

Chapter One

The Basic Concepts of Rapid Qualitative Inquiry (RQI)

Main Points

1. RQI is intensive, team-based ethnographic inquiry using triangulation, a focus on the insider's perspective, and iterative data analysis, and additional data collection to quickly develop a preliminary understanding of a situation.
2. In most situations the terms Rapid Qualitative Inquiry (RQI) and Rapid Assessment Process (RAP) are interchangeable. While I have become convinced that RQI may be a more accurate description and may make the process more accessible than RAP, I continue to use both terms.
3. The phrase "Rapid Qualitative Inquiry" defines the methodology and the acronym, RQI, communicates the essential ingredient for successful implementation.
3. RQI allows a team of at least two individuals to quickly gain sufficient understanding of a situation to make preliminary decisions for the design and implementation of applied activities or additional research.
4. Results often can be produced in as few as four or five days, but often requires several weeks.
5. RQI uses the techniques and shares many of the characteristics of traditional qualitative research, but differs in two important ways: (1) more than one researcher is always involved in data collection and teamwork is essential for data collection using multiple techniques and **triangulation**; and (2) more than one researcher is involved in an iterative approach to data analysis and additional data collection.

6. The intensive teamwork for data collection and analysis is an alternative to prolonged fieldwork and produces results that provide insights into the perspective and world view of the participants in the local system.
7. RQI is especially appropriate for a variety of situations where qualitative research is needed.
8. RQI can be used for monitoring and evaluation.
9. Sometimes **survey research** is not an option for initial research because not enough is known to prepare a questionnaire.

Example One: Student Services at a Community College

The new dean at a community college in the Pacific Northwest was made to understand during her interview for the position that there was serious discord in the Student Services Division. After being offered the position, Pat (a pseudonym) was told that she was expected to contribute to a “healing” process. By November of Pat’s first term, she realized the rift was greater than she had anticipated, but that many of her actions to bring about change were being warmly received by many in the division. Pat knew that there were no easy solutions to the organizational **culture** issues in the division, and hoped that an examination of this culture could contribute to reconciliation and help individuals refocus on the mission of the division and the college. Pat instinctively knew that the history of the different conflicts was too long and the issues too complex for research based on a set of questions to be administered to everyone. She assumed that there would be a very low level of participation in research based on questionnaires, even if appropriate questions could be identified. Pat also knew that the community college did not have the

luxury of the extensive time and other resources required for traditional qualitative research. At this point, she requested a Rapid Assessment Process (RAP), an activity that is the same as a Rapid Qualitative Inquiry as described in this book, of the organizational culture of the division. She knew that there was a need to listen to the stories of individuals involved and from these stories to quickly identify some possible interventions.

Staff in the Student Services Division and administrators from the college directly linked to the Student Services Division who contributed to the study, usually by being interviewed, are referred to as participants. Most of the participants' comments were grouped into categories and identified as constraints to the ability of the people involved to do the best job possible. There was a general consensus that performance was not always as good as it should be, and that most people truly wanted to do better. **Participants** identified numerous, often interrelated constraints. The six most often identified constraints were: (1) communication; (2) physical space; (3) technology; (4) utilization of people's time, talents, and creativity; (5) increases in the number and complexity of regulations; and (6) inadequate resources.

While there was general agreement that the purpose of working in student services was to provide services to students, there was significant disagreement about the student population and what it meant to serve them. "Students are the reason why I'm here" was a view expressed by almost everyone interviewed. Several individuals, however, objected to the use of the word "service" to describe the relationship with students. One participant suggested that students view services

as things they are entitled to and people who provide services as their servants. For some participants, the defining characteristic of service was being “available.” This was identified as being an especially important aspect of service for “walk-in traffic.” Most participants appeared to recognize a difference between students needing merely “regular” services, such as academic advising, and “high-maintenance” students needing help with issues such as immigration/visa problems and emotional and mental-health problems.

Several participants consistently used the words “customers” or “clients” instead of “students.” There was significant disagreement about the characteristics of the student population and how this had changed over time. Some indicated that “our students have always had special needs,” while others pointed to an increase in the number of students with special needs, especially resulting from “overstress in personal academic life choices.” A few participants noted their students were less prepared for college now than students in the past had been; one participant said, “students do not comprehend written communication and have trouble with verbal communication.” Another participant noted, “We are doing more handholding than we used to do.” One person, who had worked at the college for over three decades, said there had been a change in general life experiences that affected preparedness, especially with regard to readiness in a professional/technical arena. Another participant shared a story told to him by one of the technical instructors of a student who was asked to get a Phillips screwdriver from the tool crib, and who returned empty-handed, saying that all he could find was a “Stanley.”

Several participants expressed surprise that changes in the characteristics of the student population were even being discussed. “I wasn’t aware that there are major changes” in the student population, one participant commented. One participant suggested that perhaps the changes were not in the students, but in the staff, saying that the staff had grown older and that maturity had changed perceptions. “I’m not the bleeding heart liberal I was when I started,” this participant added. Some students were described as aggressive and “bullying” in demanding services from staff, “expecting everything to be given to them and believing it’s always someone else’s fault when things went wrong.” Other students were described as lacking sufficient skills to request services they needed and were entitled to. The argument was that, for some students, there was a need for advocacy on their behalf. An individual dealing with special needs students offered a plea for greater effort to ensure that “no one drops between the cracks” and that his colleagues should realize that this request was not for special advantages, but for a “level playing field.”

Teams were organized around the constraints identified by the research and everyone working in the division was asked to participate on at least one team. Funding was made available that teams could apply for to address some of the constraints. The identification of serious differences in how individuals who work in the division understand the terms “students” and “services” resulted in constructive dialogue between the different factions.

Example Two: Village in the Western Sudan

The soils are sandy, the rain sparse and unpredictable, and the temperatures often above 110°F at the edge of the Sahara Desert in the western Sudan. Here, rural families survive during the better years through a combination of agriculture, livestock, and submission to the will of Allah. Margins for error are extremely slim. The adoption of an inappropriate agricultural intervention could mean ruin for the family and irreversible damage to the environment.

In the early 1980s the U.S. Agency for International Development was providing assistance to Sudan to establish an agricultural research center in western Sudan to help address these issues. The survival strategies of rural households in that environment were not fully understood by outsiders. Mohamed el Obeid, a Sudanese agricultural development specialist, and I spent one week in 1982 in a village northwest of al Ubayyid (el Obeid), the provisional capital of North Kordofan (Beebe 1982). My objective was to experiment with the new research methodology called “Rapid Appraisal.” The time in the village was amazing. We spent our days talking with groups of farmers or individuals. We conducted interviews about farming practices in the farmers’ fields. We had extensive conversations with the village religious leader and the owner of the only shop (one of only two structures made of sun-dried bricks in a village where all the other structures were made of grain stalks and straw). We visited a slightly larger village where farmers could sell grain and other agricultural products. We spent our nights trying to figure out what we had learned and were often joined by men from the village who used our presence as an opportunity to discuss life in general, including the plans of one of

the slightly more prosperous inhabitants to take a second wife. The structure imposed by the rapid research methodology allowed us to quickly understand some of the important concerns of the residents of the area. Prior to our visit to this village, the assumption of both Sudanese and American agricultural research scientists was that individual farmers were free to move at any time between gum arabic production (using the nitrogen-fixing tree *Acacia senegal*) and field crops such as sorghum and millet. Attention to their descriptions of crop rotations, especially when this was discussed with farmers in their fields, where crops could be observed, suggested that decisions by a farmer's neighbors could be a significant constraint. Gum Arabic trees harbor birds and if a neighbor's large gum arabic trees were too near, this would prevent the farmer from planting field crops until the neighbor was also ready to cut down his gum arabic trees and plant field crops. Subsequent research by Reeves and Frankenberger (1981) on agricultural practices in North Kordofan showed that adjacent fields were often cultivated by farmers who were related and that this also played a role in timing the rotation of a field from gum arabic production to field crops. Recognition of constraints on the decision-making abilities of individual farmers had a significant impact on the approach to farming systems research and extension proposed for the western Sudan.

The Need for the Insider's Perspective

Despite the many kilometers that separate the village in western Sudan and the community college in eastern Washington, the two situations share an important characteristic. Both are complicated situations where initially not enough was known to develop a questionnaire. Only the insiders in each of these situations were

in a position to define the elements of their systems and identify those elements that were most relevant to the issues they faced. The insiders in the Sudanese village knew at least intuitively that they could not change their crop-rotation pattern without attention to the actions of their neighbors, but it is unlikely that a question could have been formulated in advance that would have elicited this information. Likewise, it is unlikely that a question could have been developed to elicit information on the different ways staff at the community college defined students and services, since there was no reason for outsiders (or even many of the insiders) to think this was an issue. Another characteristic shared by these two situations was that results were needed quickly and that, even if the results had not been needed quickly, there were not sufficient resources for traditional, long-term fieldwork. The approach to research that focuses on getting the insider's perspective is referred to as "qualitative" research or inquiry. In chapter 2, I will return to the relationship between the insider's perspective and qualitative research when discussing case study and ethnographic approaches (see Ethnography, p. XX; Case Study, p. XX; Emic and Etic, p. XX).

Rapid Qualitative Inquiry and Intensive Team Interaction

Rapid research similar to what was done at the community college in the Pacific Northwest and in the village in western Sudan provides a way to investigate complicated situations in which issues are not yet well defined and where there is not sufficient time or other resources for long-term ethnographic research or traditional case study research. RQI shares many of the characteristics of qualitative research, especially case study and ethnographic approaches to qualitative research.

However, RQI substitutes intensive, team interaction in both the collection and analysis of data for the prolonged fieldwork normally associated with qualitative research. RQI can be expected to produce solid qualitative results that will be different from those produced by longer-term fieldwork. In some cases, intensive team interaction over a short period may produce better results than a lone researcher over a long period. RQI will almost always produce results in a fraction of the time and at less cost than traditional qualitative research.

Basic Concepts and Their Relationship to Research Techniques

RQI uses the techniques and shares many of the characteristics of qualitative research, especially the focus on the need for an insider's perspective. RQI differs in two important ways: (1) more than one researcher is always involved in data collection and the teamwork is essential for data collections; (2) researchers use an explicitly iterative approach to data analysis and additional data collection with time allocated for both. The intensive teamwork for both the data collection and analysis is an alternative to prolonged fieldwork for producing solid qualitative results. RQI allows a team of at least two individuals to quickly gain sufficient understanding of a situation to make preliminary decisions for the design and implementation of applied activities or additional research. While the length of time suggested for RQI is recognized as arbitrary, my experience has convinced me that a minimum of four or five days is usually required for iterative data analysis and additional data collection, an issue I will return to in subsequent chapters (see *Too Little or Too Much Time*, p. XXX).

The three basic concepts of RQI define its relationship with traditional qualitative research and allow solid results to be produced quickly. The three basic concepts are:

1. The focus is on getting the insider's perspective.
2. Intensive teamwork is critical for data collection from multiple sources and as part of the triangulation of data collection.
3. Intensive teamwork during the iterative process of data analysis and additional data collection.

Adherence to these concepts can provide a flexible but rigorous approach to the rapid collection and analysis of data.

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RQI is defined by its three basic concepts instead of by a specific set of research techniques. While, traditionally, some research techniques have been associated with rapid research methods, these methods are not necessarily required. Specific research techniques for use in a given RQI are chosen from among a wide range of techniques available to qualitative researchers and are chosen based on the specific topic being investigated and the resources available to the team. Specific techniques used in a RQI can vary significantly depending on the situation.

Figure 1.1 illustrates the relationship of the basic concepts and illustrative research techniques associated with them. As noted above, the listed research techniques are not the only way of achieving the basic concepts, but are techniques that have been found to work together under some field conditions.

<Figure 1.1 about here>

When To Use RQI

I have identified complex situations where the categories and words used by the local people involved in a situation are not known, as the type of situations where RQI may be the most appropriate approach. I will try to make the case throughout this book that if results are needed quickly, RQI may be the only choice. RQI is also appropriate for a variety of situations where qualitative research is needed, even if there is no time constraint.

Creswell (2013) identified several situations where qualitative research is especially appropriate that apply to RQI. The first situation described by Creswell is where “a problem or issue needs to be explored” (47). Exploration is described as needed to identify variable “that cannot be easily measured” and to “hear silenced voices” (48). Qualitative research is described as empowering individuals to share their stories and minimizing power relationships that exist between participants and a researcher. Especially relevant to RQI is Creswell’s contention that qualitative research is appropriate for understanding an issue by allowing people to tell their stories “unencumbered by what we expect to find” (48).

Willis (2007) identified understanding, and especially understanding in context, as the central objective for qualitative study. Willis’ concern is with understanding that can be communicated to others and used for decisions. According to Willis, understanding informs decision makers with ideas that can be tried out and considered as guidelines but not “truths” (121-122). Qualitative study is not the search for universal truths, but attempts to find local truths and better understanding (123).

RQI is not an appropriate methodology if quantifiable results are needed, such as the percentage of individuals in different categories. RQI may be the appropriate methodology for identifying the most relevant categories, and the most appropriate labels for these categories, but the research to collect and analyze such data is usually not produced by RQI.

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Using RQI for Monitoring, Evaluation, and Midcourse Corrections

RQI can be used for monitoring and evaluation (see Miles and Foster-Fishman 2007). The identification of specific midcourse corrections during the implementation of an activity is another task for which a RQI may be useful. When ongoing monitoring of an activity suggests problems with implementation and the causes of these problems are not obvious, a RQI team can explore questions as fundamental as whether the local people and the parties responsible for the activity agree on what constitutes success and failure. A RQI approach is especially useful in identifying the unexpected. A report based on a few weeks work and delivered immediately allows for midcourse corrections. A report prepared by a team in a situation where local people have been full partners increases the chances that recommendations for changes can be implemented, and increases the opportunities to implement changes, even before the recommendations have been made formally.

When faced with the limitations of time and resources, the temptation can be to make a very quick visit with the most easily reached local participants. This is sometimes referred to as “**research tourism**.” Another temptation is to do a questionnaire survey even when there is agreement that the most important issues

have not yet been identified, and that the categories and words with the greatest relevance to the local people are not known. The rationale seems to be that something needs to be done, and that anything, even research tourism, is better than nothing.

Use of RQI When Survey Research Is Not a Good Option

The story of the two neighboring villages in Africa, one where almost all the babies under one year of age were boys and another where almost all were girls, has become part of the folklore of health-care development workers. The villages were identified as a result of a survey of health and mothers' knowledge of health-care practices for children under one. The storyteller usually relates, empathetically, that the study was funded by a major international donor and implemented by a professional researcher who had carefully prepared the questionnaire and trained and supervised the field staff who carried out the interviews. The results were so surprising that local ministry personnel were sent to the villages to investigate. What they reported after their visits to these villages is more interesting than the original "results." The mothers in the first village considered boy babies much more desirable than girl babies and, when asked about their children, tended not to mention the girls. Thus the village appeared to have almost no girls. The mothers in the second village also considered boy babies more desirable than girl babies. However, in this village mothers did not tell strangers about their boys out of fear that if they brought attention to their sons, harm would seek out the boys. Thus the village appeared to have almost no boys. Like so much folklore, it is not possible to identify the source of this story.

Survey research based on questionnaires, a group of written questions to which individuals respond, have been used and misused worldwide. When faced with the need for information about situations, researchers have often tended to do a survey. Survey research has been viewed as reliable, producing similar answers every time the questionnaire is administered, and relatively quick when compared to traditional ethnographic research. My argument is that often **survey research** is not an option for initial research because not enough is known to prepare the questionnaire. To prepare a questionnaire, you need to be able to identify the relevant elements of a situation, the specific categories that are important to the respondents, and the words they use for these categories. Since a questionnaire cannot identify unanticipated, site-specific relationships, it is limited to validating relationships articulated in advance.

Unless questionnaire survey research is based on the categories and vocabulary of the respondents and the context of the data is understood, the results may not be valid measures of what they purport to measure. Such results can be reliable without being valid, since different researchers administering similar questionnaires would likely get the same results.

An experiment by Stone and Campbell (1984) designed to examine the accuracy of practices, attitudes, and knowledge (PAK) surveys concerning fertility and family planning in Nepal illustrates this. Stone and Campbell hired and trained interviewers to administer the Nepal Fertility Survey to women in three villages. They then cross-checked the information on the survey forms by using other methods, including casual conversations and unstructured interviews. During the

survey, 36 percent of the respondents claimed they had not heard of abortion. When Stone and Campbell asked about awareness of abortion, 100 percent knew about abortions and one individual even maintained “that is was inconceivable that someone had not heard of [it].” Stone and Campbell suggest that part of the explanation is that abortion is considered a “religious sin” and that some respondents were “insulted by the question” (1984, 31). When they talked to the respondents who had indicated during the survey that they had not heard of abortion, every respondent had reinterpreted the question to make it more threatening. They found that respondents had interpreted the question on whether they had “heard of abortion” as a question on knowledge of technique or knowledge of who had had an abortion. They found that every woman who had reported little knowledge of family planning in the survey reported that they had difficulty understanding the questions and had been embarrassed by them.

Some of them stressed that they were not able to respond to these questions because the interviewers were male. Others said it didn’t matter so much that they were male, the problem was that they were strangers. And several women mentioned that they simply could not respond to the questions because other relatives and neighbors were present. (31)

Stone and Campbell identify cultural reinterpretation and problems of context as the factors that influenced the results and noted that these can be problems for research done in the United States as well as research done overseas.

Specific problems have been identified with survey research on sexual behavior, voting, and geographical knowledge that may be relevant to other survey research as well. Clement suggested that there are two sources of error, invalid answers and volunteer bias, in research about sexual behavior. He noted that the **validity** of answers depends upon the ability of respondents to remember and their readiness to share the information, and that these are influenced by how the questions are posed (Clement 1990, 46). He specifically noted problems with cross cultural research, including research within the United States but at different universities or with different ethnic groups. Despite increases in the sophistication of survey research methodology and analysis for political/voting surveys, results have become more problematic even while they have become more accurate. More and more individuals are simply refusing to provide answers to pollsters and increasing numbers identify themselves as “undecided,” even when they have decided. Other issues include limited knowledge about issues, changes in when individuals can vote and the growth of mail-in voting (see Traugott 2005). Surveys on respondents’ knowledge of geography have found “astonishing geographic ignorance.” Phillips (1993) argued that these findings are the result of asking the wrong question. He noted that the questions are usually based on the categories used by geographers and not the mental images of people whose images are not “map-like.” Phillips argued for the increased sensitivity to the nature of geographic mental representation as a basis to evaluate geographic knowledge. In all three of these examples, questions that fail to consider the cultural context with specific attention to the definitions and categories of the respondents have produced answers with limited **validity**.

It is sometimes incorrectly argued that survey research is quicker and can be done with less-experienced, less-qualified researchers, compared with RQI and other approaches to rapid research. Data collection by survey sometimes requires less time, but data analysis almost always takes more time. Data usually must be coded, entered into a computer, and then analyzed in separate steps and at places removed from the research site. Survey enumerators may have to make fewer independent decisions than a qualitative researcher does, but good survey research cannot be carried out without training and close field supervision. In addition, special training in instrument design and data management ensures that survey research usually does not include local participants as full members on the research team (Chambers 2008, 5-22).

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RQI may identify the need for questionnaire survey research to supplement its results. As noted above, RQI cannot provide information on the percentages of respondents in different categories, and this information can be critical. Survey research can provide this type of information. However, RQI can provide the categories, vocabulary, and context necessary for the preparation of the questionnaire. The argument here is not against using questionnaire surveys, but against using them as the first step for trying to understand complex situations before local categories are known. In addition, a RQI may be a better starting point for some research because of its ability to discover relationships within the situation that may not have been anticipated. The use of techniques associated with RQI does

not guarantee success in identifying important relationships, but initial research on complex situations based on a questionnaire often ensures that they will be missed.

RQI and Appreciative Inquiry

Appreciative Inquiry focuses on identifying what is going well, determining the conditions that make excellence possible, and encouraging those conditions within the organizational **culture**. RQI can greatly benefit from an Appreciative Inquiry approach, but does not require it. Hammond (2013) described Appreciative Inquiry as a way of thinking, seeing, and acting for purposeful change in organizations. She suggested that the focus for traditional organizational development consultants is looking for problems and that looking for problems ensures they are found and made bigger. Hammond contrasted traditional organizational development with Appreciative Inquiry as in Figure 1.2.

<figure 1.2 traditional versus appreciative about here>

The assumptions of Appreciative Inquiry are:

1. In every society, organization, or group, something works.
2. What we focus on becomes our reality.
3. Reality is created in the moment and there are multiple realities.
4. The act of asking questions of an organization or group influences the group in some way.
5. People have more confidence and comfort to journey to the future (the unknown) when they carry forward parts of the past (the known).
6. If we carry parts of the past forward, they should be what is best about the past.

7. It is important to value differences.

8. The language we use creates our reality (Hammond 2013, 14-15).

Appreciative Inquiry is based on engaging the entire system in a discussion of what works, with analysis focused on discovering what could be. The future is “envisioned” through an analysis of the past and the best of the past is maintained and stretched into the future (Hammond 2013).

The Need for Caution about the Use of RQI

Robert Chambers’s observation concerning Rapid Appraisal also applies to RQI, in that there is a danger it “could be over-sold, too rapidly adopted, badly done, and then discredited, to suffer an undeserved, premature burial as has occurred with other innovative research approaches” (1991, 531). As already noted, when numerical data is needed, RQI by itself will probably be an inappropriate methodology, but it might contribute to the design of a survey questionnaire to collect numerical data. When situations are especially complex or when an entire cycle, such as a growing season or a school year, needs to be investigated, long-term qualitative research may be necessary. There may be situations where it is culturally inappropriate for a team of researchers to interview an individual. Other valid reasons for concern about RQI include spending too little time on the activity, failure to consider the political and economic context, problems with team composition, choice of respondents and informants, and a failure to recognize a difference in power between the team and the local community. To date there has been a general lack of confirmation of RAP findings. RQI, along with other qualitative research methods, lacks credibility with some funding agencies, while

other funding agencies have very unrealistic expectations about what RQI can accomplish and sometimes pressure researchers to do RQIs in inappropriate situations. These issues will be discussed in more detail in chapter 6 (see Problems with Credibility, p. XXX).

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In the next chapter, I will discuss the first of the three basic concepts, the one relating to the focus on understanding the insiders' perspectives. In the subsequent chapter I will explore the closely related topic of the **data collection, triangulation,** and intensive teamwork necessary to begin to understand the insider's perspective. Because of their relevance to RQI, ethnography and case study approaches to qualitative will be discussed. However, since this is not intended to be a book about ethnography, case study, and qualitative research in general, issues can only be introduced and you are encouraged to refer to the additional readings listed at the end of the chapters for more information. The specific techniques that are introduced are those that have proven to be most relevant to RQI. Most of the techniques are designed to help facilitate the telling of stories as opposed to the eliciting of answers. Others are designed to ensure that the RQI team records data in ways that will make the data useful and easier to analyze. A specific RQI may use only a few of these techniques and may use other techniques that are not covered. One of the strengths of RQI is that it is not based on the use of a specific list of techniques.

Additional Readings

The readings listed below are some of the most-often cited references dealing with rapid research methods. Even though Scrimshaw and Gleason (1992) focuses on

health programs, material in this book will be useful to researchers from a variety of fields.

Chambers, Robert. 1991. "Shortcut and Participatory Methods for Gaining Social Information for Projects." *In Putting People First: Sociological Variables in Rural Development*. Edited by M. M. Cernea. 515–37. 2nd ed. Washington, DC: Oxford University Press, World Bank.

Chambers, Robert. 2008. *Revolutions in Development Inquiry*. London: Earthscan

Hammond, Sue A. 2013. *The thin book of appreciative inquiry*. 3rd ed. Plano, TX.: Thin Books.

Khon Kaen University. 1987. *Proceedings of the 1985 International Conference on Rapid Rural Appraisal*. Khon Kaen, Thailand: Rural Systems Research and Farming Systems Research Projects.

Kumar, K. 1993. *Rapid Appraisal Methods*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Scrimshaw, N., and G. R. Gleason. 1992. *Rapid Assessment Procedures: Qualitative Methodologies for Planning and Evaluation of Health Related Programmes*. Boston: International Nutrition Foundation for Developing Countries.

Van Willigen, J., and T. L. Finan. 1991. *Soundings: Rapid and Reliable Research Methods for Practicing Anthropologists*. Washington, DC: American Anthropological Association.

TEXT BOXES:

<textbox1.1>RQI is defined by the basic concepts of a focus on the insider's perspectives, **data collection** from multiple sources and their triangulation, and iterative analysis, and additional data collection, and NOT by the use of specific research techniques.

<textbox1.2>RQI may not be appropriate if numbers or percentages are needed.

<textbox1.3>Beginning research on complex situations with questionnaires may result in the failure to identify important relationships.

<textbox1.4>There are numerous situations where RQI is inappropriate!

