

week 2 /INTRODUCTION TO QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

• **Research** : is defined as a planned course of action that aims to understand a phenomenon or find answers to research questions (Johnston, 2010).

• All research (Quantitative and Qualitative):

1. Seeks **answers** to questions.

2. Utilized a predetermined group of procedures (methods) to get these answers.

3. **Collects** data.

4. Generates results that **were not determined** in advance.

5. Generate results that are **often applicable beyond** the immediate boundaries of the study.

RESEARCH DESIGN

• The blueprint for performing the research.

• The scheme or action plan for achieving the objectives of the research (Research questions should be finalised before deciding the research design).

• The logical sequence that connects the data to a study's initial research questions and, ultimately, to its conclusions.

• It includes how the study will be conducted, type of data that will be gathered, the means (tools and techniques) to be used to obtain these data, sample size, and research setting.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

• Research **Methodology**: The pathway or approach of action that justifies the selection and employment of certain methods (Adams, Khan, Raeside, & White, 2007).

• Research **Methods**: The means of execution of the research (Adams, Khan, Raeside, & White, 2007).

WHAT IS QUALITATIVE RESEARCH?

• Qualitative research is linked to the **"Quality" concept**.

• Quality refers to the **How, and Why of a thing**.

• Qualitative research refers to the **meanings, concepts, definitions, characteristics, symbols, and descriptions** of things.

• Qualitative research provides a holistic view for the social phenomenon.

• Qualitative research answers **"how"** questions rather than **"how many"** :

"It looks at X in terms of how X varies in different circumstances rather than how big X is or how many Xs there are".

• Qualitative research seeks to understand a given research problem from the perspective of the local population it involves.

• It is effective in obtaining culturally specific information about values, opinions, behaviors, and social contexts of specific populations.

• Describes how people experience a given research issue.

WHAT IS QUALITATIVE RESEARCH? CONT'D

- Qualitative research offers unique opportunities for understanding complex situations (Austin & Sutton, 2014).
- Qualitative research seeks to understand the phenomenon under study in the context of the culture or the setting in which it has been studied (naturalistic) (Al-Busaidi, 2008).
- Adjectives like: **Rich, Deep, Thick** used when talking about qualitative research.

The qualitative perspective

"I want to understand the world from **your** point of view. I want to know what **you** know in the way you know it. I want to understand the meaning of **your** experience, to walk in **your** shoes, to feel things as you feel them, to explain things as you explain them. Will **you** become my teacher and help me understand?"

James P. Spradley (1979)

Bryon 1998 also mentioned :

major **characteristic** of qualitative research is that it enables a researcher to understand the social phenomenon the meanings attributed in participants in the social setting or context in which they occur.

According to Mattered 2001

The **aim** of qualitative research is to identify the meaning of a social phenomenon the way the participants experience it and also perceive it

Characteristics of Qualitative Research

- The focus is on process, understanding, and meaning;
- The researcher is the primary instrument of data collection and analysis;
- The process is inductive;
- The product is richly descriptive.

We will explain each one :

Focus on Meaning and Understanding

- Qualitative researchers are interested in how people interpret their experiences, how they construct their worlds, what meaning they attribute to their experiences.
- Patton (1985) explains:

[Qualitative research] is an effort to understand situations in their uniqueness as part of a particular context and the interactions there. This understanding is an end in itself, so that it is not attempting to predict what may happen in the future necessarily, but to understand the nature of that setting — what it means for participants to be in that

setting, what their lives are like, what 's going on for them, what their meanings are, what the world looks like in that particular setting — and in the analysis to be able to communicate that faithfully to others who are interested in that settingThe analysis strives for depth of understanding. (p. 1)

Researcher as Primary Instrument

- A second characteristic of all forms of qualitative research is that the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis.
- Since understanding is the goal of this research, the human instrument, which is able to be immediately responsive and adaptive, would seem to be the ideal means of collecting and analysing data.
- Other advantages are that the researcher can expand his or her understanding through nonverbal as well as verbal communication, process information (data) immediately, clarify and summarize material, check with respondents for accuracy of interpretation, and explore unusual or unanticipated responses.

The process is inductive.....

- Often qualitative researchers undertake a qualitative study because there is a lack of theory or an existing theory fails to adequately explain a phenomenon.
- Another important characteristic of qualitative research is that the process is inductive; that is, researchers gather data to build concepts, hypotheses, or theories rather than deductively testing hypotheses as in positivist (quantitative) research.
- Bits and pieces of information from interviews, observations, or documents are combined and ordered into larger themes as the researcher works from the particular to the general.

Deduction : theory ≥ hypotheses ≥ observation ≥ conclusion

Induction : observation ≥ pattern ≥ hypotheses ≥ theory

Rich Description of the end product (في صورته من بحث مش مهمه كثير ارجعلها لو ما فهمت)

- The product of a qualitative inquiry is richly descriptive.
- Words and pictures rather than numbers are used to convey what the researcher has learned about a phenomenon.
- There are likely to be descriptions of the context, the participants involved, and the activities of interest.
- In addition, data in the form of quotes from documents, field notes, and participant interviews, excerpts from videotapes, electronic communication, or a combination of these are always included in support of the findings of the study. These quotes contribute to the descriptive nature of qualitative research.

QUALITATIVE VERSUS QUANTITATIVE (CONT'D)

- Qualitative and quantitative methods give different, complementary pictures of the things we observe (Lune & Berg, 2016; Al-Busaidi, 2008).

• Qualitative is linked to Quality WHEREAS Quantitative is linked to Quantity (فسر الماء ب الماء).

- Qualitative studies involve the systematic collection, organization, description and interpretation of textual, verbal or visual data

(Hammarberg, Kirkman, & de Lacey, 2016).

- Quantitative studies generally involve the systematic collection of data about a phenomenon, using standardized measures and statistical analysis (Hammarberg, Kirkman, & de Lacey, 2016).

Qualitative vs. Quantitative Research

	Qualitative Research	Quantitative Research
Purpose	Discover ideas; develop a detailed and in-depth understanding of a phenomenon	Test hypotheses or specific research questions
Approach	Observe and interpret	Measure and test
Data Collection Methods	Unstructured; free-forms	Structured; response categories provided
Researcher Independence	Researcher is intimately involved; results are subjective	Researcher is uninvolved; results are objective
Sample	Small samples – often natural setting	Large samples to allow generalization
Most often used in:	Exploratory research designs	Descriptive and causal research designs

QUALITATIVE VERSUS QUANTITATIVE (CONT'D)

- Quantitative research leans toward “what” questions, while qualitative tends toward “why” and “how” (Lune & Berg, 2016).
- Ethical considerations are often more complex in qualitative research (Rapport et al., 2018).

WHY TO USE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH?

- The limitations (and criticism) of quantitative approaches have always been taken as a starting point to give reasons why qualitative research should be used (Flick, 2018).
- Qualitative research emphasises that human beings should be studied as agents capable of self reflection and giving meanings to their actions.

ESSENTIAL FEATURES OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

1. Perspectives of the participants and their diversity (Flick, 2018)
2. Reflexivity of the researcher (Flick, 2018).
3. Variety of approaches and methods in qualitative research (Flick, 2018).
4. Subjectivity (Leung, 2015) .
5. Focus on the whole (holistic picture) (Leung, 2015).
6. The methodology is flexible because it may use multiple methods to examine the same question or area (‘triangulation’).
7. Iteration
8. Qualitative research can complement quantitative data. For example, a qualitative phase of research might precede quantitative data collection in order to explore a new area, to generate hypotheses, or to help develop data collection instruments. In turn, qualitative research might follow a quantitative phase of research in order to elucidate and explain the ‘numbers’ or to probe the issues more in depth with a smaller number of individuals

Naturalistic Design

- Naturalistic ” if it took place in a real - world setting rather than a laboratory, and whatever was being observed and studied was allowed to happen “ naturally. ”
- In naturalistic inquiry the investigator does not control or manipulate what is being studied.

PURPOSES OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

- Describe
- Understand
- Explain
- Identify
- Develop
- Generate

MAJOR TYPES OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

- **Ethnographies**, in which the researcher studies an intact cultural group in a natural setting over a prolonged period of time by collecting, primarily observational data. The research process is flexible and typically evolves contextually in response to the lived realities encountered in the field setting.
- **Case studies**, in which the researcher explores in depth a program, an event, a process, or one or more individuals.

- **Narrative research**, a form of inquiry in which the researcher studies the lives of the individuals and asks one or more individuals to provide stories about their lives.
- **Phenomenological research**, in which the researcher identifies the essence of human experiences concerning a phenomenon, as described by participants in a study.
- **Grounded theory**, in which the researcher attempts to derive a general, theory of a process, action or interaction grounded in the views of participants in a study. This process involves using multiple stages of data collection and the refinement and interrelationship of categories of information.

Qualitative Research Question

- Creswell's (2009) example of a script for a qualitative research central question:

(How or what) is the _____ ("story for" for narrative research; "meaning of" the phenomenon for phenomenology; "theory that explains the process of" for grounded theory; "culture-sharing pattern" for ethnography; "issue" in the "case" for case study) of _____ (central phenomenon) for _____ (participants) at _____ (research site).

Papers on various types of Qualitative research

- The tension between person centered and task focused care in an acute surgical setting: **A critical ethnography.**
- An investigation on physicians' acceptance of hospital information systems: **a case study**
- What do patients say about their physicians? An analysis of 3000 **narrative** comments posted on a German physician rating website
- The nurses and physicians perceptions of ethical self-care in their professional relationship with each other: **A phenomenological study.**
- Getting work done: a **grounded theory** study of resident physician value of nursing communication

DATA COLLECTION IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

- Observations
- Interviews
- Documents review/analysis

- **Observations**, in which the researcher takes field notes on the activities and behaviour of the individuals at the research site. In these field notes, the researcher records in an unstructured or semi-structured way, activities at the research site.
- **Interviews**, the research conducts face to face interviews with participants, interviews participants by telephone or engages in focus group interviews with six to eight interviewees in each group. These interviews involve unstructured and generally open ended questions that are few in number and intended to elicit views and opinions from participants.
- **Document review/analysis**, the researcher may collect documents, these may be public documents (newspapers, reports, letters, mails) (Creswell & Poth, 2007)

QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

- Data analysis in qualitative research is an ongoing process involving continual reflection about the data, asking analytic questions, and writing memos during the study.
- It is not sharply divided from other activities such as collecting data. (Creswell & Poth, 2007)
- The first step in qualitative analysis is to develop thorough and comprehensive descriptions of the phenomenon under study (thick descriptions)

Qualitative research process

- Select topic and problem- problem identification.
- Design study
- Select study subjects and data (purposive sampling)
- Interpret results/conclusion
- Justify significance of study
- Identify and gain access to subjects
- Analyse data

APPROACHES TO QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

- There is no 'right' way of doing qualitative research, but some approaches are more appropriate to certain research goals than others.
- Qualitative research design is **emergent**.
- The initial plan for research cannot be tightly prescribed, and that all phases of the process may change or shift after the researchers enter the field and begin to collect data.

Quantitative Versus Qualitative (study design)	Quantitative	Qualitative
	Study design is stable from beginning to end	Some aspects are flexible (addition, exclusion or wording of interview Q)
	Participants responses don't influence how and which Qs asked next	Participant responses affect how and which Qs asked next
	Study design is subject to statistical assumptions and conditions	Study design is iterative= data collection and Qs are adjusted according to what is learned.

WHAT RESEARCH QUESTION CAN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH BEST ANSWER?

- Consider the following:
 - 'Lived experience'.
 - 'Insider' perspective of reality (emic).
 - Emic approach refers to interpretation of the data from the perspective of the population under study (Astalin, 2013).
- Context/ meaning oriented rather than measurement oriented. The information gathered by actually talking directly to people and seeing them behave and act within their context.

QUALITATIVE SAMPLING

- Selection of a sample is a key element of a study design.
- Usually non-probability (purposive or convenience) sampling.
- Convenience sampling allows the researcher to select participants who are readily accessible or available.
- Purposive sampling avails of accessible participants, but it provides **the additional advantage** of facilitating the selection of participants whose qualities or experiences are required for the study.(Bradshaw, Atkinson, & Doody, 2017)

RIGOUR OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

- Rigour refers to the quality of the research.
- Strategies that help in achieving rigour in qualitative research.
 1. Clear descriptions of the sample necessary for the study to be meaningful.
 2. An indication of how and why the sample was chosen.
 3. Engagement with others, such as multiple researchers, in order to code or discuss data widely.
 4. The use of quotations in the representation of data findings.
 5. An assessment of a researcher or group of researchers' assumptions about the data
 6. Clearly defined study design.
 7. Triangulation (examining the phenomenon from different angles; measures, methods, researchers). (Rapport et al., 2018)

TRUST-WORTHINESS OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

- Trustworthiness refers to the assessment of the quality and worth of the complete study.
- Help to determine how study findings reflect the aims of the study, according to the data provided by respondents.
- Trustworthiness has four components:
 1. Credibility (VS internal validity): the confidence that can be placed in the truth of the research findings. Credibility establishes whether the research findings represent plausible information drawn from the participants' original data and is a correct interpretation of the participants' original view
 2. Transferability (VS external validity): refers to the possibility that a qualitative study's theoretical position can be used in other contexts, or with other population groups and that findings can be applied to other contexts, cohorts or population groups.
 3. Dependability (VS reliability): which refers to whether a study's findings could be achieved, and the working methods repeated, were another researcher to conduct the same study.
 4. Confirmability (VS objectivity): ensures that a study's findings are clearly representative of the participants' views, rather than the researchers' preferences. (Rapport et al., 2018)

Rigor and Quality in Research Methods

Quantitative	Qualitative
› Internal Validity	› Credibility (truth value)
› External Validity	› Transferability (applicability)
› Reliability	› Dependability (consistency)
› Objectivity	› Confirmability (neutrality)

Criterion	Strategy employed
Credibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prolonged engagement • Peer briefing • Triangulation • Member checks
Transferability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing thick description • Purposive sampling
Dependability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create an audit trail • Triangulation
Confirmability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Triangulation • Practise reflexivity

FEASIBILITY

- The feasibility of research projects must be considered early on in the design phase of a study, in order to determine whether the research is likely to be successfully completed.
- Researchers need to consider staffing requirements for data collection, and analysis, and the presentation of results, as well as budget constraints, and required time frames.
- For example, asking a group of participants to complete a one hundred-page questionnaire survey or attend a two-day focus group meeting is unlikely to be considered feasible by most people.
- The scope of the project must also be feasible, with refinement of research questions to a focused topic.
- When considering the feasibility of research, the limitations of researcher expertise must also be taken into account.

(Rapport et al., 2018)

LIMITATIONS OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

- The main limitation of qualitative research is that their findings cannot be extended to wider populations with the same degree of certainty that quantitative analyses can (limited generalisability) . (Atieno, 2009)

Check Your Understanding Question Which of the following is true about qualitative research?

- A. Data are usually collected in a laboratory setting.
- B. Focus is on studying the “whole”.
- C. Focus is on generalisation.
- D. Qualitative research is deductive

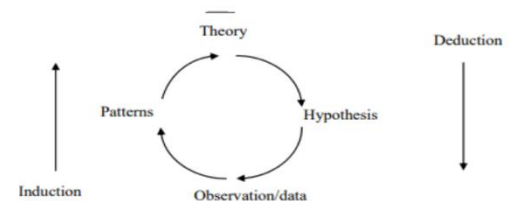
3rd week

RESEARCH PARADIGMS

Emic- Etic distinction

- Terms addressing rules of language.
- Emic from phonemic
- Etic are from phonetic .
- Emic refers to constructs or behaviours that are unique to an individual, sociocultural context that are not generalizable. For example, the Jewish High Holy Days or the Christian Easter celebration are not universally acknowledged, as these concepts are religion specific
- Etic refers to universal laws and behaviours that transcend cultures and apply to all humans. For example, the concept that people are biological organisms is an etic concept in that we all need to eat, drink, and sleep to survive.

The 'research wheel', adapted from Johnson and Christensen (2004:18) قد عمر دفعه السناقر

Research paradigm

- Meaning of “paradigm” in the English Cambridge Dictionary

“Model of something, or a very clear and typical example of something”

- ORIGIN: late 15th century.: via late Latin from Greek **paradeigma**, from **paradeiknunai** ‘show side by side,’ from para- ‘beside’ + deiknunai ‘to show.’

“**Paradigms** are general framework or view points : literally „points from which to view“. They provide ways of looking at life and are grounded in sets of assumptions about the nature of reality” (Babbie, 1998)

BACKGROUND ABOUT RESEARCH PARADIGM

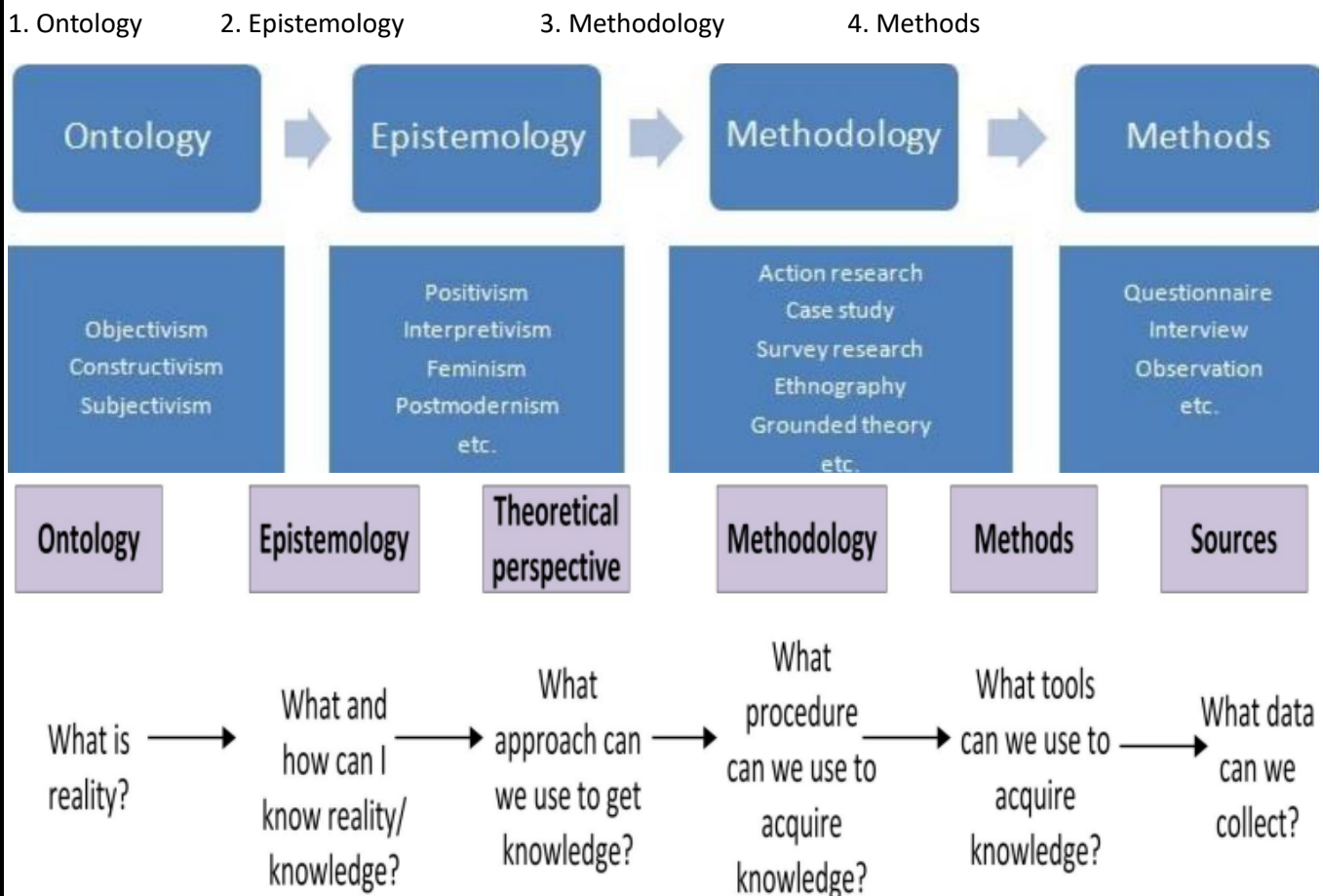
- The word paradigm was first used by the American philosopher Thomas Kuhn (1962) to indicate **to philosophical way of thinking.**
- The word paradigm has its origin in Greek where it means **pattern.**
- A research paradigm is “the set of common beliefs and agreements shared between scientists about how problems should be understood and addressed” (Kuhn, 1962).
- It includes the abstract beliefs that shape how a researcher views the world, and how s/he interprets and performs within that world.(Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017)
- It is not a methodology, but a philosophy that directs the process of research in a specific manner.

- **Paradigm is:**

- o The way of comprehension of the world reality and investigating it (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016).
- o The framework that directs research and practice in a field (Willis, Jost, & Nilakanta, 2007).
- o The lens by which the researcher can view and comprehend the reality (Shek & Wu, 2018).

- The paradigm and the research questions determine data collection and analysis methods most suitable for research (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006).
- The selected paradigm should guide the selection of the research methodology.
- It is important for the quality of the process that there is coherence throughout the research between the paradigm and method. (Creswell & Clark, 2007)

COMPONENTS OF RESEARCH PARADIGM



Ontology and epistemology are to research what 'footings' are to a house: they form the foundations of the whole edifice. (Grix, 2004, p. 59).

ONTOLOGY

- The term Ontology is from two Greek words (**onto**, which means 'being or existence' and **logia**, which means 'science, study or theory' (Antwi & Hamza, 2015).
- A view of the nature of reality - whether it is external or internal to the knower (Willis, Jost, & Nilakanta, 2007).
- Ontology identifies the nature and shape of social reality and what can be recognized about this reality (Antwi & Hamza, 2015).

- The ontological questions are:

❖ What is the form and nature of reality?

❖ Is this reality external to social actors?

Examples of ontological questions

- What is a thing?
- What are the fundamental parts of the world?
- How they are related to each other?

ONTOLOGY (CONTINUED)

- There are two broad contrasting positions:

1. Objectivism: holds that there is an independent **reality- External reality**

2. Constructionism: assumes that **reality** is the product of social processes- **Constructed reality**.

- The ontological question leads the investigator to ask what type of reality is existent: **a single, reality or socially constructed several (multiple) realities**. (Patton, 2002)

Epistemology

- Epistemology : The study of knowledge

➤ Its nature

➤ Its possible scope

➤ Its necessary limits

- The term epistemology comes from the Greek word **epistēmê**, which means knowledge or understanding (Trochim & Donnelly, 2001).

- Epistemology is the **philosophy of knowledge** or how we come to know (Trochim & Donnelly, 2001).

- Epistemology is closely linked to ontology and methodology (Krauss, 2005).

- Ontology involves the philosophy of reality, epistemology addresses **how we come to know that reality** while methodology identifies the particular practices used to attain knowledge of it (Krauss, 2005).

- Put simply, in research, epistemology is used to describe how we come to know something; how we know the truth or reality;

Types of Knowledge

1. Practical knowledge: knowledge that is skills-based, e.g. being able to drive or use a computer.

2. Knowledge by acquaintance: knowledge that doesn't involve facts but familiarity with someone or an objects, e.g. I know my mother, I know what an apple looks like.

3. Factual knowledge: knowledge based on fact, e.g. I know that the sun rises every morning – I know it is true.

- Epistemologists are concerned **with propositional knowledge**.

- **Knowing- that** some proposition is true.

- Epistemologists typically do not focus on procedural or acquaintance knowledge, however, instead preferring to focus on **propositional knowledge**.
- A proposition is something which can be expressed by a declarative sentence, and which purports to describe a fact or a state of affairs, such as "Dogs are mammals," " $2+2=7$,"
- Note that a proposition may be true or false; that is.
- Statements of propositional knowledge (or the lack thereof) are properly expressed using **"that"**-clauses
- For example, "He **knows that** Houston is in Texas," or "She does **not know that** the square root of 81 is 9."

A proposition is a sentence expressing something true or false

- The contentor meaning of a meaningful declarative sentence that may be true or false
- the meaning of such a sentence: I am warm always expresses the same proposition whoever the speaker is

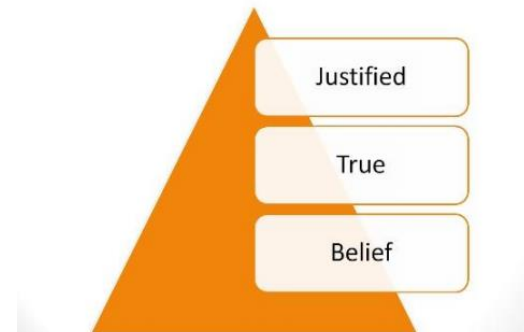
What is Knowledge?

Tripartite Analysis of Knowledge

Knowledge= Justified True Belief

Three Conditions of Knowledge.

1. The Truth condition.
2. The Belief condition.
3. The Justification condition.



The Truth Condition

- Most epistemologists have found it overwhelmingly reasonable that **what is false cannot be known**.
- For example, Hillary Clinton did not win the 2016 US Presidential election. Consequently, nobody knows that Hillary Clinton won the election. One can only know things that are true.

The Belief condition

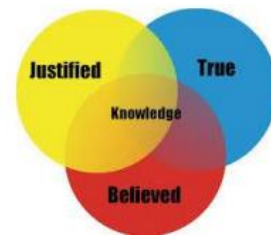
- The general idea behind the belief condition is that you can only **know what you believe**.
- Failing to believe something precludes knowing it.
- One might "believe" something by virtue of being pretty confident that it's probably true.
- Someone who considered Clinton the favourite to win the election, might be said to have "believed" that Clinton would win.

The Justification condition

- In the JTB account of knowledge, knowledge is a **true-belief which is justified**.
- Propositional knowledge requires justification.
- It requires that a knower has adequate indication that a known proposition is true. That adequate indication constructs a sort evidence and such evidence is known as **epistemic justification**.
- Epistemic justification is needed to exclude co-incidentally true belief such as lucky guess mark, and to provide for the adequate relation between the belief and truth condition for propositional knowledge.

Knowledge as Justified True Belief

- What do we mean when we say we know something like, "I know my friend Tom is sitting next to me' "?
- Or, in formal terms, what does " know that p' mean?
- Traditionally, it means three things:
 - We have to believe that p.
 - Our belief in p has to be justified, warranted or backed up by sufficient evidence.
 - Our belief in p has to be true.



EPISTEMOLOGY (CONTINUED)

- A related view of the type of knowledge that can be generated and standards for justifying it (Willis, Jost, & Nilakanta, 2007).
- Epistemic understanding determines type of knowledge available to, or required by the researcher to place them within a given topic area (Rapport et al., 2018).

• Epistemological Questions:

- ❖ What does knowledge mean? ❖ "How is knowledge acquired?" ❖ How do we know what we know?
- ❖ How can the researcher come to know this reality? ❖ What is the basis for true knowledge?
- ❖ Are there limitations to what we know?

±± Singular truth (reality) is assumed, then the researcher must be one of **objective** detachment to be able to reveal , how things really are?

±± Multiple realities are assumed, then the researcher would reject the idea that people should be investigated like objects of natural sciences. Rather, they need **subjective** understanding of the phenomenon in its contexts.(Patton, 2002)

METHODOLOGY

- A disciplined approach to generating knowledge (Willis, Jost, & Nilakanta, 2007).
- The pathway or approach of action that justifies the selection and employment of certain methods (Crotty, 1998).
- O'Sullivan et al. explicitly defined research methodology as the steps researchers use to collect and analyse data.
- The steps involve:

- (a) deciding when and how often to collect data;
- (b) developing or selecting measures for each variable;
- (c) identifying a sample or test population;
- (d) choosing a strategy for contacting subjects;
- (e) planning the data analysis; and
- (f) presenting the findings

- **METHODOLOGY** guides the researcher in deciding what type of data is required for a study and which data collection tools will be most appropriate for the purpose of his/her study.
- The methodological question leads the researcher to inquire how the world should be studied. (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016)

METHODS

- The means of collecting and analysing data.
- Selection of methods depend on the design of the study and the research questions. (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016)

METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

Methodology can be viewed as a map, and the method can be viewed as a sequence of steps to move between two points on this map (Jonker & Pennink, 2010).

KEY RESEARCH PARADIGMS

- | | | | |
|----------------|----------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------|
| 1. Positivism. | 2. Post positivism . | 3. Constructivism (interpretivism). | 4. Pragmatism |
|----------------|----------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------|

POSITIVISM

- Positivism sees social science as an organized method for combining **deductive logic** with **precise empirical observations** of individual behaviour in order to discover and confirm a set of **causal** laws that can be used to predict **general** patterns of human activity. (Neuman & Kreuger, 2003)
- Positivism postulates that reality exists independently of humans (social construction) and the reality is controlled by unchangeable laws (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016).
- Positivism suggests that it is possible to formulate these laws and describe them using genuine statements (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016).
- It is frequently utilised to test theories or hypothesis (Taylor & Medina, 2011).
- The social world is treated like the natural world (**cause-effect relationship between variables**). Therefore, it is possible to make probabilistic **predictions and generalizations**.
- The reality is context free (the researchers will get similar conclusions regarding the phenomenon in different times and places, no complete understanding of the phenomenon)= insensitivity to context, complexity and change.
- The epistemological position is **objectivism** (Researchers are objective observers to examine phenomena that exist independently of them and they do not influence the observed phenomenon). (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016)
- Observation and verification are essential features of positivism.
- knowledge is objective and quantifiable.
- The world is real and not socially constructed.

- Positivism is the primary base for quantitative research (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016).
- Synonymous with Scientific method, Empiricism, and Objectivism (Mack, 2010).
- Scientific research in a positivist paradigm focuses on prediction.
- The hypothetico-deductive model of science is used to facilitate the research process, taking a theory-verification approach.
- Research operates in an objective world, where the researcher does not interact with study participants to minimize bias.
- Theories of nature depend on empirical data, with larger samples used to make generalizations.

CRITICISM OF POSITIVISM PARADIGM

- The issue of separation between the researcher and the researched phenomenon, and of considering that the researcher and the researched phenomenon have an independent existence has been claimed as problematic.
- It has been argued that it is impossible for the researcher to investigate particular events without permitting for researcher interests and values interfering or interacting with the investigation.

POST POSITIVISM (CRITICAL REALISM)

- Post positivism appeared as a result to criticism directed toward positivism.
- Assumptions:
- o Reality exists independent of the observer.
 - o Potential of the researcher's beliefs and values affecting the observed phenomenon. (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016)
- Post positivism rejects the neutrality and human detachment that are characteristic of logical positivism.
 - It is a revolt against the limitations of positivism which (positivism) solely associates itself with empiricism and rejects the existence of individual/subjective perspective of facts.
 - Post-positivistic paradigm promotes the triangulation of qualitative and quantitative methods that explores the diversity of facts researchable through various kinds of investigations but respecting and valuing all findings as the essential components for the development of knowledge
 - One of the most prominent characteristics of post positivist research is using triangulation within and between methods (Bisman, 2010).
 - It has been well established that mixed method is the preferred technique/ method of post positivists in order to explore multiple viewpoints to gain deeper consideration of the research problem (McEvoy & Richards, 2006).
 - Researchers in the postpositivist tradition **are critical realists** in that they support the notion that objects exist, but this recognition is accompanied by an understanding that some cannot be observed by the senses or experimentally tested. Knowledge is, then, always open to further investigation and the truth of any matter is always forthcoming.

CONSTRUCTIVISM (INTERPRETIVISM)

- Aims to :

- o Understand the social phenomenon in its context (**contextualised investigation**).

- o Understand how people make sense of their world and, thereby, **construct** meaning.

- Depends on qualitative data collection over an extended period of time (e.g. ethnography and case studies).

- Researchers interact with the subjects of study to obtain data (research is based and depends on the researcher's interests).

- Data analysis approach is inductive, i.e. the researcher attempts to discover patterns in the data, categorise them under broad themes to understand a phenomenon and generate theory. (Krauss, 2005)

- The main distinction between constructivism philosophy and positivism relates to the fact that while positivism argues that knowledge is generated in a scientific method, constructivism maintains that knowledge is constructed by scientists

- Interpretive research does not predefine dependent and independent variables, but focuses on the **full complexity of human sense making as the situation emerges** (Antwi & Hamza, 2015).

- The constructivism philosophical paradigm is associated with the qualitative research approach. This is the case **because**:

1. the paradigm seeks to understand a phenomenon under study from the **experiences or angles of the participants**.

2. Also, the researcher **constructs meanings** from the phenomena under study through **his own experiences and that of the participants in the study**.

3. In his quest to find the true state of the situation under study, he sometimes **engages** in the activities as they are carried out by residents in **the natural settings** so that he experiences it himself or see others experiencing it.

4. Moreover, like the qualitative researcher, constructivists assert that reality is **subjective** because it is from the individual perspectives of participants engaged in the study and are **thus multiple or varied**.

- In general, qualitative research is based on constructivist ontology:

- o No objective reality.

- o There are multiple realities (i.e. truths, worldviews) constructed by human beings who experience a phenomenon of interest. (Krauss, 2005)

- Researchers spend enough time with the participants in their natural contexts to feel confident that they are capturing the real facts of the phenomenon under study. Spending far too little time in research settings is a serious flaw in constructivist work.

- Research is considered to be of good quality if it has:

- Credibility (internal validity).

- Transferability (external validity).

- Dependability (reliability).

- Confirmability (objectivity).

The differences between constructivism and positivism paradigm

Philosophy	Constructivism	Positivism
Type of research	Qualitative	Quantitative
Methods	Open-ended questions, emerging approaches, text and/or image data	Closed-ended questions, pre-determined approaches, numeric data
Research practices	Positions researcher within the context Collects participant-generated meanings Focuses on a single concept or phenomenon Brings personal values into the study Studies the context or setting of participants Validates the accuracy of findings Interprets the data Creates an agenda for change or reform Involves researcher in collaborating with participants	Tests or verifies theories or explanations Identifies variables of interest Relates variables in questions or hypotheses Uses standards of reliability and validity Observes and then measures information numerically Uses unbiased approaches Employs statistical procedures

PRAGMATISM

- Pragmatism is not always referred to as a paradigm or philosophy of science since it is not **committed to a single philosophy**.
- Pragmatism originates from the Greek word **pragma**, which means action, activity or the work done.
- The philosophy that encourages people to find processes that work in order to achieve the desired ends.
- It is rather concerned with the best practical way to answer a research question. As such **the research question is the pivotal point for the selection of method**.
- Pragmatism is mostly associated with mixed methods research.
- Pragmatic approach is 'to rely on a version of **abductive reasoning** that move back and forth between induction and deduction' to connect theory and data.
- It can convert observations into theories and then assess those theories through action.
- This abductive process is often employed by researchers who **combine** qualitative and quantitative methods in a sequential fashion where the inductive goals of a qualitative approach are based on the deductive results from a quantitative approach, and vice versa.

PRAGMATISM

Advantages;

1. Helps to provide a **more complex understanding** of the problem that would otherwise not have been assessable by using only a single approach (qualitative or quantitative ones)
2. pragmatism brings quantitative and qualitative approaches together **to build on their strengths and weaknesses**. The strength of qualitative is often the weakness of the quantitative approach and vice versa. Qualitative research, due to the limitations related to a small number of stakeholders that could be interviewed and topics that could be discussed during the interviews, cannot claim for bringing insights on the breadth of the issues. In the contrary, quantitative studies

DONE BY MUHAMMAD SULIMAN

FIRST 6 lectures of qualitative research and their past papers

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often fail to address the depth of reactions and contextual factors.

Challenges:

Time and commitment for the research.

4th week

Qualitative Data Collection Methods- 1

Qualitative research

- One of the strengths of qualitative research is its ability to explain processes and patterns of human behavior that can be difficult to quantify.
- Phenomena such as experiences, attitudes, and behaviors can be difficult to accurately capture quantitatively, whereas a qualitative approach allows participants themselves to explain how, why, or what they were thinking, feeling, and experiencing at a certain time or during an event of interest.
- Quantifying qualitative data certainly is possible, but at its core, qualitative data is looking for themes and patterns.
- Qualitative research can help expand and deepen understanding of data or results obtained from quantitative analysis.
- For example, say a quantitative analysis has determined that there is a correlation between length of stay and level of patient satisfaction, but why does this correlation exist?
- This scenario shows one way in which qualitative and quantitative research could be integrated together.

Qualitative Data Collection Methods

Interviews	Focus Groups	Observation
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Interviews

- Interviewing may be defined simply as a conversation with a purpose. Specifically, the purpose is to gather information.
- The interviewer asks questions and the interviewee, called the informant, the respondent, or sometimes the subject, provides the answers.

What do we mean by interview?

- Interview method is the art of questioning and interpreting the answers (Qu & Dumay, 2011).
- Advantages

****Use of open-ended questions gives participants the opportunity to respond in their own words, rather than forcing them to choose from fixed responses.

****They allow the researcher the flexibility to **probe** initial participant responses - that is, to ask why or how. Thus aid in further elaboration on their answers (Stuckey, 2013).

Interviews

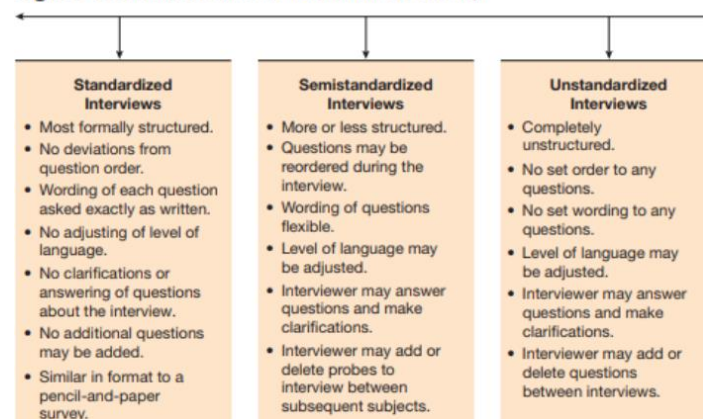
- Interviews can take place in an individual (one to one) or a group setting (focus group).

- Types of individual interviews:

*Structured (formal, standardized)*Unstructured (informal, non standardized)*Guided Semi-structured (semi-standardized).

- The major difference among these different interview structures is their degree of rigidity with regard to presentational structure.

Figure 4.1 Interview Structure Continuum of Formality



Structured (standardized) interviews

- Structured interviews (standardized) (Qu & Dumay, 2011)

- The interviewer asks interviewees a series of pre-established questions.

- The structured (standardized interview) uses a formally structured “schedule” of interview questions, or script. The interviewers are required to ask subjects to respond to each question, exactly as worded.

- The rationale here is to offer each subject approximately the same stimulus so that responses to questions, ideally, will be comparable.

- The questions would be asked in the same order for all respondents.

- Structured interviews are rigid as the interviewer reads from a script and deviates from it as little as possible.

- Since researchers take a very active role in question design, there is a possibility that they inadvertently or overtly bias data collected.

- Highly standardized procedures are designed to substantially reduce the probability of the results being influenced by the interviewer’s bias.

- Standardized interviews are useful when the data to be gathered concerns tangible information such as recent events or relatively simple matters of opinion.

- They are also a preferred method when multiple interviewers or teams are to conduct comparable interviews in different settings.

- Keeping each interview on the same track makes it possible to aggregate the data despite differences among the interviewers or the subjects.

- In sum, standardized interviews are designed to elicit information using a set of predetermined questions that are expected to elicit the subjects’ thoughts, opinions, and attitudes about study-related issues.

- A standardized interview may be thought of as a kind of survey interview.

- Standardized interviews measures tangible facts, without further probing questions about informants' thoughts or interpretations.
- Standardized interviews are frequently used on very large research projects in which multiple interviewers collect the same data from informants from the same sample pool.
- This format is also useful for longitudinal studies in which the researcher wishes to measure, as closely as possible, exactly the same data at multiple points in time.

A typical standardized interview schedule might look like this job history:

1. At what age did you get your first full-time job?
2. What was the job?
3. How long did you work there?
4. Did you have another job offer at the time that you left this job?
5. What was your next full-time job?
6. How long did you hold that job?
7. How many times, if ever, have you quit a job?
8. How many times, if ever, have you been laid off?
9. How many times, if ever, have you been fired from a job?

Unstructured (unstandardized) interviews

- More flexible , do not use predefined questions.
- Synonyms: Informal conversational interview, and ethnographic interview (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).
- Rely entirely on the spontaneous generation of questions in the natural flow of an interaction (Patton, 2002).
- Can be considered as a natural extension of participant observation, because they so often occur as part of ongoing participant observation fieldwork (Patton, 2002).
- It is accepted that the structure of the interview can be loosely guided by a list of questions, called an aide memoire or agenda (McCann & Clark, 2005).
- Aide memoire or agenda is a broad guide to topic issues that might be covered in the interview, rather than the actual questions to be asked.
- Unlike interview guides used in structured interviewing, an aide memoire or agenda doesn't determine the order of the conversation and is subject to revision based on the responses of the interviewees (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).
- Note-taking is a traditional method for capturing interview data. But in an unstructured interview, note-taking is likely to disrupt the natural flow of the conversation. Thus, when possible, it is preferable to audio record the interviews by tape or digital recorder (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).
- No specific questions need to be scripted. As much as possible, the interviewer encourages the informant to lead the conversation. In place of an "interview schedule," researchers prepare a looser set of topics or issues that one plans on discussing, possibly with a preferred order in which to address them.
- These "interview guidelines" serve as notes, or possibly a checklist, for the interviewer. One way or another, by whatever route you and your informant follow, the guidelines indicate the subject matter that you intend to cover.
- Naturally, unstandardized interviews operate from a different set of assumptions than those of standardized interviews.

Unstructured (unstandardized) interviews

- First, interviewers begin with the assumption that they do not know in advance what all the necessary questions are. Consequently, they cannot predetermine a complete list of questions to ask.
- They also assume that not all subjects will necessarily find equal meaning in like-worded questions—in short, that subjects may possess different vocabularies.
- Rather than papering over these individual differences, by forcing each interview down the same path, an unstandardized interview encourages and pursues them.
- The individual responses and reactions are the data that we want.
- The unstandardized interview process is much more like a regular conversation in which the researcher responds to the informant as much as the other way around.
- Or to think of that differently, the subject determines the flow of topics, rather than the interviewer.
- The prepared guidelines keep the conversation heading in the right direction while the details are generated in the verbal exchange itself.
- The interview is therefore like an improvised performance in which the performers have agreed in advance on the underlying themes and purposes, but left the details to be worked out in the moment.
- Loosely structured interviews are sometimes used during the course of field research to augment field observations.
- For example, Diane Barone (2002) undertook a field study that examined literacy teaching and learning in two kindergarten classes at a school considered to be at risk and inadequate by the state. Barone conducted observations in the classrooms and wrote weekly field notes. In addition, however, she included ongoing informal interviews with the teachers throughout the year long study.
- Such unstructured interviews, or conversations, permit researchers to gain additional information about various phenomena they might observe by asking questions.
- Unstructured interviews are optimal for dynamic and unpredictable situations, and situations in which the variety of respondents suggests a wide variety of types of response.
- Consider the following two hypothetical answers to the same question.

Interview 1

- Interviewer: What do you plan to do when this job draws to a close?
- Respondent: Well, I have a few options that I'm looking into, but I might just use the downtime to finish my training certification.

Interview 2

- Interviewer: What do you plan to do when this job draws to a close?
- Respondent: Why do you need to know that?

Unstructured (unstandardized) interviews

- Whereas highly structured interviews assume that the researchers and informants share a system of meaning, researchers undertaking loosely structured interviews typically seek to learn the nature of the informants' meaning system itself.
- Instead of assuming that our questions mean the same thing to all subjects, we explore the meaning that each subject brings to or discovers in the questions.
- The basic framework of questions that you have prepared only serves to open the doors to an entirely different discussion. With an unstructured approach, that can lead to a successful interview of surprising richness.
- And surprises are good, because we then learn about important aspects of our topics that we had not known at the start.
- Of course, not all surprises or forms of improvisation are without risk, which is one reason that IRBs are often quite uncomfortable with unstructured interview approaches.

Challenges of unstructured interviews

- **Requires a significant amount of time to collect the needed information (Patton, 2002).**
 - Especially when the researcher first enters the field and knows little about the setting.
 - Because each interview is highly individualized, the length of each unstructured interview session also might be longer than structured interviews.
- **The challenge for researchers to exert the right amount and type of control over the direction and pace of the conversation (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).**
 - When a new topic emerges in the discussion, it is difficult for the researcher to know whether to follow it and risk losing continuity, or to stay on the major theme and risk missing additional useful information (Patton, 2002).
- To develop your skills in controlling unstructured interviews, both training and experience are important (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).
- **Analysing the data gathered by unstructured interviews (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009).**
 - The questions asked in each unstructured interview were dependent on the context of the interview and so can vary dramatically across multiple interviews.
 - Different questions will generate different responses so that a great deal of effort has to be made to analyse the data systematically, to find the patterns within it (Patton, 2002).

Semi-structured (semi-standardized interviews)

- Semi-structured (Semi-standardized) interview can be located somewhere between the extremes of the completely standardized and the completely unstandardized interviewing structures.
- This type of interview involves the implementation of a number of predetermined questions and special topics.
- These questions are typically asked of each interviewee in a systematic and consistent order, but the interviewers are allowed freedom to digress; that is, the interviewers are permitted (in fact, expected) to probe far beyond the answers to their prepared standardized questions.

- Certain assumptions underlie this strategy. First, if questions are to be standardized, they must be formulated in words familiar to the people being interviewed (in vocabularies of the subjects).

Guidelines Development -Question order (Sequencing), Content, and Style

- The specific ordering (sequencing), phrasing, level of language, adherence to subject matter, and general style of questions may depend on the backgrounds of the subjects, as well as their education, age, and so forth.
- Additionally, researchers must take into consideration the central aims and focuses of their studies.
- there are no hard-and fast-rules or rigid recipes for sequencing questions in an interview schedule.
- However, as many writers recommend, it is good to begin with questions that will be fairly easy for the subject to answer, and which are largely questions that are not sensitive or threatening (Grinnell & Unrau, 2005; Trochim, 2005).
- demographic questions are frequently about educational levels, date of birth, place of residence, ethnicity, religious preferences, and the like. Many of these sorts of demographic questions are regularly asked and are likely to receive quick responses with no sense of threat or concern on the part of the interviewee.
- The underlying rationale for this sort of a question sequencing is that it allows the interviewer and the participant to develop a sense of rapport before more serious and important questions are asked.
- As well, it fosters a degree of commitment on the part of the interviewee, since he or she will have already invested some time in the interview by answering these easy questions.
- Of course, you do not want to delay getting into the more important material for too long.
- At the least, you risk establishing a pattern of short questions and short answers that may discourage deeper responses when you need them. At worst, informants may feel ambushed or coerced when you finally get past the easy part and spring some more threatening questions on them.
- But even where the most important questions are not threatening at all, you might have established an undesirable pattern if you had begun with a series of short, irrelevant questions.
- For this reason, it might be best to begin with simple questions that are very much part of the research itself, and not waste your opening on minor details that you already know or don't need

Guidelines Development -Question order (Sequencing), Content, and Style

- The following suggests a **general sequencing of types or categories of questions** for a semi standardized interview:
1. Start with a few easy, nonthreatening questions.
 2. Next, begin with some of the more important questions for the study topic (preferably not the most sensitive questions)—the questions should stick to a single concept or topic.
 3. More sensitive questions can follow (those related to the initiated topic).
 4. Ask validating questions (questions restating important or sensitive questions, worded differently than previously asked).
 5. Begin the next important topic or conceptual area of questions (these may include the more or most sensitive questions).
 6. Repeat steps 3 and 4, and so on, through your major topics.
 7. Return to any key concepts that you might have had to bypass or skim through when they first came up.

8. End by filling in any remaining simple factual points that you have not already recorded

Guidelines Development -Question order (sequencing), Content, and Style

- It is also important to note that each time you change from one topical area to another, you should use some sort of a transition.
- This may be a clear statement of what is coming next, such as: "Okay, now what I'd like to do is ask some questions about how you spend your leisure time." Or, "The next series of questions will consider how your family feels about voting."
- The logic here is to assure that the interviewee is aware of what specific area he or she should be thinking about when answering questions, and to signal an end to the previous topic even when the informant might have more to say.
- Such transitions allow the interviewer to lead the direction of the conversation without taking too much initiative away from the informant.

In order to draw out the most complete story about various subjects or situations under investigation, four types or styles of questions possibly written into the interview instrument:

- | | | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Essential questions. | 2. Extra questions. | 3. Throwaway questions. | 4. Probing questions. |
|-------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|

Essential Questions

- Essential questions exclusively concern the central focus of the study.
- They may be placed together or scattered throughout the survey, but they are geared toward eliciting specific desired information (Morris, 2006).

Extra Questions

- Extra questions are those questions roughly equivalent to certain essential ones but worded slightly differently.
- These are included in order to check on the reliability of responses (through examination of consistency in response sets) or to measure the possible influence a change of wording might have.
- For example, having earlier asked an informant something general, such as, "How well do you get along with members of your family," you might want to return to the subject by asking, "Are there people in your family who you particularly look forward to seeing, or seriously dread seeing?."

Throwaway Questions

- Frequently, you find throwaway questions toward the beginning of an interview guideline instrument.
- Throwaway questions may be demographic questions or general questions used to develop rapport between interviewers and subjects.
- You may also find certain throwaway questions sprinkled throughout a survey to set the interviewing pace or to allow a change in focus in the interview.
- Throwaway questions, as the term implies, are incidental or unnecessary for gathering the important information being examined in the study. Nonetheless, these throwaway questions may be invaluable for drawing out a complete story from a respondent

- On occasion, throwaway questions may serve the additional purpose of cooling out the subject (Becker, 1963; Goffman, 1967).
- On these occasions, a throwaway question (or a series of them) may be tossed into an interview whenever subjects indicate to the interviewers that a sensitive area has been entered upon.
- The interviewer offhandedly says something to the effect of, "Oh, by the way, before we go any further, I forgot to ask you. . . ." By changing the line of questions, even for only a few moments, the interviewer moves away from the sensitive area and gives the interviewee a moment to cool down.
- This change in focus from sensitive issues to simple facts may also help to remind your informants that your goal is to collect information, not challenge, judge, or argue with them. (Of course, as the interviewer you also need to remember that, and avoid reacting emotionally to statements with which you disagree.)
- Throwaway questions are not the only technique for reacting to emotional tension in an interview, and may not be the best.
- At times, it is better to address the matter directly. For example, if you perceive that your respondent is getting agitated or defensive with some line of questioning, you might consider saying, "I hope these questions aren't inappropriate," or "I am getting the sense that you're not entirely comfortable with what I'm asking. Is there a different way of thinking about this topic that I haven't considered?"
- In either case, you acknowledge what appears to be a real emotional response on the part of the respondent and offer them the chance to redirect the conversation, up to a point.
- Pressuring a respondent to answer questions that they don't want to answer is only likely to get you false or highly edited responses. People aren't going to tell you things that they don't want to tell you. But if you can redirect the flow of conversation onto more comfortable grounds, or work to establish a more trusting rapport, you can often continue to discuss the same topic without such tensions. Again, there is a degree of art to the performance

Probing Questions

- Probing questions, or simply probes, provide interviewers with a way to draw out more complete stories from subjects.
- Probes frequently ask subjects to elaborate on what they have already answered in response to a given question.
- For example, "Could you tell me more about that?" "How long did you have that?" "What happened next?" "Who else has ever said that about you?" or, simply, "How come?"
- For example, if an informant is telling stories about things that happened without much examination of the meanings of the events, the interviewer can toss in the occasional "how did that work out for you?" or "why not?" to encourage more reflection from the informant.

• Lofland and Lofland (1984, p. 56) wrote the following:

In interview[s] . . . the emphasis is on obtaining narratives or accounts in the person's own terms. . . . You might have a general idea of the kinds of things that will compose the account but still be interested in what the interviewees provide on their own and the terms in which they do it.

. . . If something has been mentioned about which you want to know more, you can ask, "You mentioned _____; could you tell me more about that?" For things not mentioned, you might ask, "Did _____?" or "Was _____ a consequence?"

Wording of Questions

- In order to acquire information while interviewing, researchers must word questions so that they will provide the necessary data.
- Thus, you must ask questions in such a manner as to motivate respondents to answer as completely and honestly as possible.
- As in the saying about computers, “garbage in, garbage out (GIGO),” so it is in interviewing. If the wrong questions are asked, or if questions are asked in a manner that inhibits or prevents a respondent from answering fully, the interview will not be fruitful—garbage will come out.
- We can think of our questions as invitations to the informants to speak their minds.
- We conduct interviews in order to learn what people think, not to tell them what we think.
- Among the more common problems that arise in preparing guidelines or schedules is the double-barrelled question.
- This type of question asks a subject to respond simultaneously to two issues in a single question.
- The logical solution to the double-barrelled question is to separate the two issues and ask separate questions.
- Keeping questions brief and concise allows clear responses and more effective analysis of the answers.
- If you ask a subject about two things at once, he or she will tell you about the second of them, losing sight of the first.

Communicating Effectively- why effective communication is essential in research?

- Perhaps the most serious problem with asking questions is how to be certain the intentions of the questions have been adequately communicated.
- Researchers must always be sure they have clearly communicated to the subjects what they want to know.
- The interviewers' language must be understandable to the subject; ideally, interviews must be conducted at the level or language of the respondents.

Pre-testing the schedule

- Once researchers have developed their instrument and are satisfied with the general wording and sequencing of questions, they must pretest the schedule. Ideally, this involves at least two steps.
- First, the schedule should be critically examined by people familiar with the study's subject matter— technical experts, other researchers, or persons fitting the type to be studied.
- **This first step** facilitates the identification of poorly worded questions, questions with offensive or emotion-laden wording, or questions revealing the researchers' own biases and personal values.
- **The second step** in pretesting before the instrument can be used in a real study involves several practice interviews to assess how effectively the interview will work and whether you will obtain the information you seek.
- You should record and transcribe the practice interviews and compare the transcripts to the interview guidelines.
- Make note of any point at which you had to clarify or repeat a question; you may want to modify the wording.
- At what points, if any, did your subjects become reticent, angry, defensive, or otherwise upset?
- Those sections might need to be moved, reworded, regrouped, or more carefully introduced.

- There might be follow-up questions that you found useful in more than one interview. They should probably be added to the guidelines.
- In general, look for evidence that your research subjects were more or less motivated, more or less likely to go off topic, or likely to give very short answers.
- Most importantly, look for signs that your questions had a different meaning to your subjects than that which you intended.
- Finally, you should code the practice interviews as you would any “real” data and attempt to analyse the patterns of responses.
- Ask yourself whether, if you had more data like this, you would know how to answer your research question.
- A careful pretest of the instrument, although time consuming in itself, usually saves enormous time and cost in the long run.

Pre-testing the schedule

- **The following questions may guide assessment of interview schedule** (Chadwick, Bahr, & Albrecht, 1984):

1. Has the researcher included all of the questions necessary?
2. Do the questions elicit the types of response that were anticipated?
3. Is the language of the research instrument meaningful to the respondents?
4. Are there other problems with the questions, such as double meaning or multiple issues embedded in a single question?
5. Are the questions in logical order?
6. Finally, does the interview guide, as developed, help to motivate respondents to participate in the study?

Telephone Interviews

- Telephone interviews lack face-to-face nonverbal cues that researchers use to pace their interviews and to determine the direction to move in.
- Yet, researchers have found that, under certain circumstances, telephone interviews may provide not only an effective means for gathering data but also in some instances—owing to geographic locations— the most viable method.
- In fact, the primary reason that one might conduct a qualitative telephone interview is to reach a sample population that is in geographically diverse locations.
- For example, if an investigator is interested in studying how nursing home directors define elder abuse, he or she might consider conducting in-person interviews with some sample of nursing home directors.
- However, given that nursing home facilities may be at some distance from one another, or that such research can include facilities throughout the country, conducting interviews by telephone may be a logical resolution.
- Qualitative telephone interviews are likely to be best when the researcher has fairly specific questions in mind (a formal or semistructured interview schedule).
- Telephone interviews are also quite productive when they are conducted among people with whom the researcher has already conducted face-to-face interviews or with whom he or she may have developed a rapport during fieldwork (Rubin & Rubin, 1997).

- There are several important, necessary steps to accomplish a qualitative telephone interview.
- First, the investigator must establish legitimacy; next, the researcher must convince the potential subject that it is important for the subject to take part in the research; and finally, the researcher must carefully ensure that the information he or she obtains is sufficiently detailed to contribute meaningfully to the study.
- **This first step can be accomplished in several ways.**
- For example, the interviewer might mail a letter to the prospective subject explaining the nature of the research and that the subject will be called to set an appointment for the actual interview.
- The letter should be on official letterhead and may contain supportive documentation (letters of support from relevant or significant people in the community, newspaper stories about the researcher or the study, etc.).
- **The second step** will arise when the investigator initially contacts potential subjects and attempts to convince them to take part. This call will actually accomplish several things.
- It will allow the subjects to ask questions and raise any concerns they might have about the study or their participation.
- It will also provide an opportunity for the investigator to gain some sense of the individual and to begin developing a kind of relationship and rapport as well as an opportunity to convince the individual to participate in the study if the individual is resistant.
- These calls should be made during normal working hours, and researchers should break the ice by introducing themselves and ascertaining whether the individual has received the letter and accompanying materials.
- Calls can be made approximately 1 week to 10 days following the mailing of the letters of introduction; less if the letter of introduction was e-mailed.
- After the initial introduction, the researcher might ask if the individual has any questions.
- Next, using a polite and friendly but firm affirmative statement, the researcher should ask, "When would it be convenient for me to call you back to conduct the interview?"
- Recognize that not all subjects will immediately agree to take part, and the researcher may need to do a little convincing.
- This may offer the additional benefit of forging a rapport with the subject.

• **The advantages of telephone interviews include:**

- (a) enhanced accessibility to hard-to-reach populations such as those who are elderly, infirm, live in geographically remote locations, and for those who must participate surreptitiously, for example, women experiencing abuse.
 - (b) telephone interviews may encompass a large geographic area including countries and continents
 - (c) they are less costly in terms of time and labor and are therefore more efficient
-

• **Disadvantages include the following:**

- (a) Recruitment may be compromised if prospective participants must pay long distance telephone charges to enroll or find out more information about a study.

(b) recruitment may be compromised if only participants who have access to a telephone or telephone coverage may participate (Liamputtong, 2007).

Email Interviews

- Researchers face substantial travel costs and time commitments to conduct in person interviews with study participants located in different geographical areas.
- Often the expense of time and money are too substantial and render the study infeasible.
- A major advantage of the email interview is that it offers a convenient and practical alternative to overcome geographical barriers and financial concerns that hinder face to-face interviews (Walker, 2013).
- Qualitative researchers using email interviews for data collection found that scheduling advantages of the email interview increases access to participants and encourages greater participation of working adults.
- Email interviews can be conducted with participants all over the world without the additional expenses of travel costs and travel time. Although telephone interviews offer this same advantage, a distinct feature of the email interview is the ability to conduct asynchronous interviews.
- Unlike interviews in real time, participants can respond to email interview prompts at their own convenience at a time that is suitable solely to them (Gibson, 2014).
- Email interview exchanges are not limited to the time constraints of a scheduled interview and allow for prolonged engagement with participants to connect and establish relationships.
- The back-and-forth email conversations may extend over a period of weeks or months allowing the researcher to clarify descriptive data, pursue further discovery, and ensure accuracy in describing the phenomenon from the perspective of the participants.
- Participants have time to reflect on their answers before crafting written responses. The iterative exchange and opportunity for reflective, well-formed responses results in more thoughtful, relevant data.
- Email interviews save both time and money in transcription costs. The written responses are easily converted to transcribed data resulting in significant savings over the typical expenditures for transcribing an oral interview.
- A disadvantage of email interviews for participants is that crafting the written responses is by nature more time consuming than oral interviews.
- The lack of email access or discomfort with email communication may limit participation in the study.
- Limiting participation to those who have email access and are comfortable with written email communication could result in a sample bias of younger, more technologically savvy, higher educated or higher income participants.
- Finally, data collection methods that rely on technology are subject to the limitations of technology such as computer malfunctions. Internet connectivity may be interrupted or slow.
- Cyber security breaches may result in a loss of confidentiality.
- With the potential for cyber security breaches, both the researcher and the interviewee should take deliberate measures to mitigate the risk.
- Consideration for the impact of a confidentiality breach is one factor in determining the suitability of the email interview.

The Ten Commandments of Interviewing

- The following 10 commandments of interviewing nicely summarize the basic rules for conducting a decent interview.
- Better interviews will result only from practice and interviewer's self-development.

*- *The Ten Commandments of Interviewing

1. Never begin an interview cold. Remember to spend a few minutes chatting and making small talk with the subject. If you are in the subject's home, use what's there for this chatting. Look around the room and ask about such things as photographs, books, and so forth. The idea here is to set the subject at ease and establish a warm and comfortable rapport.
2. Remember your purpose. You are conducting an interview in order to obtain information. Try to keep the subject on track, and if you are working with an interview schedule, always have a copy of it in front of you—even though you should have your questions memorized.
3. Present a natural front. Even though your questions are memorized, you should be able to ask each one as if it had just popped into your head. Be relaxed, affirmative, and as natural as you can.
4. Demonstrate aware hearing. Be sure to offer the subjects appropriate nonverbal responses. If they describe something funny, smile. If they tell you something sad, don't smile. If they say that something upset them, empathize. Do not present yourself as uninterested or unaware.
5. Think about appearance. Be sure you have dressed appropriately for both the setting and the kind of subject you are working with. Generally, casual business attire is safe. If you are interviewing children, a more casual appearance may be more effective. Remember to think about how you look to other people.
6. Interview in a comfortable place. Be sure that the location of the interview is somewhere the subject feels comfortable. If the subject is fearful about being overheard or being seen, your interview may be over before it ever starts.
7. Don't be satisfied with monosyllabic answers. Be aware when subjects begin giving yes-and-no answers. Answers like these will not offer much information during analysis. When this does occur, be sure to probe for more.
8. Be respectful. Be sure the subject feels that he or she is an integral part of your research and that any answer offered is absolutely wonderful. Often subjects will say things like, "You don't really want to know how I feel about that." Assure them that you really do!
9. Practice, practice, and practice some more. The only way to actually become proficient at interviewing is to interview. Although text books and other manuals can offer guidelines, it is up to you as a researcher to develop your own repertoire of actions. The best way to accomplish this task is to go out and do interviews.
10. Be cordial and appreciative. Remember to thank the subject when you finish and answer any questions he or she might have about the research. Remember, you are always a research emissary. Other researchers may someday want to interview this subject or gain access to the setting you were in. If you mess things up through inappropriate actions, you may close the door for future researchers

Quality of Interviews

- Quality of an interview can be maintained by paying careful attention to the following three principles:

(1) Maintaining the flow of the interviewee's story.

- The flow of the interviewee's story can be inadvertently disrupted by the interviewer, such as by redirecting the narrative or interrupting it, rushing to complete the interviewee's sentences, prematurely terminating a narrative, failing to clarify terms or asking questions the interviewee does not understand.

(2) Maintaining a positive relationship with the interviewee.

- Positive relationships with the interviewee can be maintained by not offering opinions about responses and avoiding nonverbal indications of surprise or shock, as well as not using non-verbal cues such as nodding to indicate approval or a correct answer.

(3) Avoiding interviewer bias.

- The interviewer should not pose leading questions or fail to follow up or omit topics introduced by the interviewee.

(Schensul, Schensul, & LeCompte, 1999)

Challenges of interviews

- Most interviews are recorded and will need transcribing before analysing. This can be extremely time-consuming, with 1hour of interview requiring 5–6hours to transcribe (Bryman, 2016).

- The analysis itself is also time-consuming, requiring transcriptions to be pored over word-for-word and line-by-line (Barrett & Twycross, 2018).

- Interviews also present the problem of bias the researcher needs to take care to avoid leading questions or providing non-verbal signals that might influence the responses of participants (Barrett & Twycross, 2018).

5th week

Focus groups

- Focus groups (sometimes called focus group interviews) take place in a group setting.
- Focus groups are not recommended for studying sensitive topics that people will be reluctant to discuss in public. (Qu & Dumay, 2011)
- A key characteristic is the interaction between members of the group (Cameron, 2005).
- Focus groups typically consist of 8-12 people (ideal 4-8), with a moderator who focuses the discussion on relevant topics in a non-directive manner.
- The smaller the group, the less information we gather.
- On the other hand, having more than 10 people in the group make it crowded and difficult for all members to participate and interact.
- Multiple focus groups should be conducted in order to gather sufficient amount of data, opinion, and views on the study (Oun & Bach, 2014).

• Focus group advantages

1. Convenience

2. Time and expenses savings

3. Because the researcher (sometimes called facilitator or moderator) takes a less active role in guiding the discussion, less bias is introduced by the researcher than in individual interviews.

Factors to consider	Use group	Use individual interviews when...
Group interaction	Interaction of respondents may stimulate a richer response or new and valuable insights	Group interaction is likely to be limited or non-productive
Group or peer pressure	Group or peer pressure will be valuable in challenging the thinking of respondents and illuminating conflicting opinions	Group or peer pressure would inhibit responses and cloud the meaning of results
Sensitivity of subject matter	Subject matter is not so sensitive that respondents will temper responses or withhold information	Subject matter is so sensitive that respondents would be unwilling to talk openly in a group
Extent of issues to be covered versus depth of individual responses	There is a need to cover a small number of issues on a topic on which most respondents can say all that is relevant in less than 10 minutes	There is need to cover a greater number of issues on a topic that requires a greater depth of response per individual
Requirement for interview guide	Enough is known to establish a meaningful topic guide	It may be necessary to develop the interview guide by altering it after a series of initial interviews
Logistics requirement	An acceptable number of target respondents can be assembled in one location	Respondents are dispersed or not easily assembled
Cost and training	Quick turnaround is critical, and funds are limited	Quick turnaround is not critical, and budget will permit higher cost

Types of Observation

- Participant (interact with those you are observing; become a participant) vs. Non-participant (sit, watch, take notes with no interaction).
- Participant observations may alter events
- Non-participant observations may not gain complete understanding of event.



Sample on paper utilised interviews

and focus groups

- Surgeons' aims and pain assessment strategies when managing paediatric post-operative pain: A qualitative study (Interview study).
- "I couldn't even talk to the patient": barriers to communicating with cancer patients as perceived by nursing students (Focus group study).

Observation

Observation (observing in the field)

- Simply.....Observation in qualitative research involves "going into the field"--describing and analysing what has been seen (Mays & Pope, 1995)
- Observation in qualitative research is one of the oldest and most fundamental research methods approaches.
- Traditionally, observation has been extensively used in the social sciences including psychology and medical settings.
- When using questionnaires and interviews sometimes a social desirability approach impacts on participants' responses, where they say what they think the researcher wants to hear rather than what they actually believe or do. This makes it hard to find out what is really happening in practice (Twycross & Shorten, 2016).
- Observation involves collecting data using one's senses, especially looking and listening in a systematic and meaningful way”(McKechnie, 2008).

• Observation sometimes referred to as unobtrusive method

- o Unobtrusive measures allow for data collection and analysis to be completed without the researcher intruding in the research context.
- o Their advantage is that they do not disturb the naturally occurring processes that are the subject of the research. In particular, because the informants are not aware of the research that is going on, their behaviour and self-descriptions are not modified by the researcher's presence or activities .
- o Other names for these techniques are 'non-reactive' or 'indirect' methods.
- The research setting for participant observation is the study informants' own daily environment rather than a setting assigned by researchers (Spradley, 2016).
- Observation provides an enormous amount of data to be captured and analysed.
- One approach to helping with collection and analysis is to digitally record observations to allow for repeated viewing (Meriläinen, Kyngäs, & Ala-Kokko, 2010).
- Observation' is more than just recording of data from the environment.
- When we observe, we are active, not passive collectors of data like a tape recorder or video camera.
- Observation seeks to find out “**what is going on here?**”
- Data collected in observational studies can be qualitative, quantitative or both.

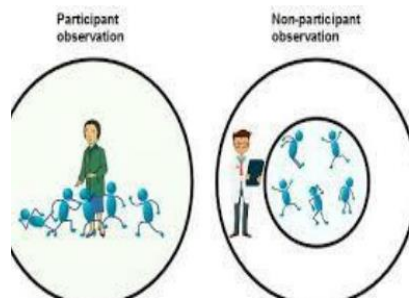
Why Use Observation to Collect Data?

- They provide researchers with ways to check for nonverbal expression of feelings, determine who interacts with whom, grasp how participants communicate with each other, and check for how much time is spent on various activities.
- Participant observation allows researchers to check definitions of terms that participants use in interviews, observe events that informants may be unable or unwilling to share.

- Help researchers observe situations informants have described in interviews, thereby making them aware of distortions or inaccuracies in description provided by those informants (Kawulich, 2005)
- Makes it possible to collect different types of data. Being onsite over a period of time familiarizes the researcher to the community, thereby facilitating involvement in sensitive activities to which he/she generally would not be invited.
- It helps the researcher to develop questions that make sense in the native language or are culturally relevant.
- It gives the researcher a better understanding of what is happening in the culture.
- Enables the researcher to collect both quantitative and qualitative data through surveys and interviews. (Bernard, 2017)

Two types of observations

- **Non- participant observation.** Researcher is not part of the activity taking place, but simply observes. May be identified as observer/researcher (Observers adopt a detached role)
- **Participant observation.** Researcher takes part in community, organization, or activity. Researcher attempts to learn what it is like to be part of the community, organization, or participate in the activity (i.e. observer participates in the activities being observed).



Participant observation

- Marshall & Rossman (1989)
 - “The systematic description of events, behaviors, and artifacts in the social setting chosen for study” (p.79).
 - Observations enable the researcher to describe existing situations using the five senses, providing a "written photograph" of the situation under study
 - A process enabling researchers to learn about the activities of the people under study in the natural setting through observing and participating in those activities.
 - “The process of learning through exposure to or involvement in the day-to-day or routine activities of participants in the researcher setting”

Participant observation- Methodology

- The researcher assumes a role in the setting or group being studied.
 - Often the researcher actually takes on the role being studied;
 - Becoming a firefighter
 - Enrolling in flight training school
 - Working in a mental hospital (or passing as a patient)

In both types of observation, the researcher attempts to learn about context in which behavior takes place. Context includes:

- Physical surroundings.
- Other people in the setting.
- The interactions among different people in the setting.

- The social, cultural, political, or economic context in which the behavior occurs and why it occurs

Styles of observation

- Unstructured observation – describing what occurs. Researcher usually does not have a preconceived idea about what would occur.
 - *The most common type
 - *Uses the researcher's words for thick description of phenomena or events (Mulhall, 2003).
- Structured observation. Starting with an operational definition of what you want to measure – and counting only the behavior or situation that “fits” the definition
 - *Uses a template to record tabulations of specific behaviours that can be measured and analysed statistically (Callahan & Bertakis, 1991).
- Mix of both- unstructured and structured

Researchers record what they see, hear, smell, and taste using:

- Field notes. Written record of what is observed, impressions, reactions about what has happened.
- Photos of people and setting may be added to analysis.
- Audio-tape and video-tape are also used to document what researchers find.

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- An example of field note taken during triage nurse observation

‘7am Saturday. I followed Andrew as he moved through each clinical area on his way to triage. I asked about this behaviour. He explained, it’s important to know the number of patients in each area and which beds are free. Arriving at triage, the night nurse was directing a patient to the waiting room. Andrew asked about the shift. Looking out into the waiting room, eight people sat on chairs. Some were watching the television, others rested with their eyes closed, of which two had draped around them hospital blankets. Andrew listened, mainly nodding, as the nurse discussed each patient: how long they had waited, why they came to the ED, if the Triage Nurse had done anything to speed up their care, and the rate that patients were seen. The Triage Nurses, turned back towards the computer and brought up a different screen that appeared labelled Patient Expect. Doctors entered the details and conditions of expected ED patient arrivals into this screen. Expected patients appeared listed on the computer screen. The information provided on this screen sometimes assisted Triage Nurses to determine their activities.



Overt versus covert observation

- Overt observation occurs when participants know they are being observed and are aware of the purpose of the study (Couchman & Dawson, 1996).

- Covert observation means that participants are either unaware of being observed or that the observer conceals the real reason for observing them (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007).
 - Overt observation : Means the observed Group is **AWARE** of the presence of the researcher and that their Behavior is being **OBSERVED**

Types of observation : Overt versus covert

Overt : Ethnographer informs participants of their study and is transparent about research.

Covert : Ethnography does not inform participants of the study and must balance ethical issue of deception.

Each method of observation has its advantages and disadvantages...

Research method	Advantage	Disadvantage
Participant observation	Observer can be a part of the process so can really see & experience what is going on	Can be dangerous for observer
Non-participant observation	Observer remains safe	Observer cannot get a feel for what is happening
Overt observation	Ethical	"observer effect" means respondents may act differently
Covert observation	Respondents act as they normally would	Unethical

All in all. Ethical issues that need considering when carrying out an observational study... Adopted from (Twycross & Shorten, 2016)

Ethical issues	Consideration
Covert versus overt data collection	Covert methods involve deception, with researchers pretending to be someone they are not. This type of observation is now considered unethical because it violates individuals' right to autonomy and their ability to decide whether they want to be observed. Nowadays participants are normally told what the purpose of the research is.
Gaining consent	If collecting data in a hospital setting some researchers recommend gaining informed consent from all individuals present on the ward on a regular basis. Collecting data about a specific patient, informed consent should be obtained. For other people within the general area a simple explanation that you are collecting data for a study along with obtaining their verbal consent, may be adequate (REC: Research Ethics Committee will determine the approach).
What will you do if you see poor practice?	Observation of practices that require improvement but are not dangerous or harmful (see below), without intervening, would not be considered unethical.
What will you do if you see dangerous practice?	The REC approving an observational study will expect a researcher to have identified the steps they will take if they observe dangerous practice. For example, the researcher may arrange to discuss any dangerous practice she observed with the ward manager. The ward manager would then take any necessary action.
Protecting participants anonymity	Anonymity can be maintained by referring to participants using identifying codes.

How Does One Conduct an Observation?

- Conducting observations involves a variety of activities and considerations for the researchers:
 - **Ethics.**
 - **Establishing rapport.**
 - Selecting key informants.
 - **The processes for conducting observations.**
 - Keeping field notes.
 - Writing up one's findings.

Ethics

- The researcher must take some of the field notes to reinforce that what the researcher is doing is collecting data for research purposes.
- When the researcher meets community members for the first time, he/she should be sure to inform them of the purpose for being there, sharing sufficient information with them about the research topic. This means that one is constantly introducing oneself as a researcher. (Kawulich, 2005)
- Another ethical responsibility is to preserve the anonymity of the participants in the final write-up and in field notes to prevent their identification.(Kawulich, 2005)

Gaining Entry and Establishing Rapport

- A key strategy in minimising the effect of the researcher's presence on behaviour is to establish rapport before starting data collection (Twycross & Shorten, 2016).

• To assist in gaining permission from the community to conduct the study, the researcher may bring letters of introduction or other information that will ease entry, such as information about one's affiliation, funding sources, and planned length of time in the field. One may need to meet with the community leaders. For example, when one wishes to conduct research in a school, permission must be granted by the school principal and, possibly, by the district school superintendent.

-*-*For example, if the study involves observing nurses, a first step might be to attend team meetings or ward handover on several occasion as a way of getting to know the potential participants and building a relationship with them.

- "Hanging out" is the process through which the researcher gains trust and establishes rapport with participants.
- Hanging out involves meeting and conversing with people to develop relationships over an extended period of time.
- Three stages to the hanging out process.:

- Moving from a position of formal. - Ignorant intruder to welcome. - Knowledgeable intimate.

1. Moving from a position of formal

• The researcher is a stranger who is learning the social rules and language, making herself/himself known to the community, so they will begin to teach her/him how to behave appropriately in that culture.

2. Ignorant intruder to welcome.

- Researcher begins to merge with the crowd and stand out less as an intruder.
- "Acquaintance" stage.
- The language becomes more familiar to the researcher, but he/she still may not be fluent in its use.(Kawulich, 2005)

3. Knowledgeable intimate.

- The "intimate" stage.
- The researcher has established relationships with participants to the extent that he/she no longer has to think about what he/she says.
- It sometimes involves the researcher's working with and participating in everyday activities beside participants in their daily lives.(Kawulich, 2005)

36

Tips for collecting useful observation data

- Become familiar with the setting before beginning to collect data.
- keep the observations short at first to keep from becoming overwhelmed.
- Be honest, but not too technical or detailed, in explaining to participants what he/she is doing.
- Pay attention, shifting from a "wide" to a "narrow" angle perspective, focusing on a single person, activity, interaction, then returning to a view of the overall situation;
- Look for key words in conversations to trigger later recollection of the conversation content.

Each observation should provide you with answers regarding.....

- Who do you observe? • What do you observe? • Where does the observation take place? • When does it take place?

- How does it happen?
- Why does it happen as it happens? (Moser & Korstjens, 2018)

An example of a research design using observation

Research Questions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How do members of operating teams interact and communicate? 2. What contributes to the communication climates in different operating theatres? 3. Do interprofessional values exist in theatre teams. If so, how do they impact on the behaviour and interactions of operating theatre team members?
Research Site	Operating theatres in general, vascular and orthopaedic surgery; compare one metropolitan and one regional hospital site.
Participants	surgeons, registrars, nursing staff Team leaders, theatre technicians, patients
Other key personnel	Director of clinical services; director of medical services; theatre manager; patient admissions manager; admissions staff; team leaders of each theatre
Methods of data collection	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Observations (approximately 40 hours in theatre across the two sites); 2. Field memo's 3. Informal conversations with staff in the theatre and/or theatre suite (e.g. Change rooms, staff room, corridors etc) 4. Conduct semi-structured interviews to follow up and clarify findings from observations (include questions about medical jargon, differences in procedure amongst team leaders etc)
Data analysis	Coding of observation notes; field notes (which includes details of informal conversations with staff; analytic memos; recording of personal experiences, context); thematic analysis

Challenges of observation

- Methodologically, the act of being observed may change the behaviour of the participant (often referred to as the 'Hawthorne effect'), impacting on the value of findings (Barrett & Twycross, 2018)

****However, most researchers report a process of habituation taking place where, after a relatively short period of time, those being observed revert to their normal behaviour.

****As participants grow accustomed to the observer's presence, their behaviour will more closely resemble normal, everyday behaviour (Briggs, Askham, Norman, & Redfern, 2003).

- The dependability of the process on the observer understanding and judgment.
- The observer may miss a critical moment while notes have been taking, or being distracted by another factor in the setting (Oun & Bach, 2014).

6th week Case Study and Ethnography

Case study research- What is a case?

- "A case is a single instance; a sample of one".
- Easton (2010) explains a case is a phenomenon which is spatially delimited and that the unit is studied either at one point or over a bounded period of time.
- Case can be individual, group, project, policy, institution, program.

• **Case study research (Definition)** is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g., observations, interviews, audio-visual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description and case-based themes.

***Other Definitions of Case Study**

Author	Definition
Stake[8]	"A case study is both the process of learning about the case and the product of our learning" (p.237)
Yin[1, 27, 28]	"The all-encompassing feature of a case study is its intense focus on a single phenomenon within its real-life context...[Case studies are] research situations where the number of variables of interest far outstrips the number of datapoints" (Yin 1999 p. 1211, Yin 1994 p. 13)
	"A case study is an empirical inquiry that
	• Investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when
	• The boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident." (Yin 2009 p18)
Miles and Huberman[23]	"...a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context" (p. 25)
Green and Thorogood[29]	"In-depth study undertaken of one particular 'case', which could be a site, individual or policy" (p. 284)
George and Bennett[12]	"...an instance of a class of events [where] the term class of events refers to a phenomenon of scientific interest...that the investigator chooses to study with the aim of developing theory regarding causes of similarities or differences among instances (cases) of that class of events" (p. 17)"

- **Conditions** that lead to having more variables than data points in case study research:

1.making an in-depth inquiry. 2.studying conditions over time. 3.covering contextual conditions.

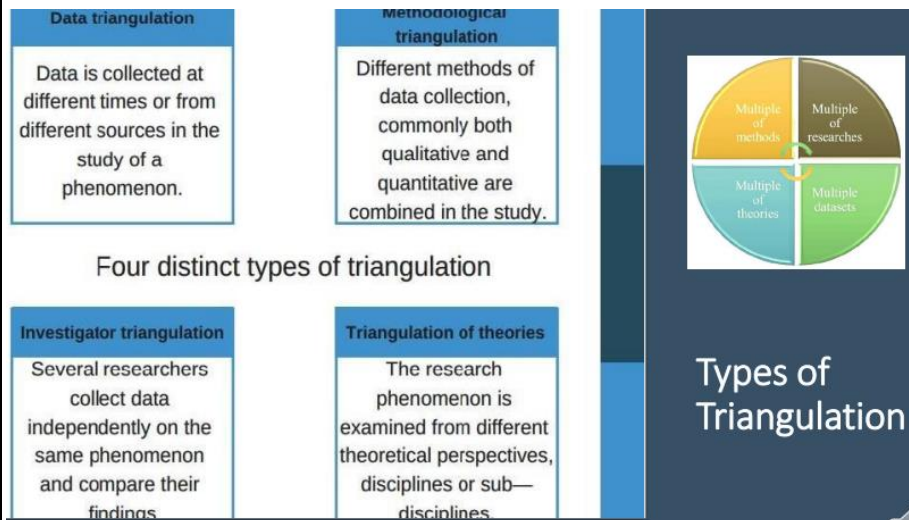
- Case studies have been long established in healthcare, medicine, anthropology, and psychology research.
- Case study research is effective to investigate and understand **complex issues** in real world settings.
- Usually, a case study is considered equivalent to a qualitative research method. A case study can be considered qualitative in the sense that it studies a smaller sample of something, but in some ways the case study can also be considered a **quantitative or mixed-methods study**.

Case study research is not exclusively concerned with qualitative methods.

- The case usually describes a series of events that reflect the activity or problem as it happened.
- The power of case study research is the ability **to use multiple sources and techniques for comprehensive depth and breadth of inquiry**.
- Document analysis, archival records, interviews, surveys and participant observation are considered the main data sources for case study research.
- the way researchers use case studies in their research varies which also has resulted in a broad variety in published case studies.

- **Triangulation is a must.**

Types of Triangulation



Case study research (continued)

- The importance of "...maintaining 'empirical intimacy'".
- One cannot replicate a case study since it is spatially and temporally bounded.
- Case studies do not necessarily have to include one single case, but can also involve multiple cases.
- a single-case study can help describing an existing phenomenon,
- while multiple-case studies can be a better ground for building theory from case studies – the phenomenon becomes more generalizable if it occurs in a number of cases- **Analytical (theoretical) generalisation**

GENERALISATION (Quantitative versus case study research)

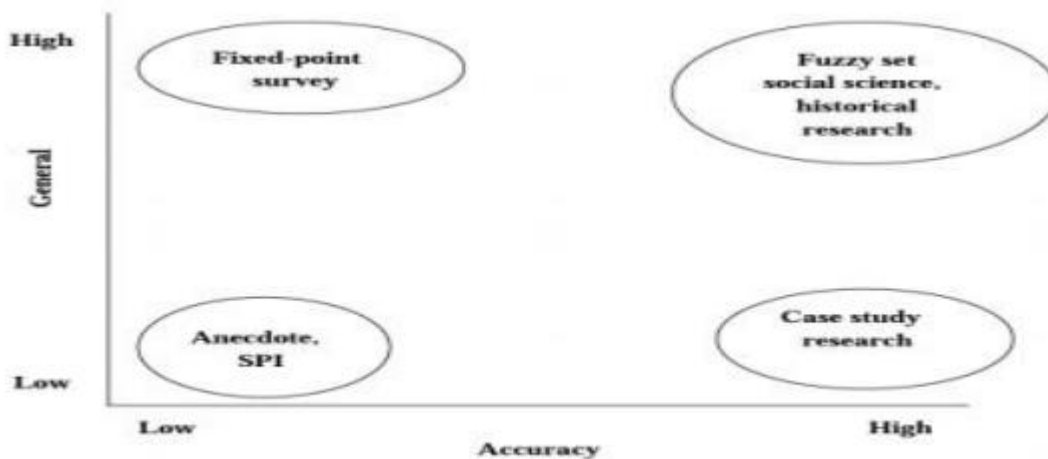


Figure 1: Research methods' attainment of objectives.

Types of case study

Yin (2003) identifies three types of case studies:

1. Descriptive case study aims to describe the phenomenon of interest within its context.

2. Exploratory case study aims to define questions and hypotheses or to test out a research procedure- for a further piece of research, such as a large scale survey.

3. Explanatory case study aims to reveal cause-effect associations of the studied phenomena and/or how events happen.

Exploratory versus Explanatory case study

- Exploratory case studies allow the investigation of complex unique phenomena where previous literature to guide the research is lacking.
- In situations, however, where background literature is able to provide a clearer direction for research, questions may be posed that indicate a more explanatory approach

How to perform a case study?

- Determine and define the research questions.
- Select the cases and determine data-gathering and analysis techniques.
- Prepare to collect data.
- Collect data in the field.
- Evaluate and analyse the data.
- Prepare the report

Step 1: Determine and Define the Research Questions

- The focus or intent is established once an intensive review of the relevant literature has been completed and the problem has been well identified.
- The importance of framing your research direction in the form of questions is that you are then driven to consider your methods:
 - a. How would I answer those questions?
 - b. What information do I need?
 - c. how would I go about getting it?
- Good' research questions are those which will enable you to achieve your aim and which are capable of being answered in the research setting.
- Broad aims often remain the same. What changes and evolves is the set of research questions.
- Carefully formulated research question(s), informed by the existing literature and a prior appreciation of the theoretical issues and setting(s), are all important in appropriately and **succinctly defining the case**.
- Crucially, each case should have a **pre-defined boundary** which clarifies the nature and time period covered by the case study (i.e. its scope, beginning and end), the **relevant social group**, organisation or geographical area of interest to the investigator, **the types of evidence to be collected**, and the **priorities for data collection and analysis**.

Example

- Research questions might be:
 - What proportion of patients don't comply with medical advice on drugs?

- Are there differences (i.e. age, social class) between different categories of patient? - Is age a factor?
- Is the medical condition a factor?
- As you get into the research, as you get to talk to patients, doctors and practice nurses, other questions might emerge:
- how clearly are patients told about drug use and the need for compliance?
- Would follow-up improve compliance?
- Are patients taking the drugs but not complying with other aspects of medical advice (diet, exercise)?

Step 2: Select the Cases and Determine

Data-Gathering and Analysis Techniques

- Case can be called as **Unit of Analysis**.
- The researcher must select single or multiple cases that reflect the research questions in Step 1.
- Multiple case studies, a number of cases are carefully selected. This offers the advantage of allowing comparisons to be made across several cases and/or replication. Choosing a "typical" case may enable the findings to be generalised to theory (i.e. analytical generalisation)
- This step also involves selecting the instruments and other datagathering strategies that will be used.
- The selected case study site(s) should allow the research team access to the group of individuals, the organisation, the processes or whatever else constitutes the chosen unit of analysis for the study.
- It is also important to consider in advance the likely burden and risks associated with participation for those who (or the site(s) which) comprise the case study.

Step 3: Prepare to collect the data

- Preparation for the vast amounts of data prior to collection will save the researcher much time and frustration later.
- Due to the nature of case study research, the researcher will generate large amounts of data from multiple sources. Time taken to plan prior to the research will allow one to organize multiple databases and set categories for sorting and managing the data.
- The importance of piloting.
- to reveal any need for fundamental changes in a research inquiry, its design, or its data collection.

Step 4: Collect data in the field

- Data collection is emergent.
- The importance of field notes.
- Time to end data collection (time and budgetary limitations).
- Criteria for determining when it is appropriate to end data collection:
 - a. **Exhaustion of sources:** Data sources (e.g., key informants, document analysis) can be recycled and tapped many times, but at some point, it should become clear that little more information or relevance will be gained from further engagement with them.

b. **Saturation of categories:** Eventually, the categories used to code data appear to be definitively established. When continuing data collection produces only tiny increments of new information about categories in comparison to the effort expended to get them, the researcher can feel confident about ending data collection.

c. **Overextension:** Even if new information is still coming in, the researcher might develop a sense that the new information is far removed from the central core of viable categories that have emerged and does not contribute usefully to the emergence of additional viable categories

Step 5: Evaluate and Analyse the data

- Triangulation.

Step 6: Prepare the report

- When reporting findings, it is important to provide the reader with enough contextual information to understand the processes that were followed and how the conclusions were reached.
- Care must be taken to ensure the anonymity of case sites and individual participants.

Limitations of case study

- The large quantity of data, combined with the limited timeframe available for some researches may impact on the depth of analysis of the data within the available time and resources.
- Deciding the "boundaries" of a case-how it might be constrained in terms of time, events, and processes-may be challenging.
- Large quantity of data may veer away from the research focus.
- Providing little basis for generalisation.
 - Use large number of cases

Case study example

Paper Title: nurses' paediatric pain management practices

- One of the authors of this paper has used a **case study approach** to explore nurses' paediatric pain management practices. This involved collecting several datasets:
 1. Observational data to gain a picture about actual pain management practices.
 2. Questionnaire data about nurses' knowledge about paediatric pain management practices and how well they felt they managed pain in children.
 3. Questionnaire data about how critical nurses perceived pain management tasks to be.

Case study example

Paper Title: nurses' paediatric pain management practices

- These datasets were analysed separately and then compared.

1. demonstrated that nurses' level of theoretical did not impact on the quality of their pain management practices.
2. Nor did individual nurse's perceptions of how critical a task was effect the likelihood of them carrying out this task in practice.
3. There was also a difference in self-reported and observed practices actual (observed) practices did not confirm to best practice guidelines, whereas self-reported practices tended to.

نيو توبيك

Ethnography

- Ethnography(Definition) is the study of social interactions, behaviours, and perceptions that occur within groups, teams, organisations, and communities.
- The central aim of ethnography is to provide rich, holistic insights into people's views and actions, as well as the nature of the location they inhabit, through the **collection of detailed observations and interviews**.

Ethnography (other definitions)

- Hammersley (2006) states that ethnography is a study at first hand about what people do and say in **a particular context**. Most researchers collect data through participant's observation and/or open-ended interviews, also from various documents to understand and explain the participant's perspectives.
- A method to **explore** the nature of a certain social phenomenon and it tends to use unstructured data (Flick, 2002).
- Honer (1993 as cited in Flick et.al., 2004) stated that ethnographies usually focus on a specific culture, characteristics and all information **embedded** in it.
- Ethnography is a qualitative methodology that uses 'qualitative methods' such as observation (participant and non-participant), interviews and textual analysis.

It is the 'emphasis on observation alongside' other qualitative methods as well as the 'analytic focus on culture' that are the cornerstones of ethnography (Webster, 2019)

- Ethnography is a well-established anthropological method of writing a holistic description and analysis of a **culture**.
- Usually, ethnographies are created **through participant-observation** and are a key part of anthropological research.
- Helps overcome the limitations of **relying solely on interview data**. Through the collection of observations, interviews and documentary data, which are triangulated (i.e. compared and contrasted with one another).
- Through its use of **in situ observations** ethnographers can '**immerse**' themselves in a social setting, thereby generating a rich understanding of social action.
- Participant observation also provides ethnographers an opportunity to gather empirical insights into social practices which are normally 'hidden' from the public gaze

Ethnography- Data collection

- Ethnographer not only observes a social group, setting or subject matter, but engages in the participation actively with a

general commitment to observing everyday social life.

- The ethnographic researchers obtain information about certain **socio-cultural phenomena** through the members of the society or documents about those phenomena.
- Observation and interview are two important data collection methods, which are known **as ethnographic fieldwork**.
- Another data collection technique is using earlier written records, which is known **as ethno-historic research**.
- **Long-term involvement and observation** are considered necessary to understand the complexity of

people's beliefs, attitudes and behaviours.

- Prolonged exposure in the field through **immersion** allows the ethnographer to build relationships and gain an understanding of the broader social context in which the research is embedded.
- **Portable audio and video recording** devices may rapidly provide large amounts of data and support researcher in understanding the phenomena of the study.

The concept of immersion in Ethnography

- **Immersion**, which means that the researchers are making observations over time. Therefore, there is not just one observation that will conclusively define evolving understanding of the phenomena the researcher is studying.

The concept of Reflexivity in Ethnographic research

- Reflexivity refers to the ways in which the products of research are **affected by the personnel** and process of doing research.
- "Reflexivity" is generally understood as awareness of the influence the researcher has on the people or topic being studied, while simultaneously recognizing how the research experience is affecting the researcher (Gilgun, 2008).
- Reflexivity, which can be understood as a process **of self-examination (exploring one's assumptions, emotional reactions, cultural positioning) through specific actions** (keeping a journal, debriefing with others, and so on) within a field of inquiry.
- Reflexive researchers are, in essence, gazing in **two directions** at the same time.
- The key to reflexivity is "to make the relationship between and the influence of the researcher and the participants explicit".

The concept of Reflexivity in Ethnographic research

- Reflexivity enhances the quality (trustworthiness) of research through its ability to extend understanding of how researchers positions and interests affect all stages of the research process.
- Reflexivity, in the form of an account of researcher continuous self-critique and self-appraisal, reveals signposts for readers that tell **them "what is going on" (what is happening throughout the research process)**.

The concept of Reflexivity in Ethnographic research

- Primeau, L. A. (2003). Reflections on self in qualitative research: Stories of family. American Journal of Occupational Therapy, 57(1), 9-16.

Ethnography (Continued)

- Ethnographic research is **exploratory** in nature.
 - This approach means that the ethnographer **goes into the field** to explore a cultural group and/or explore certain social interactions.
- Ethnographer can make modification to the research questions, design and technique from the beginning until the completion of the study.
 - Zaharlick (1992) describes this feature as **an interactive-reactive approach**.
- Due to the complexity of ethnography, unlike many other forms of qualitative research, ethnographic research is **more difficult** to undertake (limitation).
- The unpredictability of everyday life often means that data collection activities can be disrupted or access withdrawn depending on ever-changing local circumstances and politics (limitation).

Use of Ethnography in Healthcare

- The research method of ethnography is becoming increasingly popular in the field of health-care research to study behaviour and social interactions.
- Hospitals are often cultures within themselves. And, while some can be very similar, the community of the hospital is often unique. Because hospitals reflect dominant culture and belief systems, the care in each hospital can be different based on the cultural influences.
- From the outside, hospitals look and operate similarly. The patient care and decision making processes can vary widely.
- Through ethnography, behaviours are understood and used to treat the patient through means that fit the needs of the patient. The benefits brought by the ethnography are understanding of the social and cultural backgrounds of the patients and how health behaviours differ across groups.

Steps of Ethnographic research

1. Planning	2. Sampling	3. Data collection	4. Data analysis	5. Write up
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Step 1: Planning

- Access and ethics
 - Attaining approval from the appropriate decision makers for access to a research setting is an essential first step in planning an ethnography.
 - Attaining access may be challenging. For example, some people are often reluctant at the thought of being 'scrutinised' by researchers.
 - Establish rapport.
 - Gatekeepers.
 - Ethical approvals
- Ethical issues:
 - Avoidance of harm.
 - Informed consent.
 - Privacy and confidentiality.

Step 2: Sampling

- Sampling of the research setting is an important component of Ethnography.
- The type of sampling associated with ethnography is purposive sampling, whereby the researcher chooses a specific group and setting to be studied

- Often, a single study site is selected, but multiple individuals, actions and activities embedded within this setting are selected to develop an insightful account of daily life.

Step 3: Data collection

Participant observation

- a field strategy that simultaneously combines document analysis, interviewing of respondents and informants, direct participation and observation.
- Ethnographic fieldwork typically involves the development of close connections between the fieldworker and subjects and situations being studied

In-depth interviews

- In-depth interviews are also referred to as focused, unstructured or ethnographic interviews.
- This method of interviewing does not use fixed questions, but aims to engage the interviewee in conversation to elicit their understandings and interpretations.
- These interviews are characterised by active involvement in engaging the participant to converse about a particular topic or discussion relevant to the research questions or topic being explored.
- Interviews are complimentary to participant observation.

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Step 3: Data collection (continued)

- Triangulation: Triangulation is an analytical technique that incorporates and compares multiple methods with the intent of providing a more in-depth and holistic understanding of a phenomenon.

• Types of Triangulation:

1. Data triangulation
2. Methods triangulation.
3. Investigator triangulation.
4. Theory triangulation.

Step 4: Data Analysis

- John and Parsons (2006) suggest that the data collected in the field notes should be: 'analysed and compared with the transcripts from interviews to identify similarities and differences'.
- field notes and interviews should be transcribed and together are analysed for themes and meanings allowing the observations to be understood. This process is called **Thematic analysis**.
- Donovan (2006) believes that '**descriptive analysis**' is the more traditional approach to use to analyse ethnographic studies.

Step 5: write up

- To help ensure trustworthiness of the research findings, the researchers must be able to illustrate their steps in data collection and in the data analysis process.
- 'Emic and 'Etic'

Limitations of Ethnography

1. Sample size is a limitation of the ethnography method. The time required being involved in participant observation and conducting long interviews greatly limits the sample size.
2. 'Hawthorne Effect': if people know they are being observed they may change their behaviour.
3. It is difficult to generalize with the ethnography method. When researching a certain culture, the results cannot necessarily be generalized to other populations.
4. The acceptance of the culture.

Case study Versus Ethnography

Case Study	Ethnography
does not only depend on participant-observer data but mainly uses interviews.	It may require certain periods of time in the 'field' and emphasize details of observational evidence.
does not have to present direct and detailed observations, but it can be based on any quantitative or qualitative data.	The ethnographer may use an interview as an additional technique to capture whole participant's perspective.

Example of Ethnographic studies

- Van Keer, R. L., Deschepper, R., Huyghens, L., & Bilsen, J. (2019). Challenges in delivering bad news in a multi-ethnic intensive care unit: An ethnographic study. *Patient Education and Counseling*, 102(12), 2199-2207

7th week Thematic Analysis (TA) of Qualitative Data

Transcribing interview data

- Given that audio or video data are commonly collected in qualitative research, qualitative researchers generally allocate time to transcribing the data in preparation for further analysis.
- For thematic analysis, verbatim transcripts are quite common; that is, transcripts that aim to capture every utterance from the participant and serve as an accurate record of the conversation.
- Transcribing is often delegated to a junior researcher, but this can be a mistake if the transcriber is inadequately trained or briefed.
- Transcription involves close observation of data through repeated careful listening (and/or watching), and this is an important first step in data analysis.
- This familiarity with data and attention to what is actually there rather than what is expected can facilitate realizations or ideas which emerge during analysis.
- Transcribing takes a long time (at least 3 hours per hour of talk) and this should be allowed for in project time plans, budgeting for researchers' time if they will be doing the transcribing.

Tips for Transcribing Interview Data

- Comments or questions by the Interviewer or Facilitator should be labelled with by typing I: at the left margin and then indenting the question or comment.
- Any comments or responses from participants should be labelled with P: at the left margin with the response indented.
- Example
- I: OK, before we begin the interview itself, I'd like to confirm that you have read and signed the informed consent form, that you understand that your participation in this study is entirely voluntary, that you may refuse to answer any questions, and that you may withdraw from the study at anytime.
- P: Yes, I had read it and understand this.
- P: I also understand it, thank you.
- I: Do you have questions before we proceed?
- The transcriber shall indicate when the interview session has reached completion by typing END OF INTERVIEW in uppercase letters on the last line of the transcript.
- Audiotapes shall be transcribed verbatim (i.e., recorded word for word, exactly as said), including any nonverbal or background sounds (e.g., laughter, sighs).
- Nonverbal sounds shall be typed in parentheses, for example, (short sharp laugh).

Thematic Analysis (TA)

- Procedures for using TA as a qualitative technique only began to be published in the 1990s (e.g. Aronson, 1994), but qualitative researchers have described their approach to analysis as 'thematic', without an explicit reference to a developed method.
- In 2006, Virginia Braun and Victoria Clarke described TA as 'a poorly demarcated and rarely acknowledged, yet widely used qualitative analytic method'.
- Since the publication of what became a landmark paper, TA as has gained popularity and has entered the qualitative canon as a recognisable and reputable method of analysis.

What is Thematic analysis?

- The process of identifying patterns or themes within qualitative data.
- The goal of a thematic analysis is to identify themes, i.e. patterns in the data that are important or interesting, and use these themes to address the research.
- Thematic analysis is more than simply summarising the data. (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017)
- TA is a method of "identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data".
- It is described as a descriptive method that reduces the data in a flexible way.
- It is used commonly because of the wide variety of research questions and topics that can be addressed with this method of data analysis.

Thematic Analysis

- **Thematic analysis is the most common form of analysis in qualitative research**
- **It emphasizes pinpointing, examining, and recording patterns (themes) within data**
- **Themes are patterns across data sets that are important to the description of a phenomenon and are associated to a specific research question**
- **The themes become the categories for analysis**
- **Thematic analysis is performed through the process of coding in six phases to create established, meaningful patterns. These phases are: familiarization with data, generating initial codes, searching for themes among codes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the final report.**

What is the definition of theme?

- According to Speziale, Streubert (2011): theme is a structural meaningful unit of data which is necessary for providing qualitative findings.
- Based on a study by DeSantis and Ugarriza (2000) conducted on qualitative papers between 1979 and 1998, 40% of the papers had used the word "theme" in their studies.
- According to them no specific definition of theme was found in the aforementioned papers. However, several definitions of the word "theme" which exist in different sources are as follows:
- Brink, Wood (1997): The term "theme" is used for describing the fact that the data are grouped around a main issue.
- Polit, Hungler (1999): a recurrent and systematic occurrence which appears in qualitative data analysis.

Braun & Clarke's six-phase framework for doing a thematic analysis

Step 1: Become familiar with the data

Step 2: Generate

Step 3: Search for themes

Step 4: Review themes initial codes

Step 5: Define themes

Step 6: Write-up

Step 1: Become familiar with the data

- The first step in any qualitative analysis is reading, and re-reading the transcripts.
- Conduct an initial read through the transcripts and/or notes from participant observation, documents and so on.
- You should be very familiar with your entire body of data or data corpus (i.e. all the interviews).
- Familiarisation provides the researcher with an entry point into analysis – it's a way of engaging with, and gaining insight into, what can sometimes appear to be an overwhelming mass of data.
- When done poorly, or not at all, the rest of the analysis often suffers. So as tempting may it be, skipping over familiarisation, or only doing it once over lightly, does not provide the best launching pad for a high quality TA.
- Researchers must immerse themselves with the data to familiarize themselves with the depth and breadth of the content (Braun & Clarke, 2006).
- At this stage, it is useful to make notes and jot down early impressions ((memoing)).(Lincoln, 2007).
- Once transcribed, interview transcripts should have margins on the left and right sides of the text for coding, particularly when using hand-coding techniques. (Creswell, 2002)
- You should remember that all parts of the data are important and if you study some parts selectively, you may ignore other parts.
- In fact, it is through examining the data that specific patterns and meanings in the writings gradually emerge.

Example on rough notes made on interviews transcripts (Research focus, question: What are students' perceptions of feedback?)

The students do seem to think that feedback is important but don't always find it useful. There's a sense that the whole assessment process, including feedback, can be seen as threatening and is not always understood. The students are very clear that they want very specific feedback that tells them how to improve in a personalised way. They want to be able to discuss their work on a one-to-one basis with lecturers, as this is more personal and also private. The emotional impact of feedback is important.

Step 2: Generate initial codes

- Codes and coding are sometimes called labels and labelling (Rapley, 2011).
- Codes are labels that assign symbolic meaning to the descriptive information compiled during a study (Huberman, Miles, & Saldana, 2014).
- We coded each segment of data that was relevant to or captured something interesting about our research question.

- A code is simply a short, descriptive word or phrase that assigns meaning to the data related to the researcher's analytic interests.
- When applicable, in vivo codes are assigned. In vivo codes are phrases taken from the participants to capture the meaning of the line or text passage (Babchuk, 2019).
- Coding allows the researcher to simplify and focus on specific characteristics of the data.
- Researchers will move from unstructured data to the development of ideas about what is going on in the data (Morse & Richards, 2002).
- Labels can be about actions, activities, concepts, differences, opinions, processes or whatever you think it is relevant.
- You might decide that something is relevant because:

It is repeated in several places

*It surprises you

*The interviewee explicitly states that it is important;

*You have read about something similar in previous published research;

*It reminds you of a theory or concept.

- Structural coding (or index coding): Coding based on questions (research questions, interview guide questions) and/or topics of inquiry.
- Descriptive coding: Coding of the basic topics of chunks of data (often a noun).
- Process coding: Using gerunds ("-ing" words) to code action in the data (Frequently used in grounded theory).

Example on codes

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An interview with a family member ("I") who had witnessed abusive situations between two relatives; an older man ("he") who provided care for his wife, who suffered from mental and physical disabilities ("she"): 				Themes	Codes
Interview transcript	Initial notes	Codes	Themes	The purpose of feedback	Help to learn what you're doing wrong. Unable to judge whether question has been answered. Unable to judge whether question interpreted Properly. Improving grade. Improving structure.
She doesn't get the care she wants. Then she gets worked up, screaming, kicking, making a scene	She gets agitated and makes a scene	Wife's role in the abusive situation	Being caught in a cycle of violence	Emotional response to feedback	Like to get fdbk (Feedback) Difficult for L (Lecturers) to predict impact Student variability in response to feedback Fdbk taken personally initially Don't want to get fdbk if haven't done Well. Reluctance to hear criticism. Fear of possible criticism. Want fdbk in L's (Lecturers) office as emotional response difficult to manage in public. Negative fdbk can be constructive. Negative fdbk can be framed in a supportive way
He goes crazy then	He responds and "goes crazy"	Husband's role in the abusive situation	Being caught in a cycle of violence		
After these episodes I think is when I have seen the bruises	After these episodes I have seen bruises	Evidence of abuse	Being caught in a cycle of violence		

Step 3: Search for themes (Continued)

- Theme development first involves examining codes (and associated data), and combining, or collapsing codes together into bigger or more meaningful patterns.
- We examine the codes, some of them clearly fitted together into an initial theme.
- The themes produced at this stage are considered preliminary. (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017)
- The themes are sought from the codes whenever the initial codes are formed.
- For this purpose, you should know the codes. You have a long list of different codes. You can gradually bring similar codes under a set. You can give a name to each set and write a concise explanation for that name separately.

- Then try to organize the code sets meaningfully. Some codes form theme, some others are subthemes and some are codes that do not belong to a theme yet and they are necessary to be written temporarily to later determining the themes they belong to; or it may be necessary to extract a theme from them.

Step 4: Review themes

- Themes should be coherent and they should be distinct from each other.
- At this step, we may delete themes, collapse themes together, and identify subthemes.
- Things to think about include:

*Do the themes make sense?

*Does the data support the themes?

*Are there themes within themes (subthemes)?

*Are there other themes within the data?

(Maguire & Delahunt, 2017)

- In the previous example (slide #24), upon reviewing the themes, it has been found that subtheme can be established under emotional response to feedback theme.

- **Therefore, Feedback as potentially threatening** was generated as a subtheme within the broader theme Emotional Response to feedback.

Theme: Emotional response to feedback

Theme: Emotional response to feedback

Like to get fdbk,
Difficult for L to predict impact
Student variability in response to feedback

Subtheme: Feedback as potentially threatening

Don't want to get fdbk if haven't done well.
Reluctance to hear criticism,
Fear of possible criticism,
Fdbk taken personally initially
Fdbk has an emotional impact
Want fdbk in L's office as emotional response difficult to manage in the public.
Negative fdbk can be framed in a supportive way

- At the end of this phase, researchers have a good idea of the different themes, how they fit together, and the overall story they tell about the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Step 5: Define Themes

- This is the final refinement of the themes and the aim is to ‘..identify the ‘essence’ of what each theme is about.’.(Braun & Clarke, 2006).
- During this phase, we wrote detailed analysis for each individual theme, identifying the story that each theme told while considering how each theme fit into the overall story about the entire data set in relation to the research questions.
- In this stage, we may do renaming for the themes (Nowell, Norris, White, & Moules, 2017).
- Theme names need to be punchy and immediately give the reader a sense of what the theme is about (Braun & Clarke, 2006)
- A solo researcher may consult outside experts to determine whether the themes are sufficiently clear and comprehensive (King, Cassell, & Symon, 2004).
- The process of peer debriefing, with someone who knows a great deal about the area of the inquiry and the method of thematic analysis, will help expose the researcher to aspects of the research that might otherwise remain unspoken (Lincoln, 2007).

Step 6: Write-up

- Usually the end-point of research is some kind of report, often a journal article or dissertation.
- Direct quotes from participants are an essential component of the final report (King, Cassell, & Symon, 2004).
- Literature can be used to confirm the research findings as well as provide an opportunity to challenge and add to the literature (Tuckett, 2005).
- Many authors recommend submitting the analyses to participants for their feedback through the process of **member checking** (Côté & Turgeon, 2005).

Write- up (One theme in a Results section in a research paper).

Acknowledging patients' emotions and expressing physicians' caring emotions

Even though patients neither verbalized their emotions nor their real concerns, they still wanted them to be addressed. One patient explained: 'I wish that he could have asked why you are so depressed about this ... unless they ask, you will not say anything'. Patients expected physicians to notice their emotional cues and deal with them. A patient confessed: 'I was coming in crying and sobbing; maybe he understood on his own that I always take things more negatively'. They also wanted physicians to express emotions through verbal remarks, facial expressions, and body language. One patient remarked: 'I know that there won't be emotions involved, but he had a permanent poker face'. Interestingly, physicians thought they 'do not express emotions to the patient', but they show care by asking 'what is hurting them and give them something for the pain'. When one of the physicians was asked if he understood and addressed the patient's concerns, he replied: 'indirectly; well I examined her... We gave her an injection for the pain, so she felt that we were taking care of her medically'. A common justification was that if the 'patient was sicker; I would have interacted with her differently'.

Papers using TA

- The Physicians' empathy levels in a primary care setting: perceptions of patients and their physicians, a qualitative study work process.
- Physicians' understanding and practices of Pharmacovigilance: qualitative experience from A lower middle-income country

PAST PAPER SECTION

Introduction to qualitative research past papers

1-The quality criterion utilized in qualitative research, that corresponds to "Internal Validity" employed by positivist investigators is:

- a. Confirmability.
- b. Neutrality.
- c. Credibility.
- d. Dependability.
- e. Transferability.

ANSWER : C

2-The process of turning audio interviews into text documents to allow for analysing qualitative research data is:

- a. Coding
- b. Mnemoning
- c. Transcription
- d. Segmenting

ANSWER : C

3-Which of the following strategies is best used to ensure transferability of qualitative research findings?

- a. Practisereflexivity.
- b. Data cleaning.
- c. Selective coding.
- d. Thick, vivid description.
- e. Pilot study.

ANSWER : D

4-Dependability of qualitative research refers to:

- a. Interpretation of the data from the perspective of the population under study.
- b. The confidence that can be placed in the truth of the research findings.
- c. The degree to which research findings are clearly representative of the participants' views, rather than the researchers' preferences.
- d. The degree to which the results can be generalized or transferred to other contexts or population groups.

e. The consistency of findings over time.

ANSWER : E

5-The quality criterion used in qualitative research that corresponds to "Objectivity" in quantitative research is:

- a. Reflexivity.
- b. Credibility.
- c. Internal validity.
- d. Confirmability.
- e. Dependability.

ANSWER : D

6-In qualitative research, considering each researcher's reflective comments to prevent their own biases related to the research topic from affecting analysis helps to ensure:

- a. Transferability.
- b. Reliability.
- c. Confirmability.
- d. Applicability.
- e. Internal validity.

ANSWER : C

7-In a qualitative study to examine the Emergency Department (ED) staff perceptions regarding implementation of evidence based medicine, all the investigators in this study had the opportunity to have a continued engagement with each ED during the data collection process. This strategy helps to enhance.....of the research:

- a. Objectivity.
- b. Applicability.
- c. Credibility.
- d. Internal validity.
- e. Transferability.

ANSWER : C

8-Dependability in qualitative research is equivalent to --- in quantitative research.

- a. Internal validity.
- b. External validity.
- c. Objectivity.
- d. Reliability.

e. Construct validity.

ANSWER : D

9-Confirmability of qualitative research refers to:

- a. The confidence that can be placed in the truth of the research findings.
- b. The level of confidence that that the work's findings are the result of the experiences and ideas of the informants, rather than the characteristics and preferences of the researcher.
- c. The degree to which the results can be generalized or transferred to other contexts or settings.
- d. The stability or consistency of findings over time.
- e. A deductive approach to data analysis.

ANSWER : B

10-In a qualitative study to examine the Emergency Department (ED) staff perceptions regarding implementation of evidence-based medicine, all the investigators in this study had the opportunity to have A CONTINUED ENGAGEMENT with each ED during the data collection process. The researchers also established AN AUDIT TRAIL (a detailed track record of the data collection process). These strategies help to enhance————-and————- of the research, respectively:

- a. Credibility,Dependability.
- b. Transferability, Internal validity.
- c. Applicability,Externalvalidity.
- d. Objectivity, Neutrality.

ANSWER : A

e. Internal validity, Construct validity.

11-In qualitative research, considering each researcher's reflective comments to prevent their own biases related to the research topic from affecting analysis helps to ensure:

- a. Transferability.
- b. Reliability.
- c. Confirmability.
- d. Applicability.
- e. Internalvalidity.

ANSWER : C

12-In a qualitative study to examine the Emergency Department (ED) staff perceptions regarding implementation of evidence based medicine, all the investigators in this study had the opportunity to have a continued engagement with each ED during the data collection process. This strategy helps to enhance.....of the research:

- a. Objectivity.
- b. Applicability.

- c. Credibility.
- d. Internal validity.
- e. Transferability.

ANSWER : C

13-Inductive approach to research has all the following features except:

- a. Draws on prior understandings of an aspect of the world.
- b. It is important in Grounded Theory approach.
- c. Sets aside prior theories to build up an understanding of the world from the collected data.
- d. Open ended interviews are used to collect information in inductive approach.
- e. In inductive approach, the researchers go from the specific to the general.

ANSWER : A

14-First step in qualitative research:

- study design

15-Goal of qualitative research:

- understand meaning of phenomena

16- Not a method to test quality of a research:

- how does it confirm a theory

17-Not part of trustworthiness criteria:

- confirmation of theory

18-Objectivity counterpart in qualitative studies:

- confirmability

19-External validity counterpart in qualitative studies:

- transferability

20-Dependability can be described as:

- other researchers can conduct the same study

21-Wrong about qualitative research:

- can manipulate variables

22-Instrument of qualitative research:

- researcher

23-feasibility of a research project takes into consideration:

- time and cost, researchers expertise, sth, all of the above

24-Which is not a stimulant for a qualitative research topic:

- to test a theory/hypothesis

25-observation -> pattern -> hypothesis -> theory:

- inductive

26-Dependability:

- other researchers can conduct the same study

27-Not part of trustworthiness:

- confirmation of theory (don't confuse it with conformability)

28-Not in trustworthiness criteria:

- measurability

29-Not an aim of qualitative research:

- testing theory

30-Goal of qualitative research:

- understand meaning of phenomenon

31-Instrument of qualitative research:

- researcher

32-Qualitative is:

- understanding actions

33-Qualitative research doesn't aim to:

- test a theory

34-All is true about qualitative except:

- measurable

35-blueprint:

- design

36-general to particular:

- deduction

Research paradigms past papers

1-The study of knowledge is:

- a. Epistemology.
- b. Ontology.
- c. Methodology.
- d. Phenomenology.
- e. Axiology.

ANSWER : A

2-Pragmatism argues:

- a. That you adopt the research philosophy that you want.
- b. That the most important determinant of the research method adopted is the research question.
- c. That you make it up as you go along.
- d. The art of the possible.

ANSWER : B

3-Features of qualitative research include all of the following EXCEPT:

- a. Utilises an etic approach.
- b. Utilises bottom-up approach (specific to general).
- c. Generalizability is not a guiding principle.
- d. Based in an interpretive paradigm.
- e. Follows an inductive approach.

ANSWER : A

4-What does a positivist believe?

- a. Research question is the pivotal point for the selection of method.
- b. None of the choices are correct.
- c. Knowledge is always open to further investigation and the truth of any matter is always forthcoming.
- d. Research operates in an objective world.
- e. The world is socially constructed.

ANSWER : D

5-Epistemology is the branch of philosophy that deals with:

- a. The nature of knowledge.
- b. The nature of value.
- c. The nature of existence.
- d. The nature of ethics.
- e. The nature of beauty.

ANSWER : A

6-Which of the following is not a contrast between quantitative and qualitative research?

- a. Interpretivist vs. pragmatism.
- b. Deductive vs. inductive.
- c. Distance vs. proximity of researcher to participants.
- d. Fixed predetermined vs.emergent and flexible design.
- e. Generalization vs. contextual understanding.

ANSWER : A

7-Research paradigm that relies on abductive reasoning is:

- a. Empiricism.
- b. Objectivism.
- c. Positivism.
- d. Interpretivism.
- e. Pragmatism.

ANSWER : E

8-Which of the following statements is correct regarding etic perspective:

- a. Refers to the insider's view of reality.
- b. Knowledge is objective.
- c. Knowledge is subjective.
- d. It is qualitatively oriented.
- e. Based in an interpretivist paradigm.

ANSWER : B

9-Which of the following is true regarding constructivism paradigm?

- a. Knowledge is established through the meanings attached to the topic under scrutiny.

- b. Knowledge is generated through measurement of the phenomenon under study.
- c. Based essentially on mixed methods research design.
- d. Knowledge is contextless.
- e. Relies on predefined dependent and independent variables.

ANSWER :A

10-Which of the following is true regarding constructivism paradigm?

- a. Enable researchers to develop universal laws and findings.
- b. Researchers are critical realists who rely on predefined dependent and independent variables.
- c. Statistical tests can be misused leading to misinterpretation within research due to selection of incorrect test of statistics.
- d. The data gathered and analysed would be less likely to be generalised given the consideration that data were mainly dependent on a specific viewpoints and values.
- e. Its significance is largely dependent on the sample size.

ANSWER : D

11-Which of the following statements is TRUE in regard to Epistemology?

- a. Comes from the Greek word episteme, which means being.
- b. Focuses on propositional knowledge.
- c. It has no intimate association with ontology and methodology.
- d. Deals with values, as those of ethics, aesthetics, or religion.
- e. A systematic account of existence.

ANSWER : B

12-paradigm?

- a. Enable researchers to to develop universal laws and findings.
- b. Researchers are critical realists who rely on predefined dependent and independent variables.
- c. Statistical tests can be misused leading to misinterpretation within research due to selection of incorrect test of statistics.
- d. The data gathered and analysed would be less likely to be generalised given the consideration that data were mainly dependent on a specific viewpoints and values.
- e. Its significance is largely dependent on the sample size.

ANSWER : A

13-"There are multiple realities, and each is seen as a construct" is described by:

- Interpretivism

14-True about deductive method:

- formulate hypothesis and test theories

15-True about etic:

- concerned with objectivity

16-Wrong about epistemology:

- a view of nature of reality

17-True about pragmatism:

- answers research questions from various perspectives

18-Set of beliefs that guide actions:

- paradigms

19-"There are multiple realities, and each is seen as a construct":

- Interpretivism

20-emic:

- insider's view

21-not absolute meaning for research methodology:

- (definition of methodology, different investigation approaches, disciplined sth to generate knowledge, study of understanding how research is conducted methodically).

Qualitative data collection methods past papers

1-A question during an interview such as "Could you tell me more about that?" is known as:

- a. Filter.
- b. Response.
- c. Pilot.
- d. Probe.
- e. Census.

ANSWER : D

2-All of the following statements are correct regarding unstructured interview EXCEPT:

- a. The participant determines the flow of topics, rather than the interviewer.
- b. Note-taking is likely to disrupt the natural flow of the conversation.
- c. Another name is formal conversational interview.
- d. Looks like an improvised performance.
- e. Can be guided by aide memoire or agenda.

ANSWER : C

3-Closed ended questions are those that:

- a. Allow supervisor to distinguish between good and bad interviewers.
- b. Prevent respondents from allocating themselves to a category.
- c. Have a fixed range of possible answers.
- d. Encourage detailed, elaborate responses.

ANSWER : C

4-All of the following are correct regarding throwaway questions in interview guide EXCEPT:

- a. Unnecessary for gathering the important information being examined in the study. Nonetheless, these throwaway questions may be invaluable for drawing out a complete story from a respondent.
- b. May be used in the interview whenever subjects indicate to the interviewers that a sensitive area

has been entered upon.

- c. May be demographic questions or general questions used to develop rapport between interviewers and subjects.
- d. May be found at the beginning of the interview guide or sprinkled throughout the tool.
- e. Included to measure the possible influence a change of wording might have.

ANSWER :E

5-Which of the following statements is CORRECT regarding interviews in qualitative research:

- a. The duration of unstructured interview session is frequently longer than structured interviews.
- b. Unstructured interviews can be guided by using interview schedule (guide).
- c. Interviews do not allow for probing of initial participants' responses.
- d. Structured interviews can be considered as a natural extension to participant observation.
- e. Structured interviews can be guided by using aide memoire (agenda).

ANSWER : A

6-Which type of interview allows the questions to emerge from the immediate context or course of things?

- a. Informal conversational interview.
- b. Standardised open-ended interview.
- c. Open quantitative interview.
- d. Standardised closed-ended interview.
- e. Closed quantitative interview.

ANSWER :A

7-Probing question is:

- a. A question that shifts the conversation into another topic.
- b. A question used to gain more, clearer information about the topic.
- c. A question used to obtain participant approval to be involved in the study.
- d. A question used to test the interview guide prior to interview execution.
- e. A question that encourages participants to talk about sensitive issues.

ANSWER :B

8-Interview questions should:

- a. Lead the respondent.

- b. Probe sensitive issues.
- c. Provide non- verbal signals to the respondents.
- d. Be delivered in a neutral tone.
- e. Test the respondents' power of memory.

ANSWER : D

9-Most flexible form of data collection:

- unstructured interview

10-A good interview question:

- What are your perceptions about the influence of your life style on your blood pressure?

11-A good interview question:

- What makes you feel relaxed after a hardworking day?

12-Questions of qualitative research:

- open-ended

13-Themes are:

- Descriptions of patterns

14- Wrong about research question:

- is decided in the beginning and never changed

15- Which are data interesting to qualitative research:

- observational

16- True about qualitative:

- observable

17- a good qualitative question:

- conveys an emerging design

18-Not a qualitative research question:

- socioeconomic status and DM

19-Not a qualitative research topic:

- The influence of socio familial factors to Diabetes Miletus

Focus groups past papers

1-Hawthorne effect refers to:

- a. Change of the participants' behaviors as being observed.
- b. The process of providing access to research participants.
- c. Reverting of the participants to the normal behavior.
- d. The tendency of participants to answer questions in a manner that will be viewed favorably by others.
- e. Process through which the researcher gains trust and establishes rapport with participants.

ANSWER : A

2-Informed consent involves:

- a. Participants giving their agreement to take part in the research knowing what it entails.
- b. Asking participants after a study why they agreed with certain statements.
- c. Participants being told that they must identify the statements in a questionnaire with which they agree.
- d. Telling participants about a hypothetical situation and asking whether they agree that a certain outcome is likely.
- e. Participants making a choice over which answer will give them a reward.

ANSWER : A

3-The function of the Informed consent is:

- a. Provides information about how data analysis will be conducted.
- b. Spells out expectations and procedures for disclosing conflicts of interest, avoiding research misconduct, and otherwise exhibiting professionalism.
- c. Assurance that individuals get to choose what information they reveal about themselves.
- d. Provides essential information about research projects so that participants can make a thoughtful decision about whether to enroll in a study.

ANSWER : D

4-Observation studies produce:

- a. Quantitative or qualitative data.
- b. Qualitative data.

c. Quantitative data.

d. No data.

ANSWER : A

5-What is the role of the moderator in a focus group?

a. To sit away from the group and observe their behavior.

b. To ask leading questions and dominate the discussion.

c. To evaluate the group's performance on a particular task.

d. To stimulate discussion and keep the conversation on track.

ANSWER :D

6-Focus groups are recommended for studying sensitive topics:

- a. False
- b. True

ANSWER :A

7-Which of the following statements is CORRECT regarding covert observation method:

- a. It does not involve deception.
- b. Participants are unaware of being observed.
- c. Participants know they are being observed.
- d. It increases Hawthorne effect.

ANSWER :B

8-Observation sometimes referred to as unobtrusive method:

- a. False
- b. True

ANSWER : B

9-The most common style of observation is:

- a. Template observation.
- b. Unstructured observation.
- c. Structured observation.
- d. Mechanical observation.

ANSWER : B

10-In participant observation:

- a. One member of the IRB participates in the action being observed.
- b. The research participants participate in the action being observed.
- c. The research supervisor participates in the action being observed.
- d. The researcher participates in the action being observed.

ANSWER : D

11-The process of reverting of participants to their normal behaviour after a period of being observed is:

- a. Reactivity.

- b. Operant conditioning.
- c. Habituation.
- d. Osborne effect.

ANSWER : C

12-Which of the following statements is CORRECT regarding "Ignorant intruder to welcome" stage in observation studies:

- a. The researcher has established relationships with participants to the extent that he/she no longer has to think about what he/she says.
- b. It may involve the researcher's working with and participating in everyday activities beside participants in their daily lives.
- c. Moving from a position of formal.
- d. It is called intimate stage.
- e. The language becomes more familiar to the researcher, but he/she still may not be fluent in its use.

ANSWER : E

13-Which of the following is a disadvantage of qualitative interviewing relative to participant observation?

- a. It is more likely to create reactive effects.
- b. It may not provide access to deviant or hidden activities.
- c. It is more ethically dubious, in terms of obtaining informed consent.
- d. Has a more specific focus.
- e. It does not allow participants to reconstruct their life events.

ANSWER : B

14-Which of the following is an unobtrusive method?

- a. Observation.
- b. Semi-structured interviews.
- c. Structured interviews.
- d. Questionnaires.
- e. Focus Groups.

ANSWER : A

15-Which method is most commonly associated with a lack of informed consent?

- a. Qualitative content analysis.
- b. In- depth interviewing.
- c. Discourse analysis.

- d. Covert observation.
- e. Structured interviewing.

ANSWER : D

16-Which of the following is an advantage of qualitative interviewing relative to participant observation?

- a. It allows you to find out about issues that are resistant to observation.
- b. It is more biased and value-laden.
- c. It is more likely to create reactive effects.
- d. All of the above.

ANSWER : A

17-What is meant by the term "reactive effect"?

- a. If people know they are being observed, they may change their behavior.
- b. Researchers sometimes react to their informants' behaviour with horror.
- c. Research subjects may have a bad reaction to the drugs they are given.
- d. The participants may react to the observer's perfume.

ANSWER : A

18-Structured observation means:

- a. The researcher has to be present when the event being studied takes place.
- b. The research has to happen at a fixed time each day.
- c. A video camera has to be used.
- d. Fixed aspects of the situation have been chosen to be observed.

ANSWER : D

19-Which of the following is wrong about focus groups?

- The ideal number is 7-11 and the moderator directs the discussion

20-Which of the following is wrong about covert observations?

- Participants know they are observed + it is most commonly used

21-Which of the following is wrong about ignorant intruder to welcome?

- Researchers participate in everyday activities with participants

22-Hawthorne effect is reversed through:

- The process of habituation

23-Which of the following is wrong about focus groups?

- They assure equality in listening to the voices of participants

24-The best number of members for focus groups is:

- 4-8

25-An observer that takes part in group activities is called:

- Participant observation

26-Which of the following is true regarding covert observation?

- Suspiciously taking data

27-An observer that takes part in group activities but declares that they are researching:

- Participant observation

28-Not true about focus groups:

- they are not time efficient

29-Key informant:

- members that help you get access

30-must be included in informed consent:

- purpose of the study

31-Wrong about focus groups:

- the ideal number is 7-11 + the moderator directs the discussion

32-Meeting and conversation with people to develop relationships:

- hanging out

33-Not a condition for crowd to be wise:

- centralization

Case study and ethnography past papers

1-The criteria by which the researcher develops a sense that the new knowledge is far removed from the central core of viable categories that have initially emerged is called:

- a. Exhaustion of resources.
- b. Saturation of categories.
- c. Overextension.
- d. Consensus.
- e. Halo effect.

ANSWER : C

2-Case study performed before implementing a large-scale investigation is known as:

- a. Descriptive illustrative.
- b. Exploratory.
- c. Critical Instance.
- d. Explanatory.
- e. Cumulative.

ANSWER : B

3-Triangulation is:

- a. The relationship between the aim and objectives of the study and the literature review carried out for the study.
- b. A stage of the literature reviewing process.
- c. The use of more than one than one approach to answering the research question, to responding to the research statement.
- d. The relationship between the research project, the researcher and the research supervisor.
- e. The attempt to dispute prior findings.

ANSWER : C

4-Triangulation means:

- a. Conducting your research in a pyramid.
- b. Revisiting your data until you run out of ideas.
- c. Using trigonometry in your research.
- d. Conducting research over three months.
- e. Verifying your results by cross-checking with other methods of research.

ANSWER : E

5-All of the following features characterize case study research except:

- a. Triangulation is a must.
- b. Case study is not exclusively concerned with qualitative research methods.

- c. Number of variables of interest far outstrips number of data points.
- d. Similar to phenomenology, case study uses constant comparative method to analyse data.
- e. Bounded system.

ANSWER : D

6-Which of the following is considered as a hallmark for ethnographic research?

- a. Integrating of temporality, sociality, and spatiality.
- b. Collecting data from multiple sources of information.
- c. It entails an interest in cultures and cultural understanding.
- d. The potential for data horizontalization and employment.
- e. Bounded system.

ANSWER : C

7-Which of the following is considered as a key challenge for case study research?

- a. Large quantity of data may veer away from the research focus.
- b. The need for axial and selective coding.
- c. The need for covert observation.
- d. The need for data horizontalization and reflexivity.
- e. The possibility of the researcher "going native."

ANSWER : A

8-The step of case study research that "Piloting" relates to is:

- a. Prepare to collect the data.
- b. Evaluate and analyse the data.
- c. Caseselection.
- d. Theoretical sampling.
- e. Data collection in the field.

ANSWER : A

9-Qualitative research approach that can be used to make analytical (theoretical) generalization is:

- a. Ethnography.
- b. Phenomenology.
- c. Case study.
- d. Grounded Theory.

e. Narrative research.

ANSWER : C

10-Design used to study birth practices in different cultures:

- ethnography

11-A design that uses the largest samples:

- ethnography

12-A design that is described as bounded:

- case study

13-Not a characteristic of case study:

- uses a large sample

14-Report conclusion:

- summary of key findings

15-Study phenomena in cultural context:

- ethnography

16-Approach used to describe a phenomenon individually, group of individuals or ward in the hospital and its context:

- case study

17-Not a type of ethnography:

- hermeneutic

18-Collection of data from two clinics at the same time is considered as:

- triangulation

Thematic analysis Past Papers

1-Member checking is the process by which:

- a. Researchers setting aside their pre- understanding and acting non- judgementally.
- b. Researchers organise the data into clusters and themes.
- c. The problem of low response rates to a survey can be overcome.
- d. The validity of an interview schedule can be measured.
- e. Researchers ask their participants to comment on an account of the findings.

ANSWER : E

2-Process coding uses ... as codes; in-vivo coding uses ... as codes.

- a. Regular verbs;life words.
- b. Gerunds; people's own words.
- c. Interview guide questions;common nouns.
- d. Life words; regular verbs.

ANSWER : B

3-The fourth step in Braun & Clarke's six-phase framework for doing a thematic analysis is:

- a. Reviewing themes.
- b. Searching for themes.
- c. Familiarization of data.
- d. Initial coding.

ANSWER : A

4-In deductive thematic analysis, little or no predetermined theory or framework is used to analyse data:

- a. False
- b. True

ANSWER : A

5-The third step in Braun & Clarke's six-phase framework for doing a thematic analysis is:

- a. Defining themes.
- b. Reviewing themes.
- c. Familiarization of data.
- d. Initial coding.

e. Searching for themes.

ANSWER : E

6-In vivo coding uses as codes; process coding uses as codes:

- a. diagnostic labels; activity labels.
- b. interview guide questions; common nouns.
- c. regular verbs; life words.
- d. people's own words; gerunds.
- e. life words; regular verbs.

ANSWER : D

7-Coding based on interview guide questions:

- Index coding

8-Which of the following is wrong about data transcription?

- It is done after analysis

9-Part of write up phase of Braun and Clarke's thematic analysis:

- Direct quotes from participants are essential in the final report

10-Coding based on interview guide questions:

- index coding

11-Wrong about data transcription:

- junior researchers do it for seniors + done after analysis

12-Not the role code:

- authoritarian role

13-What is the process code here?

- Adapting to a healthy lifestyle

14-Codes used here?

- Emotion, belief, value

15-Codes used here best represented by:

- 3,4,5

16-Example of doctor, which is not present in the code?

- Authority

17-coding correct:

- self-worth, stability, comfortable

DONE BY MUHAMMAD SULIMAN

FIRST 6 lectures of qualitative research and their past papers

ستبدي لك الأيام ما كنت جاهلا ويأتيك بالأخبار من لم تزود

١٧-١٢ codes
Just have a look

