

Qualitative research methods

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Introduction

- Name (Mihály Fónai)
- Graduate, degree: history teacher, cultural studies, sociologist (MA, university), PhD
- Research topics: intelligentsia, professions, HE, social inequalities, roma
- *Please introduce yourself!*

What kind of reseach methods do you know – and what do you use

- ?:

The purposes of researches

- **Exploration:** some research is conducted to explore a topic, that is, to start familiarize a researcher with that topic. This approach typically occurs when a researcher examines a **new interest** or when the subject of study itself is **relatively new** (*exploratory research*)
- **Description:** A major purpose of many social science studies to describe situations and events. The researcher observes and then describes what was observed. (It can be used when any problem is known after exploration! the researchers do a lot of description investigations to know better the observed phenomena) – (*descriptive research*)
- **Explanation:** The third general purpose of social science research is to explain things. Descriptive studies answer questions of what, where, when, and how; explanatory questions, of why (we can analyse and explain the contexts in these researches) – (*explanatory research*)

Motivations for Research – 1. Babbie, 1989)

Testing Formal Theories

Some social research flows from the derivation of formal theories.

Eg. Talcott Parsons, „general theory of action” (Parsons spoke of universalistic versus particularistic *orientations* that applied to different social roles and situations).

The testing: Suppose you were a police officer on patrol late one night and discovered your own child breaking into a store. Your role as police officer calls for an universalistic response, whereas the parent in you struggles toward particularism.

Testing formal theories - we use this way of research, if our research is deductive.

The step of this researches in deductive logic:

- analysing of theories (eg. Parsons' s „general theory of action”)
- hypotheses
- observation or measurement
- testing of hypotheses by our results

Motivations for Research - 2. (Babbie, 1989)

Exploring Unstructured Interests

Quite often, a scientist will take an interest in a topic without having any clear ideas about what to expect in the way of relationships among variables.

Initially, the relevant variables are not even clear. The initial research, in fact, may have the identification of important variables as its primary purpose.

(eg. exploratory researches, there no is enough knowledge on some problem, question, topic, or researcher is not enough informed in some topic)

Motivations for Research – 3. Babbie, 1989)

Applied Research

Which increasing frequency, social researchers are being commissioned to engage in specific research project, usually of an applied nature.

Eg.: a city government may commission a survey of unemployment rates; a business firm may commission an evaluation of its new apprenticeship program; a political aspirant may commission a poll of voters.

From a social researcher's point of view, applied research can be a source of income, but it also can opportunity to add to general scientific knowledge.

At times there has been a tendency for social scientist in colleges and universities to look down on applied research as less intellectually respectable than “pure” research – sometimes described as “knowledge for knowledge's sake.

Attention: to hold ethical norms of researches

Motivations for Research – 4. Babbie, 1989)

Involuntary Research

Which is the involuntary research? In that the researchers undertake it as a result of external pressure to do so.

There are two major category of this phenomenon:

- junior faculty members whose professional security or advancement may depend, in part, on scientific publications
- college students who must undertake research to satisfy the requirements of courses (in research methods)

The types of researches

- **Zsuzsa Ferge & László Cseh-Szombathy**
 - exploratory research
 - descriptive research
 - explanatory research

The types of researches

- **Iván Falus – János Ollé**
 - basic research
 - applied research
 - action research

Types of researches – 1. (Wikipedia)

- **Basic research**, also called *pure research* or *fundamental research*, has the scientific research aim to improve scientific theories for improved understanding or prediction of natural or other phenomena.
- Basic research advances fundamental knowledge about the world. It focuses on creating and refuting or supporting theories that explain observed phenomena. Pure research is the source of most new scientific ideas and ways of thinking about the world. It can be exploratory, descriptive, or explanatory; however, explanatory research is the most common.
- Basic research generates new ideas, principles, and theories, which may not be immediately utilized but nonetheless form the basis of progress and development in different fields. Today's computers, for example, could not exist without research in pure mathematics conducted over a century ago, for which there was no known practical application at the time. Basic research rarely helps practitioners directly with their everyday concerns; nevertheless, it stimulates new ways of thinking that have the potential to revolutionize and dramatically improve how practitioners deal with a problem in the future.

Types of researches – 2. (Wikipedia)

Applied research, in turn, uses scientific theories to develop technology or techniques to intervene and *alter* natural or other phenomena. Though often driven by curiosity, basic research fuels applied science's innovations.

Applied research is the practical application of science. It accesses and uses accumulated theories, knowledge, methods, and techniques, for a specific, state-, business-, or client-driven purpose. Applied research is contrasted with pure research (basic research) in discussion about research ideals, methodologies, programs, and projects.

Applied research deals with solving practical problems and generally employs empirical methodologies. Because applied research resides in the messy real world, strict research protocols may need to be relaxed. For example, it may be impossible to use a random sample. Thus, transparency in the methodology is crucial. Implications for interpretation of results brought about by relaxing an otherwise strict canon of methodology should also be considered.

Since applied research has a provisional close-to-the-problem and close-to-the-data orientation, it may also use a more provisional conceptual framework such as working hypotheses or pillar questions.

Types of researches – 3. (Wikipedia)

- **Action research** is either research initiated to solve an immediate problem or a reflective process of progressive problem solving led by individuals working with others in teams or as part of a "community of practice" to improve the way they address issues and solve problems. There are two types of action research: participatory and practical. Denscombe writes that an action research strategy's purpose is to solve a particular problem and to produce guidelines for effective practices.
- Action research involves actively participating in a change situation, often via an existing organization, whilst simultaneously conducting research. Action research can also be undertaken by larger organizations or institutions, assisted or guided by professional researchers, with the aim of improving their strategies, practices and knowledge of the environments within which they practice. As designers and stakeholders, researchers work with others to propose a new course of action to help their community improve its work practices.

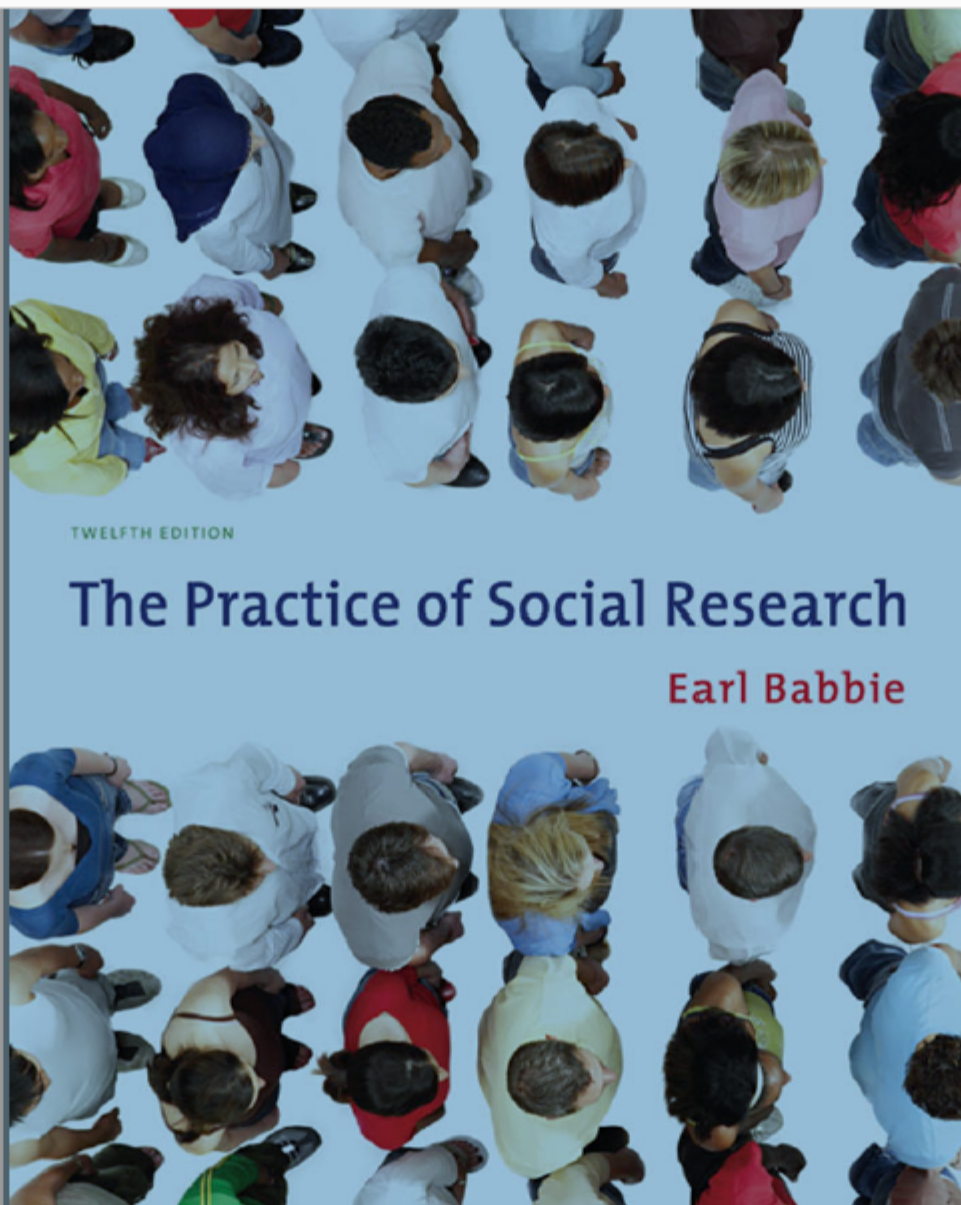
Literature

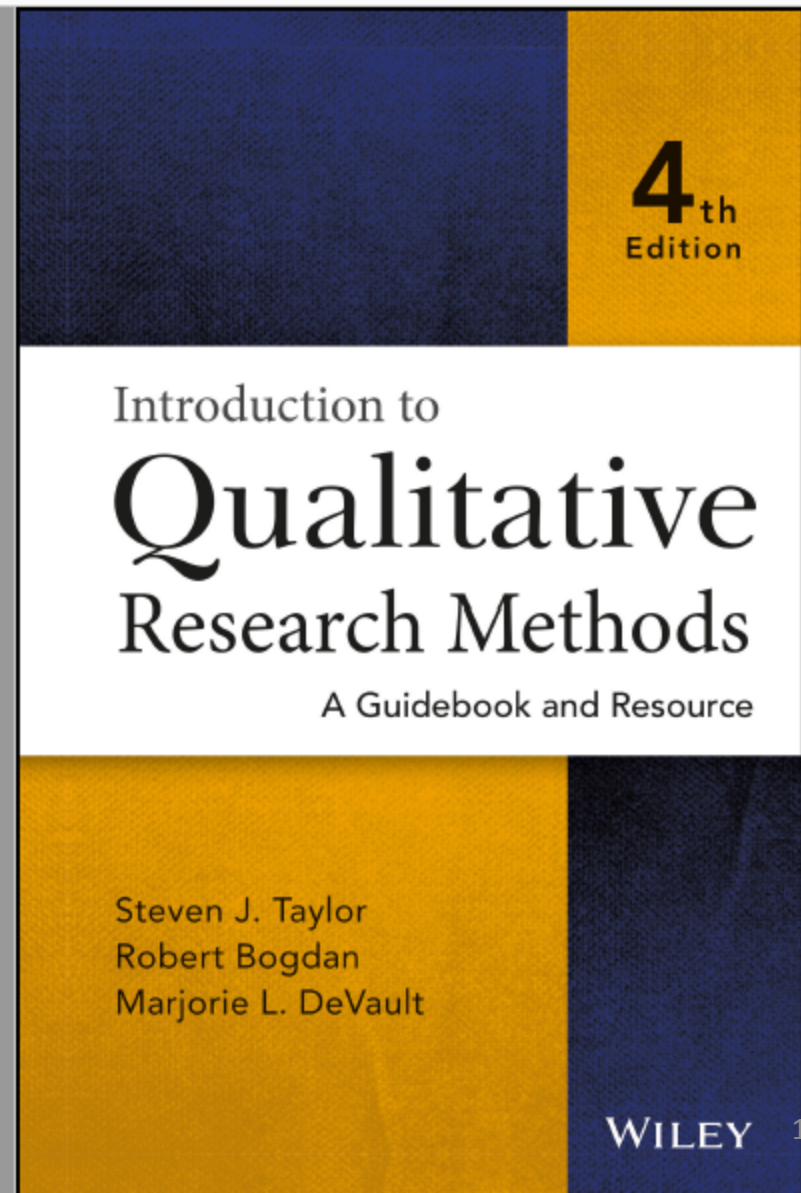
- Earl Babbie: The Practice of Social Research (4. Purpose and Design of Research Project, 88-123)
- John W. Creswell: Research Design Qualitative and Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches (9. Qualitative Methods, 183-215)



Cover

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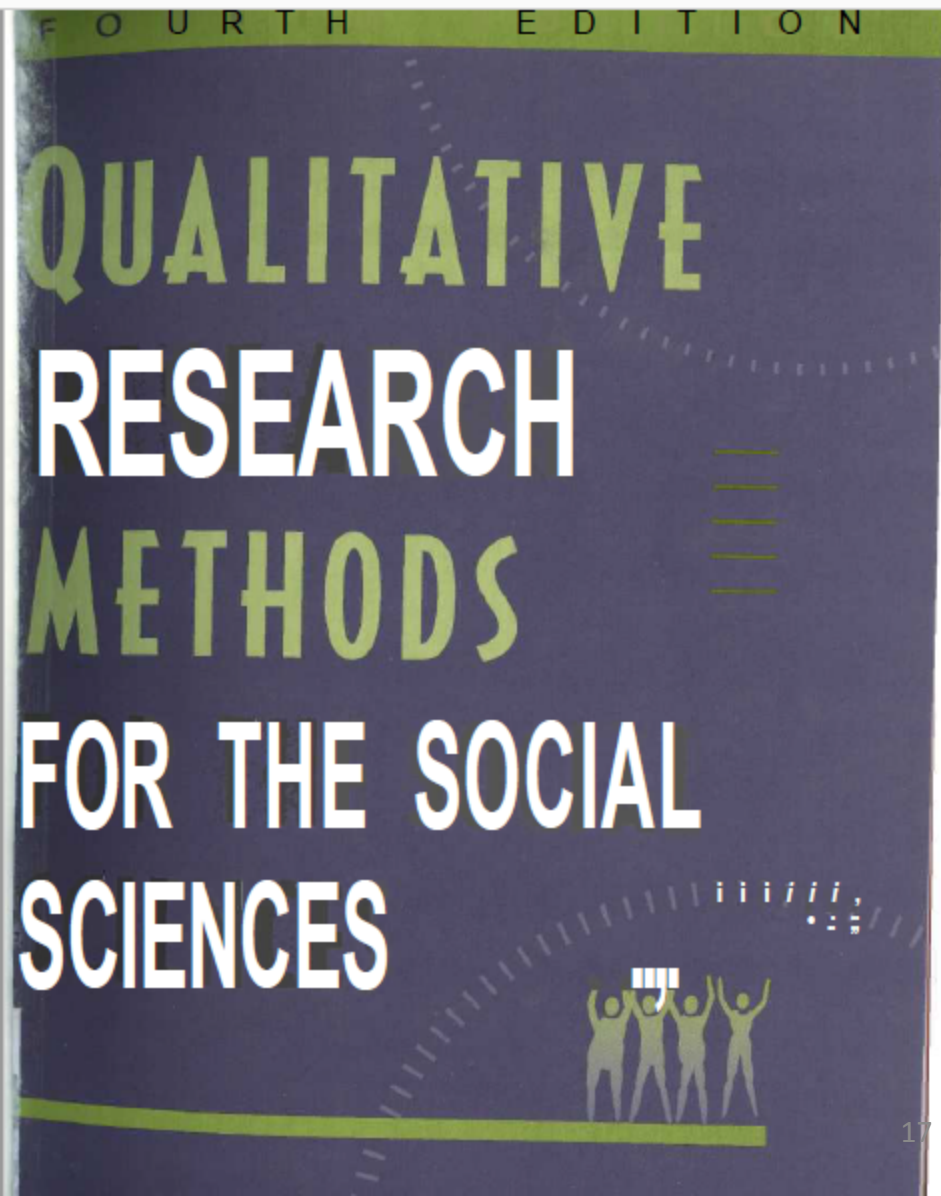


4th
Edition

Introduction to
**Qualitative
Research Methods**
A Guidebook and Resource

Steven J. Taylor
Robert Bogdan
Marjorie L. DeVault

WILEY 16





Writing Law Dissertations

An Introduction and Guide to
the Conduct of Legal Research

Michael SALTER
Julie MASON

Our overall aim in this book is to provide you with a clear understanding of the process of constructing a dissertation and an appropriate way of conducting your research and writing your dissertation. Throughout the book we will explore the relationship with your supervisor. We will also discuss the common pitfalls that you should aim to avoid in your individual undertaking. You choose the topic and the amount of available study time and, at the end of the day, are responsible for the project (and the mark that it ultimately achieves). We will discuss how this necessarily generates diversity, in many respects the dissertation is generic, i.e. of general applicability to all disciplines. However, in saying that, it will be easy for you to adapt the chapters to fit your own particular study circumstances. If you need some encouragement at this early stage, we will discuss aspects of dissertation writing. Firstly, in terms of research, that generally, students achieve better grades in their dissertations as compared to unseen examinations. In some respects this may be due to the fact that whilst dissertation research does require students to create and

For interesting reasons, there can be no single dissertation student, irrespective of their choice of topic and they want to explore within the research field. Furthermore, we and hard about the implications of their topics and research bearing in mind that some questions can only be answered by a student who, for instance, wants to restate what is possible in the criminal justice system) from cases

Philosophy of research (deduction, induction)

Deductive and inductive logic

- **Deductive logic and method (how to build the research and the article)**
- hypothesis
- observation (it means not only observation but content analysis, interviews, questionnaire, etc)
- Accept or reject hypotheses
- **Inductive logic and method**
- observation
- recognizing correlations (összefüggések felismerése)
- conditional conclusions (feltételes következtetések) – new theory, new theoretical statement (it will be hypothesis for deductive method and logic)

When we use deductive logic: when our researches are explanatory research

...and inductive: when our researches are exploratory or descriptive

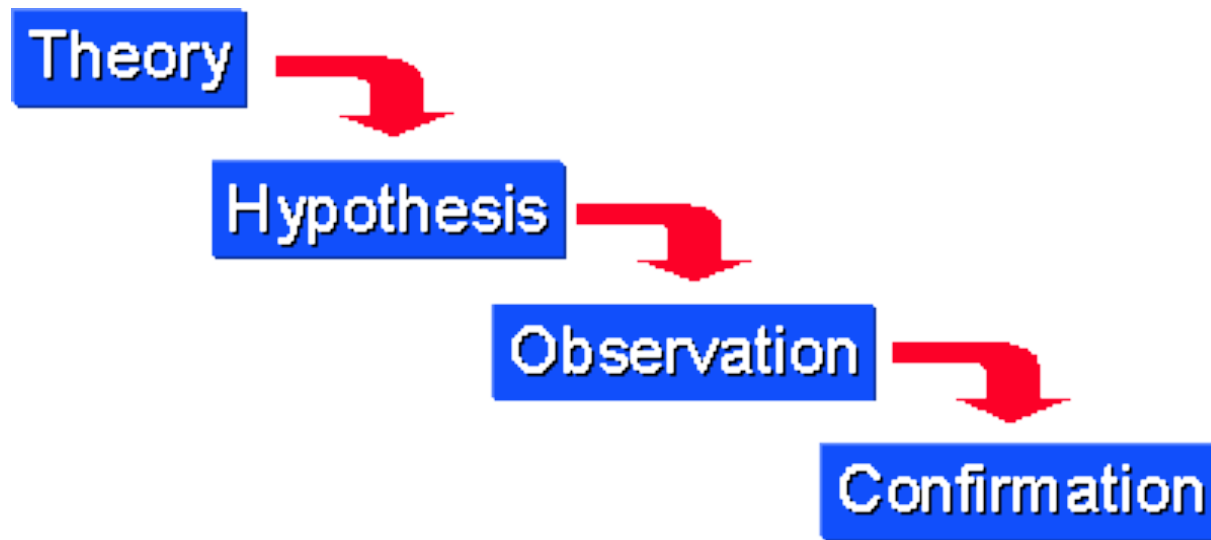
- exploratory , exploration (feltáró, felfedezés)
- explanatory, explanation (magyarázó, magyarázat)
- descriptive, description (leíró, leírás)

How can we create research problems?

Deduction & Induction

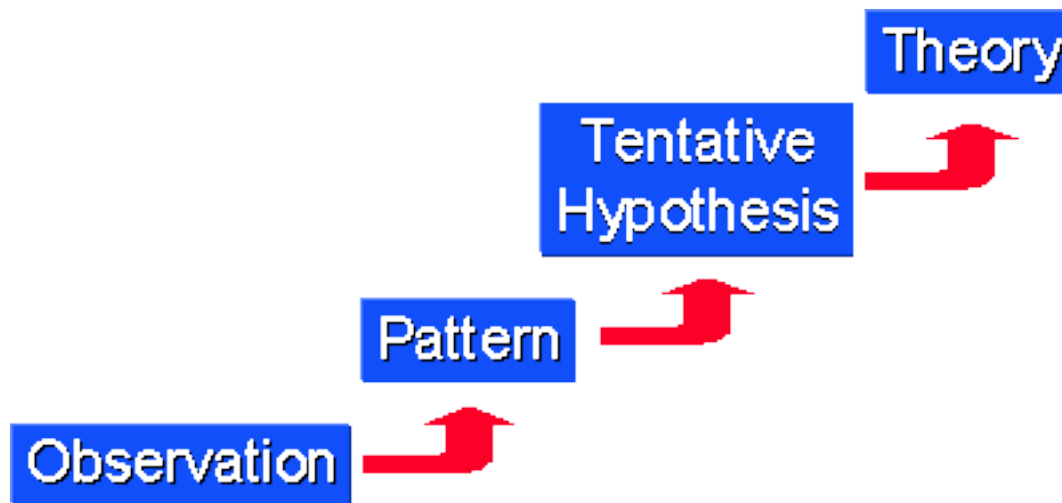
Deductive approach works from the more general to the more specific. ('top-down' approach)

We begin with thinking up a *theory* about our topic of interest. Then we should narrow that down into more specific *hypothesis* that we can test. We narrow down even further when we collect *observations* to address the hypotheses. This ultimately leads us to be able to test the hypotheses with specific data - a *confirmation* (or not) of our original theories.



Inductive approach works the other way, moving from specific observations to broader generalizations and theories. ('bottom-up' approach)

In inductive approach, we begin with specific observations and measures, then to detect patterns and regularities, and formulate some tentative hypotheses that we can explore. Finally end up we develop some general conclusions or theories.



Differences between the 2 approaches

- Inductive approach is more open-ended and exploratory, especially at the beginning.
- Deductive approach is more narrow in nature and is concerned with testing or confirming hypotheses.
- Most social research involves both inductive and deductive reasoning processes at some time in the project.
- These two methods of reasoning have a very different "feel" to them when you're conducting research. Inductive reasoning, by its very nature, is more open-ended and exploratory, especially at the beginning.
- Deductive reasoning is more narrow in nature and is concerned with testing or confirming hypotheses. Even though a particular study may look like it's purely deductive (e.g., an experiment designed to test the hypothesized effects of some treatment on some outcome), most social research involves both inductive and deductive reasoning processes at some time in the project.

The steps of researches

Research plan and the steps of researches

1.determination, definition of the research topic - pay attention to what can be researched , what can causes problem in your research

research topic, research question is too general, too wide
the researched topic is not relevant (e.g. the role of money in the early societies – when not was else money – but you can investigate the other principles of distribution) (*the forms of economic and social distribution are: reciprocity, distribution, market*)

1.theories – why they are important

Why to know the literature: concepts, research background, results of former researches, methods, and the contexts of the subject, topic, approaches to the topics

1.Hypothesis (a hypothesis is a specific statement of prediction)

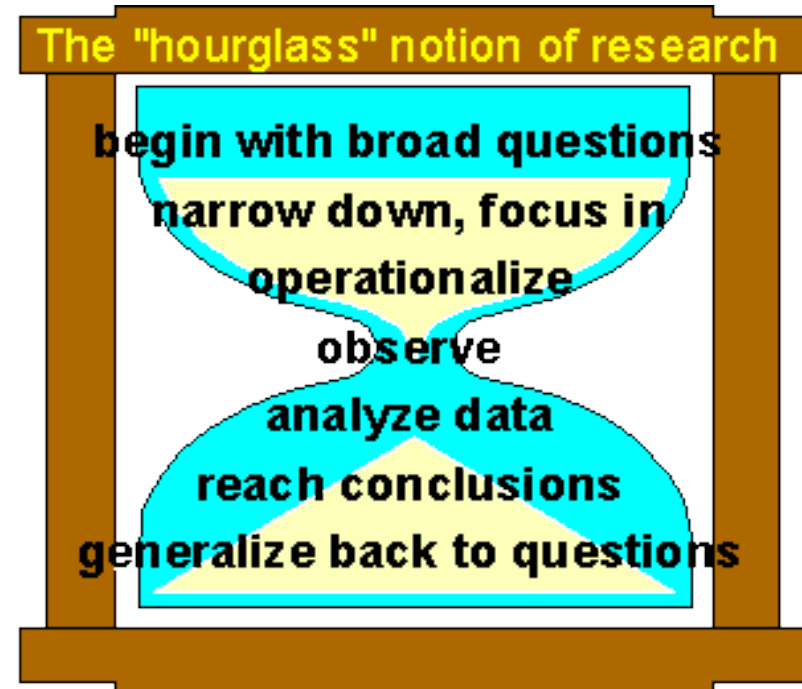
hypothesis is not good or bad only accepted or rejected!! it is very important
the hypothesis is „bad” if it is trivial (e.g. „the sun rises in the east and sets in the West”...or „when candles are away all cats are grey”

1.Conceptualization and operationalization

You have to determine the dimensions of research – how many main research topic will be investigated

Structure of Research

1. step - the research process usually *starts with a broad area of interest, the initial problem that the researcher wishes to study.* **(Research Problem)**
2. step - *the researcher has to narrow the question down to one that can reasonably be studied in a research project. Making hypothesis or a focus question.* **(Research Question)**
3. step - *the researcher is engaged in direct measurement or observation of the question of interest.*
4. step - **once the basic data is collected,** *the researcher begins to try to understand it, usually by analyzing it in a variety of ways.* Even for a single hypothesis there are a number of analyses a researcher might typically conduct.
5. *step - the researcher begins to formulate some initial conclusions*
6. *step - finally, the researcher often will attempt to address the original broad question of interest by* **generalizing from the results** *of this specific study to other related situations.*



Most research projects share the same general structure. You might think of this structure as following the shape of an hourglass.

1. The research process usually starts with a broad area of interest, the initial problem that the researcher wishes to study. For instance, the researcher could be interested in how to use computers to improve the performance of students in mathematics. But this initial interest is far too broad to study in any single research project (it might not even be addressable in a lifetime of research).

2. The researcher has to narrow the question down to one that can reasonably be studied in a research project. This might involve formulating a hypothesis or a focus question. For instance, the researcher might hypothesize that a particular method of computer instruction in math will improve the ability of elementary school students in a specific district.

3. At the narrowest point of the research hourglass, the researcher is engaged in direct measurement or observation of the question of interest.

4. Once the basic data is collected, the researcher begins to try to understand it, usually by analyzing it in a variety of ways. Even for a single hypothesis there are a number of analyses a researcher might typically conduct.

5. At this point, the researcher begins to formulate some initial conclusions about what happened as a result of the computerized math program.

6. Finally, the researcher often will attempt to address the original broad question of interest by generalizing from the results of this specific study to other related situations. For instance, on the basis of strong results indicating that the math program had a positive effect on student performance, the researcher might conclude that other school districts similar to the one in the study might expect similar results.

Formulating Research Aims and Objectives

<https://research-methodology.net/research-methodology/research-aims-and-objectives/>

- Formulating research aim and objectives in an appropriate manner is one of the most important aspects of your thesis. This is because research aim and objectives determine the scope, depth and the overall direction of the research. **Research question** is the central question of the study that has to be answered on the basis of research findings.
- Achievement of **research aim** provides answer to the research question. **Research objectives** divide research aim into several parts and address each part separately. Moreover, research aim specifies WHAT needs to be studied and research objectives comprise a number of steps that address HOW research aim will be achieved.
- As a rule of thumb, there would be one research aim and several research objectives to facilitate the achievement of this aim.

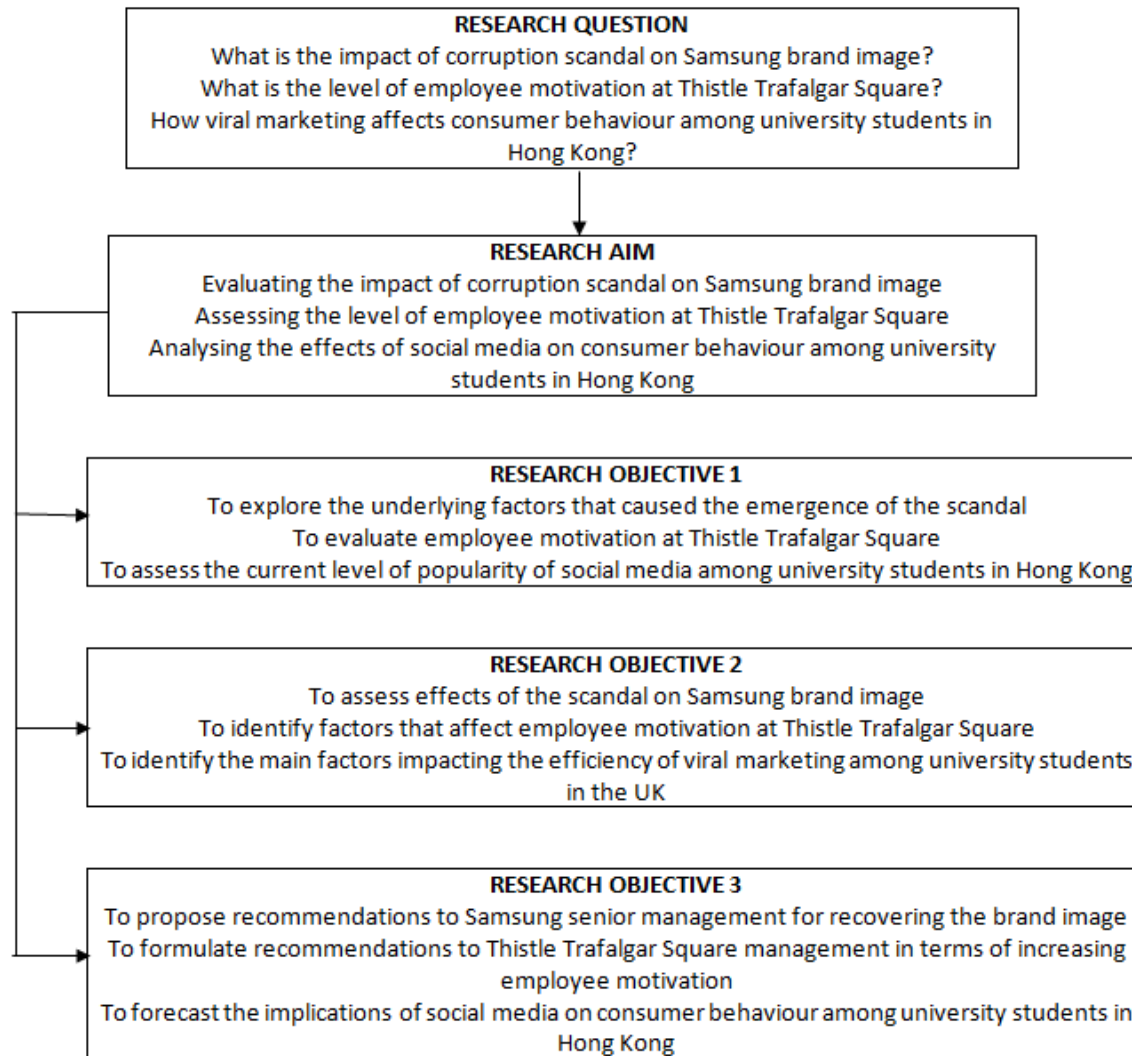
Formulating Research Aims and Objectives

The following is an example:

- Research title: *Effects of organizational culture on business profitability: a case study of Virgin Atlantic*
- Research aim: *To assess the effects of Virgin Atlantic organizational culture on business profitability*

Following research objectives would facilitate the achievement of this aim:

- Analyzing the nature of organizational culture at Virgin Atlantic by September 1, 2018
- Identifying factors impacting Virgin Atlantic organizational culture by September 16, 2018
- Analyzing impacts of Virgin Atlantic organizational culture on employee performances by September 30, 2018
- Providing recommendations to Virgin Atlantic strategic level management in terms of increasing the level of effectiveness of organizational culture by October 5, 2018



Common mistakes in the formulation of research aim relate to the following – 1.

1. Choosing the topic too broadly. This is the most common mistake. For example, a research title of *“An analysis of leadership practices”* can be classified as too broad because the title fails to answer the following questions:

- a) Which aspects of leadership practices?* Leadership has many aspects such as employee motivation, ethical behaviour, strategic planning, change management etc. An attempt to cover all of these aspects of organizational leadership within a single research will result in a poor work.
- b) An analysis of leadership practices in which country?* Leadership practices tend to be different in various countries due to cross-cultural differences, legislations and a range of other region-specific factors. Therefore, a study of leadership practices needs to be country-specific.
- c) Analysis of leadership practices in which company or industry?* Similar to the point above, analysis of leadership practices needs to take into account industry-specific and company-specific differences, and there is no way to conduct a leadership research that relates to all industries and organizations in an equal manner.
- Accordingly, *“A study into the impacts of ethical behaviour of a leader on the level of employee motivation in US healthcare sector”* would be a more appropriate title than simply *“An analysis of leadership practices”*.

Common mistakes in the formulation of research aim relate to the following – 2.

2. Setting an unrealistic aim. Formulation of a research aim that involves in-depth interviews with Apple strategic level management by an undergraduate level student can be specified as a bit over-ambitious. This is because securing an interview with Apple CEO Tim Cook or members of Apple management board might not be easy. This is an extreme example, but you got the idea. Instead, you may aim to interview the manager of your local Apple store and adopt a more feasible strategy to get your dissertation completed.

3. Choosing research methods incompatible with the timeframe available.

Conducting interviews with 20 sample group members and collecting primary data through 2 focus groups when only three months left until submission of your dissertation can be very difficult, if not impossible. Accordingly, timeframe available need to be taken into account when formulating research aims and objectives and selecting specific research methods.

- Moreover, research objectives need to be formulated according to SMART objectives, where the abbreviation stands for specific, measurable, achievable, realistic, and timely.

Smart research objectives

Ineffective (incomplete) research objectives

Study employee motivation of Coca-Cola

Analyze consumer behaviour in catering industry

Recommend Toyota Motor Corporation management on new market entry strategy

Analyze the impact of social media marketing on business

Finding out about time management principles used by Accenture managers

SMART research objectives

To study the impacts of management practices on the levels of employee motivation at Coca-Cola US by December 5, 2018

Analyzing changes in consumer behaviour in catering industry in the 21st century in the UK by March 1, 2019

Formulating recommendations to Toyota Motor Corporation management on the choice of appropriate strategy to enter Vietnam market by June 9, 2018

Assessing impacts of integration of social media into marketing strategy on the level of brand awareness by March 30, 2017

Identifying main time-management strategies used by managers of Accenture France by December 1, 2017

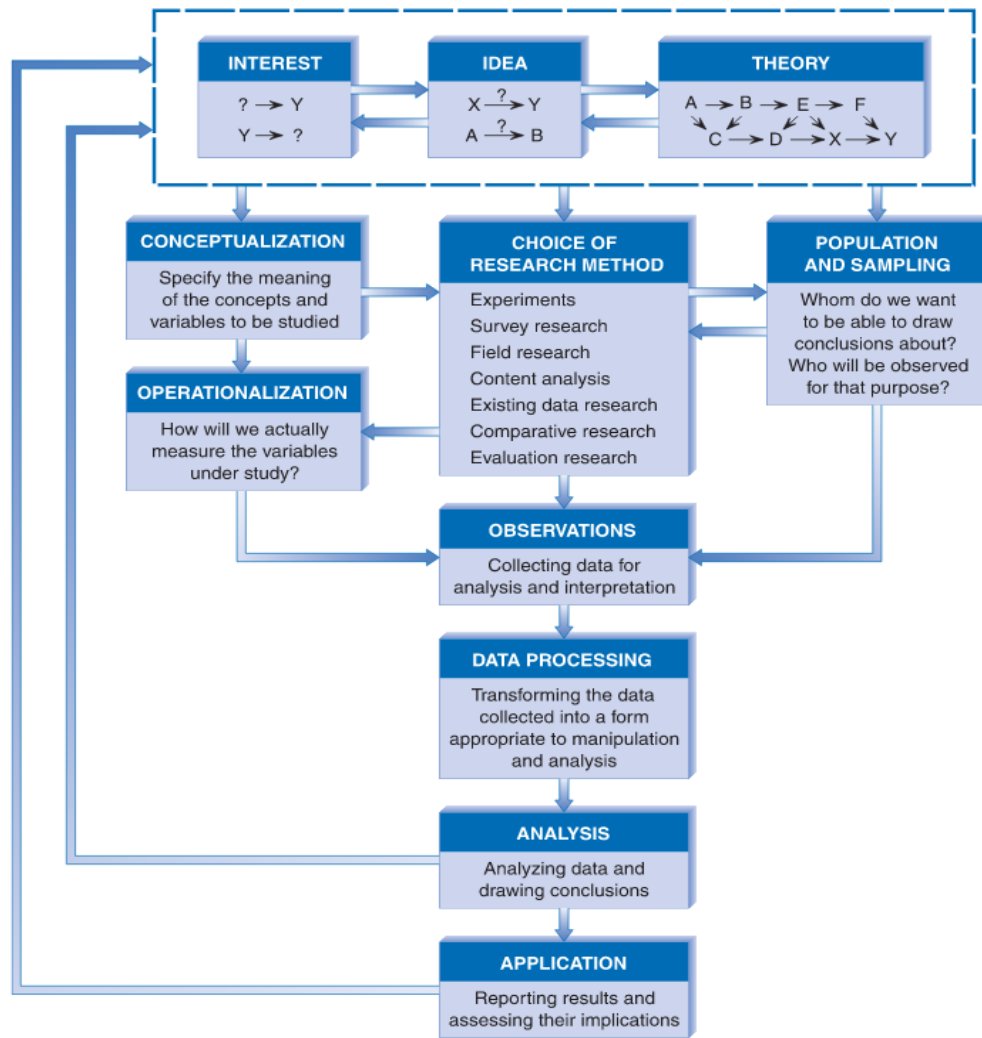
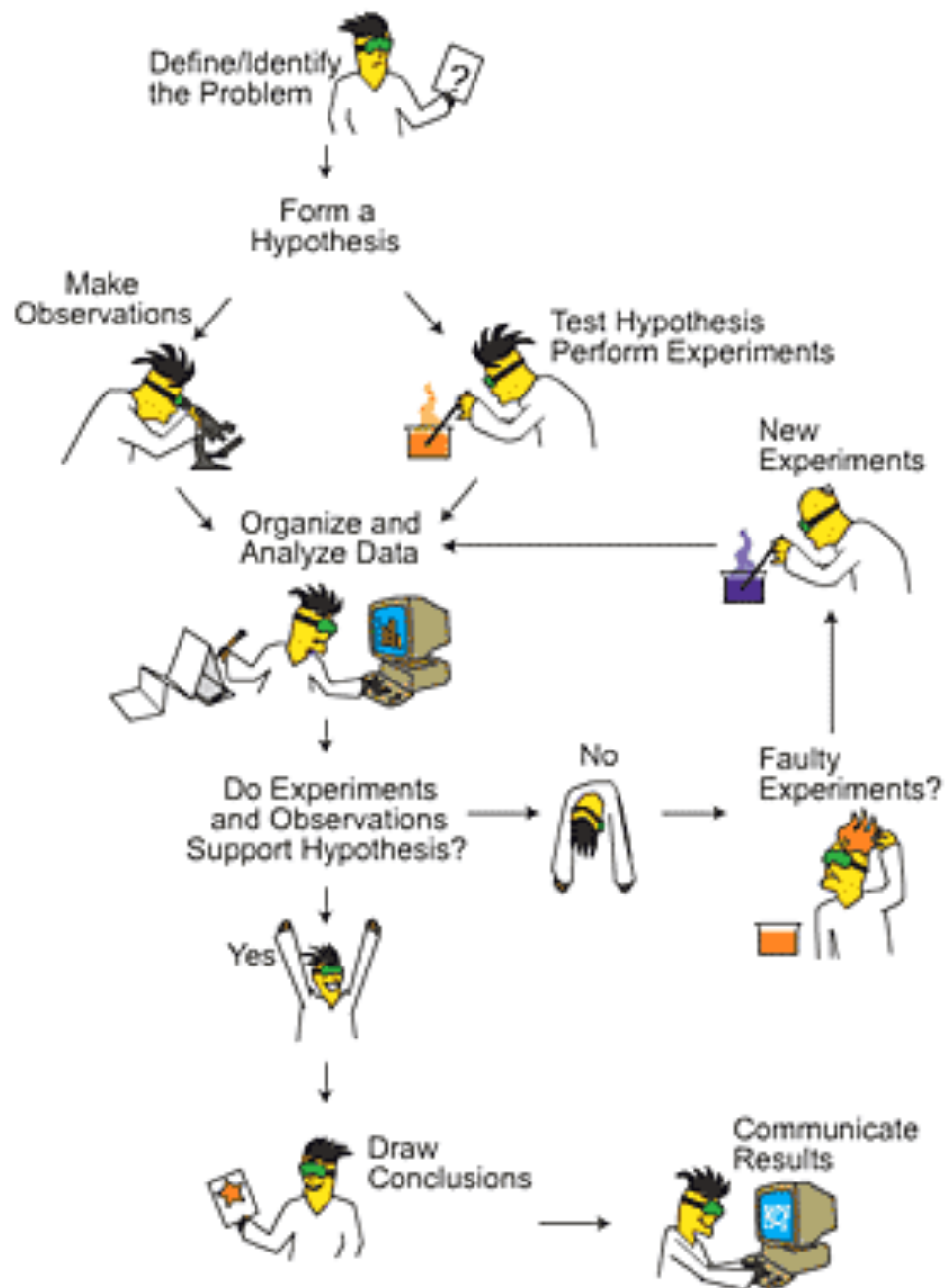


FIGURE 4-6
Traditional Image of Research Design.



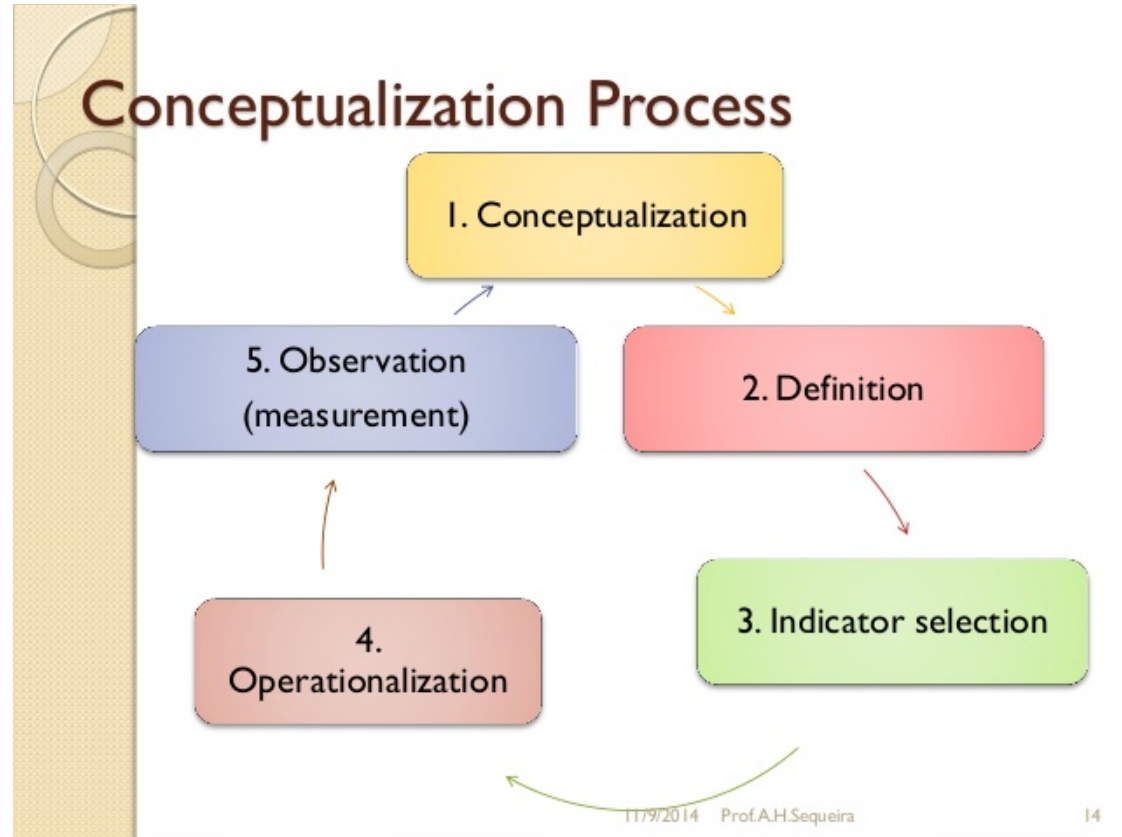
Conceptualizing, problem formulation, concept mapping

Conceptualization

- specify exactly what we mean and don't mean by the terms we use in our research.
- a mental process of organizing one's observations and experiences into meaningful and coherent wholes.

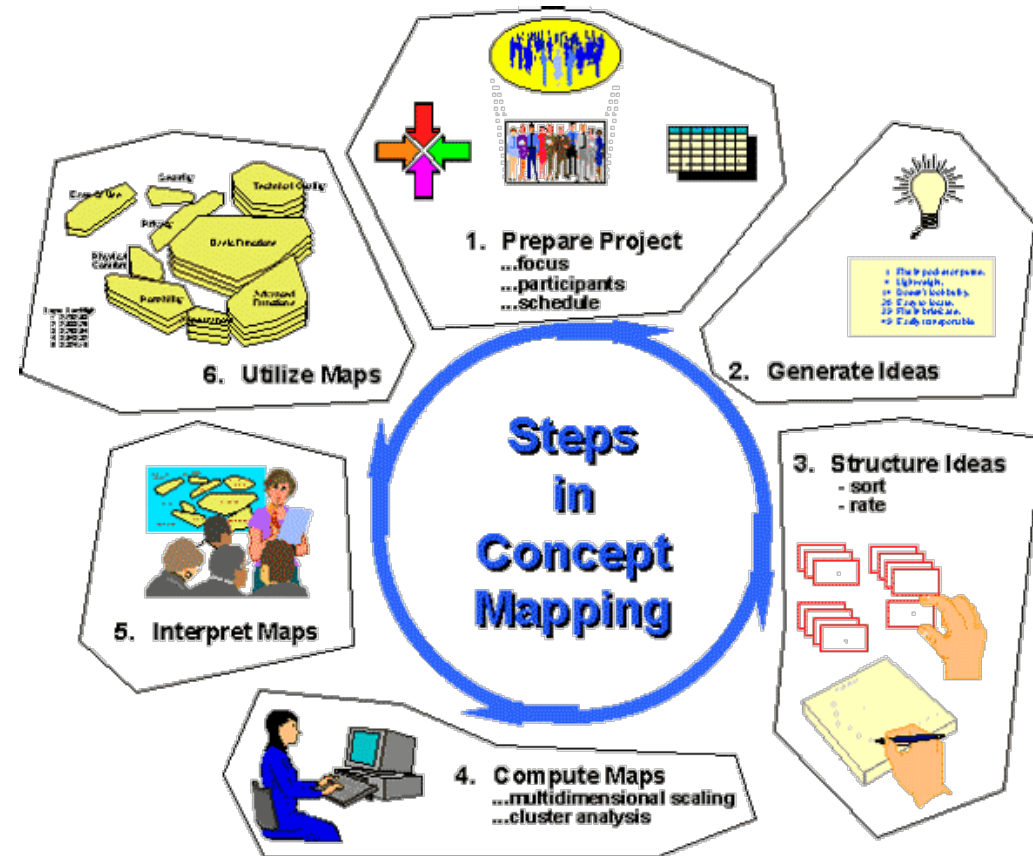
Operationalization

- Process taken to measure an abstract concept in terms of its observable, measurable characteristics.
- Making concrete questions to measure things we determined in the process of conceptualization.



Concept mapping

- The concept mapping help researchers formulate good research problems and projects.
- Other methods: brainstorming, nominal group technique, focus groups, etc.
- ***Concept mapping is a structured process, focused on a topic or construct of interest, involving input from one or more participants, that produces an interpretable pictorial view (concept map) of their ideas and concepts and how these are interrelated.***
- Concept mapping helps people to think more effectively as a group without losing their individuality. It helps groups to manage the complexity of their ideas without trivializing them or losing detail.



Concept mapping is a general method that can be used to help any individual or group to describe their ideas about some topic in a pictorial form. There are several different types of methods that all currently go by names like "concept mapping", "mental mapping" or "concept webbing.,,

So what is concept mapping? Essentially, ***concept mapping is a structured process, focused on a topic or construct of interest, involving input from one or more participants, that produces an interpretable pictorial view (concept map) of their ideas and concepts and how these are interrelated.*** Concept mapping helps people to think more effectively as a group without losing their individuality. It helps groups to manage the complexity of their ideas without trivializing them or losing detail.

Hypotheses

Hypotheses

A hypothesis is a specific statement of prediction.

- It describes in concrete (rather than theoretical) terms what you expect will happen in your study. WHAT WOULD YOU LIKE TO KNOW? WHAT DO YOU WONDER ABOUT? WHAT WOULD YOU LIKE TO MEASURE?
- *Not all studies have hypotheses.* Sometimes a study is designed to be exploratory. There is no formal hypothesis. The purpose of the study is to explore some area more thoroughly in order to develop some specific hypothesis or prediction that can be tested in future research.
- A study may have one or many hypotheses.

Usually, we are thinking simultaneously about *two* hypotheses:

- one that describes our prediction and
- one that describes all the other possible outcomes with respect to the hypothesized relationship.

Example

- Our prediction is that variable A and variable B will be related (we don't care whether it's a positive or negative relationship).
- Then the only other possible outcome would be that variable A and variable B are *not* related.

A hypothesis should always...

- explain what you expect to happen.
- be clear and understandable.
- be testable.
- be measurable.
- contain at least 1 dependent and 1 independent variable.

Qualitative and quantitative researches

Types of data

The fundamental distinction between two types of data: **qualitative** and **quantitative**.

- quantitative - if it is in numerical form and
- qualitative - if it is not in numerical form. (Notice that qualitative data could be much more than just words or text. Photographs, videos, sound recordings and so on, can be considered qualitative data.)

Grouping of research methods

quantitative

Systematic data collection

Questionnaire

Content analysis

Structured interview

not intervener

Experiment

intervener

Semi structured interview

Field work, field exploration

Participant observation

Focus group

oral history

life history narrative

In-depth interviews

qualitative

Qualitative and quantitative research methods

	quantitative	qualitative
quintessence, substance of method	quantitative measurement	quality characterization
the nature of data	“hard”, trusted, dry	“soft”, rich, radical, thorough, valid
the subject and the researcher's relationship	distant	close, nigh
the researchers' location the subject compared to	outsider, outlier	insider
the theory and research on the relationship between	confirmatory, justificatory	forming, developer
Research Strategy	structured, static	unstructured, continuous
the nature of the explanation	nomothetic, necessary	ideographic, individual
the image of the social reality	static and independent on actors	evolving and constructed by the actors

Qualitative measure

Qualitative research is a vast and complex area of methodology.

Why we usually use this?

- One of the major reasons for doing qualitative research is to become more experienced with the phenomenon you're interested in.
- Qualitative research has special value for investigating complex and sensitive issues.
- Qualitative research certainly excels at generating information that is very detailed. Of course, there are quantitative studies that are detailed also in that they involve collecting lots of numeric data. But in detailed quantitative research, the data themselves tend to both shape and limit the analysis. Things are not so simple in most qualitative research. The data are more "raw" and are seldom pre-categorized. Consequently, you need to be prepared to organize all of that raw detail.

The strengths and weaknesses

On the positive side, it enables you to describe the phenomena of interest in great detail, in the original language of the research participants. In fact, some of the best "qualitative" research is often published in book form, often in a style that almost approaches a narrative story.

On the negative side, when you have that kind of detail, it's hard to determine what the generalizable themes may be. In fact, many qualitative researchers don't even care about generalizing - they're content to generate rich descriptions of their phenomena.

That's why there is so much value in mixing qualitative research with quantitative.

Quantitative research excels at summarizing large amounts of data and reaching generalizations based on statistical projections. **Qualitative research** excels at "telling the story" from the participant's viewpoint, providing the rich descriptive detail that sets quantitative results into their human context.

Types of Surveys

Surveys can be divided into two main categories:

- **Questionnaires** are usually paper-and-pencil instruments that the respondent completes.
- **Interviews** are completed by the interviewer based on the respondent says.

• Sometimes, it's hard to tell the difference between a questionnaire and an interview. For instance, some people think that questionnaires always ask short closed-ended questions while interviews always ask broad open-ended ones. But you will see questionnaires with open-ended questions and there will often be a series of closed-ended questions asked in an interview.

Survey research has changed dramatically in the last ten years. A whole new variation of group interview has evolved as focus group methodology. Increasingly, survey research is tightly integrated with the delivery of service.

- Your hotel room has a survey on the desk. Your waiter presents a short customer satisfaction survey with your check.
- You get a call for an interview several days after your last call to a computer company for technical assistance.
- You're asked to complete a short survey when you visit a web site.

Interviews

- Interviews are a far more personal form of research than questionnaires. In the **personal interview**, the interviewer works directly with the respondent.
- Interviews are among the most challenging and rewarding forms of measurement. They require a personal sensitivity and adaptability as well as the ability to stay within the bounds of the designed protocol.

You can read it more detailed here:

<https://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/interview.php>

What a good question I.

Make items clear

Items need to be clear and unambiguous! (Would not be broad proliferation of unclear and ambiguous questions, or superficial ones).

e.g. : “What do you think about the proposed peace plan?” (which plan...)

Avoid double-barreled questions

Frequently, researchers ask respondents for a single answer to a question that actually has multiple parts (may be researcher has personally identified with a complex question!)

e.g. : “The US should abandon its space program and spend the money on domestic programs.”

Respondents must be competent to answer

In asking respondents to provide information, you should continually ask yourself whether they can do so reliably.

Respondents must be willing to answer

Problem: anonymity

The researchers have to make questionnaire in the “secret ballot” format (there are no personal data on respondents)

Questions should be relevant

Questions asked in the questionnaire should be relevant to most respondents. It means that respondents have got enough information and knowledge on the asked topic.

What a good question II.

Short items are best

Why? In the interests of being unambiguous and precise and of pointing to the relevance of an issue, researchers tend to create long and complicated items.

Respondents are often unwilling to study an item in order to understand it. They should be able to read an item quickly, understand its intent, and select or provide an answer without difficulty.

Avoid negative items

E.g.: “not” word should be nor used, “negative “ words too

E.g.: “The following kinds of people should be prohibited from teaching in public schools”:

(items are here..)

Avoid biased items and terms!

E.g.: Do not you agree with...(Do you agree with):

...the immigrants are depended on social care

...the criminals who kill child would be deserved death sentence

Question forms I.

Open ended questions

The respondent is asked to provide his or her own answers to the questions.

E.g.: “What do You feel is the most important issue facing Hungarian higher education today?”

The questionnaire is provided with a space to write in the answer.

Open-ended responses must be coded before they can be processed for computer analysis. This coding process requires the researcher to interpret the meaning of responses. (may be it is opening the possibility of misunderstanding and researcher bias.

There is also a danger that some respondents will give answers that are essentially irrelevant to the researcher’s intent.

Question forms II.

Closed-ended questions

In the case of close-ended questions, the respondent is asked to select an answer from among a list provided by the researcher.

This type of questions are very popular in survey research because they provide a greater uniformity of responses and are more easily processed than open-ended ones.

When the relevant answers to a given questions are relatively clear, there should be no problem. In other cases, however, the researcher's structuring of responses may overlook some important responses.

The construction of closed –ended questions should be guided by two structural requirements,

first: the response categories provided should be exhaustive: they should include all the possible responses that might be expected.

second: the answers must be mutually exclusive (respondents select one answer, but sometimes these questions let to select multiple answers) – multiple answers may be created difficulties in data processing and analysis.

It is useful to add an instruction to the question asking the respondents to select the one best answer

Likert Scale

Agreement	Frequency
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Strongly Agree• Agree• Undecided• Disagree• Strongly Disagree	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Very Frequently• Frequently• Occasionally• Rarely• Never
Importance	Likelihood
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Very Important• Important• Moderately Important• Of Little Importance• Unimportant	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Almost Always True• Usually True• Occasionally True• Usually Not True• Almost Never True

Likert scale - example

Question 3: Please indicate how important the following are in your life.

	extremely important	very important	quite important	somewhat important	Unimpor- tant	no opinion
be held in high regard	0	0	0	0	0	0
be ambitious	0	0	0	0	0	0
be independent	0	0	0	0	0	0
seeking thrills	0	0	0	0	0	0
having children	0	0	0	0	0	0

The type of interviews

As **form** can be:

- Unstructured interview
- Semi-structured interview
- Structured interview

As **content** can be:

- In-depth interview
- Narrative/oral
- Thematic
- Ethnography

As **interaction** can be:

- Personal/face-to face interview
- Focal group interview

Focus group interview (structure of research)

- What is the aim of research

method, information, time plan, costs, tasks, steps, persons responsible

- Choosing of aim-group and location, site

the way of recruitment, motivation, "the best place", questions

- Choosing the moderator

"Who is good moderator":

qualified, he or she can listen to, he or she actively ask, practical approach, ability to motivate, emphatic, a sense of humour, learns quickly, good memory, summarizing skills, good communication skills

- Development scheme interview

to know the aim of research

to know something on participants

the time frame

questions....scheme!! (only scheme)

- Recruitment of participants

7-12 persons

homogeneous or heterogeneous group

- Conducting focus group

introduction

first question circle on participants and basic question

to ask the scheme interview

to motivate the participants (if need)

summary and thanks

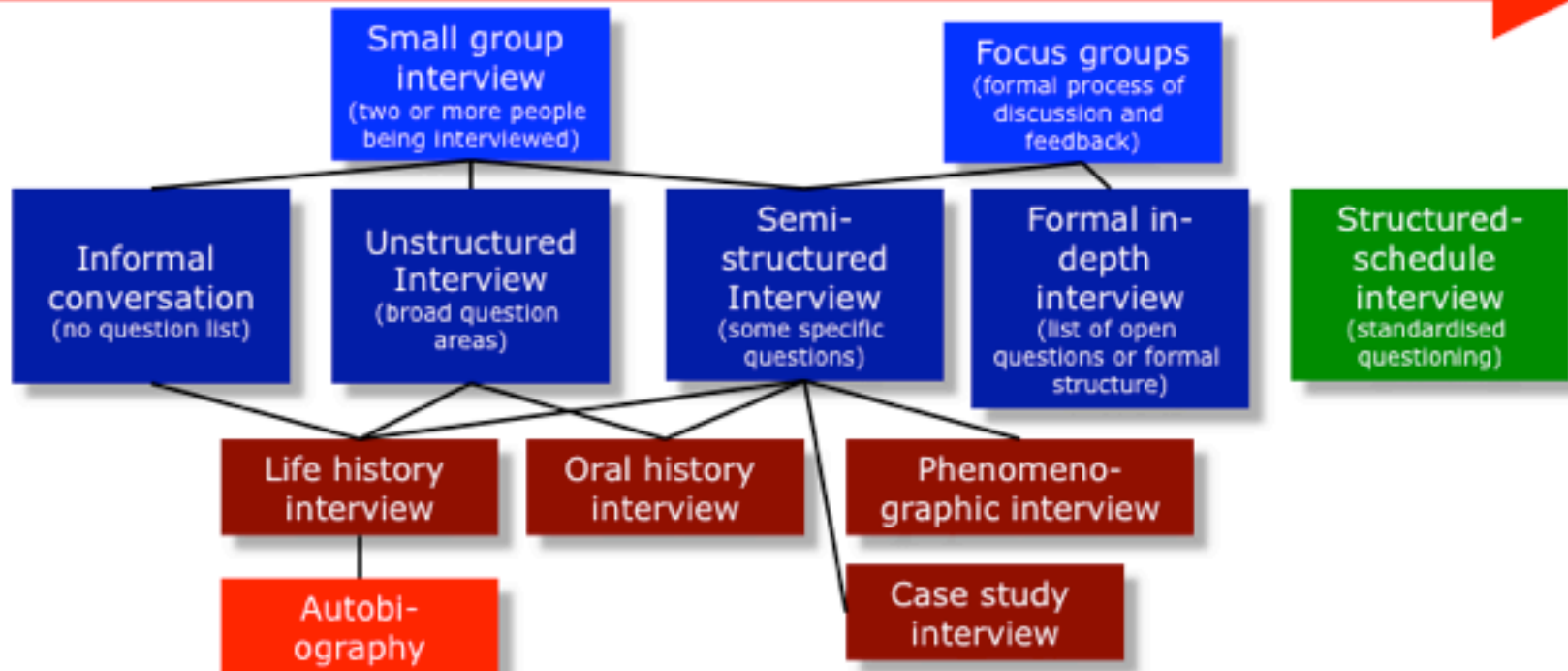
- Data analysis and interpretation

- Report writing

Form



unstructured and informal structured and formal 



Ethnographic interview: Includes conversations through to semi-structured interviews (especially looking to explore people's meanings)

Qualitative interview: all types of in-depth interview

Open-ended interview: tends to refer to interviews with open questions

Cross examination (in court): formal in-depth

Interrogation

Psychoanalytic interview

Process of interview

- Research problem – research question(s) –
making hypothesis – conceptualize –
operationalize – making questions
- Planning – sampling – data collection process
- Choose method – interview
- Making interviews
- Rewriting of interviews
- Analyzing
- Verifying
- Publishing 😊

Type of questions

- Opening questions like...
'Can you speak about that...'
- Direct questions like...
'What do you think about that...'
- Indirect questions like...
'What is good in that...'
- Following/deeping questions like...
'Can you speak about this more detailed?'
- Specifying questions like...
'Do you mean with this that...'
- Leading questions like...
'It is very interesting, but now I would like to ask another question.'
- Suggesting questions like...
'Surely, you are thinking about that...'

Main type of respondents

- ‘Ostrich’ (a man of few words) – it is hard to pull out some answers from he/she
- Always speaking – it is hard to lead/drive
- ‘Academic – intellectual’ – speaking about general things not in his/her own experiences, thoughts
- ‘Power-player’ – respondent who want to drive the interview

Ethics in Research

The main rules:

- The principle of ***voluntary participation*** requires that people not be press into participating in research. This is especially relevant where researchers had previously relied on 'captive audiences' for their subjects -- prisons, universities, and places like that.
- Closely related to the notion of voluntary participation is the requirement of ***informed consent***. Essentially, this means that prospective research participants must be fully informed about the procedures and risks involved in research and must give their consent to participate.
- Ethical standards also require that researchers not put participants in a situation where they might be at ***risk of harm*** as a result of their participation. Harm can be defined as both physical and psychological.
- Almost all research guarantees the participants ***confidentiality*** - they are assured that identifying information will not be made available to anyone who is not directly involved in the study.
- The stricter standard is the principle of ***anonymity*** which essentially means that the participant will remain anonymous throughout the study - even to the researchers themselves.