I. Recap
II. History of ethnographic research
III. Ethnographic research methods
   - Participant-observation
   - Key informant interviewing
   - Use of genealogical method
   - Gathering of cases (life-histories, conflict cases)
   - Other emergent methods/strategies in community studies

I. Data Analysis Strategies
II. Workshop Module
Quantitative vs Qualitative Approaches

• Quantitative research is used to answer questions about relationships among measured variables with the purpose of explaining, predicting, and controlling phenomenon.
• Qualitative research answers questions about the complex nature of phenomena, with the purpose of describing and understanding the phenomena from the participants’ point of view (emic)…also referred to as the interpretive, constructivist, or post-positivist approach.

Purpose:

• Quantitative research seeks explanations and predictions for purposes of generalization to other persons or places.
• Qualitative research seeks a better understanding of complex situations, often exploratory in nature, and may use their observations to build from the ground up.
### Which approach should you use?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use this approach if:</th>
<th>Quantitative</th>
<th>Qualitative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If you believe that:</td>
<td>▪ There is an objective reality that can be measured.</td>
<td>▪ There are multiple Possible realities constructed by different individuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Your audience is:</td>
<td>▪ Familiar/supportive of quantitative studies</td>
<td>▪ Familiar/supportive of qualitative studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Your research question is:</td>
<td>▪ Confirmatory/predictive</td>
<td>▪ Exploratory/interpretive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The available literature is:</td>
<td>▪ Relatively short</td>
<td>▪ Relatively long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Your research focus:</td>
<td>▪ Covers a lot of breadth</td>
<td>▪ Involves in-depth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Your ability and desire to work with people is:</td>
<td>▪ Medium or low</td>
<td>▪ High work with people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Your desire for structure is:</td>
<td>▪ High</td>
<td>▪ Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. You have skills in areas of:</td>
<td>▪ Deductive reasoning</td>
<td>▪ Inductive reasoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Your writing skills are strong in the area of:</td>
<td>▪ Technical scientific writing</td>
<td>▪ Literary, narrative writing attention to detail</td>
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TECHNIQUES AND TOOLS IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Common types of qualitative research methods/approaches

1. Ethnographic research (Case study)
2. Historical study
3. Content analysis

In these examples the research methods, techniques and tools usually employed are:

• Interviewing (semi-structured and key informant)
• Observational technique, including participant observation
• Case study
• Participatory Action and Learning technique
• Group process methods
**Ethnography** deals with the study of the diversity of human cultures in their particular cultural settings. This method has developed in early anthropological field research carried out in non-western cultures.

**Objectives:**

To expose the student/researcher to the ethnographic research method that has a long history in the study of non-western societies in their own cultural contexts.

- To introduce the different ethnographic research methods/approaches
- To allow the researcher to appreciate the different ethnographic methods/approaches used in understanding diverse cultures, their beliefs and practices as their communities respond to a transforming world in the context of development.
History of ethnographic research

- 19th century context of the Social Sciences (Economics, Political Science, Psychology, Sociology)
- Eurocentric development of concepts, theories and methods
- Age of exploration and discovery
  - Travelers, Missionaries, Explorers, Ship-Captains
- Discovery of exotic people, ‘savages’, ‘primitives’, ‘heathens’, ‘uncivilized’
- Racial and cultural diversity explanations and theories ---
- Unilineal evolutionary theory (Savagery, Barbarism, Civilization)
- From armchair to fieldwork (Anthropologists traveled to study non-western cultures)
- Malinowski: Fieldwork in the Trobriand Islands and the formalization of ethnographic field research methods: extended residence in the village, learning the native language, participant observation, genealogical mapping,
- Anthropology as a discipline studies cultural behavior by using the holistic, historical and comparative methods.
The researcher and the researched as meaning-giving subjects

• They are conscious beings
• People give meaning to things and act as such to what he/she sees or hears, and cannot be freed from impurities and defects in the same way a physical instrument of research can be sterilized or perfected.

The fieldworker as a human being

• The social scientist is her/his own chief research instrument.
• This research instrument is defective …it can be perfected but can never be perfect.
• We do not go to the field as a tabula rasa, the defectiveness or contamination we bring to the field stems from mainly three sources:
  ➢ The degree of our natural endowments to observe and record
  ➢ Our theoretical bias: color our perceptions
  ➢ Our meta-theoretical biases: these are the unrecognized and unexamined assumptions
POINTS TO REMEMBER IN DOING QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

The people: our informants

• People do not always mean what they say, or say what they mean, or even know what they are talking about (remember, people are meaning-giving subjects)
• Aside from outright deception, common are memory and review, compounded when we deal with oral traditions; what is transmitted from generation to generation tends to be affected by loss of detail.
I. ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH METHODS

**What is fieldwork?**

Ethnographic fieldwork entails the extended residence of the researcher in a field setting (e.g., community, village, institution), participating and observing the daily activities and behavior of the people where research is carried out.

**What is participant observation?**

In PO the researcher shares as intimately as possible in the life and activities of the setting under study. This entails an extended residence period.

The purpose is to develop an insider’s view of what is happening.

**Who are Key Informants (K.I.)?**

K.I. are the knowledgeable persons who are considered as authorities pertaining to the history and culture of the community/institution/place. (selection, rapport, marginal people)
I. ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH METHODS

**Participant-Observer Roles**

1. Complete observer (overt, covert)
2. Participant as observer (more as an observer than a participant)
3. Observer-as-participant (more as a participant than observer)
4. Complete participant

**Observation** Hand-out

1. Scientific inquiry using observational methods requires disciplined training and rigorous preparation
2. People don’t ‘naturally’ know how to do systematic research observations
3. Observation entails the systematic noting and recording of events, behaviors, and artifacts (objects) in the chosen setting
**I. ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH METHODS**

**Recording Observations**

1. Keep field notebook
2. Take notes on your observations as you observe
3. Write down notes as soon as possible
4. Notes should include empirical observations and interpretations
5. Cross files – fill in dates and times you made observations.
6. Analyze and interpret your observations, discerning patterns of behavior, finding the underlying meanings in the thing you observed

**In-Depth Interviewing**

1. Learn to listen, think and talk almost at the same time.
2. Probe – how is that? In what way? How do you mean? What would be an example of that?
3. Review notes every night – observe activities/behavior “gaps” that must be further observed.
4. Combined with observation, interviews allow the researcher to understand the meanings people hold for their everyday activities.
3 General Categories of Interviews

1. Informal conversational interview – qualitative in-depth interview are more like the conversations than formal events with predetermined response categories.
2. The general interview guide approach and the
3. Standard open-ended interview

Field Notes

- Notebook: do not rely on memory
- Notes should be documented right away
- Keep a research diary to document how work is proceeding, and the time spent
Types/Stages of Field Notes

• **Substantive** field notes focus on the main observations, conversations, experiences and interviews.

• **Methodological** information documents the subjective impressions of the researcher observed in the data-gathering context.

• **Analytic field notes** contain preliminary stages of analysis. Here data are sorted, coded, and analyzed for the first time – gaps can be addressed and questions can be followed-up.

• Data sheet should include date, place, and source of information.
I. ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH METHODS

Other methods/strategies in community studies

HISTORICAL ANALYSIS

• Historical analysis is a method of discovering from records and accounts what happened in the past
• Particularly useful in qualitative studies for establishing a baseline or background prior to participant observation or interviewing

Sources of Data

• *Primary sources* – include the oral testimony of eyewitnesses, documents, records, relics.
• *Secondary sources* – include reports of persons who relate the accounts of actual eyewitnesses and summaries, as in history books and encyclopedias

Collection of historical data pertaining to:
• Life histories
• Community settlement histories
• Conflict cases

The use of *genealogical reckoning and mapping* to establish unknown dates of historical events
I. ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH METHODS

Other methods/strategies in community studies

HISTORICAL ANALYSIS

Other Sources
Contemporary records including instructions, stenographic records, business and legal papers, personal letters, public reports, newspaper reports, memoirs, and autobiographies, questionnaires, government documents, including archives and regulations/ordinances, opinions, editorials, speeches, fictions, songs, poetry, myths, and folklore

Historical Analysis Usefulness
Historical research traditions demand procedures to verify the accuracy of statements about the past, to establish relationships and to determine the direction of cause-and-effect relationships
Caution

- Avoid the imposition of modern thought patterns in an earlier era
- Sensitivity should be given to the interpretation of the statement of others’
- Historical analysis cannot use a direct observation approach and there is no way to test a historical hypothesis.
- There are weaknesses in the classification of historical data:
  - May be subject to incorrect interpretations on the part of the recorder.
  - Words and phrases used in old records may now have different meanings
  - Documents may be falsified deliberately
  - The meaning of relics are perceived and interpreted by the investigator.
  - Errors in recording as well as frauds, hoaxes, and forgeries pose problems in dealing with the past
I. ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH METHODS

Other methods/strategies in community studies

FILMS, VIDEOS AND PHOTOGRAPHS

Have a long history in anthropology, called visual anthropology, or film ethnography. It relies on film and photographs to capture daily life of the group under study.

• Films provide visual records of passing natural events and may be used as permanent resources.

• The concept and method of the research film have emerged and are compatible with the variety of research methods and have been used to describe how people navigate in public places and the use of space.

• Research filming is a powerful tool for inquiry into past events. Film has the ability to capture visible phenomena seemingly yet always from the perspective of the filmmaker.

• Research film methodology requires the documentation of the time, place, and subject of the filming as well as the photographer’s intent and interest.
I. ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH METHODS

Other methods/strategies in community studies

FILMS, VIDEOS AND PHOTOGRAPHS

Strengths

1. It captures on document life crises and ceremonies, transmits cultural events to successive generations, and documents social conflicts.

2. The film researcher is limited only by what the mind can imagine and the camera can record. Events are documented in the natural setting.

3. Film is valuable for discovery and validation. It documents non-verbal behavior and communication such as facial expressions and emotions.

4. Film preserves activity and change in original form. It can be used in the future to take advantage of new methods of seeing, analyzing, and undertaking the process of change.

5. Film allows for the preservation and study of data from non-recurring, disappearing, or rare events.

6. With films, another researcher can validate interpretation of information.

7. Feedback can be obtained on the authenticity of interpretation and can be retaken to correct errors.
I. ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH METHODS

Other methods/strategies in community studies

FILMS, VIDEOS AND PHOTOGRAPHS

Weaknesses and Issues

1. Does the film manipulate reality?
2. What is the nature of truth?
3. Concern exists about professional bias and the interests of the filmmaker
4. Consideration must be given to the ethics of ethnographic filming (needs the informed consent of the subject)
I. ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH METHODS

Other methods стратегии in community studies

KINESICS

The study of body movements/motion and its accompanying messages is a communication technique known as kinesics. The motion is analyzed systematically in a way that allows the researcher to see and measure significant patterns of the communication process.

Birdwhistel labels four channels of the communicative process: vocal, visual, olfactory, and tactile.

- Body language can express unconscious thoughts that may be essential for observers to decide if they are to analyze situations accurately.
- Measuring devices are available for researchers to use not only in gaining a further understanding of kinesics but also in learning how to interpret body movements.
I. ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH METHODS

Other methods/strategies in community studies

KINESICS

Strengths

- It provides a view into unconscious thoughts and provides a means for triangulation of verbal data.
- A researcher can be more confident about the accuracy of information provided by a subject if the speaker’s body language is congruent with his words.

Limitations

- Body language is not universal. Some gestures signal different meanings in different cultures: example: the up and down head nod signifies “no” and the “side-to-side” movements of the head means “yes”.
- Body movements must be interpreted in context.
I. ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH METHODS

Other methods/strategies in community studies

PROXEMICS

The study of people’s use of space and its relationship to culture.

- The researcher focuses on space, ranging from interpersonal distance to the arrangement of furniture and architecture.
- Anthropologists have used proxemics to determine the territorial customs of particular cultures (e.g., marking social distance).
- Proxemics has been used in the study of the behavior of students in the classrooms and the marital partners undergoing counseling.

Northern Kankanaey women
I. ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH METHODS

Other methods/strategies in community studies

PROXEMICS

Advantages

• Unobtrusive and usually difficult for the subject to mislead the observers deliberately since it does not require the cooperation of the subjects.
• Because proxemics is concerned with non-verbal behavior, subjects would have to be skilled in order to “lie” about their feelings.
• Proxemics is useful for studying the way individuals react to others regarding space and the invasion of their territory.
• Proxemics can be used for cross-cultural studies, because people’s use of personal space varies greatly from one culture to the next.
• Finally, Proxemics analyses is useful for students in such areas as the effects of seating arrangements on student behavior or the effect of crowding on workplace productivity.
I. ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH METHODS

Other methods/strategies in community studies

THE REVIEW OF DOCUMENTS (Content Analysis)

- The gathering and analyzing of documents can supplement participant observation, interviewing, and observation.
- The review of documents is an unobtrusive method. The use of documents often entails an approach called content analysis – the systematic examination of forms of communication to document patterns objectively.
- The raw material of content analysis may be any form of communication, usually written materials (textbooks, novels, newspapers), music, pictures, or political speeches.
I. DATA ANALYSIS STRATEGIES

Process of Data Analysis Strategies

Refers to the process of bringing order, structure, and meaning to the mass of collected data. It is a messy, ambiguous, time-consuming, creative, and fascinating process.

Description, Analysis and Interpretation

• *Description* addresses the question: “what is going on here?” Data consists of observations made by the researcher and/or reported to the researcher by others.

• *Analysis* addresses the identification of essential features and the systemic description of interrelationships among them—how things work. In terms of stated objectives, analysis may also be employed to address—why a system is not working or how it might be made to work “better.”

• *Interpretation* addresses processual questions of meanings and contexts—“How does it all mean?” “What is to be made of it all?”


I. DATA ANALYSIS STRATEGIES

**Analytic Procedures**

1. Organizing the data.
2. Generating categories, themes, and patterns.
3. Testing the emergent hypothesis against the data.
4. Searching for alternative explanations of the data.
5. Writing the report.

**Organization of Data**

1. Reading – and reading once more through the data forces the researcher to become familiar with those data in intimate ways
2. Coding of data – list on note cards/index cards the data available (color and number coding)
3. Perform the minor editing necessary to make field notes retrievable, and generally “clean-up” what seems overwhelming and unmanageable.
4. Organize codes into more inclusive and abstract domains such as methodological notes, analytic memos, theoretical notes, case summaries, diagrams, charts, and dummy tables.
5. Enter the data into one of the several software programs for the management and/or analysis of qualitative data.
**I. DATA ANALYSIS STRATEGIES**

*Raw data* have no inherent meaning; the interpretive act brings meaning to those data and displays that meaning to the reader through the written report.

*Memos and Diagrams* are written records of analysis that may vary in type and form.

*Memo forms* include code notes, theoretical notes, and operational notes.

*Code notes* are memos containing the actual products of the three types of coding.

- *Theoretical notes*: sensitizing and summarizing memos that contain an analyst’s thoughts and ideas about theoretical sampling and other issues.
- *Operational notes*: memos containing procedural directions and reminders,
- *Diagrams*: visual devices that depict the relationship among concepts.
Technical features of memos and diagrams

1. Memos and diagrams should be dated.
   • Should include references to documents from which ideas were derived.
   • Each reference should include the code number of the interview, observation or document, date on which data were collected, and page number.

1. Memos and diagrams should contain headings denoting the concepts or categories to which they pertain.
   • Memos and diagrams that relate two or more categories to each other or to subcategories should cross-reference the concepts in the headings.

1. The title or heading should describe the type of memo being written.

2. The analyst could modify the content memo and diagrams as new data lead to increased insights.
   • The analyst should be conceptual rather than descriptive when writing memos. Memos are not about people or even about events or incidents as such. Rather, they are about the conceptual ideas derived from these.

I. DATA ANALYSIS STRATEGIES
Conceptual Ordering

General categories, themes and patterns

- This phase is the most difficult, complex, ambiguous, creative, and fun. Identifying salient themes, recurring ideas or language and patterns of belief that link people and settings together is the most intellectually challenging phase of data analysis and one that can integrate the entire endeavor.

- The process of category generation involves noting regularities in the setting of people chosen for study.

- As categories of meaning emerge, the researcher searches for those that have internal convergence and external divergence –the categories should be internally consistent but distinct from one another.
The researcher may use indigenous typologies (emic) or “analyst-constructed typologies” (etic) to reflect a classification scheme used by the people in the setting under study. Usually presented in matrix format.

- *Indigenous typologies* are those created and expressed by participants and are generated through analyses of the local use of language.

- *Analyst-constructed typologies* are those created by the research as reflecting distinct categories but not generative of separate language categories. In this case the researcher applies a typology to naturally occurring variations in observations. This process entails uncovering patterns, themes, and categories. And may well be subject to the legitimate charge of imposing a world of meaning on the participants that better reflects the observer’s world than the world under study.
What Strategic Choices can we apply that can enhance a study’s generalizability?

**Triangulation** – multiple sources of data. The act of bringing more than one source of data to bear on a single point (derived from navigation science).

Data from different sources can be used to corroborate, elaborate, or illuminate the research in question. This includes multiple cases, multiple informants, more than one data gathering method – used to strengthen the study’s usefulness for other settings.
I. DATA ANALYSIS STRATEGIES

What Strategic Choices can we apply that can enhance a study’s generalizability?

**Validity**— establish the “truth value” of the study—the trustworthiness of the data.

**Credibility**: How credible are the findings of the study? By what criteria can we judge them?

The inquiry’s goal is to demonstrate that the inquiry was conducted in such a manner as to ensure that the subject was accurately identified and described.

**Transferability**: How transferable and applicable are these findings to another setting or group of people?

The burden of demonstrating the applicability of one set of findings to another context rests more with the investigator who would make the transfer than with the original investigator.

**Dependability**: How can we be reasonably sure that the findings would be replicated if the study were conducted with the same participants in the same context?

The researcher attempts to account for changing conditions in the phenomenon chosen for study as well as changes in the design created by increasingly refined understanding of the setting.

**Conformability**: How can we be sure that the findings are reflective of the subjects and the inquiry itself rather than a creation of the researcher’s biases or prejudices?

Ask whether the findings of the study could be confirmed by another.

The assumption of an unchanging social world is in direct contrast to the qualitative interpretive assumption that the social world is always being constructed, and the concept of replication is itself problematic.
What are the strategies for balancing bias in interpretation?

• Devil’s advocate: a research partner or a person who critically questions the researcher’s analysis.

• A constant search for negative instances.

• Checking and rechecking the data and purposeful examination of possible rival hypotheses.

• Practicing value-free note-taking, then, taking two sets of notes — one with more objective observation and another that allows the researcher to impose some conceptual scheme or metaphor, and to be creative with the data in ways that might prove useful for more formal analysis.

• Devise tests to check analyses and applying the tests to the data, asking questions of the data.

• Follow the guidelines of previous researchers to control for data quality.

• Conducting an audit of the data collection and analytic strategies.

• Qualitative data does not pretend to be replicable
Levels of Abstraction Used in Presentation

- **Descriptive narration**: the focus is usually on groups and their activities that change over time. The narration, in lay language, is a story of events, based on the common sense explanations of the participants, that synthesizes the reasons the events occurred as they did. A descriptive narration closely resembles that of an investigative reporting. The study contributes to knowledge by preserving a record of a past event made by a trained observer. This description may be used in subsequent research.

- **Descriptive-analytical interpretation**: A second level of abstraction is one of description, analysis, and interpretation. The ethnographer selectively analyzes aspects of human actions and events to provide explanations. The complexity of the interrelationships of the events, and their influence on human lives are emphasized. The study contributes to knowledge by providing an understanding of the phenomena studied. This type of study also enables others to anticipate, but not predict, what may occur in similar situations.

- **Grounded-theory research**: Other studies go beyond descriptive analysis to add a theoretical dimension.

  Concepts induced from observations are derived from data and therefore, are called grounded theory.

  Grounded theory differs from quantitative research where theoretical constructs are deduced from theory identified in the literature review.
I. WORKSHOP MODULE

Introduction

• Most of the participants in this training workshop are currently working with institutions that are concerned with the general welfare of the Indigenous Peoples in their respective countries.
• Almost all have, in some way, been engaged in research among the IPs in their home region.
• Some of the participants have been exposed to formal and informal research methods and a few have written and published their reports.
• This training workshop provides the opportunity for our guest participants to enrich their research knowledge and skills through their participation in this research training workshop.

Workshop Organization and Instructions

1. Organize yourselves into 4 groups.
2. Choose a member from your group who will be assigned to report the group’s output during the plenary session.
3. You are given 1 hour to discuss among yourselves, compare experiences, and react to the questions by writing them down in the manila paper.
4. Each group is given 15 minutes to present their collective answers to the questions.
**Workshop Objectives**

For this workshop on Ethnographic Approaches we hope:

1. To enable participants to share their various experiences in relation to their work with, and among the IPs in their respective countries.
   - What kinds of researches have you been involved in?
   - What research methods have you employed/used?
   - What were the problems/issues/obstacles that you and/or your group were faced with in relation to your research work?
   - How did you confront these problems?

1. Given the different research exposures---do you feel that you could have enriched your research by incorporating other methods/approaches? What research methods would these be?

2. In the lecture presented on ethnographic research approaches --have you found any usefulness and applicability of the concepts, methods or approaches to your current or future researches?
   - Which particular methods, for example; and how can these be applied?
   - Which methods/approaches do you consider as most and least useful in your research work? Explain why, or why not?

**Synthesis**

Supplies Needed: manila paper, masking tape, pentel pens