

Mal for sensorveiledning

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Emnenavn	Kvalitative forskningsmetoder
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Tillatte hjelpemidler	E - Ingen

Emnets læringsutbyttebeskrivelser angitt i kunnskaper, ferdigheter og generell kompetanse.	https://www.ntnu.no/studier/emner/PSY2018/2023/1#tab=omEmnet
Pensum	Kenny, M., & Fourie, R. (2015). Contrasting Classic, Straussian, and Constructivist Grounded Theory: Methodological and philosophical Conflicts. <i>The Qualitative Report</i> , 20(8), 1270-1289. Braun V. & Clarke, V. (2006.) Using thematic analysis in psychology. <i>Qualitative Research in Psychology</i> , 3, 77-101. Howitt (2010). Ethnography and participant observation. <i>Introduction to qualitative Methods in psychology</i> . (Chapter 5).
Eventuelle formelle krav til besvarelsen	APA style
Hvordan de ulike oppgavene i eksamenssettet er vektlagt	Likt vekting

Sensurveiledning

Besvar to (2) av de tre oppgavene nedenfor

Oppgave 1:

Du skal skrive metodedelen til en søknad om forskningsmidler og mener Grounded Theory er den passende kvalitative tilnærmingen for å besvare forskningsspørsmålene dine. Du mener videre at forskerens subjektivitet er viktig i kvalitativ forskning, og du vil beskrive deg selv som en konstruktivist. Hvilken tilnærming innenfor Grounded Theory ville du valgt for prosjektet ditt, og hvorfor? Hva er forskjellene mellom din valgte tilnærming og den første og klassiske tilnærmingen innenfor Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967)? Hvilken kritikk har blitt rettet mot tilnærmingen du har valgt?

Oppgave 2:

Beskriv fasene i den analytiske prosessen i en tematisk analyse.

Oppgave 3:

Hvilke elementer bør vi vurdere når vi utfører etnografisk forskning innen psykologi?

Eksamenskrav

Oppgave 1:

The approach students must choose is Constructivist Grounded Theory (Charmaz, 2006).

Constructivist Grounded Theory relies on adaptable coding guidelines and a principle of flexibility. It has an emphasis on in-depth, intensive interviewing aimed at achieving an intimate exploration of the meanings that participants attribute to their experiences. The researcher's interpretative understanding is presented in the form of a story or narrative and it more descriptive than explanatory. The coding departs from two key questions: 1) What is the chief concern of participants?; and 2) How do they resolve this concern?. From this approach it is advised to use codes for actions and potential theoretical cues rather than for themes, thereby it is preferable to use gerunds (e.g. revealing, defining, feeling, or wanting). Using gerunds helps to define what is happening in a fragment, making connections between codes, and keeping analyses active and emergent. It is also suggested to utilize the language of the participants as codes. Then, it is important to identify the codes that are recurring or significant for the studied phenomenon. These codes are relevant to conduct the analysis. Codes should be considered as provisional theoretical categories. Memo writing is vital to the process of constructing a theory. The researcher can scrutinize the codes and categories, highlight determining conditions, and trace progression and consequences. The memos may also document "gaps in the data" and help develop conceptual hypotheses. Writing and sorting memos captures the unfolding process of interpreting the phenomena and constructing a theory.

Differences to Classic Grounded Theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Classic Grounded Theory aims at discovering an emergent theory through systematic analysis of data. Charmaz's approach encapsulates a more impressionistic coding, the goal of which is to construct a grounded theory instead of finding a grounded theory. Thus, the subjectivity of the research is more important in Charmaz approach than Glaser and Strauss' approach. In Charmaz approach the literature should be employed throughout all phases of the research, from conception to conclusion. She suggests including specific sections for the literature review as well as recommends using the literature for the interpretation of results and conclusions. On the other hand, Glaser and Strauss argue that it is essential not to consult relevant academic literature because prior knowledge interferes with the understanding of the new phenomenon. However, the literature may be used to make comparisons at the end of the analytic process. These two approaches have distinct coding conventions that arise from opposing philosophical positions embedded within competing research paradigms. Additionally, in Charmaz approach, the researcher interferes with the phenomenon under investigation. The interviewer and the interviewee's mutual construction and interpretation of data puts the researcher as co-creator/participant. Critics argue that it can lead to subjectivity bias, as the researcher's interpretation and influence may overshadow the participants' voices. It might also be accused of lacking the rigor and objectivity associated with the classic approach. However, proponents of constructivist Grounded

Theory argue that the recognition of subjectivity is an asset, allowing for a richer understanding of the context and the social construction of reality, which can be particularly relevant in certain research contexts.

Oppgave 2:

Six-phase analytic process:

- 1) Familiarizing with the data;
- 2) Generating codes;
- 3) Constructing themes;
- 4) Reviewing potential themes;
- 5) Defining and naming themes;
- 6) Producing the report.

1. Familiarizing with the data

Familiarization provides the researcher with an entry point into analysis. Way of engaging with, and gaining insight into, what can sometimes appear to be an overwhelming mass of data. Familiarization is about knowing the dataset. Reading and re-reading all textual data, making casual observational notes. It might involve (re)listening or (re)watching, if the dataset is audio or video.

2. Generating codes

Coding is the systematic and thorough creation of meaningful labels attached to specific segments of the dataset – segments that have meanings relevant to the research question. Identifying these relevant data within each data item, and then ‘tagging’ them with a few words or a phrase that captures the meaning of that data segment to the researcher. Codes vary in what they capture or highlight, from the semantic obvious meaning to more conceptual ideas. Good coding is open and inclusive, identifying and labelling all segments of interest and relevance within the dataset, and everything that is of relevance within those segments. Sometimes a data segment might be tagged with more than one code; other segments might not be coded at all, as they have no relevance to the research question. There is no need to code every line of data. Codes generated need to be meaningful to the researcher, capturing their interpretations of the data, in relation to their research question- Coding is a process of data reduction, and a way of starting to organize the data and researcher observations of it into patterns.

3. Constructing themes

Very active process of pattern formation and identification. The research question helps keep the analysis relevant. Theme development involves examining codes, and combining, clustering or collapsing codes together into bigger or more meaningful patterns. Thinking and effort are required to identify features of similarity and relationship across codes. The researcher needs to identify a central organizing concept that is shared across the range of codes. This helps the researcher determine what a theme is about, and whether or not any particular code fits within it

Visual mapping tools may enhance the researcher's ability to identify and understand potential themes in relation to each other, and the overall dataset.

4. Reviewing potential themes

Quality control exercise to ensure that the themes work well in relation to the coded data, the dataset, and the research question. It may lead to adjustments to the candidate themes and/or thematic map, or even considerable further analytic work. The first stage of review involves checking whether your candidate themes capture the meaning in the collated, coded data segments

Check that their candidate themes work well across the whole dataset – so going back to the entire dataset. Reach balance between making sure that themes are distinct from each other, and ensuring that they relate to each other. If themes are distinctive, most of the codes will only be allocated to one theme. If many are allocated to more than one theme, they risk blurriness. Reviewing analysis involves making choices about the best and sharpest boundaries for inclusion and exclusion.

5. Defining and naming themes

The researcher should have started to move away from thinking about themes to an interpretative orientation. This involves telling a story that is based on, and about, the data, that makes sense of the patterning and diversity of meaning. Theme definitions are short summaries of the core idea and meaning of each theme. Give themes working titles and keep them until this final stage.

6. Producing the report

Final period of focus and refinement. Researchers weave together data, analysis, and connections to the literature into a singular output that answers their research question(s).

Oppgave 3:

Elements to consider in ethnographic research:

1. Formulating research question;
2. Is ethnography an appropriate method?;
3. What is to be addressed in the observation;
4. Define the role of the researcher;
5. Entry to the fieldwork;
6. Maintain access to the field;
7. Field notes and/or data logging information;
8. How to sample for the study;
9. When to stop fieldwork;
10. Exit strategy for disengagement.

The elements in Howitt (2010) are not numbered, and it is important to note that they should not be regarded as following a specific sequence for grading.

1. Formulating research question: In classic ethnographic work, researchers do not have a focused research question in mind. The researcher will start re-formulate or develop ideas during the course of the observation. The research question has to be addressed by the observation. The planning process is begun but not completed before the researcher enters the field. Important to avoid becoming so fixated on a previously prepared and detailed research design.

2. Is ethnography an appropriate method? Question whether a particular area of interest lends itself to ethnography. Think about ethical committees at this point. Ethical risk of covert observation.

Rethink of approach will be necessary when we put informants at risk.

3. What is to be addressed in the observation: Define what is to be addressed in the observation process. Clear definition of the research question is important for the identification of the situation to be studied. Degree of selectivity in what is observed. One cannot be totally sure what be relevant in types of situations with which one has little or no familiarity.

4. Define the role of the researcher: Define a viable role which permits the researcher to participate in a setting or to be sufficiently at its periphery to enable the observation to take place. Things to consider:

characteristics of the researcher and public field settings with lack of structure are probably the easier to participate in (e.g., music concerts).

5. Entry to the fieldwork: Formal organization requires formal request for entry to carry out research. Informal settings may be more flexible but there might still be gatekeepers who may facilitate the entry of the participant observer into the group. Permissions from research committees are also important to enter organizations. Research in hospitals requires ethical clearance.

6. Maintain access to the field: Ethnography involves maintaining relations with the group studied and not just the entry process to the research location. Skills are needed in terms of interpersonal relations since those being studied may have concerns. Provide written information about issues such as data confidentiality, data security, anonymity of individuals, etc. Specifically tailored to the particular research situation.

7. Use key informants: The key informant may play a more central role in most aspects of the group's activities than others; may have an interest in the research which is greater than that of the others; may have special rapport with the researcher. Key informants can play a role in smoothing out the research process and may act as a source of social support at difficult times.

8. Field notes and/or data logging information: Help the researcher familiarize with the social context of the research setting including the people and the interrelations between the two

Good field notes will contain information to build up a picture of social relationships and better understanding of what happens in the group. Memory will affect the quality of the fieldnotes if there is too much delay. Helpful to make some notes immediately – voice recording, or handwritten or computer written notes. Plan the period of observation so there is enough time for note-making.

How to sample for the study: Important to seek out situations and individuals who have the most to contribute to develop this understanding. The ethnographer would be looking for these individuals actively by obtaining information from informants.

9. When to stop fieldwork: Additional data collection produces nothing additional relevant to the concepts, ideas and theories which are guiding the research. The researcher has established a pattern of strong relationships between her analytic categories. Additional data collection is doing nothing to encourage a reassessment of the characteristics of that analytic category. New entries in one's field notes or recorded observations seem very familiar in terms of what was written in earlier field notes.

10. Exit strategy for disengagement: The research process may have come to an end possibly because the fieldwork is complete or because the research has run out of time or funds. There is little established protocol but a clear need for sensitive actions and clear decisions about the process of separation of the researcher from the research site.



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Karakterskala som er benyttet

Bokstavkarakter: <https://innsida.ntnu.no/wiki/-/wiki/Norsk/Karakterskalaen>