORRUPTION, HUMAN RIGHTS AND GENDER:
AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION**

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY PAPER: DRAFT

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

1. This paper presents the methodology employed for the study of corruption, gender and human rights. The project, which was conducted in Ghana¹, had three main aims:
 - **Research Aim One:** map out key areas where corruption intersects with gender and human rights (when does corruption disproportionately affect the human rights of women?)
 - 1b) To examine anti-corruption policies for potential gender bias in implementation and design (are anti-corruption policies bias against women in their design and implementation?)
 - **Research Aim Two:** assess perceptions of organisational performance (are organisations considered to be gender-sensitive in their work against corruption? Do their policies protect human rights?)
 - **Research Aim Three:** do women and men perceive the impact of corruption on gender and human rights differently?
2. The natural starting point for this study is undertaking a conceptual clarification of what is understood by corruption and human rights before examining ways of executing a gender analysis of their nexus. Being part of a larger research project, this component adopted the conceptualisations of corruption and human rights accomplished in the project's background papers (prepared by Julio and Noel), but also sought to add a gender dimension to the analysis. Therefore, before discussing the proposed methodology, a brief outline of the framework which provided a launching pad for our gender analysis and mainstreaming contributions is presented below.

1.1. Gender-Mainstreaming Framework

3. Several gender mainstreaming frameworks have been developed by different organisations and scholars over the past two decades. Most of them, however, have been developed and applied in the management of natural resources and project planning. In the review for this project, we identified one that has been applied to different fields and contexts, including the area of policy formulation and implementation, and shows significant potential for utilisation in our corruption and human rights study. This is a seven-step framework developed by Pitronella Van den Oever for GENESYS (Gender in Economic and Social Systems²). As the name suggests, the framework comprises seven basic elements which could be used as both an evaluative tool and an assessment aid for identifying critical entry points for gender mainstreaming action (van der Oever and Gulati, 2002). The seven elements of the framework are:
 1. **Awareness of the importance of gender issues:**

Organisational gender awareness includes conscious knowledge of gender differences that exist in society, particularly in terms of division of labour, rights, responsibilities and access to resources; and using this knowledge to formulate policies towards reducing gender imbalances.

¹ A similar study will be conducted in India (August 2007) using this methodology as a guide.

² This was a project funded by USAID Office of Women in Development to support its efforts at institutionalising gender in development assistance.

2. Commitment to address gender issues in the institution's activities:

While gender awareness is important, mere detection of gender imbalances and understanding societal forces that perpetuate these imbalances is not a sufficient condition for gender mainstreaming. This can only be made worthwhile by the evidence of conscious action, through practical changes, to remedy the detected gender imbalances.

3. Capacity for formulation of gender-focused questions (on issues such as division of labour, rights, responsibilities etc) and link them with development objectives:

For instance, ICHRP has commissioned this research because, as an organisation, it has the capacity to interrogate their projects from a gender perspective. Gender sensitive organisations ought to be reflexive on what potential benefits and negative effects their projects, actions and policies could have on men and women.

4. Capacity for carrying out gender and social analysis:

Formulating the right questions would provide a sound basis for gender analysis. The objective is to determine factors that result in specific groups of women and men being advantaged or disadvantaged. Having the expertise and resources to collect the data necessary for gender analysis is essential if an organisation is to take forward its desire to be gender sensitive.

5. Capacity for applying the findings of gender and social analysis to the institution's portfolio:

A gender-informed organisation should have an in-house capacity for applying the major findings generated from gender analysis: that is translating gender analysis into operational terms and making sure that these findings are reflected in implementation plans.

6. Capacity for systematic monitoring and evaluation of gender-specific program impact:

Monitoring and evaluation are important in assessing what difference any gender-sensitive or informed intervention has brought to the lives of actual or potential target groups. Gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation is important in order to understand the extent to which an intervention has addressed the differential needs of women and men.

7. Systematic reporting of gender-relevant lessons learned and subsequent adaptation:

The results of a specific intervention must be analysed and synthesised, and their implications assessed and reported. Gender-sensitive reporting can systematically convey, to all decision makers, messages of whether programs or policies affect women and men differently.

4. This framework was utilised to examine whether policies to combat corruption in the two country studies are gender sensitive. It was also used as a framework to assess the gender-sensitivity of existing anti-corruption and human rights organisations in their procedures and operations.

2.0. METHODOLOGY

5. A logical understanding of the manner in which scientific research is conceptualised suggests a three-level progression. At the highest level is the research philosophy subscribed to, followed by the research strategy and finally the research methods or techniques within which diverse data collection instruments are utilised. Below, we briefly discuss the theories underlying the chosen research methodology and its operationalisation in this project.

2.1 Research Philosophy

6. A research philosophy is a belief about the way in which data about a phenomenon should be collected, analysed and interpreted. The relationship between philosophy and social scientific research is aptly captured by Williams and May (1996:9) that “whereas philosophy is concerned to know what kind of things exist in the world and what is our warrant to know them, social research is concerned with their knowable properties”. The term epistemology encompasses the various philosophies of research and used to denote ‘what is known to be true’, while the term doxology is used to denote ‘what is believed to be true’. It is argued, from this, that the purpose of science is the process of transforming things *believed* into things *known*: doxa to episteme. Two major research philosophies have been identified in the Western tradition of science, namely positivism and interpretivism.

2.1.1. Positivism

7. Positivism, as a research philosophy, can be traced to 19th century philosopher Auguste Comte, though it continues to inform social science research in a variety of ways. The interpretation of positivism differs in accordance with the disciplinary orientation of researchers. However, the underlying principle of positivism is the contention that social phenomena can be investigated in a similar manner as physical matter, that is, the same methods used in natural science enquiry can be employed in social science research (Bryman, 1988). From this fundamental principle evolves a number of methodological implications for social science, notable among which are:

- Adopting a quantitative often structured approach to data collection and using quantitative data collection techniques, particularly the questionnaire survey.
- Studying only observable phenomena and neglecting the subjects’ perceptions.
- The need for theory in order to generate hypotheses to be verified through empirical observations.
- A cross-sectional study covering a representative sample and collection of large amounts of data (often depicted as rigorous and reliable) to enable generalisation.

2.1.2 Interpretivism (Hermeneutics)

8. Proponents of interpretivism reject the unity of method espoused by positivists. To them, social science (people and their social reality) is fundamentally different from the subject matter of the natural sciences; hence approaches to the study of social phenomenon should not be the same as the natural sciences. Interpretivists also argue that attempts to understand social reality ought to be grounded in people’s experiences of social reality. This philosophy therefore espouses an approach to the study of social phenomenon that strives to describe and analyse the culture and behavioural patterns of the social group. Though this philosophy comprises heterogeneity of intellectual undercurrents, its main thrust is using qualitative methods to investigate social phenomenon. Interpretivist research philosophy has two crucial methodological implications for this project:

- A less structured approach and less utilisation of theory as a precursor to investigation.
- Selection of subjects is less rigorous and their representativeness is unknown, in which case the generalisability of the findings is uncertain.

2.1.3 Multi-methods approach

9. Following years of antagonism between the two research traditions described above, there has been increasing acceptance that none of the two research approaches is intrinsically superior to the other, but rather that there is room for complementarity between them. Indeed, a look at recent research work from various social science disciplines reveals that the divide implied is not as tidy as initially portrayed, but on the contrary there is invariably a 'qualitative' element in quantitative research and vice versa. Consequently, there is growing consensus to employ a mixed methods or multi-methods approach. This approach entails the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study. The mixed method approach has an added value of increasing the validity of a study, by reducing study bias and compensating for the weakness of one method through the strength of another (Cresswell, 2002).
10. This project sought to depart from what may be characterised as methodological monism (i.e. adopting a singularly positivist or interpretivist approach) and, instead, opt for a multi-method approach not least because of our conviction that understanding phenomena as complex as corruption, gender, and human rights requires the complementarity afforded by utilising both quantitative and qualitative methods. The overriding concern is that the research approach adopted should be both relevant to the project's research aims, as set out in the ToR, and rigorous in its operationalisation.

2.2. Research Design

11. Guided by the pragmatic research philosophies described above, this project adopted a multi-pronged research design in order to achieve its three primary aims. The overall research design was survey, primarily because surveys provide requisite data to draw thorough and logical conclusions on the causes and effects of the variables under study. In this project, the survey format allowed us to examine a number of socio-demographic characteristics of the diverse group of study participants in order to analyse how corruption impacts women and human rights, as well as help us capture public and organisational perceptions of the intersections between corruption, gender and human rights.
12. Since the researchers were not on the field, at the initial stages of the methodology design, to select relevant variables, the survey design was the most appropriate because it prevented guessing of variables before embarking on field work. At the same time, it allowed for the collection of relevant variables from the field to be quantified and analysed. Collection of these variables enabled the construction of explanatory models necessary to select best suited variables for the analysis of corruption, gender and human rights.
13. Having outlined the reasons behind the choice of survey as the underlying framework to design and guide this research project, it should be pointed out that the three main research aims adopted different survey formats. The ensuing paragraphs disaggregate the research aims and provide detailed methodological approaches used for each.

3.0. RESEARCH AIM 1

3.1. Corruption, Gender and Human Rights: Mapping areas of Impact

14. The primary objective of this particular sub-component was to map out key areas of where and when corruption impacts on human rights, with particular emphasis on its disproportionate impact on the rights of women, as enshrined in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and cultural rights (ICESCR) and the International Covenant on Civil and Political rights (ICCPR).
15. For research of this kind, it was useful to identify key acts of corruption- used as variables in the study- and specific rights to be juxtaposed against these corrupt acts. Identifying these acts and rights to be studied, however, required criteria that will render them examinable. In so doing, specific acts of corruption considered in this study were bribery, embezzlement and nepotism within the state (public) sector. Limiting these acts of corruption to the public sector is deliberate, on the basis that the State is still the primary bearer of responsibility on the enjoyment of human rights. As such, we examined how these acts of corruption impede the enjoyment of human rights, with particular emphasis on the rights of women.
16. Specific rights considered were the right to health, life, justice (fair trial), public life (political participation), and education. The primary reason for the choice of rights drawn from the ICESCR and ICCPR relates, among other things, to the relative ease at which we can design measurable indicators to quantify and assess the impact of corruption on the enjoyment of these rights. Additionally, there are easily deducible State functionaries, ministries or departments, particularly in the case of Ghana, responsible for the enjoyment of these rights, and as such promised to give the research an entry point to direct the study.
17. Having outlined the specific acts of corruption used in the study and the rights considered, Research Aim One was designed as a sample survey. This type of survey is primarily concerned with gathering information from a fraction of a total population (Miller, 1983) and has the advantage of allowing generalisations to be made from its findings. This is due to the fact that information gathered from the sample survey was obtained from a representative fraction of the larger population; hence our results could be targeted at making some propositions about the study population. This enables us to uncover the nature of corruption within key sectors of the State that bear responsibility for the enjoyment of the rights outlined above.

3.1.1. Data Collection Methods

18. Due to the nature of Research Aim One, and the complexities of both corruption and human rights, we employed a data collection strategy that combined different methods, especially for triangulation purposes.

Units of analysis

19. The primary units of analysis (PUA) here were:
 - National anti-corruption agencies- Serious Fraud Office.

- Anti-corruption NGOs- Ghana National Integrity Initiative (local chapter of Transparency International), Centre for Democracy and Development (CDD).
- Human rights NGOs: Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative, Legal Resource Centre (LRC).
- Dual mandated agencies: these are agencies with the dual mandate to combat corruption and promote human rights (Commission for Human Rights and Administrative Justice)
- Relevant State ministries, departments and others- Ministry of Education, Health, Lands, Water and Sanitation; National Electoral Commission, Accra High Court.
- Media and civic education bodies: Ghana News Agency, National Commission for Civic Education.
- Law enforcement agencies: Ghana Police
- Human rights lawyers: names cannot be produced for the purpose of anonymity
- Women's organisations (FIDA- International Federation of Women Lawyers)

Secondary units of analysis (SUA)

20. Secondary units of analysis for triangulation purposes included:

- Service users of State services, such as health (10 patients), education (10 students of University of Ghana), justice (10 members of the public seeking justice at the court), opposition and incumbent parliamentarians (5 MPs), and land seekers (10) were interviewed not only to corroborate the data emerging from the primary units of analysis, but also to obtain more relevant data coming directly from recipients of these services who are better disposed to provide first hand information on their experiences of corruption and how it impacts on their enjoyment of human rights. For instance, patients in hospitals were interviewed to gain understanding of their experiences of corruption (if any) in their quest for health services, the nature of these acts of corruption and whether they think these acts of corruption are impediments to the enjoyment of their right to health. This same approach was attempted for other sectors (e.g. students in university; those seeking recourse to the courts for justice, those seeking land registry services, and incumbent/opposition parliamentarians).
- Another secondary unit of analysis was the general public. This largely constituted a public perception survey to capture public perceptions and experiences on corruption and how/why it violates human rights. Details of this survey are outlined in Research Aim Three.

3.1.2. In-depth interviews

21. As part of the multi-method approach adopted for this project, semi-structured interviews were conducted with different actors in selected national anti-corruption and human rights organisations, government ministries, civil society and the media, as outlined above under the primary units of analysis. The interviews were particularly aimed at identifying and mapping out the nature and incidence of corruption; who is affected by these acts (losers and winners) and how (which human rights are affected, for instance); measures of combating corruption in place and how these are performing (successes and failures) and explanations for successes or failures recorded in the anti-corruption efforts (e.g. possibility of human rights conventions being a constraint or facilitator).

22. Interviews were, first and foremost, conducted with individuals in key positions within organisations dealing with corruption and/or human rights; and government ministries/departments concerned with health, education, justice, land and some members of parliament. The ministries and departments were selected on the basis of our perceived significance of their connection to anti-corruption and the key rights enshrined in the two main covenants on human rights: ICESCR and ICCPR. These interviews gave us a comprehensive understanding of the intersections between corruption, human rights and gender, highlighting common manifestations of corruption, and whether (and how) these impact on women and men differently.
23. Interviewing, in general, has grown in importance as a data collection method with the recognition of individuals as important sources of information about their own experiences and democratisation of opinion (Silverman, 1993). Crucial to a study of this kind is the ability to develop rapport with and the trust of potential respondents. In fact, the usefulness and effectiveness of in-depth interviewing depends on the ability to develop and build 'intimacy' between the researcher and the researched. Johnson (2001) for instance counsels that "to progressively and incrementally build a mutual sense of disclosure and trust, the interviewer must offer some form of strict or complementary reciprocity" (2001:109). Because the focus of this study is on corruption and human rights violation, which by implication might apply to illegal activities, the issue of establishing rapport and trust was paramount. To establish rapport with key informants required the researcher to adapt her conduct, manner of interaction, and social etiquette to local circumstances. However, care had to be taken not to lose the objectivity expected of the researcher.

3.1.3. Structured Interviews

24. For Research Aim One, semi structured interviews were used for our secondary units of analysis (i.e. the service users and general public) to collect data on the basic demographic/socio-occupational characteristics of respondents, which will be correlated with their perceptions of the impact of corruption on their human rights.
25. Structured interviewing, in many respects, is similar to a questionnaire survey and the terms are often used interchangeably, but it is worth clarifying at this stage that this project used structured interviewing, not questionnaire, for Research Aim One. Structured interviewing essentially refers to a "situation in which an interviewer asks each respondent a series of pre-established questions with a limited set of response categories" Fontana and Frey (1994:363). The basic principle is that each respondent is taken through the same sequence of events by being asked the same questions in the same order.
26. For brevity, the mention of questionnaire in Research Aim One refers to the structured interview schedule, which was prepared as a guide for the interviewer. The main difference between the questionnaire and the interview schedule is that the respondent fills in the questionnaire himself or herself, while the interviewer completes the interview schedule (Robson, 1993:236). The use of the two terms interchangeably should not be construed as trivialising the implications of the differences between them. Indeed, this project recognises the fact that the presence of an interviewer and his/her role in its completion has potential for contaminating the processes through interviewer factors such as personality, conduct and interaction skills. These are matters that were given due importance during the training of research assistants to undertake the survey.

27. The advantage of adopting this structured format to the survey for Research Aim One is the ease of analysis and replicability of the study. The downside is that much of the spontaneity and flexibility, which is the hallmark of qualitative interviewing method, is lost. There is also the danger that since the structured format does not allow for flexibility, many issues are left to the interviewer's preconceptions in its interpretation. This setback was, however, offset by in-depth interviews and focus group discussions (see below) to triangulate and explain the structured interview data.

3.1.4. Sampling

28. Prior to fieldwork, the estimated sample for the primary units of analysis outlined above was to comprise at least two senior staff and 10-15 junior staff (depending on the size of organization) from each organisation. Upon embarking on fieldwork, however, we realised that some organisations were short-staffed. In other organisations, key senior staff were out of office or not available for interviews. This reality therefore necessitated back-up measures. We interviewed, and served questionnaires to, staff on the basis of availability and perceived knowledge/experiences of the issues. Note that while senior staff were interviewed, junior staff were administered questionnaires to facilitate the process of data collection. In total, we anticipated to conduct at least 20 interviews with senior staff and receive at least 100 questionnaires from junior staff from the disparate groups used as our primary units of analysis. At the end of fieldwork, we interviewed a total of 15 senior officials and received 77 questionnaires back.
29. For the secondary units of analysis, we hoped to interview (structured interview) at least 10 service users from each sector- education, health, politics, land and justice. Prior to fieldwork, we had envisaged to come up with data from a sample of at least 50 service users. At the end of fieldwork, however, we were able to interview (structured interview) 45 people in this category.
30. Purposive sampling was used to identify and select the service users. The main characteristic used to select the sample was based on the fact that participants were those actually seeking services from the State. For instance, in the case of the health sector, the sample constituted patients seeking health services at a Government hospital or health centre.
31. (For sample constitution of the public perception survey, refer to Research Aim 3).

3.2. Research Aim 1(b): Assessing Organisational Policies for Gender Sensitivity

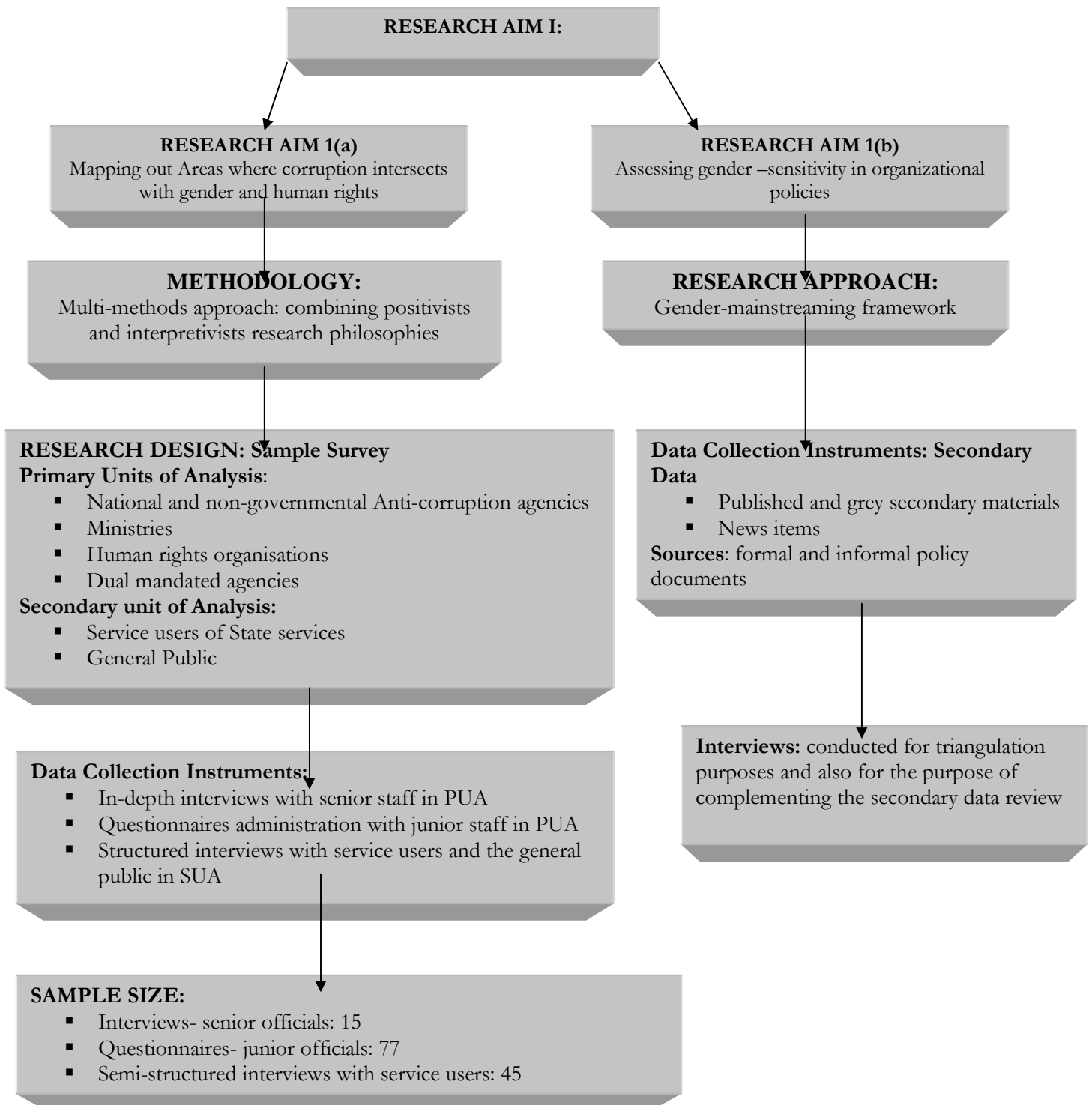
32. Using the gender framework, outlined at the beginning of this paper, as the framework to assess the extent to which organizational policies are bias against women in their design and implementation, this project utilised secondary data search to fulfil the object of this sub-aim. Besides providing important background information to facilitate the collection of primary data, both published and grey secondary material are quite crucial in building a clear picture of the economic and social-political milieu within which the corruption-human rights nexus plays out. The nature of secondary data readily available, and collected for the this sub-research aim, included the 1992 Constitution of Ghana, the Ghana Criminal Code which provided broad guidance for the operations of, particularly, the state institutions. We also utilised news paper articles and publications from NGOs on gender, corruption and human rights in Ghana.

33. The search for, and review of, secondary materials was undertaken mainly at the national level, more specifically in a number of selected State, non-government and inter-governmental organisations involved in anti-corruption and/or promotion of human rights and gender equality. One of our pre-field work assumptions was the idea that we will identify and study key policy and legal instruments, reports on corruption, gender and human rights at the national level. We also assumed that by enlisting the service of a court clerk, for instance, we could gain access to court records which will shed light on sources and prevalence of corruption. This, we thought, was necessary to illuminate the available redress mechanisms and to assess its efficacy and accessibility to men and women. During fieldwork, however, we realised that uneasiness and silence over corruption is a key feature among public officials. We could not gain access to secondary materials on corruption within State departments/ministries. Some court clerks were unwilling to produce sensitive documents for fear of risking their jobs, while others demanded bribes to provide the service through the back-door. We nonetheless purchased some published materials, such as the Ghana Constitution, the Criminal Code, from bookshops. For this reason, most of the evidence on gender sensitive organisational policies relies heavily on the interviews and questionnaires.

3.2.1. Conclusion

34. In sum, the above provides a description of how fieldwork was conducted in Ghana to achieve Research Aim One. For ease of reference, the research method for Research Aim One has been diagrammatically presented in Figure 1 below

FIGURE 1: RESEARCH METHOD AIM 1



4.0 RESEARCH AIM TWO

4.1. Level of Gender Sensitivity in Organisational Performance

35. Research Aim Two was designed as an organisational survey to obtain relevant data on the extent to which national anti-corruption agencies perceive their work as being gender sensitive. As with Research Aim One, we used the gender mainstreaming framework as guiding principles to data collection procedures for Research Aim Two. Unlike Research Aim One, however, there is particular emphasis here on perceptions of gender sensitivity in the operationalisation of anti-corruption measures. For brevity and ease of measurement in this sub aim, gender-sensitivity was defined as the recognition of the impact or effect of policies on the vulnerabilities of women and men (see section 1.1).
36. For this sub-component, the emphasis was on capturing the perceptions of staff of anti-corruption agencies on whether gender is mainstreamed into their operations and the extent to which they consider gender concerns an integral part of measures to combat corruption. Closely linked to this was the need to capture staff perceptions on how organisational operations could undermine the enjoyment of human rights. Here, special emphasis was placed on the right to due process of the law, privacy and to presumption of innocence until proven guilty. Prior to fieldwork, we hoped that this organisational survey will unearth invaluable data that could highlight potential areas of conflict between measures to combat corruption and the enjoyment of human rights from a gendered perspective. At the end of fieldwork, however, we realised that because national anti-corruption agencies (e.g. Serious Fraud Office) and dual-mandated agencies (e.g. Commission for Human Rights and Administrative Justice) derive their mandate from the Constitution and Parliamentary Acts, they are often boxed into operational systems which have limited capacity to integrate gender analysis into their operations (see findings paper for details).
37. Data collection strategy for Research Aim Two is outlined below.

4.1.1. Data Collection Strategy

38. Primary units of analysis in this organisational survey largely constituted national anti-corruption agencies, mandated by statutory law to combat corruption. Where applied, dual mandated agencies (agencies combating corruption and promoting human rights simultaneously) were also included in the survey. In Ghana, organisations that were visited included the Serious Fraud Office (SFO), Commission for Human Rights and Administrative justice (CHRAJ), Auditor General's Department, Ghana Police, Ghana News Agency, the National Commission for Civic Education and the High Court.
39. Another pre-fieldwork assumption was that we will explore whether these organisations have formal anti-corruption policies/measures, or whether their processes are ad hoc, i.e. informed by current politico-social realities. This, we thought, was absolutely essential not only for better understanding of how anti-corruption instruments could undermine or promote gender considerations, but also to highlight whether and how the presence, or the lack thereof, of blue printed policies could inform both gender sensitivity and human rights in the battle against corruption. As mentioned previously, it turned out that these institutions derive their mandate from the Constitution or an Act of Parliament which is gender blind, and as such lack depth in terms of gender sensitisation programming in anti-corruption work.

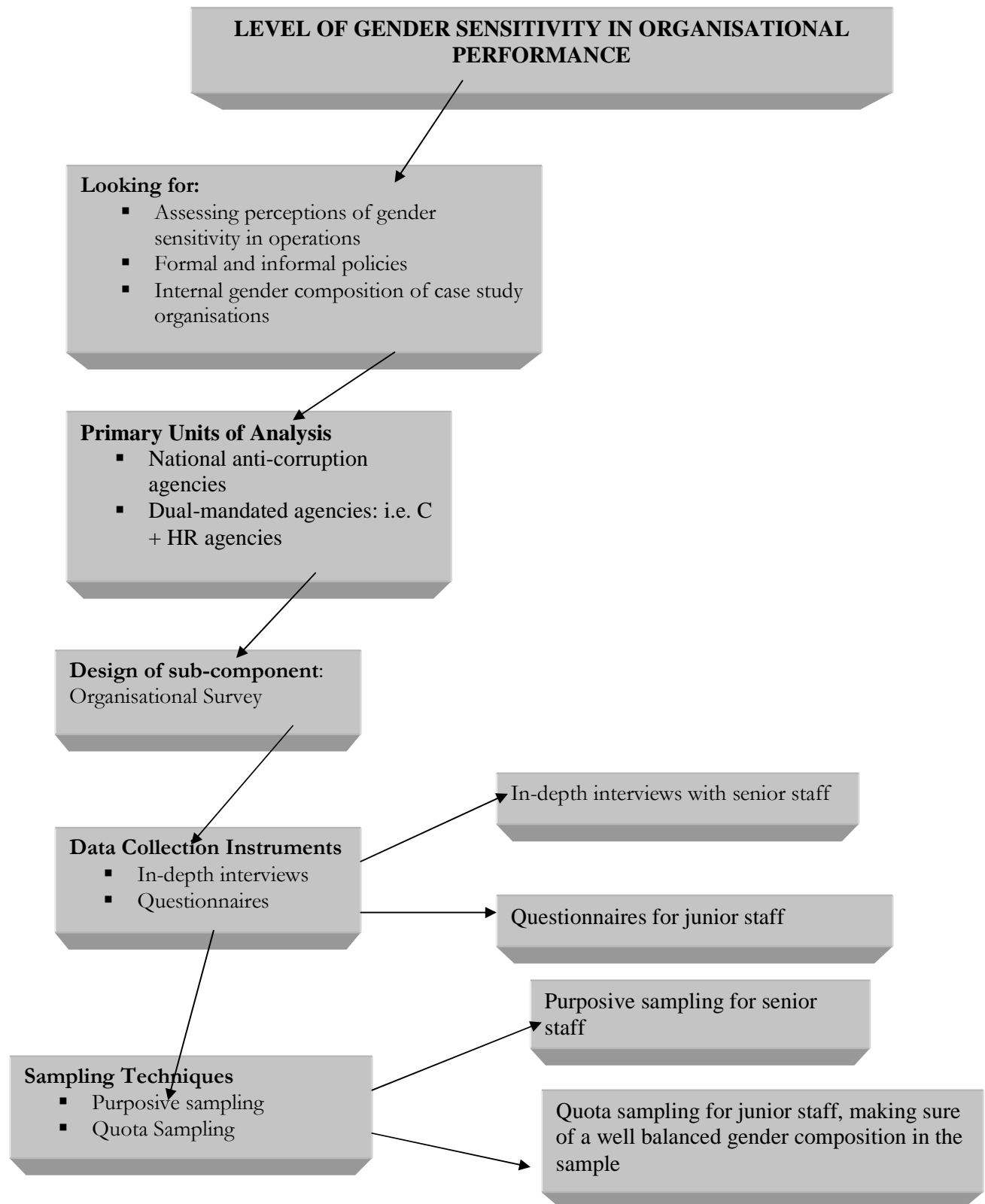
4.1.2. Data Collection Instruments

40. Just as with Research Aim 1, this sub-component of the project employed in-depth interviewing to collect data on staff perceptions on organisational performance vis-à-vis gender and human rights. It should be highlighted at this point that some of the units of analysis here were cross-cutting with those in Research Aim One. As a consequence, we incorporated questions that will resolve Research Aim Two into that of Research Aim One. This helped avoid the high possibility of interviewing a person twice under the same project. Not that this approach itself is inherently bad, but it would have been time consuming and more intensive to engage and excite especially senior staff to honour two interviews.
41. While in-depth interviews were conducted with senior staff of these organisations, we served questionnaires to junior staff. Perhaps, we should clarify that while the interviews for this project was built into the interviews for Research Aim One, the questionnaires for the junior staff under this sub-component was not be built into the questionnaires for junior staff under Research Aim One. The primary reason for this is that both research aims have disparate objectives. The consequences of merging two research aims into one questionnaire could manifest in a very lengthy questionnaire, which may deter participants from responding; hence a low returns rate of questionnaires. Besides, not all junior staff under Research Aim One were included in the sample to answer Research Aim Two, hence producing a single questionnaire for both to respond would have been inappropriate.

4.1.3. Sample

42. Depending on the size of the organization, quota-sampling techniques were used to ensure that diverse groups within the organization were sufficiently incorporated into the study. Quotas were used to select the numbers of women, men, junior staff and other relevant categories as deemed fit by the researcher. This ensured wide representation of diverse groups and views in the sample.

FIGURE 2: RESEARCH AIM TWO



5.0 RESEARCH AIM THREE

5.1. Public Perceptions of Impact of Corruption on Gender and Human Rights

43. This research component was aimed at addressing the question as to whether women and men perceive the impact of corruption on gender and human rights differently. Answering this question required collecting quantitative data on public perceptions of the impact of corruption on human rights and then disaggregating this by gender during analysis. The main data collection technique employed was thus a public perceptions survey, using a carefully selected sample to ensure an acceptable level of representativeness and generalisability. It was thought that a well selected probability sample should be able to contain sufficient numbers of men and women, with socio-economic characteristics that are representative of the areas from which they are drawn. Better still, the sample should be able to capture individuals who have experienced, witnessed, or been involved in corruption and/or human rights violation.
44. To triangulate data from the survey, focus group discussions were organised, particularly to reflect on deeper explanations for any noted differences in men and women's perceptions of how and when corruption impacts on human rights. These explanations might be cultural or contextual and understanding these influences can be best achieved through focus group discussions. The section on focus group discussions highlights some other advantages that this approach to data collection brought to the project.

5.1.1. *Sample survey*

Sample for public perceptions survey

45. Because of logistical limitations, the sample for this study was drawn from the capital cities of the study countries. While we agree that there might be variations in the perceptions of impacts of corruption between urban and rural populations, the main form of stratification for this study was not spatial, but gender. It was believed that any variations, in perceptions of the impact of corruption on human rights identified, between women and men in the capital cities can be safely extrapolated to reflect the country case study situation.
46. Within the capital cities, attempts were made to select a random sample. This was accomplished in two key stages:
 - First, the city was divided into a number of clusters based on electoral constituency. Within these clusters, we decided to draw random samples from 3 constituencies on the basis of three crude classifications: a) a slum area (called Nima) with low levels of education and socio-economic development. (b) An affluent area (Legon and East Legon) with relatively high levels of education and largely consisting of middle and upper class citizens. (c) A mixed area (Pokuase) comprising both the poor and middle class.
 - Second, within each of the three selected spatial units, 50 households were selected randomly.
47. In each of the selected households, the head or spouse was interviewed. Owing to the fear that this approach could generate data from largely men, as men tend to be heads of households, we made special efforts to interview female spouses. In cases where none

of the two was available, the next senior member of the household, based on age and gender, was interviewed.

5.1.2. *Focus Group Discussions (FGD)*

48. Focus Group Discussions was used as one of the principle methods in this study, within the adopted multi-method framework. It, thus, served the purpose of correcting data on several aspects of this study in its own right besides triangulating information gathered from the sample survey and interviews.
49. While, the development and initial usage of FGD as a data collection technique can be traced to market research, the technique has gradually gained currency and widespread use in social sciences academic research. Powell et al (1996:499) define focus groups as “a group of individuals selected and assembled by researchers to discuss and comment on, from personal experience, the topic that is the subject of the research”. The goal of focus groups is “to draw upon respondents’ attitudes, feelings, beliefs, experiences and reactions...that are more likely to be revealed via the social gathering and interaction which being in a focus group entails” (Gibbs, 1997:2). The approach taps into people’s underlying assumptions and theoretical frameworks and draws out how and why they think the way they do. It is these attributes of FGDs that make it suitable for eliciting information on group perceptions and experiences of corruption and human rights violations.
50. Focus group discussions in this project was aimed at eliciting information on various ways in which corruption manifests itself, experience of corruption and human rights violation, mechanisms available for redress. Compared to other data collection methods, focus groups offer certain advantages that make them important for studies of the genre we undertook. One of the main advantages that focus groups provided in this study is that participants had more confidence in discussing issues that they would have held back in a one-to-one interview, for fear of being personally associated with the views. Within the FGD environment, the views expressed are owned by the group and it is often easy for FGD participants to assume the role of spokespersons/representatives of their group from which they are drawn. Furthermore, during discussions on experiences in the distant past, the study is likely to benefit from the combined memories of the participants in the group.
51. Successfully conducting focus group discussions demand meticulous planning with regard to recruiting participants and organising appropriate venues. Ideally focus groups should contain 6 – 12 people although there has been cases where as few as 4 participants or as many as 15 have been used (Krueger, 1994). The number of groups also varies from study to study, while focus group sessions last from one to two hours (Morgan, 1998). The choice of venue (s) for the conduct of focus group discussion also needs careful attention to avoid either negative or positive associations with particular sites or buildings (Powell and Single, 1996). Arguably, the most critical task is the determination of the composition of the groups and recruiting the participants. Groups could be homogeneous or heterogeneous in composition and each of the two options has strengths and weaknesses, though Morgan (1988) argues that it is more appealing to participants to be in the former than the latter. Once the composition has been determined, recruitment can be conducted by word of mouth, through ‘gate-keepers’, by advertising or poster campaigns or through existing social networks (Gibbs, 1997). It might be necessary to provide incentives either as a cover for any expenses met or gift vouchers/presents. During the course of the discussions, attempts ought to be made by

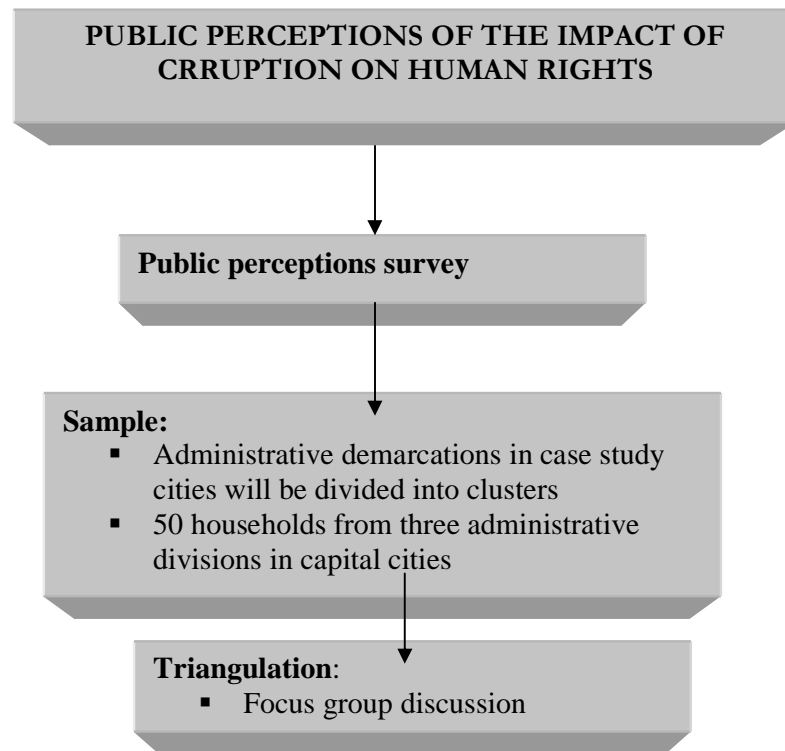
the researcher or moderator to facilitate rather than control the process, as urged by Bloor et al (2001).

52. As far as this particular project is concerned, three focus groups were recruited from the selected sample survey study areas. The groups were mainly distinguished by their gender composition and included male-only, female-only and mixed sex groups. Each focus group comprised six members to ensure that the discussions remain focused.
53. As part of the organisation for the FGDs, conveniently located venues, with an environment conducive for discussions, were identified. The lead researcher moderated the discussions, while the research assistant was tasked with attending to the voice recorder and taking notes of the discussions. In all cases, consent was sought from the participants before using the voice recorder and taking pictures.

Sample for focus group discussion

54. The selection of focus groups was undertaken after taking a preliminary analysis of the survey data. A quick review of the survey questionnaires (structured interview schedules) helped the researcher identify interesting respondents that were contacted for involvement in the group discussions. These included individuals who report to have been victims/beneficiaries of corruption; experienced human rights violation connected to corruption; or witnessed corruption and/or human rights abuse. At the end of each questionnaire administration, each interviewee was asked if they were happy to participate in a focus group discussion if selected. For those who responded in the affirmative, a mechanism of contacting, or tracing them, was noted on the questionnaire in a manner that did not compromise our commitment to confidentiality.

FIGURE 3: RESEARCH AIM THREE



6.0. DATA ANALYSIS

55. Given that there is ample intersection and crosscutting between the data collection methods used for each of the three major study aims, a unified description of the data analysis process is presented here. Therefore, rather than focusing on the particular research aims, what is presented below is a brief description of the different ways in which the collected quantitative and qualitative data were analysed.
56. The analysis of quantitative data collected from this study was accomplished using SPSS and Excel software.
57. Qualitative data analysis is often the aspect of the research process that is not reported about. Burgess (1984:183) notes that there are no laid-down rules and no set rigid procedures for qualitative data analysis. What is important is that “organisation, reflection, commitment, thought and flexibility are as essential to data analysis as they are to data collection”. Drawing on Burgess (1984), the researcher kept three types of field notes- substantive, methodological and analytic. Substantive notes involved, wherever possible, the continuous recording of the situations, events and conversations in which the researcher participated. These were based on the interviews and observations as well as things such as the rich description of the setting and the events. This was done even when a voice recorder was used. Methodological notes, on the other hand, were based on the researcher’s reflections on her activities in the field. This included taking notes of the problems encountered, the impressions, hunches and feelings experienced in the course of collecting data. These notes enabled the researcher

to be reflexive and engage in self-analysis during the research process. Finally, the analytic notes covered some of the preliminary analyses made while in the field. They included the researcher's first ideas and interpretations of what might explain specific observations made in the field.

58. With these notes and the useful themes generated from the project, it was possible to simplify and abstract any amount of qualitative data from interviews and FGDs. The data was disaggregated into a series of fragments, which were then grouped under a series of thematic headings, such as nature of corrupt practices, human rights violated etc. It is at this stage that links with the other two theoretical components of the project were invoked to help explain what is emerging from the data.

7.0. CONCLUSION

59. As indicated in the introduction, this paper is aimed at presenting the methodology employed to collect data which will help us understand the impact of corruption on the human rights of men and women in Ghana. Another fieldwork is scheduled to take place in India, using this methodology as a guide. We hope to contrast the outcomes of the India findings with those emerging from Ghana. While an attempt was made to make the methodological approaches as specific and detailed as possible, some field-related nuances/realities necessitated modifications to suit the varying circumstances of Ghana.
60. While, for organisational purposes, thoroughness and analytical clarity, the paper sought to deal with each of the three key research questions separately, it should be emphasised here that the data collection process handled these questions concurrently. Furthermore, data analysis did not wait for the completion of data collection – an iterative approach between the different stages and elements of the research was adopted.

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