Diversity in Qualitative Research

Proceedings of the XVIII. Workshop of the Center of Qualitative Psychology, University of Education/Pädagogische Hochschule Karlsruhe, Germany, April 13-15, 2018
# Content

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Workshop on Qualitative Psychology 2018</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chilean and German Primary Students’ Conceptions of the Musculoskeletal System – a Comparison</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adina Reiber, Karin Schweizer, Roswitha Klepser, Monica Bravo Granström, Holger Weitzel and Stephanie Bender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using a Qualitative Research Approach to Investigate Identity Development in the Context of International Volunteering Experience</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Franziska Müller</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Role of Gender in the Recovery from Eating Disorders – What Can we Learn from Formerly Affected Persons?</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marie-Luise Springmann</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andrej is Different and Selma Loves Sandra: Living Situations of LGBTQ+ from Religious or Immigrated Families in Germany</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jochen Kramer, Olcay Miyanyedi and Mechthild Kiegelmann</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions of Basic Competencies in the Last Year of Baccalaureate by the Center's Management Team: Focus Group Analysis</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antonio Medina Rivilla, María C. Domínguez Garrido and María Medina Domínguez</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action Research on Municipal Disability Policies in a Rural City in Japan</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masakuni Tagaki</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discover the Unseen Through Tool-Based Scientific Observation</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reinhard Grassl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Everyone else Tells me that I Have Done Something Incredibly Great, but how Do I See Myself?  
*Samita Rosari*

Developing a Multi-temporal Ethnographic Research Design  
*Petra Panenka*

Authors’ Notes  

Subject Index
Thanks to the organizational support, intensive preparations and extensive voluntary work by Mechthild Kiegelmann and her team at the University of Education in Karlsruhe the Workshop 2018 could offer a broad program of paper presentation, posters, and discussions of work in progress, particularly in two sessions for research consulting. The program announced the following contributions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keynote presentation</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Joseph A. Maxwell    | Generalizability in Qualitative Research  
  *Chair: Karin Schweizer*  |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Workgroup 1</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R. Klepser, A. Reiber, K. Schweizer, &amp; H. Weitzel</td>
<td>Chilean and German primary students’ conceptions of the musculoskeletal system—a comparison</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Müller</td>
<td>Sustainability of international volunteering from a developmental psychology perspective – Biographical meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. L. Springmann</td>
<td>The role of gender in the recovery from eating disorders – what can we learn from formerly affected persons?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Schmitz</td>
<td>Beziehungen zwischen Jugendlichen mit und ohne Migrationshintergrund – interethnische Kontaktbereitschaft bei sich ähnelnden Gruppen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Workgroup 2</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J. Kramer</td>
<td>Andrej is different and Selma loves Sandra. Living situations of LGBTQ from conservative, religious or immigrated families in Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. Lottmann</td>
<td>Ageing &amp; Diversity: LGBT and longterm care – sample, research design, analyses and ethics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. Schröter</td>
<td>Research on muslim religiosity among youngsters and young adults (14-34 y.) in Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Boumaaiz</td>
<td>Reflections on the role of the teacher in Islamic religious education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Workgroup 3</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M. Dominguez, A. Medina &amp; M. Medina</td>
<td>Impact of the Focus Group on the professional development of secondary education teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lopez-Gomez, Gonzales &amp; Cabeiro</td>
<td>Development of the university student’s digital competence through the learning platform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. Iglesias et al.</td>
<td>The classic myth and its contribution to the development of the teaching identity: a curricular context developed in the master of educational research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Schneider</td>
<td>Changing the classroom into a playground – positive effects for motivated learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Workgroup 4  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R. Grassl</td>
<td>Discover the Unseen Through Tool-Based Scientific Observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. Held</td>
<td>Subject Oriented Research. a new methodological approach and two empirical projects as examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. Kiegelmann</td>
<td>Gaining access to research participants. What do we researchers have to offer in research relationships?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. Tagaki</td>
<td>Contribution of qualitative research to municipal disability policy: An analysis of the issuing process of the disability action plan in Japan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Consulting  

Kiegelmann, Schweizer, Medina, Huber

Not all of the announced topics can be presented in Qualitative Psychology Nexus vol. 15. One of the presenters could not come to Karlsruhe, some did not find the time necessary to transform their presentation into a manuscript for publication, some reported first findings from ongoing work that was meant to be published as part of qualification papers, and in one case a misunderstanding left the editor too long just with an abstract – what the editor should have noticed earlier. Now, at the moment of publication, the editor can only apologize to the participant and the readers. The available papers are presented here in the order of the work groups (see above). One article, originally presented as poster, is inserted additionally.

Both the topics of diversity and the methodological problems when approaching the subjective world view, self-understanding and action strategies of the persons involved were discussed intensively in all workshop sessions. While some participants focused on particular aspects of diversity and presented methodologically well justified findings, in other contributions the aspect of methodological possibilities and their advantages and/or problems to find answers to the research question were in the center of interest. Subsequently we present outlines of various contributions to the workshop.

The paper on “Chilean and German Primary Students’ Conceptions of the Musculo-skeletal System – a Comparison” by Adina Reiber, Karin Schweizer, Roswitha Klepser, Monica Bravo Granström, Holger Weitzel and Stephanie Bender reports the results of a comparison of Chilean and German primary students’ conceptions of the human body and discusses the commonalities and discrepancies of both countries’ curricula. The principal assumption is that the constructivist epistemology is considered as guideline for teaching and learning science in schools, which implies that
teachers have to learn how to build upon and integrate adequately their students’ available conceptions. The data were gathered by problem-centered interviews and analyzed by qualitative content analysis.

The contribution on “Using a Qualitative Research Approach to Investigate Identity Development in the Context of International Volunteering Experience” by Franziska Müller builds – as the author explains – “on studies that discovered a connection between common reasons for wanting to do a voluntary service, like gaining independence from the parents or professional orientation and aspects of identity development (Marcia et al. 1993) (e.g. through active exploration of different ways of life). From a developmental psychological perspective, with a focus on identity development this study seeks to explore the subjective meaning of volunteering in a later phase of the volunteers’ lifes. Through biographical interviews the (lasting) meaning of the volunteering can be captured within the context of the volunteers’ life stories.”

Marie-Luise Springmann treats in her paper on “The Role of Gender in the Recovery from Eating Disorders – what Can we Learn from Formerly Affected Persons?” the dilemma that “empirical evidence supports the hypothesis that gender is relevant to the etiology of eating disorders, [but] little is understood about the quality of this relationship for different gender identities and how eating disordered persons deal with it during recovery. The presented study aims to address these questions with a hypothesis-generating method: Formerly affected persons of different gender identities and sexual orientations are being interviewed about their experience of the eating disorder and the ways they found to overcome it. Narrative interview technique gives participants space to voice their experiences.”

In their study titled “Andrej is different and Selma loves Sandra: Living situations of LGBTQ+ from religious or immigrated families in Germany” Jochen Kramer, Olcay Miyanyedi and Mechthild Kiegelmann “explore the situation of homo-, bi-, transsexual, queer (LGBTQ) youth/young adults from conservative, religious or immigrated families residing in Stuttgart metropolitan area ...” While they “proved to be highly vulnerable to discrimination, ... only few of them make use of psycho-social/LGBTQ community support.” Qualitative interviews were thematically analyzed (Braun & Clarke, 2006) and revealed “a) how the members of the target group define their own sexual, gender, cultural, and religious identities, b)
how integrated they feel in their social contexts, c) what experiences have strongly influenced their lives, and d) what kind of support they want.”

Unfortunately missing is Ralf Lottmann’s paper on “Ageing & Diversity: LGBT and longterm care – sample, research design, analyses and ethics”. The presentation showed and discussed „methods of analysis, sample strategies for recruiting older LGBT participants, ethical aspects and selected results“ of two studies. „The Qualitative Approach enabled the researcher to modify the concept of culture-sensitive care in relation to diversity-sensitive aspects. Reconstructive methods especially provide a deeper understanding of diversity in order to consider indi-viduality and biographies in long-term care (facilities) and the social inclusion of LGB(T*I) elders.“

Antonio Medina Rivilla, María C. Domínguez Garrido and María Medina Domínguez give in their paper on “Perceptions of Basic Competencies in the Last Year of Baccalaureate by the Center's Management Team: Focus Group Analysis” a differentiated presentation and discussion of the use of focus groups as “an adequate method to understand the complexity of the training problem that characterizes the final stage of Secondary Education”. The authors consider focus groups “as a qualitative method, which stimulates the involvement of the members of the educational institution in the analysis and value of teachers’ and students education in the importance and master of competencies (students-teachers), the basis of their own and their students’ professional development and the innovation of the institution/school.”

Masakuni Tagaki describes in great detail the background and development of a long-term research project on the municipal disability policy in a rural area in Japan. Most interesting is his methodological approach: He employed in this study action research and theories of sense-making, “which are based on the application of narrative theory to group dynamics in organizational development.” The author’s reflections on his own role particularly within a context of action research may be very helpful for other researchers.

Reinhard Grassl describes in his presentation on “Discover the Unseen Through Tool-Based Scientific Observation” that an observational approach in scientific research has to be “based on scientific knowledge and hypothesis. It further requires appropriate software tools to create reliable data and interesting findings with significant validity in reasonable time.” In addition, he discussed the “major difference between everyday observation
and scientific observation, and the enormous chances specific software tools can create in this field...”.

For her paper with the title “Everyone else tells me that I have done something incredibly great, but how do I see myself?” on the exploration of the development of self-concept of refugee children between 6 and 12 years of age in Germany after traumatic experiences Sasmita Rosari developed an interactive research design following the model of Maxwell’s (2013) design. Using a mixed-methods approach, she discusses in detail the problems and possibilities to get access to these children’s experiences as well as to analyze their resources and risk factors as regards resilience.

Also built on the design suggestions by Maxwell (2013), Petra Panenka tried to find answers to her ethnographic research questions, how food practices (cooking, eating customs) among the Northern Lakandón Maya are adopted and how socio-cultural changes could be revealed by “the actors’ interactions with the human and material” factors in the “kitchen environment”. Considering the concrete conditions of ethnographic field work and following also the ideas of the approach of cognitivist grounded theory, the author elaborated the multi-temporal ethnographic research design, which is described in detail in her article. It becomes absolutely clear, that she had not chosen a particular method from the start, but selected and adapted her methodological tools depending on the prevailing research questions and field conditions during her several field stays. A graphic presentation at the end of her paper gives a perfect overview and summarizes her procedures.
Chilean and German Primary Students’ Conceptions of the Musculoskeletal System – a Comparison

Adina Reiber, Karin Schweizer, Roswitha Klepser, Monica Bravo Granström, Holger Weitzel
(University of Education, Weingarten)
and Stephanie Bender
(University of Talca, LBI)

Abstract

In the course of a research and development project, GECKO (Ger-man-Chile-Kooperation), representatives from a Chilean (University of Talca, LBI) and a German (University of Education Weingarten) university collected primary students’ conceptions of structure and function of the human musculoskeletal system. In Germany, eight students took part in the survey (aged 7-8 years) and in Chile, eight students (aged 8-9 years). The data regarding the conceptions of the German students were collected prior the classes, those of the Chilean students after classes on the movement apparatus. The data was gathered by problem-centered interviews and analyzed by qualitative content analysis. In addition, we conducted a document analysis of the Chilean and German primary curriculum to identify objectives and epistemological framework of the countries respectively. This article presents the results of the comparison of Chilean and German primary students’ conceptions and reports on commonalities and discrepancies of both countries curricula. In Germany, the students could name musculoskeletal system structures such as muscles and bones and locate them on drawings, even prior to classes on the topic. In addition, they consider both structures to be prerequisites for movement. In comparison to the situation before the classes in Germany, the Chilean students' conceptions on the structure and arrangement of muscles, bones and joints after the class are more differentiated. They merge partial concepts (muscles and bones, muscles and joints) to describe prerequisites for the development of skeletal movement. However, both groups are not
able to explain skeletal movement as a result of the interaction of muscles, bones and joints.

1 Introduction

Teaching in European and Anglo-Saxon countries is widely embedded within a constructivist epistemological framework (Duit & Treagust, 1998). According to science education, the adaptation of the constructivist epistemology means to consider conceptions and beliefs of students as starting points for guiding the learning of science concepts (Amin, Smith & Wiser, 2014).

The students’ conceptions on various scientific topics show that students often bring ideas and explanations to class about the respective phenomena. Their explanations differ, however, to a greater or lesser extent from the technical explanations (Duit, 1995; Weitzel, 2015; Kattmann, 2017). The divergent students’ conceptions may hinder the learning of technical concepts, as they often prove themselves in everyday life, and as such they are firmly anchored in the students’ conceptual system and thus difficult to change through teaching. (e.g. Bitter et al., 2015). Learning in natural sciences therefore aims to achieve a change from an initial conception to a more subject-specific conception. Already in the 1980s, the first conceptual change approaches were developed. These describe theoretical justifications and methods by which students can develop scientific concepts (e.g. Strike & Posner, 1982). While those early conceptual change approaches rather aimed at a replacement of everyday conceptions with technical conceptions, current approaches aim at the context-sensitive application of the respective appropriate conceptions (e.g. Treagust & Duit, 2008).

What all approaches have in common is the intensive reference to the students’ initial conceptions (e.g. Jonen et al., 2003; Kattmann, 2007; Hempel, 2011). Regarding the situation in primary school, in contrast to the research situation in the secondary school sector, a number of research gaps are identified (e.g. Adamina et al. 2018). Moreover, compared to Europe and the US, the current research situation regarding data in Chile is less favorable. This article addresses one of the topics relevant to subject teaching in Chile and Germany and presents the results of the survey of students’ conceptions of the musculoskeletal system before classes on the
musculoskeletal system in German schools and compares them with conceptions of Chilean primary school students after classes on the topic.

2. Theoretical background

2.1 How is movement constituted?

Movement in the animal world occurs through interaction of solid and contractile elements, in vertebrates with bony endoskeletons forming the solid and muscles the contractile structures. Endoskeletons serve as resistance for the contractile structures. In addition, they stabilize, support and protect the body, and are the places where the solid components of blood are essentially formed. The bones store minerals and release them as needed (Menche et al., 2003). In order for the skeleton to move, muscles move the bones actively in their position (Platzer et al., 2013; Purves et al., 2011). Joints are stable and at the same time mobile connections between the bones, which enable targeted movements in different directions (Huch & Engelhardt, 2011; Purves et al., 2011). Muscle strength is transmitted via tendons via at least one joint. For this purpose, tendons attach to bone protrusions (apophyses) on the bone surface (Lippert & Lippert-Burmester, 2010; Platzer et al., 2013).

In contrast to tendons, ligaments basically connect bones with each other. They surround the joint, stabilizing it (Spornitz et al., 2004). Since muscles contract but cannot relax without help, muscles function according to the agonist-antagonist principle. This means that muscles work together at least in pairs, with contraction and stretching in opposite directions. In this way, a contracted muscle (agonist) is stretched by the contraction of the opponent (antagonist).

2.2 Curriculum contents on the musculoskeletal system in Germany and Chile

The human musculoskeletal system is included equally in the curricula in Germany and Chile, but depending on the type of school and grade, slightly different emphases can be observed (Tab. 1).
Reiber et al.

Table 1: Curricula on the musculoskeletal system at the participating schools in Germany and Chile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Education standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Germany (Baden-Württemberg)</td>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bildungsplan Grundschule 2004 (Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport Baden-Württemberg, 2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Bases Curriculares Educación Básica (Ministerio de Educación de Chile, 2012)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a) Primary school Germany (Baden-Württemberg)
In Germany, education policy is the responsibility of the 16 different federal states (Bundesländer), the educational standards may thus differ between the federal states. This survey of German students was conducted in the federal state of Baden-Württemberg. In Baden-Württemberg, the musculoskeletal system is a subject in grade 4 (Ministerium für Kultus, 2004, p. 104). Muscles, bones and joints and their functions should be thematized. Under the heading "Nature arouses curiosity: research, experiment, document" (ibid, p. 105), experiments on the subject of movement can be planned and carried out.

b) Chilean schools
In Chile, the curricula differ according to the school orientation. In the Chilean schools of the participating students, the Chilean curriculum Bases Curriculares Educación Básica (Ministerio de Educación de Chile, 2012) serves as a basis. It deals with the musculoskeletal system in classes two and four in the subject Ciencias Naturales. The function of bones, muscles and joints as well as the interaction between the structures that enables movement are thematized (Ministerio de Educación de Chile, 2012, pp. 157-166).

2.3 Current state of research

According to Schneider and Collatz (2001), the development of body concepts begins at the age of five. Even before regular school entry, children can already name some organs. Their statements refer exclusively to those organs which they can perceive directly with their own senses, internal organs do not occur in the students' conceptions. Fried (2005)
concludes that children up to the age of nine years are just as unaware of an organ occurrence in the human body as of the functions that the internal organs can perform. This is also confirmed by further studies (Gelman, 1990; Carey & Gelman, 1991). For example, students under the age of nine rarely describe the presence of a lung or its function. According to Fried (2005), the concepts of internal organs mostly develop first and this can imply difficulties for the students in describing characteristics and functions of organs. Children thus know what is meant by muscles or bones on a general level, but are not able to explain complex phenomena such as movement. In a qualitative study with fourth-grade students on conceptions about the human skeleton, Wilde, Homann and Grotjohann (2011) identify very heterogeneous conceptions about the structure of the skeleton. In skeleton drawings, the conceptions range from skeleton fragments to coherent representations of the supporting skeleton. About half of the test persons were able to name at least the supporting function of bones.

The current state of research on students’ conceptions of the musculoskeletal system contrasts with the potential of science teaching in primary school. In an in-depth review of research about young children’s science learning Duschl, Schweingruber and Schouse (2007) found that children at that age are capable of more sophisticated science thinking than previously assumed. The causes of the discrepancy between the potential of science teaching in primary school and reality are manifold, even though, it is often referred to the quality of teaching. This, however, does not take sufficient account of, for example, students' conceptions (Osborne & Dillon, 2008), and does not leave any space for conceptual understanding (e.g. for understanding structure-function correlations) or stimulates scientific thinking sufficiently (Furtak & Alonzo, 2010; Howes, Lim, & Campos, 2009). Considering the above mentioned aspects, the aim of the study is thus to collect students' conceptions about the musculoskeletal system prior to classes on the topic (in our case of students in Germany) as well as to relate them to conceptions about the musculoskeletal system after classes on the topic in Chilean schools. The results can help to develop and test teaching content on the basis of student conceptions.
3 Materials and methods

Within the scope of the study, problem-centred, partially standardised individual interviews were conducted with eight German (grade 2) and eight Chilean students (grade 3) (Bogner et al., 2014; Przyborski & Wohlrab-Sahr, 2014; Trautmann, 2010). The research aims at investigating individual conceptions of the musculoskeletal system. In the study, categories are developed which support the conceptions of the learners to understand the musculoskeletal system. A qualitative method of investigation is appropriate for this aim, since the diverse individual conceptions can be captured in such a research design.

The interview guide covers structures of the musculoskeletal system (bones, muscles, joints) and structure-function relationships that enable movement. The topics are organized in completed topic blocks, enabling that the order of the blocks can be adapted during the interview process. The interview guide was tested in primary schools in Baden-Württemberg and adapted to the language level of the children. For Chile, the interview guide was translated into Spanish. The interviews were also conducted in Spanish. During the interviews, the test persons were additionally given posters with human body contours in which structures and structure-function correlations were to be drawn. In such a way, a further non-linguistic form of data collection was taken up and the methodological problem of the partly insufficient verbalization ability of pupils of this age group mentioned by Wilde et al. (2011) thereby addressed. The combination of problem-centered interview and sketches is particularly suitable for questioning children, as they thus are encouraged to express their conceptions openly and freely (Lamnek & Krell, 2010).

The selection of the subjects was made by the teachers, whereby “unobtrusive” students of “normal” intelligence were selected for the study (Reinders, 2005; Weitzel, 2006), in order to intend to avoid extreme cases in the results. These include conceptions which are untypical for other learners of the same age because they have either already passed the developmental stage or have not yet reached it. The recorded conversations were completely transcribed in each case (Kuckartz, 2014; Weitzel, 2006) and anonymized (Konrad, 2011). The interviews conducted in Spanish were then translated into German.
A qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2010) was conducted for the evaluation of the data, using the MAXQDA 2012 software. The aim was to identify general thought structures in the individual statements of the students. Conceptions drawing on Gropengiesser (2001) with common and equivalent characteristics, are combined into category-related categories. Through this categorization, the individual conceptions about the musculoskeletal system are visualized in conceivable connections. The categories are based on the generalizable structures of the students’ conceptions, which are interesting at this point parting from the view that they are the ones who can be effective in learning in class.

4 Findings

In the following, we present the conceptions of German grade two students about bones, muscles and the development of movement prior to classes regarding this topic. This is contrasted with Chilean grade three students’ conceptions after classes regarding this topic.

4.1 Conceptions of muscles

Already prior to the class on the topic, all German grade two students know the word “muscle”. They identify muscles in different parts of the body, from the shoulders to the middle of the body and up to the two groups of extremities (arms, hands, legs and feet). Regarding the position and arrangement of the parts, the students can only express a few conceptions (Fig. 1). Only one student (Mara) mentions where the muscles are to be found in the body. She assumes that they are to be found outside of the bones, directly on a joint. Regarding the attachment of muscles in the body, the students do not express any conceptions. One student (Laura) addresses the function of muscles. She assumes that muscles contract bones.
Table 2: German grade 2 students’ conceptions on structure, position and function of muscles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept denomination</th>
<th>Concept description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Muscles in the body</td>
<td>In the body there are muscles in different places.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “There is a bend here [at the arm]. There are muscles and real men, down here [at the stomach] they have three muscles.” (Mara, line 242)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscles outside on the bones</td>
<td>The muscles are outside on the bones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “[Muscles are] on the bones, outside on the bones.” (Mara, line 288)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscles move the bones</td>
<td>Muscles allow movement by contracting bones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “[Muscles] then contract the bones, they approach each other.” (Laura, lines 130 – 132)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After classes on the topic, Chilean grade three students name conceptions about muscles that relate to their appearance, position, arrangement and function. Muscles are located in different parts of the body, increasingly in the extremities (Fig. 2). Muscles are occasionally identified as flesh. In comparison to the students without classes on the musculoskeletal system, the Chilean students attribute more extensive functions to the muscles and are able to verbalize them in a more differentiated way. Subsequently, muscles are considered as involved in shaping, providing strength for movement, and being attached to bones, protecting those. However, no test person describes how the muscles are attached to bones with tendons. Tendons and ligaments are not mentioned in connection with movement.

Even after the classes, for the Chilean students an important prerequisite regarding the muscular movement does not exist: the arrangement of muscles over at least one joint.
Table 3: Chilean grade 3 students’ conceptions on structure, position and function of muscles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept denomination</th>
<th>Concept description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Muscles in the body</td>
<td><em>In the body there are muscles in different positions.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “Some muscles have [men] here at the stomach.” (Jana, line 238)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscles outside on the bones</td>
<td><em>The muscles are outside of the bones.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “Which bones are and around are the muscles.” (Alejandra, line 616)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protection of muscles</td>
<td><em>The muscles protect the bones.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “[The muscles] protect the bones.” (Monica, lines 438-439)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscles shape the body</td>
<td><em>The muscles shape the body.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “Since [muscles] also shape the arm.” (Sabine, lines 579-580)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscles give strength</td>
<td><em>The muscles give the strength for movement.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “[Muscles] give you the strength for moving.” (Alejandra, line 673)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscles are linked to the bones and enable movement</td>
<td><em>Muscles are linked to the bones and enable movement of the bones.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “There are bones and there is a muscle, which supports the bones and are linked to the bones, to control them and to lift them up.” (Pablo, lines 387-388)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscles are flesh</td>
<td><em>The term muscle is a synonym for flesh.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “(..) Inside there are flesh and bones.” (Pablo, line 52)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Conceptions of bones and joints

The German grade 2 students already have basic conceptions of the existence of bones prior to classes on the topic. They can draw different bones on the human body contours, which roughly correspond to the correct position. This also applies to bones that they cannot feel immediately, such as bones of the pelvis or the femur (Fig. 1a, Leon). The number of bones assumed to be in a body area varies considerably between students. Some of the students’ drawings contain connections between
bones, which are called joints by the children, while others draw bones as continuous, partly curved lines (Fig. 1b, Sandra). In addition, there is no correct bone pattern to be found in any of the test persons. Even if the students do not draw any conceptions about joints, they assume that such are present, where flexing or stretching movements are possible ("[joints are] at the shoulder, front toes, at the knee, at the wrist.") (Carla, lines 365-367)).

Some students make initial assumptions about the function of bones, which in the point of view of the students give form to the body. On a general level, bones are also associated with movement.

In comparison to the pre-concepts of the German students, the Chilean students mention the protection of internal organs such as the brain as a further function of bones. While the test persons use the term “bone” independently, the term “joint” is only used after the interviewer's intervention, although the student drawings contain joints between the long bones (Fig. 2). The typical long bone shape can only be found in a drawing by one test person. Ribs are increasingly drawn on the spine. In comparison, the students in Germany also draw ribs attached inside the spine. After classes on the topic, the spine is po-sitioned more correctly, this also applies to the arrangement of the individual vertebrae, which, however, only in isolated cases reach into the neck. In no case the number of bones on an extremity is scientifically correct. Joints are mainly placed on the extremities, arranged between bones and associated to the bone protection.

Table 4: German grade 2 students’ conceptions on structure, position and function of bones

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept denomination</th>
<th>Concept description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bones give form and stability</td>
<td>Without bones the body would collapse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “If we didn’t have any bones, we would collapse.” (Emil, lines 151-153)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bones enable movement</td>
<td>Without bones, no movement is possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “If we didn’t have any bones, we wouldn’t be able to move.” (Ira, lines 282-283)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Primary Students’ Conceptions of the Musculoskeletal System

Fig. 1a: Leon (gray spots represent muscles). You can see joints between the bones.

Fig. 1b: Sandra. Bones are drawn as solid lines, joints are indicated as points, their shape is unclear.

Figure 1: German students’ conceptions of the musculoskeletal system structure

Tab. 5: Chilean grade 3 students’ conceptions on structure, position and function of bones

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept denomination</th>
<th>Concept description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bone protection</td>
<td>Bones protect internal organs. Quote: “For protection of the heart and the lungs.” [DRAWING: Text “Ribs protect the heart and the lungs.”]” (Alejandra, lines 130-132)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3 Conceptions of movement

The grade 2 students name muscles, bones and joints as prerequisites for movement, but the conceptions do not appear together in the individual students, so that the children are not able to explain skeletal movements. One test persons (Ira) mentions the head as involved in the execution of the movement.

After classes on the topic, students combine at least two concepts (muscles and bones, muscles and joints) as a prerequisite for the development of movement. One student (Alejandra) additionally names the brain as an essential organ for the development of movements. Despite the combination of partial concepts, the students are not able to explain skeletal movement. The sub-concepts (e.g. muscles and bones) are named, but how they are connected to each other and how they act to realize movement remains unnamed in all student utterances.
Table 6: German grade 2 students’ conceptions of prerequisite and skeletal motion realization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept denomination</th>
<th>Concept description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bones as a prerequisite for movement</td>
<td>Bones are a prerequisite for skeletal movement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “[We can move], since we have bones and [we move those parts], where we have bones.” (Emil, lines 207-219)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscles as a prerequisite for movement</td>
<td>Muscles are a prerequisite for skeletal movement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “[When we move], then the muscles tense up, then there's a little hump like that.” (Ron, lines 162-167)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joints as a prerequisite for movement</td>
<td>Joints are a prerequisite for skeletal movement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “[If we didn't have wrists], then we couldn't move our hands.” (Sandra, lines 322-323)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Chilean grade 3 students’ conceptions of prerequisite and skeletal motion realization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept denomination</th>
<th>Concept description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Muscles and bones</td>
<td>The existence of bones and muscles is necessary for people to be able to move.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “Since we have bones and muscles we can move.” (Maria, line 20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscles and joints</td>
<td>Joints in combination with muscles enable movement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “We need joints, maybe some nerves and muscles to be able to move.” (Sabine, line 534)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brain</td>
<td>The brain sends signals that trigger movement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quote: “And for example the brain, if you want to do something, it sends one, sends like a signal of what you want to do.” (Alejandra, lines 504-505)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 Discussion

In this section, the findings from the data collection will be discussed, in a comparison on the conceptions of the German grade 2 students prior to classes on the treated topic with the conceptions of the Chilean grade 3 students after classes on the topic.

In comparison to children before regular school entry (Schneider & Collatz, 2001), students in grade 2 already are able to name organs which they cannot perceive directly. The skeleton drawings mainly contain bones, but also partly muscles. A part of the bones can already be named by name. Similar to Wilde et al. (2011), some of the test persons draw bones loosely into the body contours, while
others already have the conceptions that bones are connected by joints. However, none of the second graders is able to explain movement using the described or sketched structures before the classes on the topic.

Through classes on the topic, the Chilean grade 3 students are able to differentiate their conceptions about the structure of the musculoskeletal system, in particular about the function of muscles. In addition, they succeed in combining sub-concepts that are prerequisites for movement. However, it can be observed that even after classes on the topic the students are not able to explain skeletal movement as the interaction of muscles, bones and joints, as required by the Chilean curriculum (Ministerio de Educación de Chile, 2012, pp. 157-165). The agonist-antagonist principle is also not mentioned by any of the students. In most cases the students’ conceptions remain at the level of the description of prerequisites.

Summarizing, the following gaps can be found in the conceptions of the Chilean students after classes on the topic, which can serve as concrete starting points for the development of classes:

- Correct naming of the bone structure at least using the example of an extremity
- Connection between axial and extremity skeleton
- Position and type of muscle attachment to bone
- Structure and function of joints
- Structure-function relationship between muscle, bone and joint using an example so that movement can be explained

6 Conclusion

Even without classes, primary school students develop conceptions of the musculoskeletal system that relate primarily to structures which can represent important prerequisites for classes in order to develop the necessary structure-function correlations in class. The teaching at the participating schools in Chile so far has led to a differentiation of conceptions about the structures of the musculoskeletal system and the prerequisites for skeletal movement. However, it does not succeed in developing an understanding of skeletal movement, at least in the interviewees. It is possible that classes which focus more on the students’ conceptions (cf. Weitzel, 2014) can help to develop such a deeper understanding. At least this is what previous studies on other scientific topics suggest (Amin et al., 2014).

At least after the classes in Chile there is no cultural difference between the conceptions of the children from Germany and Chile. All children, regardless of
their origin, refer in their descriptions to direct experiences with their own bodies. The combination of guideline-based interviews with students’ sketches proves to be a suitable survey instrument in contrast to purely verbal survey formats and seems to be superior to other methods in their ability to generate rich data (cf. Wilde et al., 2011). The qualitative and in-depth approach of the study expands research on students’ conceptions, including conceptions of the musculoskeletal system. For the first time, the study also provides data from Chilean primary school students on their conceptions of the musculoskeletal system, a compulsory topic of the primary school curriculum in Chile.

References


Using a Qualitative Research Approach to Investigate Identity Development in the Context of International Volunteering Experience

Franziska Müller
University of Education Karlsruhe

Abstract

Determining identity development using the semi-structured Identity Status Interview based on Marcia et al. (1993) is an example for the application of qualitative methods in data collection in developmental psychology. When it comes to data analysis, standardized methods are often preferred in this area, leaving hardly any room for insights into individual development processes. The present article therefore provides a process-oriented qualitative approach in which identity development is investigated through the combination of biographical narrative interviews following Schütze (2016) and a psychological analysis method, the Voice Approach based on Gilligan’s Listening Guide (2015). I show that with this combination the comprehension of an individual’s development is possible, while at the same time societal aspects can be taken into account. Especially inner negotiations of conflicts between the self and external influences can be analyzed this way. The research approach presented here is part of my ongoing dissertation project on the subjective meaning of international volunteering from the perspective of former volunteers. The contribution seeks to complement quantitative-oriented approaches in the area of identity development.

1 Introduction

Qualitative methods were marginalized in developmental psychology for a long time. Even today, they are still often only applied in mixed methods approaches, as the potential of qualitative research in theory development has not been fully recognized yet (Mey, 2010, p. 757). However, identity
development according to Marcia, Waterman, Matte-son, Archer and Orlofsky (1993) is an area in which qualitative methods are applied frequently in data collection. But when it comes to data analysis, standardized methods are often preferred, leaving only little room for insights into individual development processes (Mey, 2010, p. 755ff). The individual was recognized as a self-reflexive subject on a theoretical level for quite a long time in developmental psychology. However, this was not reflected on a methodical level, e. g. through interpretative approaches (Mey, 2010, pp. 755-756).

The present article therefore provides a qualitative research approach to complement the quantitative-oriented approaches. Here identity development is investigated through the combination of a sociological method, Biographical Narrative Interviews following Schütze (2016), and the psychological analysis method Voice Approach (Kiegelmann, 2000 and Kiegelmann, 2007), an enhancement of Gilligan’s (2015) Listening Guide. The assumption is, that the combination of these two methods enables insights into the development from an individual’s perspective with a focus on negotiations with “inner and outer worlds” (Gilligan, 2015, p. 69), especially when it comes to internal struggles.

The research approach presented here is part of my ongoing dissertation project on the subjective meaning of international volunteering from the perspective of former volunteers. The context volunteering seems to be especially interesting from a developmental psychological perspective, because it provides opportunities for the fulfillment of developmental tasks (Krettenauer & Gudulas, 2003). The term “international volunteering” involves voluntary services abroad and forms of civic engagement in a university context in the presented study, such as engaging in a student initiative, or in the context of international aid associations. The engagement in all cases includes a stay abroad.

The dissertation project builds on studies investigating relations between identity development in adolescence and international voluntary services. These relations will be illustrated in more detail in Section 2 of this article. The Identity Status Approach (Marcia et al., 1993) and how identity is investigated within this approach is explained briefly in Section 3. This approach marks an important step in the operationalization of research on identity.

The proposed qualitative research approach is described in detail in Section 4, with a focus on data collection and data analysis, illustrated
with an empirical example.

2 Identity Development and Volunteering

According to Krettenauer and Gudulas (2003), the possible “functional relations between volunteering and individuals’ coping with special developmental tasks” (p. 221) are particularly interesting from a developmental psychological perspective.

Research on civic engagement in Germany has been growing since the eighties (see Benedetti, 2015, pp. 51-53; Düx, Prein, Sass, & Tully, 2009, p. 12-22). Several studies demonstrate a strong connection between civic engagement and biography (Jakob, 1993; Benedetti, 2015). The “biographical fit” (Jakob, 1993, p. 281), meaning that volunteering activities are closely linked to biographical plans, seems to be characteristic for shorter and more individual forms of “new” civic engagement compared to “traditional” long-term forms of voluntary commitment throughout life. Depending on the stage of life, individuals therefore can have different motives for volunteering; adolescents aim at gaining professional qualification, adults may seek a counterbalance to work etc. (Krettenauer & Gudulas, 2003, p. 222). Krettenauer and Gudulas (2003) transferred this into a developmental psychological question and discovered a connection between adolescents’ motives for wanting to do voluntary service abroad and aspects of identity development. They did research on adolescents, who decided to take part in voluntary service abroad and a comparison group, who did not take this decision. They found out that a certain identity status, Moratorium (see below for more details), correlates with a strong willingness to take part in a voluntary service programme as well as the motives “detachment from parents” / “self-discovery” and “exploring professional perspectives” (Krettenauer & Gudulas, 2003, p. 226).

1 Original version in German: “biographische Passung” (Jakob, 1993, p. 281)
2 For a detailed discussion see Beher, Liebig and Rauschenbach (2000).
The underlying theoretical model on identity development and how this is operationalized for research studies is described in the following.

3 Theoretical and Methodical Framework

There are many concepts of identity. In the present article, however, the focus is on the Identity Status Approach by Marcia et al. (1993), which is explained in brief below. Marcia’s contribution consists of "paving the way for obtaining empirical access to personal identity development", according to Born and Watzlawik (2007, p. v). The Identity Status Approach builds on Erikson’s Eight Stages of Psycho-social (Ego) Growth (Marcia, 1993, pp. 3-7), which although strongly criticized, still has great influence in social psychology (Keupp, 2008, p. 25-33). The second part of this section addresses the Identity Status Interview, a method to determine identity statuses.

3.1 Identity Status Approach

Marcia (1993, p. 7) defines identity as follows:

“The experience of having an identity is that one has a core, a center that is oneself, to which experience and action can be referred. One can trace one’s history in a meaningful way to one’s present situation and can extend that line into probable futures.”

He points at the differences of “conferred” and “constructed” identities and the consequences either form can have with regard to how life is perceived: as “fulfillment of expectations” in the case of conferred identity or “the creation of self-relevant forms” in the case of constructed identity (Marcia, 1993, p. 8).

Marcia developed the Identity Status Approach (1966), describing four different identity statuses through extending and operationalizing Erikson’s model. It builds on Erikson’s variable “commitment”, understood as “personal investment” (Marcia, 1966, p. 551).

For an overview on concepts of identity from a social psychological perspective see Keupp (2008).
This variable “determine[s] presence or absence of identity” (Marcia, 1993, p. 9). Marcia extended the model by the variable “crisis”/“exploration of alternatives” (Marcia, 1993, pp. 10-11). By looking at how much exploration was carried out by an individual, four identity status types could be differentiated that are characterized by commitment and lack of commitment: The two statuses with commitment are (1) Identity Achievement and (2) Foreclosure. Identity Achievement means that commitment in an identity domain was reached through exploration. In the status of Foreclosure commitment was achieved without prior active exploration. This leads to a conferred identity (see above). The two types that are characterized by a lack of commitment are the status of (3) Moratorium and (4) Identity Diffusion. Moratorium describes a status of active exploration, accompanied with concern by the individual. The status of Identity Diffusion is characterized by a lack of exploration and is not perceived as a crisis by the individual (pp. 10-11). This is just a very brief summary. See Marcia et al. (1993) and Marcia (1966) for more details.

Whereas identity development according to Erikson takes place in adolescence, the Identity Status Approach is according to Marcia (1993) “a life-span developmental one” (p. 21; see also Stephen, Fraser, & Marcia, 1992). A commitment made can be questioned with the appearance of new thoughts etc. Moratorium, therefore, can be re-entered (Stephen et al., 1992, p. 296).

3.2 Investigating Identity with the Identity Status Interview

As stated above, research on identity development is one of the areas in developmental psychology where researchers work with qualitative approaches in data collection for a long time (Mey, 2010, p. 755). Marcia is one of them. The approach to investigate the identity status of an individual is characterized through open data collection followed by a quantitative data analysis (see Matteson, 1993; Waterman, 1993). This is described briefly in the following.

Because identity is, according to Marcia (1993), of an “intra-psychic and phenomenological” quality (pp. 8-10), it has to be made measurable. The domains “occupation” and “ideology”, already identified by Erikson have been divided into “occupation”, “religion” and “politics” and expanded by several further domains such as “gender-role attitudes” or
“relationships with friends” (Waterman, 1993, pp. 156-157). The identity status is determined in a semi-structured interview, the Identity Status Interview, through questions regarding the different domains (Waterman, 1993). The data is then analysed in a quantitative way, using a manual with given evaluation criteria (Waterman, 1993, p. 172-176).

A qualitative research approach that adds a process-perspective to the investigation of identity development, with the possibility to go deeper into the data in selected sections, is described below.

4 Description of the Qualitative Research Approach

My initial research interest was focused on the development of former volunteers after their volunteering stay abroad, particularly in how the stay may have influenced e. g. professional decisions. A retrospective study design with Biographical Narrative Interviews seemed to be feasible in the framework of a dissertation project. In addition, the connection between volunteering and biography (see Section 2: Identity Development and Volunteering) can be taken into account in a long-term perspective through this type of interview. This is complemented by a qualitative approach in data analysis to get a deeper understanding of individual development processes as an addition to the above-mentioned studies on identity development. Both approaches will be described in detail below.

4.1 Methodology

Reconstructive biographical research seems to fit the above-mentioned demands for process-oriented research in the area of identity development, because it is seen as an approach of generating knowledge from the individual’s perspective within a changing society, taking sociological aspects into consideration for answering psychological questions (Schulze, 2010, pp. 579-580).

The added value of biographical research especially in developmental psychology is presented by Kaiser (2005, pp. 241-243). Some aspects are mentioned here as examples: (1) An emphasis on the historicity of an individual through a focus on life-course and biography is possible by conducting biographical research. (2) Individual development can be
analysed in a very detailed manner. Generalisations cannot be made very easily. (3) Subjective meaning can be taken into consideration as an addition to neuropsychological explanations (Kaiser, 2005, pp. 241-243).

Although a sociological method, according to Kaiser (2005) Biographical Narrative Interviews are particularly suitable for investigating developmental psychological questions, since development processes can be understood through the chronological order of one’s life story (p. 255). The application of Biographical Narrative Interviews in the presented study is described in the following.

4.2 Data Collection through Biographical Narrative Interviews

Biographical Narrative Interviews based on Schütze (2016) are applied for data collection in the presented study. I followed Rosenthal’s (1995) description for conducting the Narrative Biographical Interviews (pp. 186-207). She further developed the use and analysis of Biographical Narrative Interviews.

According to Schütze (2016) the development of a biographical identity can be traced with this method, with very limited intervention on the interviewer’s side (p. 57). The underlying assumption is that experience becomes tangible in narratives (Schütze, 2016, p. 57). It is possible to reconstruct how life events happened and how individuals perceived and processed experiences. Conscious and unconscious aspects can be interpreted in the context of the factual events of one’s life (Schütze, 2016, pp. 55-56). Rosenthal (1993, p. 3) states:

“"A life story does not consist of an atomistic chain of experiences, whose meaning is created at the moment of their articulation, but is rather a process taking place simultaneously against the backdrop of a biographical structure of meaning, which determines the selection of the individual episodes presented, and within the context of the interaction of a listener or imaginary audience.”

The Narrative Biographical Interview consists of three main parts. (1) The first part is the narrative request, in which the interviewees are invited to tell their life story, either in general or related to a certain phase
of life (Schütze, 2016, pp. 56-57). The focus is set on volunteering through the initial opening question in the presented study, in line with the research focus:

“The overall subject is international volunteering. I am interested in the stories of your life that are important to you. Please tell me your life story, how did you get to this point.”

The interviewee is not interrupted in this part, unless the interviewer cannot follow the narration. The interviewee usually signalizes the end of this part. (2) The second part consists of questions through the interviewer. (3) The interviewee is requested to summarize her or his life on a more abstract level in the third part (Schütze, 2016, p. 56-57).

**Narrative Analysis based on Schütze.** The Narrative Analysis based on Schütze (2016) aims at determining the underlying biographical process structures of an interviewee’s biography:

1. Biographical Action Scheme,
2. Trajectory of Suffering,
3. Institutional Expectation Pattern,
4. Biographical Metamorphis Development (see Betts, Griffiths, Schütze, & Straus, p. 16; Schütze 2016, pp. 60-64).

These structures differ in respect of how individuals perceive their biography with regard to their activeness in shaping their life. A Biographical Action scheme means that individuals actively determine their lives. A Trajectory of Suffering means that individuals feel controlled through external influences (Schütze, 2016, pp. 60-64). See Schütze (2016) for a description of the analysis.

Schütze (2016) states that although biographical research in social sciences focusses on the relevance of certain life events for certain groups or cohorts, how individuals perceive phases in life has a major impact on how they will act in this phase and how they manage difficult phases in life in the future (p. 55). Biographical Narrative Interviews and Narrative Analysis therefore seem to be suitable to investigate developmental psychological questions through this focus on the subjective meaning. This approach will be combined with a psychological based analysis method, which is described below.
Data Analysis Based on the Voice Approach. The assumption is that former volunteers in the presented study will have to deal with social expectations, individual wishes, possible plans on future volunteering and ambivalent thoughts about development cooperation, when it comes to shaping and planning life. To reconstruct these different and maybe partly conflicting voices within a person, I will apply the method of the Voice Approach (see Gilligan, 2015; Kiegelmann, 2000; Kiegelmann, 2007) for the analysis of interviews to complement the above described Narrative Analysis. The Voice Approach is mainly applied as an analysis tool in the presented study. Beyond that it includes a comprehensive model, also referring to the interaction between interviewers and interviewees. It is based on a relational approach, meaning that the interviewer acts in a responsive way, encouraging the interviewees to express their feelings and thoughts (Gilligan, 2015, pp. 72-73). The underlying assumption is according to Gilligan (2015) that voices and the interaction of such „provide[…] a way of exploring the interplay of inner and outer worlds“ (p. 69). The aim of the analysis is to work out how identified voices relate to each other: are they in harmony or in a relation of rivalry and power (Gilligan, 2015, p. 70)? Gilligan (2015) describes three steps of listening: (1) Listening for the Plot, (2) Listening for the “I” and (3) Listening for Contrapuntal Voices (p. 71-72). By generating so called “I poems” from the transcript, the “associative stream that flows through the narrative, running underneath the structure of the sentences” (Gilligan, 2015, p. 72) can be captured. The approach has been adapted e. g. by Kiegelmann (Kiegelmann, 2007, p. 65). What is relevant for the present article is Kiegelmann’s suggestion to not only focus on the “I”-statements but on all pronouns and namings referring to the self (Kiegelmann, 2007, pp. 67-68).

Kiegelmann (2007, p. 63) illustrates the common features of the Voice Approach and Marcia’s Identity Status Approach in her contribution:

“[B]oth approaches point to similar features of developmental processes when they address identity formation as active processes of human beings within their social surroundings.“

She comes to the conclusion, that especially through the step Listening for Self “latent expressions of how a speaker relates to the topic she or he is talking about“ can be made visible (Kiegelmann, 2007, p. 69).
In line with Narrative Analysis the Voice Approach “relies on the epistemic principle that eliciting and analyzing narratives is an appropriate mechanism for understanding the ways research participants make meaning of their experiences”, according to Sorsoli and Tolman (2010, p. 497). The underlying assumption is that a shift in language can indicate psychological processes of shifting from one state of the mind to another. Thus, it reveals different perspectives on experiences (Sorsoli and Tolman, 2010, p. 497). A depersonalized or general statement can indicate an existing collective or social narrative, whereas a statement including the first person voice can indicate lived experience. It is possible to examine in the analysis if these two perspectives are in conflict and if this is a recurring pattern (Sorsoli & Tolman, 2010, p. 503).

The first step Listening for the Plot is very close to other qualitative analysis methods (Gilligan, 2015, p. 71). I will apply Narrative Analysis throughout the interview to systematize the first step with regard to my research question and continue with the further steps of the Voice Approach on parts of the interview, where the interviewee expresses doubts, conflicts or internal struggle. An example for such a part is illustrated below.

Example. As an example I would like to show an excerpt from an interview I conducted in the context of my dissertation project. Stefan was engaged in a student initiative during his studies, which supports regions abroad that are affected by natural disasters. He finished his studies and is already working at the time of the interview. He mentions that in the future he would like to focus on socially relevant topics with his own business “to satisfy the do-gooder” in him. When later in the question part the interviewer asks what he meant by “do-gooder” he starts with a long definition of what it means to him, revealing some potential internal struggle based on the dichotomy of altruism and egoism. Stefan is aware of the negative connotation of this term in public, but does not agree with it. “I say a do-gooder is (.) uhm someone who (.) pays attention to how he lives and how he deals with his fellow human beings.”

5Personal data has been anonymized.
6The interpretation is based on the results of a joint interpretation session during a post-conference workshop held by Prof. Dr. Mechthild Kiegelmann on the 16th of April 2018, within the context of the Meeting of the Center for Qualitative Psychology.
7Original version in German: “Ich sag mal ein Gutmensch ist (.) ähm jemand, der (.) darauf achtet, wie er lebt und wie er mit seinen Mitmenschen umgeht.”
His definition seems to be the result of reflection processes, indicated through statements such as “I say”. The definition itself is formulated as a general statement “a do-gooder is.” However, when he applies the definition to his stay abroad in the context of the student initiative, he rejects the altruistic intentions behind it, reducing it to a “good side effect that calms”. Instead, he reveals the egoistic motives of persons doing this kind of engagement (e. g. self-realization).

This struggle could be interpreted as Moratorium. Stefan seems to be in the process of negotiating potential conflicts with respect to the ideological aspects of volunteering with himself. This negotiation could be assigned to the domain of “Religious Beliefs” according to Marcia et al. (1993). Waterman and Archer (1993, p. 257) state that in comparison with adolescents

“[f]or many adults many more life decisions may be viewed as bearing on the consistency with which one acts upon religious beliefs, including […] charity and caring for the less fortunate, in addition to the issues of the younger age groups. As a consequence, adult interviewees may call attention to the discrepancies between their avowed religious or ethical beliefs and their actual behaviors.”

Presumably, one could have come to the same interpretation result, using the Identity Status Interview. The additional benefit of using the Voice Approach for data analysis in my opinion appears when looking more closely at where the “I” is present in the statements. This is illustrated in the next excerpt.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original version in German</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

huh) But/ Of course, [6] one takes one’s time, one sac/ one, one puts a lot of effort in it to realize something on the spot, but (. one does it, this is probably a good side effect that calms maybe, that it/ that also others benefit from it. [7] But strictly speaking [8] one does it, at least [9] let’s say in a project of [student initiative], [10] one does it/ The point of [11] self-realization is part here. (I: Uh-huh) Maybe this developing something in a team together is part (I: Uh-huh), too.

Without going deeper into the analysis, the change of the pronouns from “one” [1] to “I” [2] and back to “one” [6] and even leaving the pronoun out completely (“self-realization is part”) [11], is noticeable in this excerpt. This could be interpreted as different voices within Stefan with regard to the question: who benefits from this kind of international volunteering offered by the student initiative. They could be divided into an altruistic perspective (“I only give.”) and an egoistic one (“self-realization is part here”). Stefan seems to struggle between these two perspectives.

---

The excerpt is divided into different sections marked with numbers, to make the following interpretation more comprehensible. Marked in bold are the descriptions of the self with the respective verb.

Transcription conventions:
- S: Stefan
- I: Interviewer
- /: word or sentence breaks off
- (.): short break
One could assume that the egoistic perspective is a critical external perspective he tries to deal with, whereas his self (“I”) seems to be more involved with the altruistic perspective, which can be seen in the sections 1 – 4, where he uses the first person very often. Section 5 marks some kind of break. It is not clear who is speaking (“strictly speaking”). With this he introduces a section where he looks at the actions and motivations from a different perspective, at first re-peating the altruistic attitude, this time in a more generalized way (“one takes”) and then with repeating the „strictly speaking“ again, naming the egoistic motives of persons doing this kind of engagement. For this, he twice starts a sentence using the indefinite pronoun “one” [8, 10], but then continues not using a pronoun at all [13]: „the point of self-realization is part here, maybe this developing something in a team together is part, too.“ This could be interpreted as gradually distancing himself from the statements, which leads to the assumption that this perspective is not so much part of his identity, but is, as indicated above, an external voice, e. g. critique expressed by someone. This is just a first interpretation. The next step would be to search for similar parts throughout the whole interview.

5 Conclusion

In this example, the ideological aspects of volunteering seem to be important for the interviewee. The dichotomy of altruism and egoism is a recurring theme in studies on volunteering, e. g. in Haas’ (2012) work on the ambivalence of reciprocity in the voluntary service program weltwärts. Whereas the content would not be so much in the center of interest from an Identity Status Approach-perspective, it is indeed interesting when looking at the functions of volunteering in the process of identity development.

I attempted to show the advantages of Biographical Narrative Interviews and Narrative Analysis and the depth that can be reached through applying the Voice Approach in the analysis to investigate identity development comprehensively. With the biographical approach, a develop-

---

9 weltwärts is a development volunteer service, funded by the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development. For more details see: https://www.weltwaerts.de/en/.
mental process-perspective can be added to the Identity Status Approach through working out the individuals’ biographical process structure. The open way of data collection leaves a lot of room for the interviewees to bring in what is important to them. With this it is not only possible to determine the identity status the person is in at a certain moment, but also how the participation in moving on in life in general is perceived by this person. By applying the Voice Approach a focus is set on internal struggles, determining the different perspectives former volunteers are dealing with. This study seeks to contribute to the further integration of qualitative methods in developmental psychology with the combination of the Voice Approach and Biographical Narrative Interviews. The presented approach seems to be promising. However, it has to be explored in detail with further interviews in the course of the presented dissertation project.

References


A Qualitative Approach to Identity Development


The Role of Gender in the Recovery from Eating Disorders –
What Can we Learn from Formerly Affected Persons?

Marie-Luise Springmann
University of Education, Karlsruhe

Introduction

The presented study addresses the interrelations between gender and the eating disorders anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa by means of narrative interviews with formerly affected persons of different gender identities. By taking into account feminist theories on eating disorders and by applying a queer concept of gender on the topic of eating disorders, this study is positioned between the traditionally very different research lines of clinical psychology and gender studies and opens up a new perspective. With the interview analysis focusing on changes of the individual’s experience during the process of recovery and their connections to gender, results can provide implications for treatment.

1 Relevance of the Presented Study in its Theoretical Context

1.1 Initial Points

Anorexia and bulimia nervosa show a highly gender-specific prevalence: about 90% of affected persons are female. Although this means that female gender is the highest risk factor for the development of an eating disorder, psychological theories about eating disorders do not yet provide a satisfactory explanation for this connection to gender. Treatment methods for anorexia and bulimia show success in about one-half of the patients, but chronification and mortality remain a substantial problem (S3 guidelines for eating disorders of the AWMF, 2010, S.73, S.88-100, S.197, S.203-206). Therefore, research that opens up a new perspective on these eating disorders is needed.
1.2 Psychological and Feminist Approach

Psychology offers a wide range of theories on eating disorders from psychodynamic (Bruch, 1982) and systemic approaches (Palazzoli, 1978) to cognitive-behavioral and biologist models (Legenbauer & Vocks, 2014). Although sociocultural ‘factors’ are usually mentioned and especially systemic approaches stress the importance of family interactions, psychologist theories usually frame an eating disorder as an *intraindividual* psychopathology, a problem essentially located in the individual. The question of the highly gender-specific prevalence can then be answered by pointing to extreme ideals of slimness that are internalized by vulnerable young females.

A different perspective can be found in theories stemming from sociology and cultural studies that take a feminist stance and analyze the ways in which society shapes the individual and how gender as a basic social category is relevant to a person’s experience and behavior. They have argued that the role of women in society or the ways femininity is constructed are crucial to the development of eating disorders: Objectification theory (Frederickson & Roberts, 1997), for example, explains how the constant evaluation of female bodies leads young girls to disconnect from their own body and its internal signals and perceive it through an evaluating outside perspective. Concerning slimness ideals, feminist theories have pointed out that they cannot be seen as something produced by the media and then consumed by individuals, but as something that arises from specific cultural values and carries social meaning itself. Bordo (1993) and MacSween (1993) for example have identified the pursuit of slenderness as the embodiment of, and a solution to, a conflict of contradictory ideals that women have to fulfill both at the same time: the ideal of an autonomous, disciplined and strong individual on the one hand, and the female ideal of softness, care and fragility on the other. Due to fundamental differences in epistemological bases and research paradigms, these theories have received little recognition in clinical psychology or have been adopted in trivialized forms (e.g. as a female role conflict).

These different understandings of eating disorders lead to different assumptions on how to deal with them: A psychological understanding of an eating disorder as an *intraindividual* psychopathology calls for a solution of the individual’s problems through psychotherapy or in the case of systemic approaches, a therapy that includes the family or relevant system of persons. Concerning slimness ideals, the individual has to overcome her
The Role of Gender in the Recovery from Eating Disorders

Over-internalization of these unrealistic ideals. A feminist understanding of eating disorders as something essentially tied to culture and social constraints on women demands for social change and often rejects the idea that these problems can be solved on an individual level. Despite this reasonable critique, from a psychologist point of view, the question of what is helpful to a person acutely suffering from an eating disorder remains relevant. Therefore, the presented study maintains a psychological perspective by dealing with individual experiences and addresses the question of how changes in the process of recovery are connected to gender as a social entity.

1.3 The Missing Perspectives

A problematic point in feminist theories that focus on gender as relevant to eating disorders is that they provide explanations only for women. Despite the predominance of girls and women among the affected persons, there are also men who suffer from eating disorders. Furthermore, persons with gender identities such as transgender, intersexual or queer, that are not even recognized in these statistics, have a high risk of developing eating disorders (Castellini, Lelli, Ricca & Maggi, 2016) and face different social challenges regarding their gender. If gender is of basic importance to eating disorders, a theory on this topic should be able to provide explanations not only for one gender.

1.4 Theoretical Access: Measuring Gender?

While feminist theories differ a lot concerning their models of gender, the recognition of the social quality of gender categories is a well established common ground in gender research and other social sciences (Degele, 2008). Psychology, however, lacks theorization of the concept of gender and tends to treat it as something that is understood by common sense (for a detailed critique see Sieben, 2014). Even studies that deal with gender mostly work with a binary model that divides gender into two supposedly natural categories, men and women, which does not need further explaining or definitions. While psychological research acknowledges that there are different gender roles for these two categories, it, in general, does not deal with gender as a socially constructed category that is of basic relevance to
a person’s socialization, behavior, and experience. I argue that this lack of theorization limits the possibility of understanding the relevance of gender (for a detailed critique see Springmann, in press).

This shortcoming is supplemented by the limited access quantitative research methods provide to the understanding of this topic: Gender is often addressed by means of group comparisons, which allow for the detection of gender differences but neither for an understanding of the quality and causes of these differences, nor of gender-related meanings and experiences. To address the relevance of gender roles, quantitative research relies on correlations between questionnaires that measure the acceptance of gender roles (e.g. traditional) and other variables. Results concerning gender roles and eating disorders have shown to differ depending on which questionnaire is used (Pritchard, 2008; Mussap 2007). I argue that gender as a social category influences a person and their social experiences on various levels that cannot be reduced to the extent of cognitive approval of a specific predefined gender role, such as gender-specific expectations and valuations of others, or sexual harassment (Springmann, in press). Even though empirical evidence supports the hypothesis that gender is relevant to the etiology of eating disorders, as I will point out in the following section, little is understood about the quality of this relationship. Therefore, qualitative research methods, that are sensitive to the individuals’ experiences and meanings, are needed on this topic in order to develop new hypotheses.

2 State of Research

As mentioned above, research investigating connections between the acceptance of gender roles and eating disorders produces contradictory results and its methods can be questioned. A different approach with a quantitative design can be found in a study by Morrison & Sheahan (2009), as their research confirmed gender-related discourses (self-silencing, suppressed anger and objectified perception of the own body) as mediators between thinness-ideals and disordered eating in women. There are two qualitative studies by Holmes (2016) and Moulding (2016), who dealt with eating disorders in relation to gender by interviewing formerly affected women. Both studies found gender-specific social experience to be
important for the development of, as well as the recovery from, anorexia and bulimia.

Concerning men, findings are contradictory: While some studies claim that ideals of masculinity put men at risk for disordered eating (Strother, Lemberg, Stanford & Turberville, 2012), results of others present masculine gender ideology as a protective factor (Magallares, 2016). I suspect that these differences might be dependent on the definition of eating disorder symptomatology and specifically on whether or not the striving for greater muscularity is considered a symptom or not. Locker, Heesacker and Baker (2012) found the concept of selfsilencing (the suppression of one's needs and wishes) to be related to psychological aspects of disordered eating in women as well as men. Thus, they argue that the psychological bases of eating disorders might be the same for men and women, while eating disordered behavior might differ due to different body ideals (skinny for women and lean but muscular for men). A review of Castellini et al. (2016) confirmed that non-heterosexual men are at higher risk for developing eating disorders than heterosexual men, a well-recognized fact in the literature. For non-heterosexual women, the results are less clear. Concerning transgender persons, Castellini et al. (2016), as well as a review by Jones, Haycraft, Murjan and Arcelus (2016), concluded that they are at high risk to experience body dissatisfaction and disordered eating. Nevertheless, the problem remains that little can be said about the quality of these connections: Why and in which ways is a non-normative sexual orientation or gender identity connected to disordered eating? What can we learn about the relevance of gender from persons who have to deal with this category in ways that persons who fit into normative expectations do not?

3 Description of the Study

3.1 Aims and Principles

Based on the findings and remaining questions arising from the discussed theories and research strategies, the presented study investigates the
relevance of gender for eating disorders by building on the following principles:

• The study deals with the relevance of gender on an individual level and thus maintains a psychological perspective, while being informed by a wide theoretical background that includes theories from cultural and social sciences.

• It aims to make the perspectives of formerly affected persons visible and use them for scientific insight by applying a qualitative design.

• It focuses on changes during recovery in order to take a solution-oriented perspective and provide implications for treatment and self-help strategies.

• It aims to include a wide range of gender identities and sexual orientations to generate a comprehensive theory on the connection between gender and eating disorders.

3.2 Methods

The research process is based on the principles of Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1998). I use theoretic sampling and collect new data during the research process to widen and complete the perspectives and insights gained by the data collected so far.

The first field phase started by interviewing cis-gender women, who constitute the biggest group of affected persons. It is also the group on which there already exists the most research, giving a relatively familiar point to start from and move on to persons with other gender identities to complete and contrast perspectives.

Narrative interview technique is employed as a very free approach in order to give the participants space to voice their experiences. For analysis, two methods are combined: Grounded Theory coding procedures are used to derive relevant categories from the contents of the interviews and integrate them into a theoretical model. In addition, the method of Voice Centered Listening, developed by Carol Gilligan and her colleagues

---

1 cis-gender, as counterpart to trans-gender, means an experienced gender identity that matches the gender assigned by birth, for example a person that has been born female and also identifies as female.
(Gilligan, 2015; Kiegelmann, 2000) in the context of feminist psychology, is applied on interview parts that are especially interesting or difficult. This method is sensitive to different or conflicting parts or 'voices' inside an individual, providing a possibility to go beyond the content level.

Reflecting on one's own subjectivity in the process of working with qualitative material is of substantial importance to remain open and reduce biases. Voice Listening therefore includes the reflection on the researcher's emotional reactions and associations as a fixed step in the analyzing process. I also use the perspectives of other scholars on interview material in working groups to maintain openness.

4 Case Example

Since the study is still in progress final results cannot be presented here. To give an example of relevant themes that occur in interviews, and of how feminist theory can be beneficial to the psychological understanding of eating disorders, I present the exemplary case of Johanna, a 28 year old cis-gender woman. Johanna reported having been overweight as a child and having experienced bulimia from her teenage years until her early twenties. Not unusual for bulimia, her eating disorder started with a period of anorectic behavior and extensive weight loss. She underwent inpatient admission and several outpatient treatments and described some of them as very helpful. During the interview, she identified the following two themes that were crucial to her recovery process.

Me and the chubby little girl

Johanna described a problematic process of accepting an image of a little girl inside of her, which is connected to childhood memories of being rejected, laughed at and neglected, best described in a sentence from the interview, speaking to this inner child: "You are fat, you're ugly, /ehm, and no one likes you!" She describes a family situation, in which her older brother is

2 original German citation: "[...] du bist dick, du bist hässlich, /ähm und keiner kann dich leiden!"
declared the "problem child" of the family who needs a lot of attention, while her mother has psychological problems herself and rather relies on the child to take care of her than the other way around. The father is described as authoritarian and critical, but at the same time the person to rely on in the family. In this constellation, Johanna did not have room for her needs and problems. Therefore, she learned to comfort herself with food, which made her become overweight and being bullied at school. Applying the method of Voice Listening, it is striking how her language changes when talking about this child that she struggles to accept and identify with, reflecting this conflict, which is still not completely resolved: She switches from first person *I* to third person *it*: "[...] *my brother* [was] *the problem child* and I was this chubby little girl, it was there, but never caused much problems, who was always content somehow and okay with everything, but of course also had her problems but never really said anything about it."³

While having a difficult childhood and experiencing fat-shaming is not necessarily gender-specific, two aspects in this process of self-acceptance relate to feminist theories about eating disorders: First, taking care of others' needs and setting own needs aside has been presented as a part of female socialization and as something that parallels the difficulty to accept and fulfil one's own bodily needs for food and rest (see Orbach, 1986; Bordo, 1993). Second, the notion that it is not appropriate for women to take up space, neither in a physical nor metaphorical sense: In Johanna's case, not having room for her needs leads her to use food as a compensatory satisfaction, which in turn makes her take up more room in a physical way, which then leads to being rejected for not fulfilling cultural ideals and experiencing more shame and isolation.

*The fairy and the giant*

Johanna, being a rather tall person, also described a process of trying to accept "*what I simply am, in my physical built*"⁴. She remembers her therapy

³ "[...] das war halt da, aber irgendwie nie viel Problem gemacht hat, die dann immer irgendwie zufrieden war und mit allem ok, und natürlich aber schon auch ihre Problem hatte und aber da irgendwie nie groß was gesagt hat."

⁴ „was ich bin einfach, in meinem Körperbau“
to have been a lot “about me feeling like a giant, but wanting to feel more like a fairy.”⁵ This desired idea of a fairy she explains as follows: “Well, this delicate, feminine, /ehm, somewhat this picture of a / of a beautiful woman. That, that... yes, that is actually a bit imposed on you, a pretty, little, delicate woman, that is sensitive and gentle, and /ehm, well, hm... (breathing out) light. And that somehow people, or / or maybe men / or society like.”⁶

This could either be seen as an individual problem of a person struggling with beauty standards that they do not fit into, or as an example of the struggle with gender-specific social norms. Note that in this description of a fairy, it is not only about bodily features. She later describes that the fairy-ideal is also about being gentle and well-adapted to social expectations. Especially in her anorectic phase, Johanna describes that her efforts to approximate this ideal made her behave more restrained and less rebellious, even though she remembered herself from her childhood as someone who always had a ready tongue and knew how to stand up for herself. She changed her appearance not only by establishing a rigid control over her eating behavior and losing weight but also by dressing more posh and conservative.

Here it becomes visible, how feminine beauty norms act as an embodiment of general notions about appropriate femininity. In this anorectic phase, her behavior was not only aimed to become more thin and delicate, but also to reach self-control and achievement: “My personal record that I set for myself at that time was that I didn’t eat anything two days in a row, so / so that was something, where I was competing with myself, how long can I stand not to eat anything, how little can I eat then, how much sports can I do then.”⁷ Ignoring the relation to gender (which is obvious in this case, since the fairy-ideal is

---

⁵ „darum, dass ich mich wie ein Riese fühle, aber mich eher wie eine Fee fühlen möchte.“
⁶ „Ja, halt dieses zierliche, weibliche, /ähm, schon so n bisschen dieses Bild von ner / von ner schönen Frau halt. Dieses / dieses / ähm, (2) Ja, was einem halt schon so n bisschen auferlegt wird, so ne hübsche, kleine, zierliche Frau, die halt sensibel ist und sanft und / ähm, ja, hm (ausatmen) leicht, und irgendwie so Menschen oder / oder / oder auch vielleicht Männer, oder die Gesellschaft oder so, irgendwie toll findet.“
⁷ „Mein persönlicher Rekord den ich für mich damals aufgestellt hab war so, dass ich zwei Tage am Stück nichts gegessen hab, so / so war dann was, wo ich mit mir selbst gewett-eifert hab, wie lang halt ich’s jetzt aus nix zu essen, wie wenig kann ich dann essen, wie viel Sport kann ich dann machen.“
explained as an ideal of femininity) this pattern could be explained as a teenager struggling for an autonomous self, as psychodynamic theory building on Bruch (1982) would put it. Drawing on feminist theory as introduced by Bordo (1993) and MacSween (1993), this can serve as an example of how striving for thinness can be understood as the embodiment of the contradictions between an ideal of an autonomous, achieving individual and an ideal of female delicateness and restraint: Reaching autonomy by controlling and denying one’s own needs instead of trying to fulfil them, competing and achieving without being offensive to anyone, thereby fulfilling the ideals of restraint and transforming the body into a more delicate form, taking up as little space as possible.

It is important to note, that Johanna did not conform to this ideal of femininity in an uncritical way. As she described it, she never felt really comfortable with it even when trying to achieve it, and also questioned it on a rational level. “And I think that this always put a lot / a lot of strain on me that / that somehow, in / in my / in my mindset, (2) the / the goal to be achieved was this being adapted, but I never lived it and never could live it.” Even in the years to come, when she felt clearly that she does not want to be adapted to the social expectations she felt, it was not possible for her to just put this ideal aside: “But nevertheless, this paradox was / was always present.”

These exemplary illustrations of Johanna’s case point out in what ways gender as a social construct can be important in the development and also in the recovery from eating disorders, since Johanna’s recovery process was a lot about negotiating gender norms and the social consequences she had to deal with for not fulfilling them.

8 “Und ich glaube, das hat mir immer viel / viel Anstrengung bereitet, dass / dass irgendwie in / in meiner / meiner Denkweise (2) das / das zu erreichende Ziel eben dieses Angepasste war, ich das aber irgendwie nie gelebt hab und nie leben konnte."

9 „Aber trotzdem war dieses Paradoxon war / war immer präsent, so.“
5 Implications

Moving away from this case example, the goal of this study is to empirically derive an overarching model of the relevance of gender from the perspectives of different formerly affected persons. To my knowledge, this will be the first study that aims to include and combine the perspectives of persons of different gender identities in a qualitative analysis on this topic. Although the introduced feminist theories, that explain the relevance of gender for women with eating disorders, are based on empirical data in forms of interviews or experience with clients, do not provide transparent information on their research methods and the process of analysis that lead to their conclusions. An empirically thorough and transparent study can be an opportunity to bring these perspectives into the field of psychology as a valuable complement and challenge to existing psychological theories, while critically reassessing and possibly extending those perspectives.

References


Holmes, Susan (2016). ‘Blindness to the obvious’? Treatment experiences and feminist approaches to eating disorders. *Feminism & Psychology*, 0(0), 1-23.


Andrej is Different and Selma Loves Sandra: Living Situations of LGBTQ+ from Religious or Immigrated Families in Germany*

Jochen Kramer, Olcay Miyanyedi Mechthild Kiegelmann
Turkish Community in Baden-Wuerttemberg, Stuttgart University of Education, Karlsruhe

Abstract

Scholars suggest that minority individuals in immigrant populations are highly vulnerable to discrimination (cf. Clarke, Ellis, Peel, & Riggs, 2010). We conducted quantitative interviews with 36 lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, or queer (LGBTQ+) youth/young adults from religious or immigrated families residing in Stuttgart metropolitan area in an effort to explore their unique experiences. Interviews focused on social environment and overall living situation. We used Braun and Clarke’s (2006) thematic analysis method to analyze transcripts of our interviews, with a focus on experiences and subjective meaning related to discrimination, resources, and identity management in different social contexts. Our sample proved to be highly vulnerable to discrimination, however only few of them reported making use of psycho-social/LGBTQ+ community support. Results included information about a) how the members of the sample define their own sexual, gender, cultural, and religious identities, b) how integrated they feel in their social contexts, c) what experiences have strongly influenced their lives, and d) what kind of support they would like to have.

* Our special thanks go to the interviewees for their participation in the study. We would also like to thank the members of our research team and the students from the qualitative methods colloquium at the University of Education Karlsruhe, all of whom contributed to the implementation of the study. The study was made possible by financial support from the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth (BMFSFJ) through the federal program Live Democracy! (Demokratie Leben!) and the Municipal Association for Youth and Social Affairs Baden-Württemberg (KVJS).
Our results suggest that some characteristics of the family background (family structure, concept of honor etc.) may be crucial to well-being, that school experiences play an important role, and that welcome signals are very helpful for LGBTQ+ religious or immigrated individuals. Our paper concludes with a discussion of the methodological consequences for qualitative social research.

1 Introduction

"No matter where I am, I feel alone." When we asked him to sum up his experiences, one participant, a young Muslim gay man, made the preceding statement. He told us about how he went to a psychological counseling center in Stuttgart to get help. He shared that, once at the clinic, he described various experiences of discrimination and worked with the counsellor on ways of leading his life as a gay identified Muslim. This situation was impactful because the client bravely disclosed and explored his sexual orientation and his counsellor was sensitive and competent to work with issues faced by Muslim and sexual minority people.

These conditions for supportive, culturally appropriate counseling are not common. This is unfortunate because many people identify as sexual (e.g., gay, lesbian, bisexual, asexual) and gender (e.g., transgender or nonbinary) minorities and these individuals generally report sharing somewhat common experiences with therapists. In other words, many people are not cisgender (people who experience congruence between their sex assigned at birth and their gender identity) and/or heterosexual (people who are not attracted to members of their own sex). Sexual and gender minorities describe their sexual orientation or gender identity in a variety of ways that include: lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex or queer. Thus, we use the acronym LGBTIQ+ to describe the entire diversity of non-heterosexual or non-cisgender people. The aim of the study was to learn more about the current life situations of LGBTQ+ people with a migrant or religious background in the area of Stuttgart and to derive possibilities for intervention in order to improve their life situation. (Intersexual people did not participate in the study, even though we explicitly invited intersexual persons to participate).
There are several reasons that support our qualitative approach to this question: a) identity related topics are often taboo and rarely addressed in quantitative designs because some information is hard to elicit in questionnaires or experimental settings, b) it is important to grasp the individual meanings that participants assign to sexual orientation, gender identity, ethnicity, and religion and this cannot be done with adequate detail, according to Gargner (2013) in standardized surveys, c) we assume that the life situations of the interviewees differ too greatly from each other for generalization, especially given the invisibility or hard to reach nature of these populations. Thus, the aim of this study is explore, identify, and to demonstrate this diversity of identities and experiences.

2 Multiple affiliations: Relevant concepts

The situation of the young man described earlier is exemplary of the challenges that one faces when belonging to several minority groups at the same time or when moving between several worlds that may be considered incompatible with each other (cf. Koc & Vignoles, 2016). Meanwhile, youth work and psychosocial counseling services are often not explicitly sensitive to the concerns of LGBTQ+ people, let alone to the concerns of LGBTQ+ people with different ethnic or religious identities (see Staudenmeyer, Kaschuba, Barz & Bitzan, 2016; Wolf, Fünfgeld, Oehler & Andrae, 2015). This exclusionary dynamic also applies to gay communities where people can feel excluded on the basis of their faith or ethnic identity (Beagan & Hattie, 2015). The increasing right-wing populist and neo-conservative discourses in Germany in recent years have further aggravated this situation (cf. Schirmer, 2017).

Membership in minority groups poses particular challenges, as it increases the risk of experiencing marginalization, discrimination or even violence. These experiences and the fear of them represent threats to one's own identity (Meyer, 2003). Breakwell (1986, 2015) placed the handling of threatened identities at the center of identity process theory (IPT), which we use as a framework for identity development. The IPT is based on the assumption that a person's identity is constantly evolving, co-production between the individual and the social context. Social representations or
socially divided, interactively developed and communicatively maintained beliefs are of particular importance in this context. These social representations can be conceptualized as raw material for personal identity components and can be expressed through identity (e.g. socially divided notions of Muslima and lesbian).

In our research we draw on the identity model of Breakwell (1986, 2015), because it offers the combined focus on different identity aspects. IPT is particularly suitable for this purpose because it takes into account aspects of identity development that are relevant in the course of the coming out (cf. Jaspal & Williamson, 2017). According this model by Breakwell, the identity development process is characterized by two ongoing processes. The first process is the assimilation-accommodation-process, which makes it possible to incorporate new information into the identity structure and adapt it to it (e.g. if a person discovers that he or she is homosexual). The second process is the evaluation-process, which ascribes a certain significance to an identity aspect (e.g. if one's own homosexuality is assessed positively). According to Breakwell, (1986, 2015) these ongoing identity adjustments are necessary to ensure continuity and distinctiveness of one's own identity as well as self-efficacy and self-esteem.

As aspects of the self, this study focuses on sexual orientation and gender identity, ethnicity, and religion/spirituality. Sexual orientation describes a type of attraction to a particular sex. Starting from the socially predominant idea of two, binary sexes individuals may be conceptualized as being attracted to the opposite sex (heterosexual), the same sex (homosexual), both sexes (bisexual), attracted to people independent of sex (pansexual) or as having no interest in sexual intercourse with another person (asexual). In addition, sexual orientation not only describes sexual attraction, but can also be important for self-identification that may include sexual behavior, sexual fantasies, emotional preferences, social preferences and lifestyle aspects (cf. Klein, 1990). Sexual orientation is different than gender identity. In terms of gender identity, individuals who cannot be adequately described by the labels “male” or “female” (e.g. nonbinary, queer people) and people whose psychological sex does not correspond to the sex attributed at birth (transgender) are often included in the broader LGBTQ+ community.
Ethnic identity describes the cultural group to which a person belongs and ethnic identities include the aspects of one's own thinking, perception, feelings and behavior that are influenced by that belonging (Phinney & Rotheram, 1987). “Ethnic” in this study refers to a group of people with a common origin (e.g. a nation, a people, a religion or combinations thereof) and a common history. Within an ethnic group there can be great cultural differences. Nevertheless, in everyday use ethnic borders are often referred to as cultural borders (cf. Hoffman, 2015).

Religious affiliation is the formal belonging to a church or religious community, the adherence to its values and its practices with religiosity (Shafranske & Malony, 1990). In contrast, spirituality refers to the personal relationship to one or more transcendent forces, however described (cf. Exline, 2013). Spirituality therefore does not presuppose belonging to or agreement with a group of equals.

Describing certain groups of people according to various aspects or dimensions of identity, Breakwell (2015) refers to social representations or aspects of the person that do not necessarily have to coincide with the person’s individual identities. People may reject these categories and/or may choose different labels for themselves. Individual development models are formulated to take into account these individual aspects of identity (cf. for example D’Augelli, 1994, on sexual orientation; Phinney, 1993, on ethnicity; Fowler, 1991, on religion and spirituality).

In the concept of intersectionality, the crossover and effects of different affiliations are addressed. The concept was initially forwarded by feminist theorists who were examining the overlap between race and gender (Cole, 2009). There are also studies that deal with overlaps between sexual orientation on the one hand and gender, race, ethnicity, religion or socio-economic status on the other (cf. for an overview Zea & Nakamura, 2014). Intersectional approaches assume that experiences of discrimination and violence which a person experiences on the basis of belonging to several disadvantaged groups (cf. Meyer, 2003) do not simply add up, but influence and maybe intensify each other. There are also multicultural approaches that emphasize diversity as a resource and make clear which competences or resilience factors distinguish members of minorities (for example, greater awareness and coping strategies; see Allen, Rivkin & Lopez 2014).
3 Research Question

The aim of this study is to identify relevant concepts stemming from the self-description of young LGBTQ+ people with migrant or religious backgrounds, as they discuss their current life situation in the area of Stuttgart, in order to derive intervention possibilities that address different aspects of the target group’s life (health care; school; LGBTQ+, ethnic or religious communities, etc.). In keeping with this purpose, we used the following research question for our study: What are common central themes related to being LGBTQ+ from the subjective perspective of all participants?

4 Method

Our study is a sub-project drawn from a larger study called Andrej is different and Selma loves Sandra (Andrej ist anders und Selma liebt Sandra) to investigate this question. The study was conducted by the Turkish Community in Baden-Württemberg (Türkische Gemeinde in Baden-Württemberg, tgbw) and the Initiative Group Homosexuality Stuttgart (Initiativgruppe Homosexualität Stuttgart, ihs) from 2015 to 2019 in Stuttgart. In phase one, interviews were conducted with representatives of the target group in order to learn more about their self-image and their life situation. In phase two, representatives of migrant organizations, religious organizations, youth work and social work will be interviewed. The resulting data inform our efforts derive and test methods to improve the living situations of our participants.

4.1 Data collection

We recruited participants through networking with the Turkish Community in Baden-Württemberg (Türkische Gemeinde in Baden-Württemberg, tgbw) and the Initiative Group Homosexuality Stuttgart (Initiativgruppe Homosexualität Stuttgart, ihs). We also advertised the study at public events such as Christopher Street Day (CSD) prides and with the co-operation of tgbw through their psychosocial LGBTQ+ counseling project in Baden-
Württemberg. We included our study in various regional and national magazines, online and on radio and television. In addition, we set up a website and Facebook page for the project. Flyers were used to promote participation in the interviews.

4.2 Sample description

A total of 36 interviews were conducted between December 2015 and March 2017. The age range of the interviewees was from 17 to 37 years, most of them were between 17 and 29 years (cf. figure 1). Two older interview partners in their mid-30s gave us valuable information from their time as youth. That is why we included them as well, even though they were not youth age anymore.

Figure 1: Number and age of interviewees

With regard to other demographic characteristics, respondents described themselves as shown in table 2. They were predominantly male (n=22) or female (n=12). Two participants identified as non-binary and four identified as transgender. No person described themselves as intersex or cisgender. To be cisgender means to feel that you belong to the sex that was attributed to you at birth, it is a social norm and is rarely used to describe

1 http://www.netzwerk-lsbtqiq.net/beratung-selbsthilfe/beratung
2 www.kultursensibel-lsbtqiq.de
3 https://de-de.facebook.com/Andrej-ist-anders-Selma-liebt-Sandra-1167561966667202/
oneself. We therefore assume that the 32 persons who did not identify themselves as transgender are cisgender. The majority of interviewees described themselves as homosexual (n=30), one person each as bisexual, heterosexual or "disoriented". Pansexuality was mentioned twice. One person did not assign himself to any category of sexual orientation. This also makes clear that the labels on gender identity and sexual orientation described here are groupings that were imposed by the authors. The interviewees' self-descriptions are more diverse.

The interviewees were engaged in different professional or educational activities at the time of the interview (see table 2). Eight people were still attending school. All participants were all on their way to university entrance and 31 of the 36 young people surveyed had a migration background (3 migrated themselves, 27 migration of at least one parent, 1 migration of at least one grandparent, 24 different countries of origin, see figure 2).

Figure 2: Countries of origin

The interviewees came predominantly from Christian (20) and Muslim (12) parental homes (multiple answers were possible). One person each indicated Jewish or "Chinese" as religious affiliation. The families of four people were described being affiliated with no religious background.
Table 1: Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sexual identity</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not binary</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transgender, intersexuality or cisgender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transgender</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intersexual</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cisgender</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not specified</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sexual orientation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homosexual</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bisexual</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pansexual</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterosexual</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Disoriented&quot;</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No assignment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Occupation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal voluntary service</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational training</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working (teaching profession)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working (academic profession)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Religious affiliation of the family of origin</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jewish</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Chinese&quot;</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Highest education of parents</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No degree / elementary school</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school (grade nine)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school (grade ten)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammer school (grade 12/13)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not known</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Highest training of parents</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unskilled</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching profession</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akademic profession</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not known</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remarks: n = 36; a multiple choice

4.3 Interview guidelines, setting, and recording

For the interviews, an open semi-structured qualitative interview guideline (cf. Gilligan, 2015; Kiegelmann, 2007) was developed, comprised of four topic areas: one's own self-image/identity (How should I talk about you?), the current life situation (What does your everyday life look like? Can you
be as you want to be in everyday life?), c) previous life events (Which experiences have shaped you?) and d) wishes and support possibilities. Within this framework, the interviewees were given the space to answer the questions from their subjective point of view and according to their lived experience. In addition, we asked to encourage further explanations without biasing participants through exposure to the interviewers’ own topics.

Two of the six interviewers have a migration background. Two interviewers work full-time in the project and are also responsible for the evaluation of the interviews and the implementation of the project (both male, studies: religious studies, psychology). The interviewees had the choice of which person from the interview team they wanted to talk to.

Audio recordings of the interviews were made and then transcribed with a focus on content according to the simple transcription rules of Kuckartz, Dresing, Rädiker and Stefer (2008). After the recordings, memos were written to note any information and observation relevant to the interviews that were not captured in the audio file, e.g (e.g. disturbances) and reflections of the interview situations.

4.4 Data analysis

First, we evaluated three pilot interviews using the voice-centered listening method (Gilligan, Spencer & Weinberg, 2003; Kiegelmann, 2007). The aim of these initial analyses was to pilot our research methods. For reasons of space, we do not present this evaluation in more detail here. The evaluation of all conducted interviews was carried out by Braun and Clarke (2006) with the computer-aided program ATLAS.ti (Version 8; Scientific Software Development GmbH, 2017). Following the procedure proposed by Braun and Clarke (see table 2), we familiarized ourselves with the interview data in a first reading. Codes for the organization of the data were assigned: Who (interviewer or interviewee) is speaking on which question (self-description, current situation, formative experiences or wishes/fears) and to which area of life (e.g. family, school, health system). Subsequently, content codes were assigned in which the interviewees’ topics were paraphrased. These codes were grouped and systematized. It was notable that the coded topics contain aspects that have already been taken into account in existing classifications, for example family risk dimensions of migrant women* (Kizilhan 2006, 2014), the minority stress model (Meyer, 2003) or coming-out models (Cass,
1984; D’Augelli, 1994). These classifications were used to determine whether categories considered important in the literature were not addressed. The procedure was therefore in a first step inductive and secondly, in later coding steps, also deductive. The content coding steps were carried out interactively until the structures and content description of the topics were found to be stable. The result of this step of analysis was therefore a compilation of the contents that were important to the interviewees, sorted and classified through the eyes of the data analysts.
Table 2: Phases of Thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 87)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Description of process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Familiarizing yourself with your data:</td>
<td>Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Generating initial codes:</td>
<td>Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Searching for themes:</td>
<td>Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Reviewing themes:</td>
<td>Checking in the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic “map” of the analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Defining and naming themes:</td>
<td>Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells; generating clear definitions and names for each theme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Producing the report:</td>
<td>The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5 Presentation of results

The results were published in 2018 in a German-language report (Kramer, Miyanyedi & Wagner, 2018). This report is aimed, in particular, at professionals in youth, social and health work and focused on practical application of the findings. It was important to us to depict the variety of self-descriptions, formative experiences and current life situations. Thus, we mapped these contents in full: the self-descriptions per person in tabular form (examples: see table 3), the formative experiences grouped by topic (see list of topics in table 4) and the current life situations per person, translated into resources (examples: see table 5). In addition, we have systematized and summarized the contents that the interviewees discussed on the following aspects: a) their religiosity, b) their desires, c) ethnic,
religious and family aspects, d) school, e) counseling and therapy. In the report (Kramer, Miyanyedi & Wagner, 2018) exercises were supplied that can be used in youth work to concretely address these topics.

The goal of the project is also to get into conversation with experts and members of different communities about sexual orientation and gender identity. To this end, quotes were extracted for discussions with various partners in the form of presentation materials, for examples relevant information for representatives of migrant or religious organizations, specialists in youth work, social work or health care. The interviewed persons were also invited to discuss the results. Their feedback helped ensure that our findings and recommendations were accurate and helpful for them.

Table 3: Self-descriptions: examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>spontaneous</th>
<th>sexual orientation</th>
<th>gender identity</th>
<th>ethnicity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>&quot;I am the eldest child of four daughters, 21 years old and do not conform to the norm.&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;I have a girlfriend, I don’t like the word lesbian.&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;I guess I’m a woman.&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;My parents come from &lt;country&gt;&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>&quot;I’m very rude, but funny, very travenous and very curious.&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;I’m a lesbian.&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;I’m pangender, I’m genderqueer first, I don’t really feel feminine and I don’t feel masculine&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;My parents are from &lt;country&gt;&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>„Ich bin sehr unhöflich, aber witzig, bin sehr verfressen und sehr neugierig“</td>
<td>„Ich bin lesbisch.“</td>
<td>„Ich bin pan-gender, ich bin zuallererst genderqueer, ich fühle mich nicht wirklich weiblich und auch nicht männlich“</td>
<td>„Meine Eltern stammen aus &lt;Land&gt;“</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
"I'm gay and I'm from an immigrated family and I love my freedom."

"I'm gay."

"My gender is important"

"I was born in <country> and immigrated to Germany ten years ago."

"Ich bin schwul, habe einen Migrationshintergrund und bin freiheitsliebend"

"Ich bin schwul."

"Mein Geschlecht ist schon wichtig"

"Ich bin in <Land> geboren und vor zehn Jahren nach Deutschland eingewandert"

"Clearly feminine and lesbian, I'm a high school graduate and my interests are reading, video games and bassoon."

"Eindeutig weiblich und lesbisch, bin Abiturientin und meine Interessen sind Lesen, Videospiele und Fagott"

"Eindeutig weiblich und lesbisch, eindeutig weiblich"

"Shaped by my mother and she comes from <continent>, from <country> and my father from <country>"

"Von meiner Mutter geprägt und sie kommt aus <Kontinent>, aus <Land> und mein Vater aus dem <Land>"

"With a young Muslim woman who lives in Stuttgart and is pansexual."

"Pansexuell"

"Preferably sex-neutral, I didn't know I was a woman or a man."

"<country>, to be <minority> is a part of my identity"

"<Land>, <Minderheitsname> sein ist ein Teil meiner Identität"

"Mit einer jungen muslimischen Frau, die in Stuttgart lebt und pansexuell ist"

"Am liebsten geschlechtsneutral, ich wusste nicht, bin ich eine Frau oder ein Mann"

"<Land>, <Minderheitsname> sein ist ein Teil meiner Identität"

---

Table 4: Formative experiences: thematic groups

- Gender role constraints in childhood
- Self-assurance/internal coming-out
- self-doubt, depression, suicide
- Attempts to fall in love with opposite-sex partners
Internalized homo-negativity
Psychotherapy
Coming-out in the family and reactions of family members
To pretend to be not LGBTQ+
First love
Transition
LGBTQ+ Community
Religion
Discrimination because of migrant background
Being LGBTQ+ in public
Children's home/Kindergarten
School
University
Workplace
Social media
Sports
Girlfriends
Youth centers
Partnership/Relationship
Other topics

Table 5: Presentation of current life situations from a resource perspective: Example
Current resources of person “M”:

• has distanced his*herself from the family of origin by moving far away to a city to which the family members have no connections
• has not yet his*her coming-out to the family for self-protection—and does not intend to, as long as she does not have a permanent partner yet
• has organized an environment in Stuttgart in which she*he feels accepted and comfortable (LGBTQ+ youth group, flat-mates, employer, Stuttgart in general) where she*he feel safe and comfortable.
• the LGBTQ+ scene in Stuttgart is too small for her*him, everyone knows everyone. That's why she*he doesn't go clubbing often.
• his*her hobby was playing computer games, which she was very fixated on when she was still living at home. Now he*she stopped playing computer games.
• is about to start training, can even choose between several training options at a company.

5 Results

In our interviews allowed participants the freedom to discuss different topics and to provide rich descriptions. This freedom was strongly used encouraged. This allowed us to collect detailed data on spontaneous
self-descriptions, which participants used. Thus, our findings make clear: there is not "the" lesbian Christian, "the" transgender gay Muslim etc. It is not possible to describe this huge diversity in detail in this article.

In addition to these differentiated findings we were able to identify three common topics that were relevant for all participants. A more detailed description is available in German (Kramer, Miyanyedi, & Wagner, 2018). For each of the three aspects, we also show a quotation that illustrates how the topics were discussed. The three aspects are: a) family and “cultural” factors influencing identity development and well-being, b) the meaning of school, and c) and requirements for good support of LGBTQ+ young people with and without migration background.

**a) Family and “cultural” factors influencing identity development and well-being.**

Coming out within in the family unit was described as a special challenge. We therefore searched systematically within the interview transcripts for "family and cultural" factors that participants named as important for identity development and well-being. For example, a young Muslim woman reported the reaction of her parents when she told them she identifies as lesbian:

"My mom didn’t talk to me for months. She thought I had changed religion. Then there were many requirements for how I have to behave at home: I’m supposed to do the rituals of washing before I enter the house as I’m considered impure. I never did that, of course, … and they said things like: I turned their tears into blood. They sent me paragraphs from the Koran. I didn’t really look at those because it was such a terror to me. … I admire the strength [of my mother], how she can still meet with me today. I know what kind of circumstances she grew up in, what kind of views she has on sexuality and religion. So, I think it’s great how it is today, that I can visit my parents every or every other week.”


As in this example, it became clear to us in other interviews that the influence of ethnic and religious traditions on the interviewees is mediated by their families. The aspects ethnicity, religion, and family are
therefore hardly separable from each other. How well the LGBTQ+ young people are doing depends largely on how ethnic and religious traditions are lived in the families (i.e. the family of origin and the wider family circle), not on which ethnicities or religions the family members feel they belong to.

b) The meaning of school:
The importance of the school environment was emphasized by the interviewees. We have therefore compiled their statements on the school environment. For example, a young gay man reported among other things the following experiences from his school time:

"For me, it was back in school that I was, for example, [called] ‘gay’ and ‘faggot’ and whatever else. Just the most extreme bullying went on when I was in the fifth grade, in secondary school. For sixth grade I had to switch to a lower secondary school. I was the best in my class and the bullying started. It started with people ignoring me and they went on to teasing me. It all started with tacks on the chair, sitting on them. Then it went so far that I was dressed with my clothes as I was with my bag and they just threw me in the shower. Then gay slander was thrown at my head and my bag was stolen and thrown out of the window and that was it. This ‘faggot,’ ‘fag’ [they called me] stayed until the middle of ninth grade, until I fought back. I reached a point where I got fed up, freaked out. I actually put a fist in one’s face and broke his nose without further ado. I was expelled from school. I was released for two weeks before I was allowed back in class."


It was not only in this interview that it became clear how formative school experiences were for the young people. There was frequent mention of being discriminated against or having experienced violence because of sexual orientation or gender identity in schools. In comparison, the experience of discrimination and violence on the basis of ethnic or religious
affiliation was rarely addressed (which does not mean that it does not play a role).

In addition to the finding which is illustrated in the quotation above we found another category: invisibility of LGBTQ+ in schools: on the one hand invisibility of LGBTQ+ issues as a specific topic and as a matter of course for society, and on the other hand invisibility of LGBTQ+ schoolmates, teachers and other staff at schools. Conversely, it became clear how strengthening it was when LGBTQ+ was made visible in schools and when discrimination and experiences of violence were effectively countered. Accordingly, the central wishes of the respondents were that information about LGBTQ+ issues should be provided at schools and that LGBTQ+ should become visible as a matter of course for society. They wanted this information and visibility on LGBTQ+ issues at the lowest possible age – ideally before students ask themselves if they might be LGBTQ+. It also became clear that transgender and intersexual people are dealing with this issue very early, often even before school starts. Not only information was important to the respondents, but also visible support from teachers, especially after experiences of discrimination and violence.

c) Requirements for a good support of LGBTQ+ young people with and without migration background.

For example, a young transgender woman summed up the numerous experiences she had with psychologists and psychiatrists:

"Looking back, I don't feel that I could have talked to any of the therapists that I was assigned to or that I went to. Well, I don't know, but I don't have the feeling [I could have]. When I think about it now and go through my list and I see the faces, then I think I would have, today I would not want to talk to him about it. I don't feel like I, uh, be understood me."


In this quotation it becomes clear that the interviewee, as a client in psychotherapy, did not dare to address her transgender identity. Not taking the risk to address LGBTQ+ topics or to present oneself as a LGBTQ+ person was also a topic in several other interviews of interviewees with therapy experience. In our opinion, a prerequisite for people to reveal themselves as LGBTQ+ is that they perceive signals of welcome
for LGBTQ+ people. The attitude of psychotherapeutic and other professionals "We treat everyone the same. LGBTQ+ people should come out" is not enough. Welcome signals are also needed with regard to other dimensions of diversity: other interviewees reported that they did not seek therapeutic support because they assumed that psychotherapists in Germany were not sensitive to ethnic and cultural issues.

6 Discussion

The qualitative approach with an open interview, which enabled the interviewees to set their own topics and to execute them in their own words, allowed us to illustrate the variety of self-descriptions (see table 3), experiences, current life situations and wishes or expectations provided by participants. It was important for us to present this diversity in an initial report of our results in order to expose and challenge stereotypes, beliefs and prejudices as inaccurate generalizations (Kramer, Miyanyedi, & Wagner, 2018). It is also useful that the biographical content we offered is current and that it comes from the Stuttgart region. This can be used to counteract discrimination and inaccurate assumptions (In social media and as general assumptions within Germany, we often are confronted with statements like: "Gay Turks only exist on the Internet", "Transgender are only an academic invention"). In our opinion, the three results presented have a high practical relevance:

a) Family factors influencing identity development and well-being.

The research result that the processes of "how" religion, ethnicity, and family are lived are relevant can be analyzed by drawing on the theory of Kizilhan (2006, 2014). He developed this theoretical model initially in the context of research and intervention work around honor killings and forced marriages. Here, he described crucial risk factors: a) How strictly everyday religious and ethnic traditions are interpreted and lived. b) How well the families are integrated into their social environment (the better, the less at risk). c) What significance is attached to the "concept of honor", especially with regard to sexuality. d) The extend of traditional patriarchal or conservative socialization of the parents. e) How hierarchical and traditional the family structure is (large family thinking? Violence accepted and used as a means
of education?). These risk factors could be replicated in our analysis of the data about participants’ descriptions of what they experienced as decisive for their identity development and well-being. These factors were also relevant irrespective of the ethnic and religious background of the families, i.e. even if the families have no recent migration background and identify as Christian. Our findings can contribute a move beyond the current focus on dichotomous attributions (migration background: yes or no, Muslim: yes or no).

b) The meaning of school:
The significance of the findings on school are obviously of great relevance. In Baden-Württemberg, there was a major controversy in 2015 when an educational plan was drawn up in which, in addition to other dimensions of diversity, the interdisciplinary, appreciative treatment of sexual diversity and the diversity of gender identities was also provided for. After criticism, in particular by conservative and Christian associations ("violation of Christian values", "early sexualisation") and several demonstrations, the entry into force of the education plan was postponed to August 2016 and the topic LGBTQ+ issues was only mentioned as one of several that can be addressed. The findings of our study illustrate how important it is for LGBTQ+ young people that, in addition to religious and ethnic diversity, LGBTQ+ topics are also addressed in schools and that pupils* who are LGBTQ+ are supported.

c) Requirements for a good support of LGBTQ+ young people with and without migration background.
That welcome signals for, sensitivity toward, and knowledge about LSBTIQ* people are important to support for LSBTIQ clients* has already been discussed in the literature, such as: a) a knowledge aspect: for example to be familiar with the variety of sexual orientations and gender identities, the different self-designations, LGBTQ+ community structures and more (cf. Wolf, Fünfgeld, Oehler, & Andrae, 2015); b) a sensitivity aspect: for example, having reflected critically on one's own attitudes towards LGBTQ+ people, making LGBTQ+ diversity appropriately visible and reacting appropriately to discrimination (cf. Brown, 2006; Göth & Kohn, 2014); c) a signal aspect: for example, using gender- and LGBTQ+-sensitive language (Clarke, Ellis, Peel, & Hriggs, 2010).
6.1 Limitations

When interpreting these findings, it is important to note that we mainly interviewed people with educational privilege (all interviewees who were still in school were on their way to the Abitur). We had only one person from a more collectivist country (Asian) and mostly people from Muslim and Christian families. The interviewees were all already sure that they were LGBTQ+ (but some were still unsure whether they were homosexual or transgender, for example). In addition, participants were predominantly satisfied with their current life situation – at least compared with the LGTQ* people who visit our counseling center and are currently, for example, in a coming-out process from their family of origin or who want to work through experiences of discrimination. There were also exceptions, such as a lesbian interviewee that lived hidden at the time of the interview, because she feared for her life.

6.2 Methodological consequence for qualitative social research

The Voice-Centered-Listening method (Giligan et al., 2003; Kiegelmann, 2007) helped us to pay very close attention to different aspects of identity and their relationships to each other. The voice-centered approach was developed precisely to listen to such a variety of "inner voices". This was helpful in the pilot phase of the study. However, the method is too complex and time consuming for the evaluation of all 36 interviews. Also, we have not yet found a representation of the Voice Centered results that would meet the richness of detail the method offers and privacy requirements needed for purposes of research ethics. (A challenge that arises also in other detailed qualitative evaluation procedures.)

Braun and Clarke's more economical evaluation method (2006), which we used to evaluate all 36 interviews, has the advantage that it can be easily adapted to a wide variety of qualitative questions. The authors explicitly wanted to develop a method that was easy to learn and to handle for different questions.

The description of Maxwell's (2013) qualitative research process has also proven its worth for us. This description served as a framework model for the entire research process. During the data evaluation with the
software ATLAS.ti (Scientific Software Development GmbH, 2017) we have worked especially with network views to structure, group and define relationships. The program also helped us to keep order and, for example, to quickly find relevant text passages.

We consider our evaluation to be not yet complete. We have conducted interviews with seven other people that had not yet been analyzed when we composed this article. The questions answered so far and the presentation of the results have so far been oriented towards the needs of specialists in social work and health care. For an audience that is not educated in social sciences, there is more depth in the data that invites further analysis on the one hand. On the other hand, it is necessary to prepare the study results even better for different target groups in order to adequately convey the decisive results in a short time, which is often necessary. In addition to slide and oral presentations, auditory and video clips are also being planned.

References


Göth, M., & Kohn, R. (2014). *Sexuelle Orientierung in Psychotherapie und Beratung* [Sexual orientation in psychotherapy and counseling]. Heidelberg: Springer.


Perceptions of Basic Competencies in the Last Year of Baccalaureate by the Center's Management Team: Focus Group Analysis

Antonio Medina Rivilla, María C. Domínguez Garrido and María Medina Domínguez

Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia (UNED, Madrid, España)

Abstract

The research presented here is a synthesis of the case study, corresponding to the IES of Andalusia (Secondary Education Center), focused on the second year of Baccalaureate. It is within the framework of the project COMPROFESU, which aims to train teachers in professional skills, from the comprehensive education of students in the key competences (learning to learn, entrepreneurship, communication, mathematics-scientific, social and artistic-cultural), applying the Focus Groups method. The management team, program directors and the coordinator-member of the Research Team participate.

The involved team values and incorporates the competences in the educational project of the institution but recognizes that the teachers of the last year of baccalaureate centers the education and training of the students in the domain of content-disciplinary knowledge, which are necessary to pass the test of University access. They emphasize that the formative demands of the educational system itself must be transformed in order to "place in the proper place the training of students in the key competences", important for training and preparing students to master the university culture. It is evident that the focus group is an adequate method to understand the complexity of the training problem that characterizes the final stage of Secondary Education.
1 Introduction

The research Project COMPROFESU lead by Professor Dominguez and subsidized by the previous Ministry of Economy, offers the imaginative opportunity to share with Teachers’ teams of the last year of Secondary School the process of being conscious and coherent dealing with the challenge of learning teachers and students in Key Competencies.

In order to teach these competencies to students, teachers need to assess and master these Key Competencies, and also those competencies required to teach with efficiency professional capacity.

We have developed a research process orientated to detect both the meaning and mastering of competencies and the creative role that is expected from teachers as the main responsible persons for the whole education of students and for their own professional development. We also take into consideration the educative institution, High School, as a reality that boosts practices and processes of preparation to advance in mastering of educative competencies.

The progress in mastering both teacher and student competencies has been developed in an educative institution in the Andalusian context, which has detected the meaning and the impact of problems, and the needed training for helping students to understand the learning vision. At the same time teachers at this institution present the responsibility to give a suitable answer to this challenge “to progress in the knowledge and practice of the competencies needed for students being themselves suitable training didactic on those competencies required in advance”.

2 Justification

• The professional development of teachers of the last year of Secondary is necessary, in order to help students to face the challenge of the transition from Secondary School to University.
• This requires that
  - students succeed in the admission test.
  - students anticipate and understand the university culture.
  - students are prepared to participate in the singular adaptation to the first year of university life.
- students begin and consolidate the command of key competencies to reach or improve in secondary school.
- teachers are well aware of the challenges of education for key competencies.

3 Context

• The research is realized in the bordering regions of Castilla-LaMancha and Andalusia.
• High quality agrarian products such as oil and wine along with the artistic-industrial products define the surrounding area as a developing region, with a quota of immigration between 7% to 10%.
• Where? A secondary school (I.E.S.) of Andalusia (Spain) and in a developing town (rural/industrial services/facilities).
• Number of students: more than 1000 students, 200 of them are in the second year of higher education (Bachillerato).
• Socio-economic reality: mixed with a predominance of sources of services, industrial, agrarian and artistic, technological developing.
• Village population: more than 18,000 inhabitants.
• Economy: depends on the industry, service and agrarian sectors (in that specific order).

4 Research Problem

• Teachers of the last year of Secondary Education have to work under pressure since they have to prepare students to succeed in their admission test to get into the university.
• We have to invite teachers to take part in building a teaching improvement and development culture, so they educate students in a suitable mastering of Key competencies and in a learning style, in which students would be able to overcome the challenge that an admission test implies. Which finally lets each student to achieve a positive and enough assessment to achieve their desire career at the university.
5 Main Questions

• What model of teachers’ professional development is best to educate teachers in order to manage the Key competencies to work with their students?
• What design of the learning-teaching process is more adequate to educate students in key competencies?
• What is the best qualitative method to contribute to teacher professional development?
• Is it necessary to value the impact of the focus group technique in the education of teachers and to get to know the progress in the education of its competencies?

6 Objectives

General Objective:
To empower teachers to have full training and mastering on teaching competencies in balance with those students of the second year who should improve them.

Specific Objectives:
• To design some model of teacher professional development base on recognition and mastering of the competencies of teachers and students.
• To clarify the concept of the competencies of the Secondary Education teacher for teachers and students of the second course in higher education (Secondary education).
• To discover the involvement of the Directive Team in the education of the teaching competencies and overall those competencies that students have to develop.
• To identify competencies that are the best managed by students of Secondary education in this school.
• To define which teaching practices are the most suitable to learn key competencies in Secondary education students (contents, methods, tasks, ICT, resources?) and which criteria and assessment test?
The competency training program for teachers and students in the last year of Secondary Education, in the first year of University and all along their training for their future profession has been developed in many research, about teachers at the University level and at the access to Higher Education (Zabalza, 2007; De la Hoz, 2010; Medina, 2013, 2018; Domínguez, 2014, 2015; Le Boterf, 2010; Perrenoud, 2014; Baldacci, 2010). However, competency learning in students has been developed in many studies such as Medina (2009). Domínguez and García (2012) and Perrenoud, (2014). These investigations have been implemented as the most important line of the study plans in organic laws in Spain such as LOE (2007) and LOMCE (2013) that pointed out the need of Key competencies learning in students.

This topic has also been the base of continuous researchs such as Brenan (2010), Medina, Domínguez and Medina (2017), Baldacci (2010), Domínguez et al. (2017) and Medina and Medina (2018). These studies underline that within the Key competencies that must be cover during the last year of Secondary Education those competencies of the Legislative regulation present a privileged place. These last competencies have been primary objective of some of the previous studies, in which teachers of Secondary Education are aware of those competencies that must teach students

- Learning to learn,
- Linguistic-communication,
- Scientific- math,
- Digital - artistic –cultural,
- Social – citizenship.

In some regions such as Cantabria and Castilla – La Mancha are promoted other competencies such as empathy or entrepreneurship in the conceptualization and those competencies are completed by leadership, work in team, and initiative. These competencies have been positively recognized but with a clear dominance of the whole pre-paration of the person.

There is an aspiration towards an authentic Humanism, building culture of respect, intellectual autonomy, the progress in personal practices
and the real support on students in order to help them in the design of the objectives and the selection of the most suitable resources for the practice with a double preparation, as human being and the reinforcement of the intellectual habits.

All these processes with the intention of learning to be, learning to accept collaborative tasks with others and with commitment with professional and creative performances (Baldacci, 2010; Medina and Medina, 2018) so to take consciousness by each teacher in front of the amount of challenges, in an open call for complexity, to the technological advance and the responsible use of the right diverse educative and environmental approach.

The previous research has revealed the complementarity in mastering teachers-students’ Key competencies and how the progress of teachers in teaching and developing competencies in students help them to go beyond and transform their competencies.

The process of understanding and analyzing those Key competencies that student must learn is a suitable scenario for self-development of teachers’ competencies, taking in consideration that mastering a competence means a full advance in the professional thought and practice.

The professional development of teachers improves through reflection, action and again reflection around the preparation fact of students in Key competencies. Those Key competencies are the axis of their growing up process in order to understand themselves and to behave suitable and satisfactorily in their future personal and professional life in all the institutions.

This research has the objective to discover the reciprocity and complementarity between the progress on student’s competencies and the consolidation of these competencies and those competencies that are core for teacher performance, among them (Medina, 2013): Planification, Communication, Methodological, Evaluation, Design of media – ICT, Professional identity, Innovation, Research, Institutional, Interculturality, Leadership competencies, that are considered of great relevance for a sample of more than one thousand university teachers of Secondary Education, who have positively evaluated them.

This wide range of competencies have an important influence on the professional development of teachers at that stage. Teachers must work with students the reflection and orientation of the most valued compe-
Perceptions of Key Competencies: Focus Group Analysis

...encies, defined as key competencies. Remarkable is the role of harmonization between the demands and adaptation of teacher from the last year of Secondary Education and the first year of University (Dominguez et al., 2012), (Dominguez et al., 2017). These research have presented the most relevant aspects for teachers in that transition.

The selection of Planning competency, linked to Communication, Methodological and Design of media – ICT and evaluation has facilitated to teachers of Secondary Education a new way of taking conscious of the curriculum design category and of didactic units as learning product produced by Secondary School Teachers of Bailén Institute in which the didactic innovation has been developed and adapted thanks to study case methodology, completed by the analysis of the contents of the texts created in the Focus Group. The Directive team and some teachers of some departments, vocational training and adult education were part of the Innovation and research team.

They have been intensively involved in this process of global enhancement of teachers’ competencies when they apply the didactic units, which have designed (contents, tasks, resources, learning impact) in order to achieve both the global enhancement of teachers’ competencies in teachers’ team and of each student.

Classrooms have become didactic laboratories, in order to develop the innovation-research assume by the group of teachers of the last year of the School (Medina & Sevillano, 2010; Dominguez, 2006, 2015; Baldacci, 2010). There are other studies such as Perrenoud (2014), Dominguez and Garcia (2012) and Zlatic et al. (2014), which underline the development of teachers’ competencies linked to the quality and design of the didactic units.

León et al. (2012) have presented a model for didactic units, with focus on the the adaptation of methods, tasks and resources that provide a research path and a didactic practice in building training instructional designs, which better optimize the teaching performance (Medina et al., 2015; Medina, De la Herranz & Dominguez, 2017). These studies present also a new vision that grounds the design and learning developments, which adapts Study Plans to the big challenges of Education base on competencies overall on those Key Competencies, in order to improve the global Education of students of the last year of Secondary Education.

The previous investigations present some principles that facilitate competency learning, such as,
• Transversal Knowledge.
• Collaboration.
• Meeting-point among cultures.
• Theoretical-practical research.

We find these principles in other studies (Mallart & Mallart, 2017; Medina, De La Herranz & Domínguez, 2017; Domínguez, 2015; Baldacci, 2010). They add other ideas such as the need of comparation, progress and to act in the Educative practices, including and completing these principles.

These principles are applied in line with the practice-theoretical vision that making decision competency in teachers will reveal in order to improve both the progress of the needed competencies as teacher and the methods, tasks, resources, and evaluation indicators more suitable to consolidate culture and practical performances for learning competencies.

The role of teachers should be based on models such as:

• Collaborative work, narrative competencies base on case study, competencies with focus group (Huber, Gürtler & Gento, 2017; Cochram Smith & Lytle, 1999; Medina et al., 2013).
• Mastery of “teaching competencies”. Teachers and students (Medina, 2013; Domínguez & García, 2012; Day & Gu, 2012; Zabalza, 2016).
• Student development in Key competencies (reports of different agencies, legal rules) (Brenan, 2010).

The professional development of Secondary School and Universities teachers has been the core of researchs of new programmes, creating the basis for the transformation of schools and teachers.

Brennan et al., Pepe and Antonio point out that the profesional development of the teachers is the main guarantee to promote and consolidate education in students' competencies.
8 Focus Group: The Approach

The quality methodology uses different methods, among them we underline the Focus group. The choice of a Focus group as a qualitative method research – Focus group is used to take notes of perceptions, which boosts opinions and stance corresponding to the most relevant ones of the members of some research. Which must be completed by the personalized interview, offering a point of view from a team who know and experience the complexity of teaching.

The focus group provides each person with the point of view of the others involved and offers the opportunity of improving its own about the discussed object. At the same time it offers several options of configuration and supports the creation of the perceptions map, synthesis of the team members discussion and the base to increase the knowledge around the discussed object by creating relevant situations, taken from the team members’ discussion, transforming the singular perceptions into the contrast among the diverse opinions of the components, as a result of the deep dialogue/discussion generated.

Stewart and Shamdasani (2015, p. 3) explain “Today’s Focus group methodologies also evolved from two additional primary sources”: (1) “Clinical psychological use of group analysis and therapy and (2) Sociological and social psychological studies of group dynamic.”

At the same time (Wellner, 2003) considers “Ethnographic influences emerge in the use of focus groups conducted in natural setting with real social groups”. Linked to the “growing use of virtual groups, virtual worlds, and related technologies simultaneously expand the definition of “group” in time and space and extend the scope of modalities by which data many be obtained.”

Stewart and Shamdasani (2015, p. 13) analyze thoroughly the sense and adequacy of the Focus Group in social research: “The ebb and flow of focus group research across and within various disciplinary fields – and the attendant intellectual element of thesis, antitheses, and synthesis – make focus groups an interesting and dynamic arena that continues to merit consideration and use”.

Interpersonal or individual characteristics influence group processes in two ways:
The personal characteristics of individual affect individuals’ behavior in the group’s behavior.

“Group cohesiveness influences a number of group processes such as verbal and non verbal interaction, the effectiveness of social influence, productivity, and satisfaction of group members”. Stewart and Shamdasani (2015, p. 87) underline also the “Personal traits of ground qualitative researchers/moderators:

- Are they genuinely interested in hearing other people’s thoughts and feelings?
- Do they express their own feelings animatedly and spontaneously?
- Are they insightful about people?
- Do they express their thoughts clearly and flexible?”

At the same time the main research questions present the following “Typology of focus group questions:

- Leading and testing.
- Factual and feel questions.
- Anonymous questions.
- Silence.”

Kennedy (1976) notes three different sources of biographical characteristics that threaten objective requirements:

“-Personal approach: all- human predisposition to welcome and reinforce the expression.
- Unconscious needs to peace the client: Reinforce the ex-pression of points of view.
- The need for consistency: Reinforce the expression are internally consistent”.

“By permitting out of context favorable comments, while telling those who offer an unfavorable view out of context that we’ll talk about that later.” “Personal characteristics, educational background and training, and amount of moderating experiences are important consideration in selecting a moderator.”

Kamberelis and Dimitriadis (2011, pp. 545-546) present

“The focus group has become and increasingly important construct used to explain complexity and contin-gency within many different disciplines, that involves the pedagogical function
and collective engagement both designed to promote dialogue and join higher levels of understanding of issues critical to development of a group’s interests and/or the transformation of conditions of its existence”.

“A more expensive treatment of focus groups allows us to reflect-continually on the particular limits of our methodological strategies. By destabilizing how we understand focus groups - locating them at contingent intersection of research, pedagogy, and activism - we continually work against the tendency to reify our methodological strategies “…” giving us more and more acute perspectives on the data we generate from them and how we interpret these data”.

9 Focus Group: Qualitative Method

A focus group is considered as a qualitative method, which stimulates the involvement of the members of the educational institution in the analysis and value of teachers’ and students education in the importance and master of competencies (students-teachers), the basis of their own and their students’ professional development and the innovation of the institution / school.

Members and criteria of the Focus group:

- Members of the Leadership team of the School,
  Director
  Secretary
  Head of studies
  Director of the adult education program
  Director of professional training
  Responsibility for initiative and arts
  Moderator
- The criteria for being part of the Focus group are,
  Their commitment to the institutional / educational project.
  Responsibility in the leadership of the Educational Center.
Implication with quality management and integral development of the school.
Projection in the improvement of the Educational Community and citizen - regional zone.
Continuous contribution to the educational city model.
Openness and cooperation in European Programs and development of dialogue among cultures.
Improvement and holistic education in competencies for teachers and students, mainly in the stage of compulsory education. (12-15 years).

The main questions are organized around the following dimensions,
• Competencies concept?
• Involvement of Directive Team in competencies learning?
• What are the most relevant competencies in students?
• What are the best practices in order to boost these competencies?
• Teacher’s background in order to develop those competencies in students?

The answers to the previous main question have been analyzed in the conversation between experts and team members, and we summarize in:

Real meaning for teachers in High School.
Value of education in teachers and students.

Some quotes of the leaders-teachers, who participated in the discussion group

**Competency concept** “Capacity that allows us to solve a certain situation” “To achieve an objective” “To apply learned solutions to a certain situation”

• The answers tend to be different,

  “We have clear the concept, however our main responsibility is to prepare students in order to pass the university entry exam."

  “We apply a traditional methodology.”

• About the knowledge of competencies in teachers,

  “We tend to use what is familiar to us.”

  “To teach base on competencies is difficult right now.”
Conceptualization of the learning base on competencies is really well evaluated by teachers. Participants and experts synthesis from a quantitative point of view the previous main questions, they graded between 4 and 5.

**Involvement of the Leadership team** in competencies learning?

- Teachers’ answers,
  
  “The educative community understands competencies, however families don’t present the same approach.”
  “Families just ask about the final grade.”
  “Students don’t understand them completely.”
  “Teachers value competencies however they don’t know enough how to work with them.”
  “To think in detail about this approach is needed overall with students at the 2º course.”

- Leadership team’s answers,
  
  “Occupational learning teachers are more used to working with those competencies, overall the professional students.”
  “Text books disappear and the focus is on how to advance with competencies.”

Experts consider that the Leadership team highly value students’ training in basic competencies, they graded between 4 and 5.

**Development of competencies in students** and how to integrate them in the educative institution.

- Leadership team’s answers,
  
  “Directive team has included the challenge of competencies and works towards it, however it is influenced by the university entry exam. We are aware of how competencies are a real challenge and how implies more work.”

- Educative project in the institution means to include the competencies learning in some subjects.
  
  “It requires more time and more mastery of the contents.”

Experts assess between 3 and 5 the grade of Leadership team’s towards the training in competencies in students.
In which competencies did they acquire mastery?

A wide dimension about what are the most relevant competencies in students arises. We underline that the Managerial team takes into consideration the following competencies:

- The main answers are,
  
  “Competencies learning is needed in High School students.”
  
  Students must be prepared to solve successfully future situations, with special focus on their preparation and success as university students.”

- The competencies mastered by most of the students are,
  
  Learning to learn and autonomy competency (compared with students’ answers)
  Communication competency (some similar answers)
  Citizenship and social competency (some similar answers)
  Mastery in the second language (it’s not value by students)
  Digital competency

What is the real importance and necessity of learning focus in how to develop student competencies. Experts consider that the managerial team concern about the importance and necessity of learning with focus on competencies reach between 3.5 and 5. That means a suitable value of the commitment of the Educative Institution with this training tendency.

What are the best practices in order to boost these competencies? Contents? Methods? Activities? Assessment of the competencies?

This question is the core of teachers’ commitment with their own professional line and the opening to teach with new models, methods and tasks, which prepare students for the suitable knowledge and development of competencies in classroom.

- The main answers are,
  
  There is no common answer among the different profiles, the Directive Team confirms it, however the rest of the teachers deny it.
  “There is a positive tendency in order to develop competencies in students.”

- The planning of the learning process is base on the contents, there is not inverted class
  
  “Lecture is the most common method. However a more open methodology is appreciated with a higher interaction of students.”
“The priority is contents not competencies.”
Experts evaluate these phrases in order to reveal the focus of teaching practices on how to develop competencies in students, they grade 4. They agree that the main tendency of the last year “Education focus on mastering disciplinary contents.”

- The most used activities are,
  - “We develop scientific experiences overall with equipments in the laboratory, overall when the contents are really difficult.”
  - “We create business cases and experiments that invite students to find the solution, and combination of the different elements presented.”
  - “We encourage them to research and find new solutions.”

- Resources,
  - “Teams use equipment, databases, and internet research.”
  - “Power point presentations, IDP, Digital platform.”
  - “A suitable learning background is required in teacher at the 2º course in order to evaluate properly competencies, because exams are really difficult.”

Experts confirm that teachers used a wide range of resources, such as laboratory, Tour, ICT, that boost competencies learning in students. They grade a high mark 4.5 with high coherence.

- Resources,
  - “We run courses, but a suitable qualification of teacher in the institution frame is required.”
  - “The involvement of new teacher in competencies from the university has increased.”
  - “An active methodology is required in order to improve teacher qualifications and to facilitate their engagement in the enhance of the competencies learning process.”
  - “To design learning teacher programs focus on practice, those programs must be close to the real problems that teachers deal with in their practices, in a suitable innovative process.”

Teacher’s background in order to develop those competencies in students? We close the Focus Group with this question.

10 Discussion Group

The outstanding voices of the Managerial team and Coordinators of the Educatieve Center (I.E.S.) have underlined the interest and the adequacy that are required in the learning-teaching process in order to obtain a rigorous and suitable approach. This approach must boost students’ training in Key
competencies based on the previous research (Domínguez, Levi, Medina & Ramos, 2013; Brennan, 2010) who agree that the challenge of adequacy to the Educatice system to the long-life training, which must be taken as a main line for the progress in competency training. In this approach students assume the commitment to discover and develop Key competencies, in order to prepare them for understanding the Key of the global Education.

Key competencies are understood in relation to the previous research (Zabalza, 2007; Medina, 2009; Perrenoud, 2014), as a direct line of students’ education, in which they assume the real risk of discovering a real demand of a global training.

A real understanding means a combination and application of knowledge, to value how to solve a problem. To create a permanent assessment environment of the different contents during the last year of Secondary Education help students in this understanding.

We need to go deep into the training meaning of the own competencies (Perreneud, 2014), taken in consideration as the contents to develop and learn them. We give a special position to those competencies that are needed to improve a complementary and global sense.

The different teachers’ contributions in the Focus group have revealed how rich are those contributions and a way to establish an understanding line among people with and the identification of the potential of each human being. There is a special recognition to competencies, how their mastery and progression is needed.

We have introduced a mix between teachers’ autonomy and collaboration with the team of the university. We have noticed that there is certain discrepancy in the real value of competencies. The team value them, they were not able to work with them as expected and they were not able to find the suitable place in the training process. The time and the nature of the different tasks the the Didactic units are not enough in order to learn them.

Communication and Mathematical-Technological competencies are the only one that are understanding as suitable to deal with this challenge, due to this both are considered as a new and transforming line (Mallart & Mallart, 2017), these authors underline the value and complexity of Communication competency means for teachers, we can find this same idea among the teachers that are part of the Innovation and Research Project.
The Focus Group has provided a new method of research with excellent adequacy to the needs and expectations of teachers and because of its importance the reflection of teachers has revealed the potential of this Focus Group for the training of students in the last year of Secondary Education. We find this same idea in (Stewart & Shandasani, 2015) in which a real coordinated team of the Educati ve Institution has been created and the Global Training Project of the IES, that has promoted a culture base on the teaching-training process with focus on teaching Key competencies.

The most outstanding output has been how the managerial team has become conscious of the importance of mastering and training Key competencies, and how it influences the progress of knowledge, the reinforcement of the personal characteristics and the self-assessment of the own experiences. All this happens when we establish our own know-how and commitment style, with the social responsibility that occurs when we take in consideration how important are the personal traits, the global education and the value of the own experiences.

We continue with the discussion within the Focus Group, we perceive a deeper involvement in each participant-manager with the debated objective, that is defined taken in consideration the potential and the learning meaning that take place with the knowledge and practice of Key Competencies by students and teachers. Due to this the Learning program and the Educati ve Project of the Institution of Key competencies in students include to discover the mastery that teacher have achieved on that competencies.

Kambarelis and Dimitriades (2011, p. 545) confirm that “The Focus Group has become an increasingly important construct used to explain complexity and contingency within many different disciplines, that the pedagogical function basically involves collective engagement designed to promote dialogue.” This idea underlines the value that we must give to Key Competencies Learning with special meaning to Social and Communication competencies.

The sense of leadership that the managerial team must assume, strengthens, creating a collaborative, understanding, debated environment. In which shared responsibility, real commitment to accept demands, competencies and challenges in rural leaders are needed. These requirements are a main source for the whole institution, that produce a suitable influence in the Community and in the context of cooperative organizations.
of the rural environment (Medina and Medina, 2018). The main answers are:

“To think about a new university entry exam is required.”
“Real examples, business case and to adapt methods to each subject with a more transverse vision.”
“To take real examples of the History and to work them with perspective / retrospective. To design projects that involves all teachers in new work teams, that would be appealing for most of them.”
“To design some activity that engages all teachers in March, in a real work in team, sharing it.”

Experts consider, they agree with teachers and managerial team that the biggest challenge is to discover a new style and evaluation tests, that balance competencies in the last year of Secondary Educations. Due to these, students could have a great beginning in the first year of University, which means the base of a real university culture of global education and professionalism for the future.

11 Discussion-Conclusions: Open questions for the future

About general objectives:
Achievement of the intended objectives: singularly in general, as the involved teachers in this innovation – research has valued their professional development positively, due to the approach of improvement and continuous progress in the teaching competencies, in its isomorphism and core to the education in competencies of the students.

About specific objectives:
They are considered as very valuable and they have been reached completely.

About objectives related to discovering the involvement of the school leadership team in the education in competencies, especially of the students: There is a high sensitivity in the responsibilities of the organization and management of the school, stating:

“There is an evident collaboration and involvement of the school leadership team in promoting education in competencies, although it is more relevant and achieved in the field of professional training than in the last year of higher education”.

“The school leadership team has incorporated the challenge of the culture of competencies and works in that direction, but the main concern is to prepare students to succeed in the admission exam to get into university”.

The teachers have highlighted:

- The competencies are guidelines and they should be worked within the second year of higher education (bachillerato), after secondary, “however it is complicated at the moment to direct the teaching towards the education in competencies”, since the main purpose of the course to get into the university is to prepare students to succeed in the admission test.

- The comprehension of the competencies has improved and its incidence on the total care education of the students at the end of secondary. “There is a variety of opinions, since some teachers keep working the competences, even though this concept is not used with the clarity and rigour that it should be”.

- The teachers present some method and tasks to develop the key competencies, although they recognize that it is necessary to think and to deepen in new methods “since they predominate the master class and the approach focused on the command of the contents”.

- Among the tasks, it is expressed that scientific experiments are the most oriented and adequate to educate students in basic competencies (key competencies).

  “We encourage students to look for and find new solutions for each one. The most used resources are minivideos, blackboards, laboratory, search in the internet, but it lacks criteria and tests of assessment adapted to the command of the competencies”.

- The challenge of identifying the importance of orienting teaching to the command of competencies is highlighted:

  “It is necessary to educate students of higher education (bachillerato) in key competencies”.

- It is assumed that the basic ones, established in the educational legislation, are: Learning to learn; Communicative, Mathematics-scientific; Initiative-learning; Social, Artistic and cultural.
- The teachers consider that the competencies that students manage the most, among the mentioned above, are: Learn to learn, Communication, Citizenship-social, Second language, ICT...

- The teachers need an education oriented to generate the basis to educate students in the key competencies and to consolidate in their own professional development:
  
  "We carry out short courses, but adequate teacher training is required within the framework of the institution".

  "Design teacher training programs linked to their teaching practice, close to the real problems, that each teacher has to solve in their professional performance, from an innovative research process".

- Teachers agree on the need to design some rubric adapted to the evaluation of competencies, by getting a justified choice of specific evaluation criteria and appropriate adaptation of some test, depending on each competence to judge / evaluate.

  "Adequate training for teachers is required to carry out rigorous assessment of competencies".

References


Ley Orgánica 2/2006, de 3 de mayo (BOE 4 de mayo), de Educación.

Ley Orgánica 8/2013, de 9 de diciembre (BOE 10 de diciembre), para la Mejora de la Calidad Educativa.


Action Research on Municipal Disability Policies in a Rural City in Japan

Masakuni Tagaki
Osaka Prefecture University

Abstract

This study describes the development of municipal disability policy in a rural area in Japan over a 13-year period. The study employed action research using data from two disability councils, hosted by the Toyooka city government in western Japan, to evaluate the achievement of three goals of community activities: task, relationship, and process. I acted as an advisor to the councils from 2005 to 2017; as a result, the councils accomplished their task and relationship goals. Examples include issuing a manual for disaster preparedness and a campaign to promote bus use in collaboration with the city government’s transport section and outside organizations. Process goals were only partly accomplished. The consensus meetings might have prompted people with disabilities to share their experience with each others. Overall, however, the involvement of people with disabilities in disability policy development was limited, and the initiative for these activities came from city officials and social workers.

* This study was supported by a Grant-Aid for Scientific Research, grant number 25780341 from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science.
** I deeply appreciate the support by the Toyooka officials and the member of the TMC and the TCSCL.
Introduction

I implemented an action research design project to examine the development of an action plan for disability policy during a series of meetings of municipal councils (MCs) in a rural city in Japan. MCs are responsible for developing policy and services for people with disabilities (PWDs). I employed sense-making theory, which is based on the narratives of the members of an organization and Ross’s (1955) three community organizational aspects – tasks, processes, and relationships – to develop an in-depth understanding of group dynamics with respect to members’ experiences and organizational development.¹

Over the past 20 years, the administrative role of Japan’s municipal governments in disability policy has been expanding (Ozawa & Ohshima, 2012), as Japan has established many new disability policies in a wide range of fields (see Table 1).

Table 1: Progress of disability policy in Toyooka or the central government

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Policy Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1997-2000</td>
<td>Reform of the basic structure of social welfare service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>The Assistance Benefit Supply System for PWDs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Consolidation of the former Toyooka government and neighboring five towns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Services and Support for Persons with Disabilities Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Amended the School Education Law (for launch of Schools for Special Needs Education System)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Launch of the Council on Support of PWDs’ Community Lives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>Enactment of Protection for Persons with Disabilities Who Undergo Abuse Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Launch of Center for Abuse Prevention for People with Disabilities in Toyooka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Act on Priority Procurement Promotion for Persons with Disabilities of 2012 (Japanese Law No. 50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Enactment of the Act on Comprehensive Support for Persons with Disabilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Enactment of Act for Eliminating Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enactment of Amended Act on Employment Promotion of Persons with Disabilities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹According to the Cabinet Office of the Government of Japan (2016), approximately 8.6 million Japanese people (nearly 7% of the total population) have physical or intellectual disabilities or mental disorders. This study employs the “disability” terminology used by the Japanese government.
The Disabled Persons’ Fundamental Law (Japanese Law No. 84), amended in 2007, states that every municipal government in Japan must devise a basic action plan (BAP) for disability policy. The Services and Support for Persons with Disabilities Act of 2005 (Japanese Law No. 123), states that every municipal government must provide an action plan for the development of disability services (APDDS) for PWDs. A BAP deals broadly with disability policy in a variety of fields, such as disability service, education, employment, and medical care. It promotes a barrier-free urban development plan and improvements in public attitudes toward PWDs for promoting the participation of people with disabilities in social activities. In contrast, an APDDS focuses on the timing of the provision of disability services, such as in-home support, daycare, and respite care, and job training. Both BAPs and APDDSs include disability services and employment; the latter is more concrete.

PWDs value employment as a means to participate in society and enjoy economic independence (Tagaki, 2016). A 2016 survey by the Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare estimated the number of employed PWDs at approximately 500,000, or nearly 5% of the total. Employment for PWDs is available in both the public (central, municipal, and local) and private sectors.

Public interest in the needs of PWDs has increased over time. In a recent public survey of people’s attitudes toward PWDs, approximately 60% of respondents reported that they have helped PWDs (Cabinet Office of Government Japan, 2017). Nevertheless, 83.9% of the respondents stated that prejudice or discrimination exists against PWDs, which is similar to the 83% reported by a 2007 survey (Cabinet Office of Government Japan, 2007, 2017).

1.1 MC for Disability Policy and MC for Support for PWDs’ Community Lives

Local government is required by law to launch the Council on Support of PWDs’ Community Lives (the CSCL). MC is an organization tasked with developing a BAP and an APDDS at the municipal level. In general, a MC is comprised of academic professionals, welfare or health professionals, representatives of public organizations, high-ranking municipal officials, and
PWDs. MCs often conduct surveys and hold short public hearings to collect the opinions of local PWDs for municipal governments. According to the Cabinet Office (2014), 80.4% and 62.0% of municipal governments conducted surveys and provided hearings, respectively. Members of MCs discuss the results of these surveys and hearings and develop suggestions for education, employment, community work, disability sports, and the promotion of citizen’s interests in disability issues as input into BAPs and APDDSs.

The task of CSCLs is similar to that of MCs, but it focuses on more concrete issues about PWDs’ lives in the community lives. It does not directly discuss BAPs and APDDSs; rather, it provides its opinions to the MCs. The background of the membership is similar to that of MCs. However, those who hold practically related positions are apt to participate.

1.2 Issues in Drafting BAPs and APDDSs

A major issue in drafting BAPs and APDDSs is the method municipal governments employ to enhance discussion among MC members and to collect residents’ opinions about disability policy. There are no major or frequent discussions among MC members or hearings provided for local welfare or disability organizations (Tagaki, 2006). A shortage of participation by PWDs in the MC is another issue. According to the Cabinet Office (2014), only 11% of the members of local disability organization are PWDs, of whom 95% have physical disabilities. This means that the membership of people with intellectual disabilities or mental health issues is low.

Tagaki (2006) found that MC members with disabilities are often reluctant to discuss their personal interests in disability or share their opinions about other types of disability with other members. Further, insufficient discussions across the types of disability might occur because the disability welfare system addresses three disability categories: physical, intellectual, and mental. Physical disabilities encompass four categories: mobility, visual, hearing and speech, and internal (e.g., heart disease, kidney disease, or other chronic illnesses that result in disability).

MC members have difficulty finding common ground across the different types of disability within this system. When they try to find common needs, they tend to be compelled to discuss their personal exper-
iences in detail. However, Japanese society considers disability a private matter that should not be discussed with people with different disabilities (Iwakuma, 2003). Therefore, MC members with disabilities might be reluctant to share their experiences with each other. Additionally, this behavior may reflect the Japanese tradition of respecting or valuing harmony (Iwakuma, 2014), which encourages conflict avoidance and promotes agreement. According to Tagaki (2006), a few municipal governments (e.g., Yao City, 2003) conduct interviews with the same members several times during the fiscal year to solve these issues. This might be more effective than a single interview in promoting discussion and collecting well-considered opinions; it might even encourage participation by PWDs in policymaking. However, only some of the important elements of the discussions are integrated successfully into BAPs or APDDSs. Local officials are responsible for determining which of the matters that have been discussed in the interviews should be incorporated into policy.

1.3 Researchers’ Contribution to Welfare Policies in Municipal Governments

Researchers who work for universities are requested to be intensively involved into municipal policies such as welfare, public health, improvement of environmental contamination, or promotion of public transportation (Matsumiya, 2011; Sugioka, 2007). Although academics do not have the administrative power to make policies, they are expected to manage MC meetings with local officials, help local residents to find and solve welfare issues, and network with appropriate actors in community. Researchers involvement is not based on “university professor to non-academic” (Koshikawa, Mihara, & Yamamoto, 2011), but as a mutual or collaborative relationship (Yoshimura, 2010; Pak, Hirano, & Hosaka, 2011). They are not expected to provide residents and welfare professionals with a single method to solve regional problems. Pak, Hirano, and Hosaka (2011) and Fujii (2015) remarked that the series of MC meetings is an important place in which participants could redefine existing problems, identify new issues, and agree on a method to solve them. Pak, Hirano, and Hosaka (2011) suggested that MC members, including academics, community workers, and residents, could discover a new self and be empowered through the
intensive discussions that occur in drafting a community welfare plan\(^2\) in a series of MCs. For example, a professor had to reanalyze issues in a community he had researched because the residents and other professionals did not support his earlier conclusions from his observations.

Rural cities that have no higher education organizations do not have these benefits, and academic involvement is limited. If they ask academics to participate in MCs, they need more time and a budget for accommodation and transport; therefore, it is difficult to conduct intensive exchange. Most universities are located in urban areas such as Tokyo, Nagoya, Osaka, or other prefectural capitals.

1.4 Three Dimensions of Community Organizations

Community organization theory (Ross, 1955) is useful as a tool to examine the process by which a researcher and members participate in MCs. Ross (1955) argued that three organizational dimensions are important to consider when researching a community organization: task, process, and relationship. Achievement of the goal of each of the three dimensions will result in an effective action plan for social welfare policies and community-based welfare activities in Japan (Nishio, 2010).

According to the primary research conducted in Japan (Institute for Community Social Work in Japan, 2005; Kayama, 2010; Nishio, 2010), the task goal is to solve a concrete community task in a certain area, and the process goal is to deepen residents’ participation in welfare activities or their capacity to solve community problems. In contrast, the relationship goal is to establish collaboration with organizations that are outside their own activities, or network with related groups and activities in a certain area. Kayama (2010) remarked that we should value both the task goal and the relationship goal as the basis for community work, although the task goal tends to be highly valued and other two goals tend to be regarded as side effects.

Tagaki (2007a) analyzed a series of residents’ meetings held by a local government in a rural city in western Japan that spanned nearly two years. Each prefecture and municipal government is required to launch a community welfare plan in accordance with the Social Welfare Act (PL. 45). This plan covers diverse fields, such as policies for PWDs, older people, child rearing, public assistance for the poor, and a method of networking of those who are involved in community practice.
years from the perspective of these three aspects. He employed action research methodology (Sugiman, 2006) and sense-making theory (Weick, 1995). This meeting began after the BAP for fiscal year 2002 was issued because some members of the Toyooka MC considered the collection of information from local PWDs and discussion with them was considered insufficient. Many attendees had disabilities and the MC included an academic, a medical doctor, social worker, and Toyooka officials. The task goals were establishing a newsletter, developing a website, creating a forum on disability issues in the city, and supporting employment opportunities for PWDs. However, the Tagaki (2007a) discovered that the goals of the meetings were not accomplished because members’ active participation was lacking and meeting preparation, such as setting the agenda and documentation, was inadequate. Tagaki (2007a) pointed out that his role as a researcher was to understand the members’ discussions, whereas the members’ role was to describe their experiences accurately. He suggested further that researchers in this field should focus on members’ narratives about matters they believed should be discussed to provide local governmental officials with suggestions for disability policy. Despite the failure of the residents’ meeting, it is noteworthy for its remarks on a researcher’s role and its methodology (Tagaki (2007a).

1.5 Action Research and Narrative Theory

In addition to Ross’s theory (1955), the current study employs action research (Lewin, 1948) and sense-making theories (Weick, 1995), which are based on the application of narrative theory to group dynamics in organizational development. Each theory is appropriate for analyzing the results of fieldwork that includes intensive interaction between members and a researcher. Sense-making theory is appropriate for examining member involvement in the meetings on disability policies at behavioral or linguistic levels.

Nagata (2013) observed that Lewin (1948) focused on group dynamics in organizational development, such as the dynamic relationship between leadership and the prevention of human error. Lewin influenced research into children’s development and learning through activity theory (e.g., Engestrom, 1987). This approach has been employed in studies of
residents’ participation in community organizations (Hanny & O’Connor, 2013) and health professionals in local governments (Noro, 2012). These studies examined the development of members’ perceptions of their activities as well as the outcome of their activities. Accordingly, I argue that Ross’s (1955) three organizational aspects are closely tied to Lewin’s (1948) action research.

This type of action research has been used in Japan to learn about individuals in communities using sense-making theory (Weick, 1995). “Sense-making” is a process by which people give meaning to their experiences retrospectively through narrative. Weick (1995) developed the theory to analyze narratives in decision-making processes, such as the problem-solving, judgment, or determination processes in organizations. Decision-making is a product of the sense-making process because decisions are based on meaning. For example, if an organizational member states that his/her decision-making led to a positive result, that narrative is the process of giving meaning retrospectively to the decision-making process. Weick (1995) was greatly influenced by Bruner’s (1986) narrative theory, pointing out that organizational sense making is a process that creates policy for future behavior, rather than merely recalling past events or interpreting experiences. Further, sense making is not an individual’s inner monologue, but a social dialogue that develops in response to others’ agreements or objections (Miyamoto & Atsumi, 2009; Yamori, 2008). Some examples of action research using Weick’s (1995) theory include investigations of conflict among residents during the merger of two municipal governments (Higashimura, 2006) and the reconstruction of disaster areas (Miyamoto, 2015). The sensemaking theory is a suitable tool for analyzing MCs in this study.

People begin to notice self-evident norms in the process of sense making, or to use explicit stories to explain what they have implicitly understood (Sugiman, 2006). Instead of teaching PWDs professional academic knowledge, action research with sense making teaches them how to make sense of their as well as other members’ actions and opinions, (Tagaki, 2007a). Therefore, sense-making theory is consistent with the current trend of using narrative analyses in disability studies (Smith & Sparkes, 2008). Bruner (1986) proposed that people think paradigmatically to understand so-called scientific truth, and construct meaning from their experiences through narratives. Although Bruner (1986) stated that these
two ways of thinking are reciprocal, narratives focus on sense making. In addition, disability narratives correspond to illness narratives (Kleinman, 1988), which relate to how the meanings of PWDs differ from those of experts.

Moreover, sense-making theory is useful for researcher reflections on his/her own position in a project. As mentioned above, significant interactions occur between investigators and research subjects in action research studies. Oliver (1997) argued that, regardless of research design, researchers are incapable of adopting a neutral stance – opposing the positivist paradigm that researchers can maintain objectivity. In action research, descriptions of fieldwork and data analyses are influenced by (if not based on) researchers’ perspectives (Sugiman, 2006). This suggests that researchers who use action research should reflect on their personal values, as well as the roles expected of them by their research subjects. Researchers who have used action research point out that member involvement depends to some extent on the nature of the particular research project (Seekins & White, 2013; Yamori, 2010).

I studied the development of disability policy in the municipal government examined by Tagaki (2007a), as new national or municipal disability policies were established after the conclusion of the former residents’ meeting. Tagaki (2007a) provided an analytical framework for the effective municipal disability policy, even though the residents’ meeting was not managed successfully. Akita (2013) and Yatsuzuka (2013) suggested that action researchers should study the same research field for a long period: this might enable them to obtain new findings about research objects that had been examined previously. A study of the current development of disability policy in Toyooka might provide us with new lessons about managing the residents’ meetings, which was regarded as unsuccessful in the past.

This study’s main objective was to understand the developmental process of MCs from the perspective of the three goals explained by Ross (1955). The second objective was to examine the role and function of an action researcher in the MCs.
2 Method

2.1 Context

*Toyooka City, Hyogo, Japan.* Toyooka city is a provincial city in the northern part of Hyogo prefecture or western Japan, established in 2005 by the merger of one city (the former Toyooka) and five towns (Hidaka, Izushi, Kinosaki, Takeno, and Tanto). Toyooka is 200 km from the Osaka urban area by train. Toyooka’s population is approximately 83,000, of whom nearly 5,000 (about 6% of the population) have disabilities (Toyooka City, 2017). The population of Hyogo prefecture is 5,500,000, of whom 170,000 (about 3% of the population) live in northern Hyogo. Toyooka is the main town in the northern part of Hyogo prefecture and there are many schools, two higher education schools, a large hospital, a small prefecture airport, and branches of central and Hyogo prefecture governments.

*The Toyooka Municipal Council for Disability Policy from 2005 to 2017.* Table 2 shows the effective periods of BAPs and APDDSs in Toyooka. The BAPs and APDDSs were discussed at the Toyooka MC for disability policy (TMC). The TMC’s objective was to launch and evaluate the progress of BAPs and APDDSs. The frequency of holding the TMC was usually two per year, but this increased to five or six in the years when upcoming BAPs or APDDSs were discussed. Members were delegates from welfare or disability organizations, residents groups, professionals who work in disability support, and an academic (the author). The disability policy section of the Toyooka government managed the TMC. There are approximately 20 members, each with a two-year term, although members can be reappointed.

Action plans, which were based on the results of surveys of residents with disabilities, their parents, a hearing for PWDs, and opinions issued by the CSCL, were implemented.

---

3 Even though the current city name and the former city name are the same, the former Toyooka city and the other five towns have been legally terminated as municipal governments. However, more than half of the entire population and public facilities such as central or municipal government, hospitals, schools, and stores are located in the former Toyooka area. The Toyooka area is regarded as the central part of the current city for this reason.
Table 2: Development of the TMC and the TCSCL from FYs 2005 to 2017

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>First-term of BAP</th>
<th>First-term of APDDS</th>
<th>Second-term of APDDS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Launch of the TMC: FY 2005 to 2006</td>
<td>Discussion BAP and upcoming first-term APDDS and collecting residents with disabilities’ opinions through questionnaires and series of consensus meetings</td>
<td>The first-term of BAP</td>
<td>The first-term of APDDS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opening of a rehabilitation center for children with disabilities: FY 2007 to 2008</td>
<td>2008 A disability and development record book</td>
<td>2008 Discussion of the upcoming second-term APDDS and collecting residents with disabilities’ opinions through focus group interviews</td>
<td>The second-term of APDDS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Launch of the TCSCL for networking of service providers: FY 2009 to 2011</td>
<td>2009 Lecture on management of CSCL and PWDs’ participation</td>
<td>2010 Interviews with PWDs who did not use disability service</td>
<td>2011 A farm for people with developmental disabilities</td>
<td>The third-term of APDDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2011 Discussion amended BAP and the upcoming third-term APDDS and collecting residents with disabilities’ opinions through questionnaires and a series of consensus meetings. Opinion exchange regarding BAP and APDDS between the TMC and the TCSCL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishment of main agencies for disability support and starting of disability service providers’ activities: FY 2012 to 2014</td>
<td>2012 Launch of Toyooka Center for Abuse Prevention for People with Disabilities</td>
<td>2012 Brochures on disaster damage relief</td>
<td>2013 Opening of city hall cafeteria managed by a disability organization</td>
<td>The amended first-term of BAP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2013 Gathering of mothers of children with disabilities</td>
<td>2013 Inspection of private companies</td>
<td>2014 Start of Toyooka Main Center of Consultant for PWDs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2014 A joint sale of products of a disability organization</td>
<td>2014 Discussion amended the upcoming fourth-term APDDS and collecting residents with disabilities’ opinions through questionnaires and focus group interviews. Opinion exchange regarding APDDS between the TMC and the TCSCL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of various disability service providers and advocacy of PWDs: 2015 to 2017</td>
<td>2016 Publicity of employees with disabilities’ comments on monthly city booklet</td>
<td>2016 Campaign to promote bus use</td>
<td>2016 Discussion of second-term BAP and collecting residents with disabilities’ opinions through questionnaires and focus group interviews. Opinion exchange regarding BAP between the TMC and the TCSCL</td>
<td>The fourth-term of APDDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2017 Discussion of the amended upcoming fourth-term APDDS and collecting residents with disabilities’ opinions through questionnaires and focus group interviews. Opinion exchange regarding APDDS between the TMC and the TCSCL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Toyooka CSCL.** The Toyooka government launched CSCL (the TCSCL) pursuant to the Services and Support for Persons with Disabilities Act of 2006 in 2010. The committee consisted of a main committee, a subcommittee, and several groups. The main committee held meetings twice a
year and subcommittee meetings were held approximately once a month. The membership of the main committee is similar to that of TMC: an academic, delegates from welfare and disability organizations, residents groups, and professionals in disability support. Many members participated in both the TMC and the main committee.

The total number of members is currently 20, with a two-year membership term, although members can be reappointed. Subcommittee membership is restricted to those who have professional knowledge and experience as practitioners but not those in managerial positions. Subcommittee members held observer status at meetings of the main committee. The author is a vice chairperson of the main committee.

*My position in the Toyooka government.* I was involved in the former Toyooka Disability Council from FY 2002 to 2004, before the election of the current Toyooka government, and from 2005 to the present. As of August 1, 2018, I had been in charge of the TMC for 17 years. I lived in the Osaka urban area, approximately 200 km from Toyooka city, which was my hometown. Toyooka officials requested my active involvement in the TMC and the main meetings of the TCSCL as an advisor.

### 2.2 Data Collection

My continuing participation in the TMC made me realize that my involvement was worth analyzing and, in 2005, I determined that the management of the TMC was suitable subjects for an action research project. I cannot specify the exact start date of this study because my interest in disability policy grew gradually. Yamori (2010) stated that it is not always possible to identify the beginning and end dates of action research projects.

The data used in this study include field notes, handouts, emails, transcripts of the TMC’s and the TCSCL’s proceedings released on the Toyooka city website, and publications issued by the Toyooka government. In my field notes, I noted the progress at each meeting, key members’ statements, member discussions, my own reflections, and member reactions. In this study, I have analyzed the development of the TMC from FY 2005
to 2017 from the beginning of Toyooka city to the end of the fourth-term APDDS.

2.3 Data Analysis

My analysis of meeting process considered written resources, such as handouts delivered by Toyooka officials, my e-mails with the officials, and my field notes. Records of my interventions in all processes were extracted from the sources and my involvement in the meeting process was clarified. I employed the KJ method, a type of bottom up qualitative method developed by a Japanese ethnologist, Jiro Kawakita (1967), to identify the characteristics of my interventions. Kawakita adapted this method from Charles S. Peirce’s notion of abduction, which relies on intuitive thinking processes to identify explanatory hypotheses (Scupin, 1997). The KJ method contains some general steps: reading transcripts carefully, extracting quotations from the transcripts, assigning a code (a summary label or index) to each quotation, developing categories by grouping codes, and summarizing categories and relationships among them.

I applied this standard KJ procedure. First, I extracted quotations from the transcripts and field notes, 185 and 64 quotations from the TMC and the TCSCL, respectively. I linked the same number codes to them. The quotations were each three or four sentences long. Second, I provisionally grouped and organized the coded quotations and summarized them into about eight categories in the TMC and six in the TCSCL. Except for remarks on the Act for Eliminating Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities (the Act) (Japanese Law No. 65), the following categories were generated: elaboration of member’s discussion, clarification of the TMC’s role, acknowledgement of members’ practices, explanation of social research, and PWDs’ negative involvement in disability policy. Table 3 includes a detailed explanation of each category.
Tagaki

Nochi (2013) suggested that there are similarities between the KJ method and grounded theory methodology (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Both develop connections among categories using codes generated from segmented text data. However, there are differences between them. The goal of the grounded theory methodology is to develop and integrate categories logically into a theory, whereas the goal of the KJ method is to create new connections between ideas or concepts that might create contradictory or illogical categories. Nochi (2013) suggested that the KJ method is suitable for analyzing self-narratives because narratives tend to include many contradictions or inconsistencies. The KJ method is unique to Japan, where it is a popular qualitative analytical method in many fields, including developmental psychology (Sato, Hidaka, & Fukuda, 2009) and gerontology (Fukui, Okada, Nishimoto, & Nelson-Becker, 2011).
2.4 Ethical Considerations

Before submission, I asked Toyooka officials, key members of the TMC, and the main committee to review the draft. The ethics committee of the relevant university approved the study protocol.

3 Results

3.1 Overview of Disability Policy Development in Toyooka City

First, I present the process of disability policies as five phases across time (Table 2): the launch of the TMC and establishing the basis for municipal disability policy (the first term); opening a rehabilitation center for children with disabilities and the launch of the committee for networking service providers (the second term); the establishment of the main agencies for disability support (the third term); and the development of various disability service providers and advocacy of PWDs (the fourth term). This classification is based on policies related to the TMC and TCSCL.

Over the thirteen-year period, the TMC and TCSCL have accomplished the following tasks and goals: issuing booklets that focus on issues that had not been discussed well, such as a development record book or disaster manual; collecting the opinions of residents with disabilities through diverse methods such as a series of consensus meetings, gatherings of parents with children with disabilities, and the promotion of employment such as opening a cafeteria. Disability awareness publicity was progressed through material on the Toyooka city official website and the city monthly newsletter. Some actions were carried out jointly with other section, for example, the bus campaign was a joint promotion with the public transportation section.

3.2 My Role as a Researcher

At the request of Toyooka officials, I acted as an advisor for the TMC and the TCSCL. I believed that we should examine disability policy development in a rural city such as Toyooka, as it appeared that many discussions
were based on cities in urban area. Toyooka officials did not provide clear
guidance about my role or what types of policies they wanted to implement.
At the start, my role appeared to include the management of the two
organizations, promoting exchanges of opinion among members and
organizing the results, introducing advances in policies in municipal
governments of urban areas or changes of national policy, and advising
members about social research methods. They knew that I had been in-
volved in many municipal disability policies other than in Toyooka city,
such as the Osaka urban area, and expected me to use these experiences of
advanced policies and social research. I introduced to them policies that
were implemented in other municipal policies regarding the enactment of
the Act. I asked all members of the two organizations to provide written
documents outlining their views, to deepen discussions among members.

I provided them with suggestions about social research including,
for example, sampling method, the importance of well selected question-
naires, qualitative methods such as the wording of interview guides, and
analysis. I explained the theoretical differences of quantitative and quali-
tative methods. I always gave them similar advice, including to any Toyooka
officials who conducted any research. In particular, I was intensively in-
volved in the consensus meetings that were held in FY 2006 and FY 2011.

As my involvement proceeded, I asked the members to identify
the issues about mild disability in relation to my impairment, and PWDs’
passive participation in the policy process, compared with municipal
governments in urban areas. Further, I gave the members a sense of the
significant implications of their welfare practice that were not well un-
derstood by them. Overall, I believe that I was regarded as a key member of
both of the organizations. The meetings were often held with my schedule
in mind.

The author might be regarded as being familiar with the distinctive
regional affairs in Toyooka. Managerial officials often remarked that the
author originally was from Toyooka when they introduced me to other
members living in Toyooka or neighboring cities.
3.3 Launch of the TMC: FY 2005 to 2006

*Policy Development.* The main policy for this term was the launch of the TMC on disability policy to draft the BAP and the APDDS for the upcoming term. Toyooka city was a new municipal government created by the merger of a neighboring city and five towns; therefore a new BAP was needed even though the former Toyooka city had already issued one.

Toyooka officials were concerned that there was gap in the availability of disability services such as the attendant or guide-helpers that were available in the former municipality. The TMC and the disability section conducted a study tour for members to visit welfare facilities for PWDs in Toyooka city. The aim of the tour was for members to understand the actual situation of disability service provision in all parts of the city.

*My Involvement.* Toyooka officials asked me to advise them on developing and issuing the BAP and APDDS. I drafted questionnaires to gather residents’ opinions as requested by the Toyooka officials. They accepted my draft.

I suggested a series of consensus meetings as a means to gather the opinions of PWDs who did not belong to any disability organization, because they had few opportunities to express their views. I urged them to make detailed preparations, such as setting an agenda, estimating the flow of the meeting, and considering how attendees should be grouped. I chaired the consensus meetings, and asked for their cooperation (see Table 4, section 1). While my suggestions appeared to be accepted by members during discussions, others appeared not to understand what type of opinion should be sought at the meetings. I could not give them a clear answer to this question, and asked them to discuss it freely. The background to these suggestions was the lesson I learned at earlier meetings, where I experienced a lack of meeting preparation at a series of residents’ meetings held for FY 2003 to FY 2004 in the former Toyooka city (Tagaki, 2007a).

The main issues that emerged from the consensus meetings were the need for a disability organization that attracts younger PWDs and fosters their mutual understanding, setting up more places where PWDs could spend time during the day, improving the accessibility of public facilities and transportation, promoting PWDs’ active engagement in
developing disability policy, promoting of employment, and increasing public understanding of PWDs. Some of the suggestions were included in the BAP and the APDDS. Conducting the consensus meetings was favorably evaluated by members of the Toyooka Congress. Opinions that were not carried into policy were described at a chapter in the record of the results of the consensus meetings.

Table 4: My suggestions at the meetings of the TMC and the TCSCL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Suggestion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>I requested all the members to respect the disabilities and opinions of others because there were numerous types of disabilities among them. Due to this diversity, I expected it to be difficult to reach simple agreements. Second, I reiterated that opinions as laypersons with disabilities were more important than the ideas presented by the experts and officials. Third, I wanted them to understand both members' and the municipal government's role, and avoid excessive dependency on the Toyooka government.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>I myself am [a person with a mild disability]. The people around us do not understand what a person with a mild disability is having trouble with. Yet, if you do not tell others about your disability, that also causes troubles. Therefore, we do not know how to explain what we are having trouble with or our disabilities. We do not know whether to include information about our disabilities when writing résumés for job interviews. This issue will also be applicable to children with mild disabilities in regular classes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>At the TMC, there were comments that PWDs themselves had no place wherein to directly express their views. There are sections for PWDs [in several other local governments]. This is a little impolite to welfare workers, but it is conceivable that these sections have been set up based on the idea that welfare workers and PWDs have different views about disability issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>It is really impressive how active these disability organizations are in their endeavors. In such a regional town as Toyooka, it is difficult to achieve such activities. This is because transport networks are not developed. Yet, we can still have [active exchanges of ideas], even without having to separate into groups by type of disability. There will be a lot of shared viewpoints despite differences in disability types.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>We should clearly describe places such as food outlets, hotels, and supermarkets, as targets [for being made more aware of the Act for Eliminating Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities]. I think there are large gaps between issues regarding the Act and social welfare ones. We cannot handle situations through social welfare professionals or legislators alone. We have to have discussions with consideration of both views.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. I have added comments in parentheses to clarify my statements. FY means the year when a meeting was held.

Additionally, I suggested that the slogan of the BAP should include words about "oriental storks’ restoration." I meant this to signify that social welfare policy had a strong relationship with environmental policy in the sense that both value diversity of life, and the slogan might appeal to those
who were interested in environmental policy only. My suggestion was accepted.4

3.4 Opening a Rehabilitation Center for Children with Disabilities and Commencement of Disability Service Providers' Activities: FY 2007 to 2008

*Policy Development.* A rehabilitation center for children with disabilities was opened in FY 2008. There were no similar centers for children with disabilities in northern Hyogo prefecture: they had to visit a center in southern Hyogo prefecture that was two hours away. Therefore, the establishment of the current center was beneficial for them. Building the rehabilitation center for children with disabilities was a joint project of Toyooka city and the town of Shin-Onsen, drawing on funding from the national government's special financial support for newly merged municipal governments.

A disability and development record book was issued for parents whose child experienced any disability. Parents write notes on his/her situation or special needs in the book. If their child advances or enters a new school, they hand the record book to the assigned teacher, after school, and nursery school, promoting the teachers’ understanding of the situation in the previous school.

*My Involvement.* My main engagement in the term was advice about social research. In FY 2008, Toyooka city held TMC meetings four times to draft the APDDS for the upcoming term through focus group interviews with PWDs.

3.5 Launch of the TCSCL for Networking Service Providers: FY 2009 to 2011

*Policy Development.* The TCSCL was launched for networking disability service providers in Toyooka city. Toyooka officials and I discussed the

4 The slogan was “A city for every citizen smiling with oriental storks.” This was employed by the first-term BAP and the first to four-term APDDs (Toyooka City, 2009). However, the slogan was changed in the second-term BAP.
membership of the TCSCL, organizational relationships between the main meeting and sub-meetings, and management of the meetings. I urged them to understand the need for an experienced coordinator and meeting preparation such as setting an agenda, estimating the flow of the meeting, and grouping attendees. I suggested that a group of PWDs themselves was not a requirement at that time; this could be organized after the basic organizations of the CSCL were well established, even though there were some remarks from officials about the values of such a group (Kasahara, 2011).

Toyooka City undertook semi-structured interviews with 280 individuals with severe disabilities who did not use any disability services. The primary issues that emerged at the interviews were satisfaction with their current lives, job seeking, anxiety about the shortage of medical doctors in Toyooka city, and their economic burden (Toyooka city, 2010).

Additionally, a Nonprofit Organization set up and managed a farm where people with developmental disabilities planted vegetables, as a place where they could get together and obtain employment skills. I supported the manager’s idea that this activity would be a model of connection between welfare activity and environmental action, before the farm was in operation.

My Involvement. In FY 2011, Toyooka city held seven TMC meetings to draft the upcoming third-term APDDS and the amended BAP. Toyooka city undertook questionnaire surveys and a series of consensus meetings with PWDs. I suggested that we needed joint action to solve some issues such as public transportation or evacuation facilities that are issues for many citizens the elderly.

I sought to elaborate members’ comments such as “evaluation,” often mentioned as a role of TCSCLs. I realized that its meaning was unclear, and I suggested to the members that we needed to invite an external reviewer to examine the disability services provided by welfare organizations, referring to a model in Osaka city.

In addition to these remarks, I emphasized the importance of mild disability issues (see Table 4, section 2).
3.6 Establishment of Main Agencies for Disability Support: FY 2012 to 2014

Policy Development. The Toyooka Main Center of the Consultant for PWDs was established in 2014 to provide PWDs with consultation or information on welfare services and promote cooperation among service providers across differences of types of disabilities. The Center took up the role of the Center for Abuse Prevention for PWDs, launched in 2012.

The TCSCL published brochures on actions that should be taken in the event of a disaster and advance preparation in cooperation with a welfare organization. The brochures were delivered to students with disabilities and members of welfare institutions.

Social workers at the rehabilitation center for children with disabilities hosted twice-yearly meetings where mothers of children with disabilities could share their experiences with each other. The mothers commented that they could share their concerns with each other and obtain lessons from older mothers who had children with similar disabilities.

Disability awareness activities were conducted through diverse media such as the Toyooka city monthly newsletter and broadcasting on community FM radio. An explanatory article about each type of disability and the experience of employees with disabilities was published.

Policies for the employment of PWDs were developed. The newly built cafeteria in the main city hall was operated by a welfare organization.

My Involvement. In FY 2012, I noted the concern about PWDs’ insufficient participation in the disability policy process (see Table 4, section 3).

In FY 2014, the TMC issued the upcoming fourth-term APDDDS. I appreciated CSCL members hosting the gathering of mothers of children with disabilities, and proposed a classification of participants (see Table 4, section 4). However, I informed the members of my concern that the TCSCL was attempting to manage too many projects, and they should select only important projects.
3.7 Development of Various Disability Service Providers and Advocacy of PWDs: 2015 to 2017

*Policy Development.* The main policies in the current term have been the promotion of awareness of the Act, the development of various disability services, and many meetings to distribute BAPS and APDDSs.

I undertook a number of actions to promote understanding of the Act. I delivered six two-hour lectures on the Act to Toyooka officials. The disability section delivered a brochure about the Act to the attendees at my lectures, and members of the TMC or the TCSCL, and published an article in Toyooka city’s monthly publicity material in hardcopy and online. Members of the TMC and the TCSCL talked about their interest in the law. Except for these activities, there were no developments on the matter.

The TMC hosted a campaign to promote the use of a local bus as a joint project with the public transportation section of Toyooka city. They intended that this campaign would contribute to sustain public transport for PWDs and older people. Cars are a typical means of commuting in local cities like Toyooka. Welfare organizations’ workers sought to use buses in this campaign, as a similar activity had been held for Toyooka officials. Passenger numbers have decreased dramatically on many bus routes. Bus companies were in financial deficit and obtained financial assistance from the local government. Some routes have become obsolete.

*My Involvement.* At the fourth meeting of the TMC in 2016, I suggested a scheme that dealt with matters of Act in the upcoming BAP (see Table 4, section 5).

4 Discussion

4.1 Accomplishment of Task and Relationship Goals

We can conclude that the TMC and TCSCL accomplished their task and relationship goals. The opening of cafeterias, the publication of the disaster manual and development record book, a campaign to promote bus use,
farming, and agriculture for people with developmental disabilities are examples of completed tasks.

Cafeterias in public facilities such as city halls, residents’ centers, and municipal library are popular projects managed by welfare organizations (Kubota, 2000; Sugioka & Hatakeyama, 2016; Toyama, 2017). A cafeteria in a city hall was important in promoting public awareness of disability issues. High-ranking officials such as congresspersons, mayors, and vice-mayors, as well as general officials had meals there and saw PWDs cooking in the kitchen. These cafeterias are policies in terms of the Act on Priority Procurement Promotion for Persons with Disabilities of 2012.

We might argue that issuing the disaster manual, promoting bus use, and farming were carried out sections other than the disability, and therefore relationship goals were accomplished. Issuing the disaster manual was obviously based on lessons of repeated disasters such as The Great Eastern Japan Disaster in 2011, the series of torrential rain and flooding every year, and the Great Hanshin-Awaji Disaster in 1995. The essence of the manual is that the special needs of PWDs should be considered, and PWDs and residents should prepare for emergencies, because municipal government might be unable to help residents due to the destruction of local government facilities and injuries to local officials.

The promotion of bus use was a unique project in a rural city. Bus companies in the countryside were in financial deficit and obtained financial assistance from the local government. Some of the routes have become obsolete. Private cars are a major means of transport in a rural city like Toyooka, where trains and buses are often unavailable. The maintenance of bus routes has been the subject of recent attention, because many older people have given up their car licenses and now need public transport.

The farming initiative is a pioneering project, as agriculture has begun to be regarded as a workplace for PWDs in the past five years. The Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry, and Fisheries (2017) has valued collaborative projects between farming and welfare activities. Moreover, farming is a response to the restoration of oriental storks and related environmentally friendly agriculture policy that Toyooka city has actively progressed. It might be argued that oriental storks’ restoration could be connected to disability policy as social diversity (Tagaki, 2015).
4.2 Accomplishment of Process Goals

We can conclude that TMC and CSCL partially accomplished their process goals, based on my fieldwork. Achievement of their process goal means the development of residents’ or PWDs’ sense of solidarity, rather than a mere expression of their opinions on disability issues to the Toyooka city government. Interviews with PWDs in 2010 were significant because those who did not use disability services had had few opportunities to talk about their living situation.

The most worthwhile method was the series of consensus meetings, as they were places where members with diverse disabilities could share their experiences despite their different disabilities. Iwakuma (2014) pointed out that the culture of respecting “harmony” could prevent PWDs from active discussion in Japan. To solve this problem, the meetings were effectively managed by Toyooka officials and me, through mechanisms such as selecting agenda items and displaying mutual respect.

Some scholars have suggested a hierarchy of disability (or impairment) in social positions (Charlton, 1998; Reeve, 2004), meaning that other PWDs consider an individual with a particular disability as a person who possesses a “real” disability. A hierarchy would likely be an obstacle to achieving collaboration or solidarity among the members of the consensus meetings; however, I did not observe this phenomenon, which might be due to my emphasis on mild disability.

A limitation of the meetings was that they lasted less than one year for the sole purpose of developing and issuing the BAP. Members cannot help discussing policies that they wanted to add to upcoming the BAP, rather than talking solely about their daily experience. Therefore, they were not able to have a sense of belonging to the disability community beyond their differences (Gill, 1997; Milner & Kelly, 2009). If meetings were held during the monitoring period, members would have sufficient time and no need to worry about this and they would be able to talk comfortably about their experiences.

The focus group interviews were conducted only once every two or three years for each particular disability; this is insufficiently frequent to share experiences. Such meetings might be effective for PWDs to elaborate their own experience explicitly, but they did not have the opportunity to
exchange their experience with others who did not share their particular disability. Each focus-group interview was conducted with participants who experienced similar disabilities. Similar problems might be applicable to gathering of parents with children with disabilities: although they reported sharing their experience, the frequency of meetings is not high.

4.3 Management of the TMC and the TCSCL by Members, Toyooka Officials, and a Researcher

*Role of Toyooka officials and council members.* We observe that local officials, welfare professionals, and I all led the TMC and CSCL, and served in this capacity, and all kept in mind our roles and its limitations. Local government officials are more influential in making progress at MC meetings and bringing the meetings to a conclusion rather than council members, or academics. Social scientists rarely have a strong influence on disability policy in Japan’s central or municipal governments, particularly compared to governmental officials (Mizumoto, 2009).

However, Toyooka officials might consider discussions in TMC and CSCL as significant, as they understand that not all discussion themes could be carried into local policy due to budget constraints or central and prefectural government rules. In the personnel allocation system of Japanese public officials, local government officials are required to transfer from one section to another one every four to five years, except for staff employed as social welfare professionals. For this reason, local government officials often do not have the opportunity to become intimately familiar with disability policy matters (Kurihara, 2007).

Toyooka officials played an important role, setting the agenda and supporting the meeting. Their involvement in the meetings was more active in TMC than CSCL. Welfare professionals actively progressed the CSCL meetings.

The difference in the degree of officials’ involvement in TMC and CSCL is due both to the legislated purpose of the organizations and organizational issues. CSCL’s organizational structure was different from that of the TMC. TMC had a main committee only, except for the year when a series of consensus meetings was held. CSCL had a subcommittee or small discussion group as well as the main committee. There were many
kinds of participants in the whole of the CSCL. In this sense, the CSCL fulfilled its primary role of being a place in which welfare professionals with diverse backgrounds met regularly and discussed their issues.

My Role as a Researcher. I attempted to manage several aspects of both meetings, including elaboration of members’ discussions, clarifying both meetings’ roles, emphasizing that members’ practices were valuable, even though they were not advanced when compared to practices in urban areas, explaining social research, and PWDs’ negative involvement in disability policy.

Regarding elaboration of member’s discussion, I intended my remarks to shed light on members’ sense making of their experiences as PWDs, based in the sense-making theory. I asked the members of both meetings to explain their values or norms, which they might not be aware of themselves.

We should consider the roles of my three properties: being an academic, sustaining physical disabilities, and being a former resident of Toyooka. These aspects might be accepted favorably by members; my advice will be based on both academic knowledge and real experience as a person with a physical disability. There is some criticism that a university professor’s advice is general, and does not reflect regional characteristics (Tagaki, 2007b). However, as my hometown is Toyooka, Toyooka officials might consider that they avoid such common criticisms. In the event, I did not encounter any criticism on this issue.

However, because of my lack of current Toyooka city residency, I had no prompt official way to implement members’ suggestions as policy. In particular, I did not attend sub-meetings in CSCL that were held monthly. Some members might not agree with my suggestion about an external review system such as that in the Osaka urban area. Further, they might think that I do not have any real experiences of people with intellectual or mental disabilities.
5 Conclusion

We can conclude that both the TMC and CSCL completed their task and relationship goals. We can argue that the CSCL was able to contribute directly to disability policy in contrast to the TMC. The two goals were interactive, as some projects were conducted with sections other than disability sections or with disability organizations in Toyooka city. We should remember that relationship goals have two aspects: inside and outside a certain municipal government or disability or welfare organization.

Process goals were partly accomplished; as both TMC and CSCL sought PWDs’ involvement in disability policy development were interested in sharing their experience, and activities were developed successfully to some degree. However, the activities did not continue to the point that PWDs began to develop solidarity that extended beyond their different disabilities. The disaster manual and the bus campaign might be beneficial to people with various disabilities, but PWDs did not actively participate in the dissemination processes.

Officials should notice each method’s benefits and limitations. As I remarked repeatedly, no group consisting of PWDs was launched, although similar groups existed in other cities such as Sakai and Osaka. If Toyooka officials were to launch such groups, they would need to prepare a meeting scenario, define members’ roles, and appoint an experienced coordinator with sufficient human resources and budget. Respect for diversity does not mean enforced agreements; members could agree to disagree and subsequently find a common ground on which to appeal to local government. Despite the different needs of people with different disabilities, the sense of belonging to the disability community might protect PWDs from isolation in communities in their daily lives.

Local officials should clarify what role an academic should play — coordination, leading social research, or simply providing up to date social policy knowledge. Every academic has certain characteristics — current residence, sustaining a disability or not, and their specific area of academic knowledge. A researcher does not know the detail of the whole area. Local government in a rural area has difficulty in involving appropriate academics but ICT, for example, video conferencing, might overcome this problem.
Further studies are required on this topic. TMCs and MISCs are continuing in 2017; we should analyze the development of the two councils. Second, interviews should be conducted with key personnel in each council, to examine what kind of involvement is preferable.

References


Nishio, Atsushi (2010). Paulo Freire and community organization: Influence on community practices in North America since the1970s. *Journal of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Okinawa University*, 12, 17–33. (in Japanese)


Toyama, Masayo (2017). The current situations and issues of continuous working support institutions of type B (1)—Qualitative research into three institutions in Z prefecture. Bulletin of Kochi Prefecture University, 66, 91–103. (in Japanese)


Discover the Unseen Through Tool-Based Scientific Observation
(Product Presentation – Showing the Possibilities of Mangold INTERACT Software)

Reinhard Grassl
Mangold International GmbH, Arnstorf

1 Introduction

Observation appears to be a simple skill. It is assumed to be something everyone does every day since early childhood, and thus, it seems to be an easy and well-trained skill. But observation of behavior with intended scientific outcome is far from easy. It requires a well-thought-out method based on scientific knowledge and hypothesis. It further requires appropriate software tools to create reliable data and interesting findings with significant validity in reasonable time. The major difference between everyday observation and scientific observation, and the enormous chances specific software tools can create in this field, will be discussed in this article.

2 “Live Observation” – the Essential Remains Undiscovered

Live observation can only capture very simple behavior due to the wellknown and well-studies limitations of human cognition, mainly the “attentional blindness”. The majority of behavior simply remains undiscovered for many reasons.

- A live observation cannot be paused or re-wound in case the observer missed an important behavior (contact between the observed participants, a short gaze, one single word that lead to frustration, aggression or relaxation of the participants, etc.). It is simply impossible to observe complex interactions, such as
gestures, speech, facial expression and actions, through live observation.

- The observer needs to categorize the observations in order to make some quick notes in a short amount of time. This categorization is in fact an interpretation and therefore a pre-judgement. How often do we misinterpret a situation!? (Just imagine two children arguing and then all of a sudden they become “best friends” at the moment of your intervention.)

- A comprehensive live observation is not possible especially when complex situations or large groups should be analyzed. The complex interactions among each other simply cannot be detected with the naked eye.

- The quality of observation highly depends on the training and knowledge of the observer. An experienced therapist will certainly observe very different behaviors than a student of psychology. Also, they will both interpret and write down very different observations and draw different conclusions.

- It can also never be proven which observation and conclusion were correct, because the observation in real life can never be “re-played” for verification or clarification.

In conclusion, live observation has serious limitations and disadvantages. Numerous amounts of studies would need to be made with live observation to eventually discover the amount of insight which can be easily gained through professional video based behavioral research.

3 Advantages of Video Analysis in Behavioral Research

Capturing video during observations is essential for later analysis. This allows the researcher to concentrate on very specific tasks, such as, performing tests with the participants, observing, analyzing, and finally making conclusions.

Video based behavioral research requires a professional approach and appropriate technical system to make the process of data acquisition and observation efficient. This not only increases the efficiency of the
observation process but also its effectiveness. This is because more and better results can be expected.

It further requires appropriate software tools to create reliable data and interesting findings with significant validity in reasonable time. We need to think about how more data and results can be generated from existing data, in order to discover the things that cannot be discovered by pure observation. Because that is exactly the added value of observational studies.

Now it is clear that even at very early stages, any time-saving by using professional tools will benefit the further evaluation process. Because time is the critical factor in order to present expected reliable and valid results and to discover further things that have not yet been explored.

### 4 Audio-/Video Recording

Observation by using audio-/video equipment is not as easy as it sounds. To make meaningful scientific observations, adequate methods and good technical solutions are necessary.

This is because you need to capture the reality. You need to have cameras and all types of audio equipment to capture and record the observed scenarios in detail. The resulting multimedia files (audio and video footage) needs to be used for all kinds of post analysis and for creating teaching, training and feedback material.

There are multiple ways to cover this part, starting from a simple camcorder, up to a complex lab setup. But the question is: Are you a researcher or an A/V professional? Especially because there are 1000 possibilities to waste your time.

- What video cameras do we need to take?
- What about audio signals? How do we get them into the recording?
- How can we do the cabling?
- Is it needed to mix any signal?
- Do we need power supplies?
- How do we get the video into the computer?
- Which format do we need?
• How can we store all recordings?
• Can we integrate external systems, like EEG, physiology, eye tracking, and so on?

The best way is to talk to someone who is an expert for these questions, so that you can be focused on the research part.

• You can talk to any audio-/video-provider. But you need to know that these companies have no experience with video based behavioral research. That’s why you’ll mainly receive equipment from the security area. So the worst case will be that you’ll end up with security cameras and special systems where you won’t be able to use the recorded video files in such a way that you can proceed with your observational studies.

• Or you can talk to someone who is an expert for video based behavioral research, which includes the observation, the recording, and also the analysis. There are certainly multiple companies on the market. But I can only talk about Mangold International ([www.mangold-international.com](http://www.mangold-international.com)).

Mangold International lab setups are always designed individually based on the users needs. You can have a broad range of audio and video equipment. The video device range goes from fixed HD video cameras with variofocal zoom lenses to fully remote-controlled pan/tiltzoom cameras. Audio can come from almost anything, from stationary boundary microphones, to high end wireless tie clip micro-phones.

The lab setup can be stationary with multiple rooms (in most cases one control and one or more observation rooms) or portable so that you can go on-site

• Stationary
  A Mangold behavior research laboratory can be as complex as you like – as long as you have the staff to operate everything.

• Portable
  With a Mangold portable lab, all the necessary audio and video components are housed in a roller briefcase and can be easily transported to the test-location.
In combination with the audio-/video-components you can use a special software called VideoSyncPro for the recording.

- VideoSyncPro starts recording of multiple videos simultaneously from different sources with a single mouse click. Thus, all recordings can get the same starting point, which greatly simplifies their subsequent analysis.
- VideoSyncPro records videos in a standard format. Thus, any previously necessary and time-consuming export or conversation of videos is a thing of the past! Use your videos immediately in other applications and analyze them qualitatively and quantitatively.
- VideoSyncPro can send synchronization signals to other software programs and recording devices, so that all data streams can be synchronized in post-analysis.

You can use almost any number of cameras in your observation lab. You can watch multiple videos in live preview. You can remotely control your cameras with the mouse. And last but not least, you can manage your videos in an easy-to-understand project structure.

5 What to Do with the Recorded Video Material

The synchronous recording of different audio / video sources cannot be the primary goal of an observational research lab, but their substantive, scientific evaluation and the production of meaningful results. To do this you have multiple options:

- You can use the old “paper & pencil” method. This will end up in a very time-consuming process, especially if you’ll try to get findings and statistics.
- You can use tools that not have to be developed for video based behavioral research (e.g. Microsoft Excel). This is also a very time-consuming process, especially there is no direct link between your data and the video(s).
• Or you can use professional software tools for your observational research projects. There are certainly multiple tools on the market, e.g. AQUAD, Videograph, INTERACT, and so on. But I can only talk about Mangold’s INTERACT.

INTERACT is a platform for synchronized viewing and analysis of video footage and audio files in observational research. It allows for content coding and event logging and creates valuable qualitative and quantitative results.

Video / Audio

You can open and evaluate as many videos as you wish. All videos remain synchronized. This is very important if, for example, you are filming a scene with several cameras and then evaluating these videos together.

Of course, you can play the videos at any time at any speed, from quite fast to very slow. They can even go back and forth in single images.

You can also view the soundtrack for each video. This is very handy when the audio information is an essential part of your study. In autism studies, for example, it may be silent for an hour. Suddenly the subject speaks a few words. With the audio presentation, you can immediately see this place and jump directly there instead of watching and listening to the whole video.

Coding System

To code the content of the video you simply define a coding or a category system. This can consist of any number of codes describing the events or contents that you want to evaluate in the video.

INTERACT allows you to use arbitrarily large category systems, which can also have any number of branches and hierarchy levels. This allows you to make very detailed speech analyzes by describing what you are observing very closely with various codes (for example: who says what to whom, why, with which intention, what tonality, what sentence structure, etc.).

Of course, this goes with any content. For example, with the Facial Action Coding System (FACS), which describes the expression of each
muscle in the face. Due to the intelligent structure of coding systems in INTERACT, the entire Facial Action Coding System needs only 3 levels to be fully usable.

Rating / Coding process

Once the coding-system is defined, the actual coding process can begin. To do this, the videos are now viewed and the coder captures what he/she sees in the videos using keyboard shortcuts or mouse clicks. This can, as already mentioned, take place at any speed. Even if the video is paused, data can be recorded. INTERACT stores the data in so-called events. Each event always has a start time, an end time, and any number of codes.

Of course, you can also carry out extensive transcriptions with INTERACT. You can add as much text to each event as you like.

But that’s not all. If you have additional data sources that you want to assign to a section of the video, such as PDF files, text documents, or spreadsheets, simply drag and drop them onto the text field of the event. With one click these can be called up again at any time.

Data Structuring

In INTERACT, events are always recorded in groups and sets. This is very useful, since you can already structure your data during the event logging. For example, use the data sets for the different subjects of the different test situations in your studies.

Best of all, you can easily restructure your data afterwards; INTERACT offers great routines that automatically group events for instance per subject or insert new data sets before a specific event.

Independent Variables

You can even add independent variables to the data sets. You can define these completely freely. This allows you to select e.g. all female subjects or subjects at a certain age or situation with a few mouse clicks for post analysis.
Multiple Coding Turns

Often it is necessary to code a video in several turns with a focus on different aspects. In INTERAT this is easily possible. Just set the video to the beginning, open a different coding system and capture your data as usual. Mangold INTERACT automatically ensures that all data are properly recorded.

You can also add new codes at any time to your coding system. And you can make manual corrections to your data at any time as well. If the videos are coded, interesting statistics can be created with just a few mouse clicks.

Analysis / Statistics

In the so-called time-line chart, INTERACT displays all logged events on a horizontal timeline. With a click in the timeline, all the videos immediately jump to the appropriate location. When the video is playing, you can also see a line running through the chart that shows the current location of the video.

Clicking on the evaluation button displays a series of statistical values. For example, the frequency, duration, and percentage of time of each code. All this is pure base functionality. And it is important to generate data that can be used for further evaluations.

Real Value of INTERACT

The real value of a software like INTERACT, however, is not the collection of the data, which of course is a very powerful range of functions. The real value is to draw information from these data, which cannot be detected by pure observation.

This is first the search for simultaneous event, or co-occurent codes. If the research question is “how often is behavior A and B occurring at the same time”, it would not be easy to observe and log these situations with a single code. Simply because it is very difficult to capture several things at the same time cognitively.
The coding of A and B independently is probably much faster and more accurate, because you only need to concentrate on one thing and, maybe, can run the video even faster when you log events.

If you have logged behavior A and B independently of one another, INTERACT can tell you in a few mouse clicks exactly where these behaviors occur at the same time. This information is saved in new events that you can again evaluate statistically.

Similarly, you can examine contingencies or sequences of behaviors in your data, thus generating more and more information.

With this way of information mining, you get more and more complex results about the whole process from original simple codes. This is exactly what makes a software like INTERACT so valuable.

Of course, you can also display and examine this data in any other way. One example is the integrated State Space Grid (SSG), which offers interesting possibilities and insights into your data.

Rater-Reliability

And sure, INTERACT also provides methods to test the reliability of your coders. This is, for example, the Cohen’s Kappa or the Intra Class Correlation Coefficient (ICC). These functions provide information on the quality of your data with just a few mouse clicks.

Expansion Options

Finally, the integrated programming language of INTERACT allows you to extend INTERACT to meet your specific requirements. Write your own data import, export, and evaluation functions, which can then be called directly from the INTERACT menu bar by your entire team.

6 Conclusion

By using professional tools (hard- and software) you can discover the invisible in your observational research projects. It enables researchers to conduct scientific studies efficiently without having to handle all the complex technical details.
Everyone else Tells me that I Have Done Something Incredibly Great, but how Do I See Myself?

Exploring the Self-Concept Development of Refugee Children in Germany after Traumatic Experiences

Sasmita Rosari
University of Education, Karlsruhe

Abstract

This paper refers to my poster presentation, which was presented at the 18th Workshop Center for Qualitative Psychology in Karlsruhe, Germany. In it, I created an interactive research design model similar to that described in Maxwell's (2013) book, which focuses on five research components: conceptual framework, goals, research questions, methods and materials, and validity (see fig. 1).

![Interactive Model of Research Design](image)

*Figure 1: An interactive model of research design (Maxwell, 2013; modified)*

These research elements are not presented here, as separate descriptions but instead integrated into a research description. Instead, this paper focuses on presenting the research design for a study about the
development of self-concept in refugee children after traumatic experiences, which is part of my doctoral research. The participants are refugee children of elementary school-age, aged between 6 and approximately 12. A mixed-methods approach is used to look closely at different aspects of children's self-concept. The other research parts, such as the research findings, discussions and inferences, will be presented in future papers.

1 Introduction

One of the most popular topics in trauma research, is post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). In the literature, there are already numerous studies and findings about post-traumatic stress disorders in refugee children, for example: post-traumatic stress disorder reactions in children of war (Thabet & Vostanis, 2000), post-traumatic stress disorders across two generations of Cambodian refugees (Sack, Clarke & Seeley, 1995), post-traumatic stress disorders in Iranian, preschool children exposed to organized violence (Almqvist & Brandell-Forsberg, 1997), and so on. Although some of the books and literature have used the definition of post-traumatic stress disorder to describe the meaning of trauma, it should be understood that trauma does not necessarily mean post-traumatic stress disorder. Before presenting my study's conceptual research, goals and research questions, I would like to give some definitions of trauma which are commonly used in psychological contexts and relevant to this study. The term “trauma” refers to a stressful event or situation (of either brief or long duration) of an exceptionally threatening or catastrophic nature, which is likely to cause pervasive distress in almost anyone (International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems 10th Revision - WHO Version, 2016). According to the definition of PTSD in the DSM-V, psychological trauma is defined as responses to directly experiencing or witnessing a traumatic event in person, such as a threatened death of a close family member or friend, serious injury, war, natural disasters, car accidents, sexual violation or domestic violence (American Psychiatric Association, 2013).

Trauma can have different consequences. As part of the body-mind relationship, trauma can affect both the body and the mind. Children who have experienced a threatening situation, often suffer from deep,
emotional injury that leads to physical stress symptoms such as insomnia, nightmares, anxiety and helplessness (e.g. Ellerbrock & Petzold, 2014; Maercker, 2009; Remschmidt, Schmidt & Poutska, 2002), depression, developmental delays, post-traumatic stress disorders (e.g. Ellerbrock & Petzold, 2014; Marcker, 2009; Entholt & Yule, 2006), profound personality disorders (e.g. Rießinger, 2011) and psychosocial problems. Some studies have shown an increased number of mental disorders among refugee children (e.g. Gavranidou et al., 2008; Fazel, Wheeler & Danesh, 2005). They suffered from post-traumatic stress disorders, as one of the most common disorders following traumatic events, besides anxiety and depression (Entholt & Yule, 2006). Children who are suffering from mental disorders, probably also have disorders in their perceptions, thinking processes, feelings, behaviors and interpersonal relationships, which could influence their self-concept and the processing of any experience. In his study, Sack (2004) outlined some common symptoms shown by people with self-image disorders, such as guilty feelings and shame, inadequate self-care, the feeling of being permanently destroyed and isolated from the social environment, and the tendency to minimize the dangers of dangerous situations. Gröschen (2008) using his practical experience as a psychotherapist, pointed out that children who have been subjected to poor living conditions during the war, are unable to develop stable images of themselves and others, often react passively, have a lack of speech and movement, deny contacts with other peoples, or even behave hyperactively. Many studies, such as studies about post-traumatic stress disorders and depression, have concluded and provided strong evidence, that trauma leads to many negative effects on aspects of human life. As a result, a lot of measures and policies in medical treatment, psychotherapy or even the political sector, have been developed and applied. In comparison, I believe that there is still sufficient scope for exploring the self-concept of children who had/have traumatic experiences, as Sänger (2016) states that trauma can affect central personality components, particularly the self-concept, body schemas, and interpersonal abilities. In this case, I am even more inspired to carry out a study about the self-concept of refugee children after traumatic experiences, as this is relevant not only for clinical and developmental psychology, but also for pedagogical and social psychology.

The main purpose of this study is to explore and describe the development of self-concept by refugee children after their traumatic
experiences. The term “self-concept” refers to a person’s subjective perception of himself and includes the description and assessment of their own attributes, abilities, skills, emerging experiences, emotions, relationships with other people, their environment and their social role, as well as potential future wishes (cf. Mummendey, 1995). Most of the studies about self-concept are conducted using quantitative approaches. One of the most popular studies in the pedagogic-psychological context, was proposed by Shavelson et al. (1976), who successfully constructed a model of self-concept in the educational context. The construct, self-concept, can be further defined by seven critical features (Shavelson et al, 1982, p. 3):

(1) It is organized or structured, in that people categorize the vast amount of information they have about themselves and relate these categories to one another.
(2) It is multifaceted, and the particular facets reflect the category system adopted by a particular individual and/or shared by a group.
(3) It is hierarchical, with perceptions of behavior at the base moving to inferences about self in subareas, academic and non-academic areas, and then to general self-concept.
(4) General self-concept is stable but, as one descends the hierarchy, it become increasingly situation-specific and a consequence, less stable.
(5) Self-concept becomes increasingly multi-faceted as the individual develops from infancy to adulthood.
(6) It has both a descriptive and an evaluative dimension such that individuals may describe themselves and evaluate themselves.
(7) It can be differentiated from other constructs, such as academic achievement.

What are refugee children’s subjective perceptions of themselves, concerning their experiences in the past, present, and also their wishes for the future? This question makes it easier for the children to talk about their abilities, interests and passions, feelings and emotions, accomplishments (successes and failures), interpersonal relationships (with friends, classmates and the other family members), and also their wishes and hopes. It does not rule out the possibility that they will ask themselves about their self-identity
Exploring the Self-Concept Development of Refugee Children

(e.g. who am I? how do I see myself? why do I look different from the people here? what does home mean to me? where is my home country anyway?). In addition to the previous traumatic events in their home country, they may also be exposed to massive mental stress which may become the source of new disorders or intensify existing psychological consequences (Grieser, 2016; Sourander, 2003), for example, a very different language (compared to their mother tongue), new cultures and different people’s mentalities, and also anxiety because of their unsettled residence-status in their host country. Unfortunately, many of traumatized refugee children do not have the opportunity to receive psychological counseling or psychotherapy treatment for trauma. In some cases, they may not realize that they are suffering from trauma.

My practical experience as a voluntary worker for refugees, have shown that most refugees and refugee children had/have traumatic experiences, either directly or indirectly. Whether or not an event is traumatic, depends among other things, on a person’s subjective perception and their resilience. Their individual traumatic experiences are also very different and could have happened before migration (while in their country of origin), during the migratory process (during their flight to safety), or post-migration (when they have to settle or live temporarily in a host country). For example they might have seen a bomb explosion or have been an eyewitness to violence and torture and have lost close family and friends; and/or might have had bad experiences while fleeing, like nearly drowning, being separated from parents and other family members, either by accident or as a strategy to ensure their safety; and/or may have suffered discrimination during their residence in their country of refugee. Therefore, the next research question to be addressed by this study is to examine the effect of traumatic experiences on self-awareness: What effects do traumatic experiences have on their self-awareness?

A trauma can last a long time, even a lifetime. Although the children and adults affected are protected from further traumatic experiences in a safe environment, they are still confronted with the effects of trauma. However, a trauma can also be processed. Factors such as individual vulnerability, risk factors, personal and social resources and the process of traumatization, determine the strategy for coping with the trauma and influence the development of individual resilience. As well as exploring refugee children’s self-concept development, the study also aims to
determine both the refugee children’s resources and risk factors regarding resilience. It should be remembered that resilience is crucial to the learning processes as a general process in our life but also to learning processes in the context of education (school context). Agaibi & Wilson (2005, P. 211) conducted a literature review of trauma, PTSD, and resilience. They argued that there is no universally-defined concept of what constitutes resilient behavior, therefore they attempted to demonstrate some definitions of resilience. In some cases, resilience is defined as the absence of psychopathology, prolonged stress response patterns (e.g., PTSD), or maladaptive coping. In some studies, it is defined as a personality variable (e.g., locus of control, ego resilience, hardiness) which is presumed to moderate outcome variables.

Finally, the study aims to provide useful insights for the people involved (e.g. parents and family members, educational staff, volunteers, and also the social environment) in providing the psychosocial support needed by the affected children.

2 Methods and Materials

2.1 Participants

The participants in this research are refugee children of elementary school age, i.e. aged between 6 and approximately 12, who have been living together with their parents, or least with one parent. They have got temporary or longer residence permits or even tacit permission, to be in Germany. More relevant is that they will not be deported within a year. The participants have or have had, traumatic experiences because of war, flight, and/or experienced discrimination as a refugee in Germany. Because the interviews with the children are conducted in German, it is also preferable that they are able to communicate in German. Whether they are currently in the regular class “Regelklasse” or they must first be integrated in the preparation class “Vorbereitungsklasse”, is not important.
2.2 Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Methods

The requirement to work with mixed methods in many research projects or the need to combine qualitative and quantitative methods, has been increasing due to the growing complexity of research questions and the overarching demand for interdisciplinarity in the research fields (Mayring, 2007). Despite the ‘paradigm wars’ in 1980s (constructivism vs. post positivism; quantitative vs. qualitative), mixed methods research has arisen from the ‘paradigm wars’ to become the third methodological ‘pragmatism’. The pragmatic community tries to combine deductive and inductive logic by integrating qualitative and quantitative data, approaches, and logic (Onwuegbuzie & Hitchcock, 2015) and assumes that the choice of methods depends on the research questions and research subject. The ongoing debates about combining qualitative and quantitative methods are not preventing the development of using mixed methods, particularly in social science contexts.

Tasakkori and Teddlie (1998; 2009) pointed out that the “mixing” in mixed methods, can occur in every step of the research process. Qualitative and quantitative approaches are used in the types of questions, research methods, data collection and analysis, or even in inferences. I support this opinion, since I have used both qualitative and quantitative approaches, not only in data collection. First, using mixed methods in the study aims to closely consider different aspects of children's self-concept, because both the qualitative and quantitative forms of data provide different insights and through their combination, the problem could be seen from multiple perspectives. Second, the research questions, as the center of the study, could be comprehensively answered by integrating both the qualitative and quantitative approaches. Third, merging the results from the qualitative and quantitative data not only results in more data, but also a more complete understanding than would have been provided by each database alone (cf. Creswell, 2015). Therefore, a convergent design using mixed-methods is planned: QUALITATIVE + quantitative.

In the QUALITATIVE part, guided interviews and personal diaries are used to gather more specific information. The interview guideline for the children is prepared and modified, with reference to the self-concept model proposed by Shavelson et al. (1976) which is later used as a deductive
category application in the Qualitative Content Analysis procedure proposed by Mayring (2000).

Another applied QUALITATIVE data measurement is personal diaries. It is also planned that the children take the prepared diaries home and keep them for a period of three weeks. Thus, they can write down their experiences, feelings, emotions, and maybe include some issues which are not easy to discuss with other people. Moreover, it could be helpful, especially for children who do not enjoy telling their stories orally. As well as consenting to participation in this research, the children are free to decide whether or not to use diaries to write down their experiences and feelings.

Trauma is a very sensitive issue. Not everyone wants to talk about their trauma or traumatic events. I know that asking the refugee children directly about their traumatic experiences is difficult, which also applies to the parents because they have probably also suffered traumatic events. Therefore, as an alternative, it is preferable to instead ask the parents and/or the family members about the family background and the situation in the family, for example: How did your family live before the war/conflict in your country? Does your child currently have problems or complaints? If so, how could you deal with that?

Furthermore, since most refugee parents cannot speak either German or English, it is helpful to interview them accompanied by a translator who has had training in enabling conversations with traumatized persons. It is planned to interview the parents before interviewing the children.

Furthermore, a lot of attention is being paid to ethical issues, for instance, ensuring that the interview questions for the children are drafted conscientiously, are appropriate to their age, and that the interviews are conducted based on a trusting and respectful relationship between the researcher and the participants. The participants are informed that personal data, such as name, addresses, home countries will be anonymized/changed, and all the information will be used for scientific purposes.

In the quantitative part, the German version of the Self-Description Questionnaire-I (SDQ-I), will be used. The English original version was developed by Marsh (1990). The SDQ-I instrument was designed to empirically validate Shavelson et al. (1976)’s model of a hierarchical and multidimensional structure of the self-concept. Moreover, it aimed to verify three dimensions of academic self-concept (Reading,
mathematics and general education) and four dimensions of nonacademic self-concept (Physical appearance, physical ability, peer relations and parent relations). The SDQ-I instrument showed a satisfactory reliability. The internal consistencies of its individual scales range from $\alpha = .81$ to $\alpha = .90$ and had a median of $\alpha = .86$ (Marsh, 1990).

The German version of the SDQ-I which was modified and developed by Aaren (2011), is available in both a long (SDQI-G) and a short version (SDQI-GS). The instruments consist of 8 sub-scales: Physical appearance, physical ability, parent relations, peer relations, self-worth, mathematics, German, and general education. Each academic dimension (Mathematics, German, and general education) contains a competence aspect as well as affective aspect. The items are formulated as statements for which the respondents are asked to indicate whether they are true, mostly true, sometimes false and sometimes true, mostly false, or false, by using a 5-point Likert-type scale. The reliability estimates for SDQI-GS remained satisfactory (range between $\alpha = .81$ and $\alpha = .95$). Using SDQI-GS is preferred in this study because it is more economical for administration and thus, more practically applicable, while still fulfilling the theoretical and empirical requirements of a sound multidimensional self-concept instrument (Arens, 2011, P. 90).

2.3 Data Analysis

The collected data will be analyzed using the qualitative content analysis principle proposed in Mayring (2002). Here, deductive category application works with previously formulated, theoretically derived aspects of analysis, bringing them into connection with the text. The qualitative step in the analysis consists of the methodologically controlled assignment of the category to a passage of text. In the case of severely traumatized participants, I prefer to use the Voice Listening Guide, because it can search out those categories or voices, which are not determined by the qualitative content analysis (QCA). The voice-listening-approach contributes to determining how people deal with socially taboo topics, moral conflicts and choices, because latent meaning is analyzed as well as explicitly stated content (for example pauses, self-descriptions, hesitations, developments and changes in the process of argumentation) (Kiegelmann, 2000, P. 1).
Based on this mixed method, I will conduct the validity analyses using both data triangulation (guided interviews, personal diaries, and SDQ-I) and the interview feedback.

3 Discussion

In this part, I will address two further issues of the study: defining the participants' traumatic experiences and the methodological consequences for qualitative psychology.

As a young researcher, I like learning how experienced researchers deal with problems that arise during their research. I used the rare opportunity provided by the research consulting group at the 18th Workshop Center for Qualitative Psychology, to discuss my research design and get useful feedback from many experienced researchers such as Maxwell (George Mason University), Kiegelmann (University of Education Karlsruhe), Huber (University of Tübingen), Schweizer (University of Education Weingarten), Tagaki (Osaka Prefecture University) and others. Referring to the question of how to define refugee children with traumatic experiences without asking them directly about those experiences, it is also, as previously mentioned, macabre to ask their parents because they have probably also suffered traumatic events. Therefore, for these purposes, it is assumed that “all refugee children had/have traumatic experiences.”

The other issue is the methodological consequences for qualitative psychology. By using mixed methods in the study, it aims to look closely at different aspects of children's self-concept by merging the results of the qualitative and quantitative data analyses. Since the weight or the priority in the study is given to qualitative approach (see QUALITATIVE + quantitative), in my opinion, the combination with quantitative data could make the application of the qualitative approach more powerful.

References


Developing a Multi-temporal Ethnographic Research Design

Petra Panenka
Institute for Educational Research Methods
University of Education, Karlsruhe, Germany

Abstract

The article aims to illustrate the gradual development of a multi-temporal ethnographic research design in which flexibility has a particular significance. This development relies on the intertwining of ethnography as a research program with the methodology of constructivist grounded theory (CGT). This meshing can be seen in the decision to employ multi-temporal fieldwork according to the iterative cycles of CGT research process. The development of the research design will be exemplified on the basis of my PH.D. Thesis on the following research topic: How do the actors’ interactions with the human and material kitchen environment reveal socio-cultural changes among the Northern Lakandón Maya?

In chapter 1, I describe the importance of flexibility in qualitative research processes and how it is reflected in an interactive research design. In chapter 2, I define the term ethnography and describe the basis of a multi-temporal ethnographic research process. Furthermore, I will describe how ethnography as research program is intertwined with CGT as there are similarities and differences in the methodologies between these two research programs. In chapter 3, Joseph Maxwell’s interactive research design will be outlined as it is the model for the multi-temporal ethnographic research design. Then I illustrate how it is applied in combination with ethnography and CGT. In the final chapter, the development of the components of a multi-temporal ethnographic research design will be described. This development of the components is illustrated in the poster.
1 Flexibility of qualitative research designs

In qualitative social research, openness toward the relevance systems of actors and field situations as well as to the research area are considered indispensable. Therefore, many researchers emphasize the processual character and the flexibility of the qualitative research process (Rosenthal, 2016; Maxwell, 2013; Charmaz, 2014). For example, Uwe Flick describes the qualitative research process as a “sequence of decisions” before and during the research process. Therefore, every single decision affects the subsequent research steps (Flick, 2012, p. 257). Consequently, a flexible research design, which enables the researcher to modify a given research plan, reflects the adaptability of the qualitative research process. Joseph Maxwell stresses the principles of flexibility and process character in his interactive research design. He argues that researchers in qualitative social research need to actively reflect and gradually work on the research question(s), the research goal(s), the conceptual framework, the methods, and the validity of their research projects. Thus, the interactive research design allows researchers to integrate evolving alterations during the ongoing research process in a flexible way (Maxwell, 2013). Because of this flexibility, the interactive research design is the foundation of all components of the multi-temporal ethnographic research design presented herein.

2 Multi-temporal Ethnographic Research Process

Ethnography may be defined as “recording the life of a particular group and thus entails sustained participation and observation in their milieu, community, or social world” (Charmaz, 2014, p.35). Ethnography attempts to understand a milieu, culture or the activities of a collective in a particular natural environment, at a certain time in history, and as closely as possible from an insider’s view (Rosenthal 2016). In social and cultural anthropology, ethnography also has a double meaning regarding comparative theory, which is often not addressed clearly. In the Encyclopaedia of Social and Cultural Anthropology Sanjek distinguishes between ethnography as written product and as research process. The ethnography as product is a written ethnographic account with theoretical implications and new insights. On the other
hand, the ethnography as research process includes the methodological approach of social and cultural anthropology with its high significance of field research. Both meanings influence each other and, together with comparison and contextualisation, constitute the foundations of anthropological research. Sanjek describes them as “an anthropological triangle (…) the operational system by which anthropologists acquire and use ethnographic data in writing ethnographies” (1996, p. 193). As such, the inter-relation between comparison, contextualization and ethnography is inherent to social and cultural anthropology. While descriptive ethnographies are concerned with contextualisation, ethnographies, which focus on comparison, aim to generate theory. CGT fosters theory generation from a constructivist approach. Starting with initial methodological choices for data collection based on the research topic, the iterative research process switches between data collection and analysis. Thus, CGT based data collection includes multiple return visits to the field over an extended period of time. Depending on which concepts emerge from the comparative analysis of previously collected data, the choice of applied methods for future data collection may require a flexible adaptation. Therefore, intertwining CGT and ethnography results in a multi-temporal ethnographic research process with a likewise multi-temporal ethnography as written product.

3 Maxwell’s Interactive Research Design and its Adaptation for the Multi-temporal Ethnographic Research Design

As the multi-temporal ethnographic research process requires a flexible handling of methods for data collection and data analysis, the ethnographic research design developed herein is based on Maxwell’s interactive research design. Therefore, Maxwell’s design will be outlined next. Then, a modified version suited for the multi-temporal ethnographic research process is described.
3.1 The interactive research design

Maxwell’s interactive research design encourages researchers to organise the main components of their research design and enables them to integrate evolving alterations during the ongoing research process. According to Maxwell, a model encompasses five components:

- Goals: requires researchers to clarify the reasons for the study, both for oneself and for others.
- Conceptual framework: includes all prior information about the people, their settings, or issues relevant for the research project.
- Research questions: formulates the main interest of the research project.
- Methods: encompasses the methods of data collection and data analysis, the establishment and reflection of research relationships, and the selection of the research setting(s).
- Validity: emphasises that results and conclusions must be transparent, understandable, and comprehensible.

Rather than using the predefined research question as the starting point of a linear research process Maxwell sees the research question as the centre of the model being surrounded by the other four components. The model can be separated in an upper and a bottom triangle. The upper triangle includes the research goal, the conceptual framework and the research question, which connects it with the lower triangle. According to Maxwell it represents the more conceptual part of the model. The bottom triangle comprising the methods, validity and the research question. This triangle describes the more operational part of the design (Maxwell, 2013).

3.2 Multi-temporal Ethnography: An Adaption of the Interactive Research Design

Maxwell’s interactive research design names three main goals of researchers: personal goals, practical goals, and intellectual goals (2013). According to Charmaz, in CGT ethnography practical and intellectual goals are to remain open for unanticipated aspects of the phenomenon and generate a contex-
Developing a Multi-temporal Ethnographic Research Design

Maxwell's conceptual framework is a “tentative theory” about a phenomenon based on theoretical approaches and concepts as well as ideas. It includes “the system of concepts, assumptions, expectations, beliefs, and theories that support and informs” the researcher about his/her research. New conceptual parts are integrated throughout the entire research process. Therefore, the conceptual framework is a construct and may include concepts from different theories. It may not fit in one “paradigm as logically consistent thought” (Maxwell, 2013, pp.43). This interactive handling of theoretical concepts is particularly relevant for CGT research projects. The application of theoretical parts and concepts in CGT fosters the understanding of emerging concepts and generating of a new theory. It supports questioning preconception and “expand and enlarge (...) theoretical insights” (Charmaz, 2014, p. 279). Therefore, in the multi-temporal ethnographic research design, the conceptual framework reflects the emerging concepts from collected and analysed data as well as existing theories. - The researcher applies theories and concepts to question or confirm emerging concepts (and their relationships) as well as to illuminate their authenticity and relevance.

Maxwell's interactive research design fosters the development of a “grounded” (2013, p.73) research question based on empirical data and represents the flexibility of a qualitative research process. This flexibility is an integral part of most ethnographic research designs. An ethnographic research project starts with a specific research problem. However, the research problem is seen as pre-formulated research question, which must be refined during the research process (Beer, 2008). This need for modification is particularly true in ethnographic research applying CGT, where the formulation of the research questions during the iterative research process is connected to emerging concepts from the analysis of collected data (Charmaz, 2014).

According to Maxwell methods as a component of the interactive research design encompasses the sub-components establishment and reflection of research relationships and the selection of the research setting(s) as well as data collection and analysis (2013). An interactive, flexible handling of all four sub-components is very significant for multi-temporal ethnographic research process. In social and cultural anthro-
pology, the first two sub-components are often discussed under the term “field” and associated with the method participant observation. After the sensory turn, participant observation was developed further into various methods like apprenticeship (Stoller, 1997) and thick participation (Spittler, 2001). Both methods focus on the immediate experience in the field, face to face interaction and a long fieldwork duration in one piece. The concept of “constructing the field” scrutinises the definition of ethnographic fieldwork. By questioning the immediate experience in the field or longitudinal fieldwork at one place or one piece, the field is not seen as given, but constructed. Hence, the field is defined as:

“laboriously constructed, prised apart from all the other possibilities for contextualisation to which its constituent relationships and connections could also be referred. This process of construction is inescapable shaped by the conceptual, professional, financial and relational opportunities and resources accessible to the ethnographer. […] the construction of the field involves efforts to accommodate and interweave sets of relationships and engagements developed in one context with those arising in others” (Amit, 2000, p. 6).

Reflecting the constant fluctuations of the field enable the researcher to recognise the field constituents. It opens the field not only to multi-sited fieldwork (Marcus, 1995) but also multi-temporal fieldwork (Howell & Talle, 2012). Multi-temporal fieldwork is particularly significant as it is defined as frequent returns of the anthropologist to the field in order to deepen the relationship with informants and broaden the practice of fieldwork. Returning to the field is significant for CGT data collection and analysis, the third and fourth components of the interactive research design. Applying the methodology of CGT means working in iterative cycles according to theoretical sampling and emergent concepts from collected data. In ethnographic work this may be best realised in multi-temporal fieldwork. The component validity in Maxwell’ interactive research design describes five categories of validity in qualitative research: descriptive validity, interpretive validity, theoretical validity, generalizability, and evaluative validity. Descriptive validity is close to Glaser and Strauss’ concept “credibility” as defined in the original Grounded Theory (1967) and means the accuracy of the data. Interpretative validity is how well the researcher presents emic view(s) of her/his informants (2013). This category of validity is quite
similar to what Charmaz in CGT understand as thick description (Charmaz, 2014), a term coined by the anthropologist Clifford Geertz (2003). Theoretical validity refers to the researcher’s analytical process of conceptualization and theory generation. For CGT, Charmaz emphasises four criteria for generating theory: Credibility, originality, resonance and usefulness. She points out

“a strong combination of originality and credibility increases resonance, usefulness, and the subsequent value of the contribution. A claim to making a scholarly contribution requires a careful study of relevant literatures, including those that go beyond disciplinary boundaries, and a clear positioning of your grounded theory” (Charmaz 2006, p. 183).

The category generalizability refers to the generalizability or transferability of a theory. As in most qualitative research, ethnographic and CGT studies aim to generate theories on the micro- or mesolevel and which are closely connected to their contexts. Evaluative validity addresses the researcher’s influence on data collection, analysis and interpretation (Maxwell, 2013). In all variants of Grounded Theory, theoretical sensitivity supports a critical attitude towards concepts. Strauss and Corbin (1996) as well as Breuer for his Reflexive Grounded Theory (2019) developed strategies for (self-)reflection, which are valid in CGT.

The components validity as well as goals are not outlined in more detail here, as this paper primarily aims to describe the step-by-step development of the research question(s) and the conceptual framework as well as the constructing of the field and the choice of research methods. However, the criteria of CGT are inherent to each step of the research process. Therefore, some criteria may become apparent in the description of the other four components of the ethnographic research design. The personal goal of this ethnographic research project is primarily to answer questions which were raised during my master’s thesis. In this I studied the impact of cultural change on the young generation among the Northern Lakandón Maya. The intellectual and practical goals are according to CGT openness toward the research phenomenon and to generate a concept about socio-cultural change among the Northern Lakandón Maya.
Therefore, design in this research project may be seen as a multi-temporal ethnographic research design due to the iterative research process of CGT.

4 Developing the Multi-temporal Ethnographic Research Design

In this part of the article the development of the multi-temporal ethnographic research design will be described in more detail as illustrated in the poster in point three. First, I will delineate the development of the research question(s). Secondly, I will describe the conceptual framework. Thirdly the constructing of the field in each field stay and the challenges of fieldwork will be expounded. Finally, the choice of applied methods will be outlined.

1 Research Questions

Before the actual field stay, two related research questions arose from reviewing the literature about the Northern-Lakandón Maya:

1. How are daily cooking- and eating practices among the Northern Lakandón Maya in Chiapas (México) adopted and re-shaped through their interactions with the environment?
2. How are socio-cultural changes generated through daily practices and do these changes impact daily practices?

However, the first field stay started with a pragmatic question, which served to explore the field and define the concrete phenomenon under study: What kind of daily cooking and eating practices do the Lakandón Maya demonstrate? In order to understand bodily aspects of practices, further questions during this field stay were: Which senses do the Lakandón Maya name? What role do sensual perceptions play in the practice of cooking and eating practices? Preliminary findings after the first field stay were used to identify central cooking practices and dishes as well as to understand their culture-specific significance. Furthermore, a linguistic classification of the senses made it possible to comprehend the role of sensory perceptions during cooking and eating practices.
The preliminary findings of the first field stay and the studying of new theoretical approaches and concepts led to the decision to take a closer look at the process and relevance of tortilla preparation. Therefore, the research questions for the second field stay were: How do the practices of ‘traditional’ and ‘modern’ of tortilla preparation shape daily household activities of Lakandón Maya women? How do Lakandón Maya women interact with the environment of their kitchens during the tortilla preparation?

Apart from the verification of the findings of the first field stay, it was possible to reconstruct many interactions of Lakandón Maya women with their environment in and around the kitchen. Also the significance of the tortilla preparation for the daily household activities and the appropriation of implicit knowledge of a learned way of touching (skilled touch, Panenka 2014) were disclosed. However, further findings indicated fundamental changes of many cooking and eating practices and other household activities caused by changes to the ‘traditional’ tortilla preparation.

Based on these still preliminary results and the integration of further theoretical concepts, the following questions were formulated for the third field stay: How does modern tortilla preparation shape daily activities, influence roles and relationships of female (and male) household members in extended households? Which further ‘traditional’ and ‘modern’ (cooking and eating) practices create and constitute the Lakandón Maya kitchen as an environmental space shaped by the practices of female and male household members?

The research questions for each field stay are based on new insights and are formulated in order to find out more about a specific context relevant for the understanding of socio-cultural changes among the Northern Lakandón Maya. These research questions help to formulate the general research question(s) based on the analysis of empirical data from the field, to which Maxwell refers to as a “well-grounded, refined research question”. This general research question here has to be seen as quite grounded, but not finally refined due to the forthcoming analysis which may result in further changes. The current research question is:

---

1 The term traditional is used to refer to older practices of the Lakandón Maya. It does not mean the dichotomy between traditional and modern culture. Instead Lakandón Maya practices are seen as permanently re-created based on the interaction with the environment. But the term tradition should highlight the oldest practices known among the Lakandón Maya.
How do the actors’ interactions with the human and material kitchen environment reveal socio-cultural changes among the Northern Lakandón Maya?

4.2 Conceptual framework

Theoretical approaches and concepts are applied as a “tentative theory” of a phenomenon, meaning as a preliminary model, where new conceptual parts are incorporated into a coherent conceptual framework during the research process (Maxwell, 2013, p.39). Based on CGT, theories and concepts were used to decide on methodological directions and reflect on emerging concepts from collected data (Charmaz, 2014, p. 279). A literature review at the beginning of the research process served to define the phenomenon of socio-cultural change among the Northern Lakandón Maya. Between the field stays, reviewing new theoretical approaches and concepts challenged and illuminated emerging conceptualisations of analyzed data. New theoretical insights fostered the reflection of the research process and the gradual development of the research question(s) as well as the modification of applied research methods.

At the beginning of the research project, reviewing literature in the area of ethnography and Mesoamerican studies was particularly useful to define the phenomenon of socio-cultural change among the Northern Lakandón Maya. Mesoamerican studies embedded Lakandón Maya history in the broader historical and recent developments of the state Chiapas in Mexico and connected them with historical as well as recent developments of other countries like Guatemala and Belize. As a result, the “origin” of the Lakandón Maya as an ethnic group could be defined. Ethnographic research about the Lakandón Maya including Lakandón Maya language, politics, economy, and religion or cognition gave first insights into socio-cultural changes in everyday life. Most literature about the Lakandón Maya does not describe and discuss everyday life in households. Just a few single case studies exist about women’s roles and interactions of women with children. Therefore, past research rarely addressed the transmission of socio-cultural knowledge from generation to generation. Particularly, socio-cultural changes in the interaction of Lakandón Maya household members with the kitchen environment were not yet the subject of research (Boremanse, 1998; McGee, 2002; Palka, 2005; Tozzer, 1907).
Before the first field stay, phenomenology, anthropology of the senses, and anthropology of the body were highly significant. Concepts like “Leib” (Merleau-Ponty, 1968), embodiment (Csordas, 1991), tacit knowledge (Polanyi, 1985), and sensual perception or sensorium (Howes, 1991, 2006) proved to be useful for an exploration of the empirical field and the reflection of personal preconceptions (Charmaz, 2014; Breuer, 2010). These concepts enabled an understanding of emic concepts relating to everyday household tasks of Lakandón Maya women. Particularly central cooking and eating practices like tortilla preparation. First they helped to define preliminary emic concepts behind the descriptive vocabulary by contrasting it with verbal descriptions by informants about everyday household tasks, particularly “traditional” cooking and eating practices. Second the concepts allowed for conceptualising the researcher’s own experiences by inspiring ideas about appropriation and learning processes.

The analysis of the collected data during the first field stay revealed prominent changes in the staple food preparation and consumption as well as changes in the interactions of actors with the kitchen environment. Reviewed literature particularly included skilled practice (Ingold, 2011), skilled vision (Grasseni, 2004) and the theory of practice (Bourdieu, 2009). These concepts helped to develop and reflect emic conceptualization of sensory perception and their role in prominent cooking practices. Furthermore, they sharpened the view on alterations of the material environment of the Lakandón Maya kitchen. Further literature review in the area of the anthropology of food illuminated how food encompasses, transports, and reflects information about individual and collective processes and meanings. Concepts which help to analyse the socio-cultural change among the Northern Lakandón Maya are in particular eating habits (Anderson, 2005; Pilcher, 1998), food and memory (Sutton, 2010), food and identity (Christie, 2008; Pilcher, 1998), and taste preferences (Harbottle, 1997) and taste (Korsmeyer, 2005).

Before the third field stay, the analysis of the empirical data indicates a classification of the senses, a preliminary definition of the concept skilled touch (Panenka, 2014) as well as a first conceptualisation of the emic concept of the Lakandón Maya kitchen. The reviewed literature encompassed further conceptualisation in regard to the “kitchen” as a particular place of (sensual) interaction of actors with the environment. The
tentative concept of the Lakandón Maya “kitchen” could be further defined by contrasting it with the concepts kitchen space (Christie, 2008).

After the third fieldwork stay, the emic concepts are further analysed and illuminated by theories at the macro level in order to embed context specific concepts about interactions of actors with the environment. These theories include the practice theory (Bourdieu, 2009), the actor-network theory (Latour, 2007), and the concept of dwelling or inhabiting the world (Ingold, 2011).

Applying CGT, all theoretical approaches and concepts aim to permanently foster, reflect, and scrutinise emerging conceptualisations of empirical data.

4.3 Challenges during the Field Stays: Constructing of the Field

Constructing the field comprises an ongoing adaptation of the field, and the reflection of shifting field constituents and changing roles of the researcher in the field. As Veret Amit (2000) has pointed out, the constituents of the field had to be defined in reference of the particularities of each single field. The participation (or absence) of the field continually reconstructs the relationships of the researcher with their informants (Hammersly & Atkinson, 2017). The research project was mainly planned as a multi-temporal fieldwork in order to establish and strengthen relationships by returning to the field (Howell & Talle, 2012). Working with many researchers during the past thirty years, who did not return to the field, the Northern Lakandón Maya seem to be less interested in working with researchers. Knowing about these challenges from a previous field stay in 2004/5, the research project was planned with a multi-temporal fieldwork in one small village in order to return to the same group of informants. The conducted fieldwork includes three field stays of three months each in 2010, 2011, and 2012. During each field stay, the plan was to live with another extended household in order to get in-depth information about the interactions in different extended households, to participate in everyday family life for a longer period of time as well as systematically establish closer relationships to all family members.

During the first field stay in 2004/5, contact was established with the field via a museum of anthropology in San Christobál de las Casas, the largest city of Chiapas. The houses in the village of Nahá were small and
had only one or two rooms. Staying in the village meant getting a bed or room in a family’s house and participating in the family’s everyday life. Living together meant at least 2-3 meals together and evening activities such as watching TV. The only temporal and spatial separation was for interviews.

In 2010 it was no longer a matter of course to live with a family. Rather, several households extended their houses and offered tourists bedrooms for rent. In addition, a tourist centre with cabanas (modern, comfortable huts) was built on the edge of the village. Tourism had become a preferred source of income. Therefore, it was easier to find accommodation in the village, but at the same time more difficult to (re-) establish relationships as Lakandón Maya have started to not share their private lives with visitors anymore. Having been attributed with the role of a tourist, (re-) establishing relationships was both facilitated and constrained.

The field stay in 2011 turned out to be very positive due to the influence of the family members of the extended household. I was gradually integrated into everyday life of the family, enabling the application of thick participation and apprenticeship as research methods.

During the field stay in 2012 I was accepted as a family member in an extended household and participated in everyday live. The reestablished relationships facilitated some data collection methods like thick participation. Other methods like a query, ethnographic and narrative interviews and systematic observation were constrained due to the now close relationships.

Therefore, the constructing of the field is supported through continuously reflection on all field constituent including environmental influences on fieldwork as well as relationships and roles of all participants in the field.

4.4 Research methods

In this research project methods were not limited or chosen from the start. Instead each field stay included differing data collection methods based on the prevailing research question(s) for the field stay. The multitude of methods may be understood as a tool box for answering the research questions in the course of the iterative research process of CGT (Charmaz,
Further, CGT analysis package of memo writing, (theoretical) categorisation, constant comparison supports theoretical sampling.

The field stay in 2010 aimed to return to the field after a first stay for field research in 2004/5. It had an explorative character. The focus was on thick participation (Spittler, 2001) in a large household to which I had already established good contact. The method thick participation provided a deep engagement with the field and an active participation with all senses. It focuses on the sensory perception of the field and informal conversations with the family members. Further, data was collected for an ethnographic census in order to obtain socio-demographic data as well as information about everyday practices and their frequency of practice in all nuclear families.

Based on the analysis results between field stays, I adapted the choice of the methods for the field stay in 2011. The first field stay indicated that cooking and eating practices played a central role in everyday household life. Apprenticeship replaced thick participation as the research method (Stoller, 1997; Keller & Keller, 1996). Based on theoretical sampling, apprenticeship was applied to experience ‘traditional’ cooking practices. Because apprenticeship is a time-consuming method, it allowed only short-term visits to other families. These included informal conversations and short narrative interviews (Schlehe, 2008) about influential experiences in life such as births, loss of children, marriage rules, new professional activities, etc..

The preliminary analysis of pivotal ‘traditional’ cooking practices revealed interactions of women in a ‘traditional’ kitchen environment. According to the theoretical sampling of the CGT, the focus of the next field stay in 2012 was on ‘modern’ cooking practices and related interactions of women with different newer kitchen environments. Further, ethnographic interviews were conducted to verify existing concepts (classification of Lakandón Maya senses, skilled touch, Lakandón Maya kitchen). Narrative interviews on the mythological and/or symbolic meaning of food, especially the staple foods maize and beans, give a deeper understanding of the emic meaning of food as a component of Lakandón Maya cuisine. Further, taste preferences and available food in the field as well as the quantity of food were collected using a standardised questionnaire (Sökefeld 2008) and systematic observation (Beer, 2008). This data may reveal other
aspects of Lakandón Maya cuisine and changes of the kitchen environment. Therefore, the application of data collection methods in each field stay was based on emerging concepts from CGT data analysis.

5 Conclusion

Ethnographic as well as CGT projects do have very flexible research processes. Their designs reflect this flexibility. For both, Ethnography and CGT, the research question must be developed and the theoretical concepts may belong to different or even conflicting paradigms. Despite their similarities, ethnography as a research program is not the same as CGT. Ethnographies may be more descriptive because of the research question. Intertwining ethnography with CGT fosters in particular theory generation. In practice the ethnographic research process may result in multi-temporal fieldwork due to CGT’s iterative research cycle and theoretical sampling. Therefore, this kind of research design may be named multi-temporal ethnographic research design.

References


Developing a multi-temporal ethnographic research design

Petra Panenka M.A.

1. Research questions before the ethnographic fieldwork:
   1. How are cooking- and eating practices among the Northern Lacandón Maya in Chiapas (México) adopted and re-shaped through daily activities? 2. How are socio-cultural changes generated through daily practices and do these changes impact daily practices?

2. Central components or ‘tools’ for the construction of the ethnographic research design:

   Theories
   - practice theory
   - embodiment
   - sensuous perception
   - socio-cultural change
   - Mesoamerican Studies
   - Anthropology of food

   Methods
   - census
   - thick participation, apprenticeship
   - qualitative interview
   - quantitative interview
   - observation
   - constructivist grounded theory

   Constructing the field
   - researcher’s role
   - re-establishing relationships with informants
   - exploring certain practices
   - defining influencing elements

   Key aspects of the multi-temporal ethnographic research design

   Openness to new research questions and theoretical assumptions

   Flexible application of research methods and permanent development of the field

   Applied ‘tools’ for the ethnographic research design at the beginning of the research process
3. The development of the multi-temporal ethnographic research design

1. First field stay
- **research question:** What kind of daily cooking and eating practices do the Lakandón Maya use?
- **challenges:** researcher’s role as “good tourist”
- **applied methods:** socio-demographic survey; thick participation, constructivist grounded theory (CGT)
- **output:** ethnographic census, fieldnotes and diary
- **results:** first categories for theoretical sampling
- **conclusion:** Refining the research question + applying apprenticeship and thick participation as research methods

2. Second field stay
- **research question:** How does the practice of tortilla preparation shape daily household activities and how do the changes in tortilla preparation show and lead to socio-cultural changes in Lakandón Maya households?
- **challenges:** researchers role – becoming a family member
- **applied methods:** apprenticeship, thick participation, CGT
- **output:** fieldnotes and diary
- **results:** categories for theoretical sampling, first recipes, first definition of Lakandón Maya kitchen + skilled touch, sensorium
- **conclusion:** Refining the research question + applying ethnograph. interviews, apprenticeship/thick participation

3. Third field stay
- **research question:** How does modern tortilla preparation reshape the daily activities of female family members in extended households?
- **challenges:** affirmation of key categories
- **applied methods:** ethnographic + narrative interview, query, systematic observation, thick participation + apprenticeship, CGT
- **output:** fieldnotes + diary, text, protocol
- **results:** changes in recipes, affirmation of categories: Lakandón Maya kitchen, skilled touch
- **conclusion:** modifying the final research question for further analysis

4. After the field stays
- **research question:** How do the actors’ interactions with the human and material kitchen environment reveal socio-cultural changes among the Northern Lakandón Maya?
- **applied methods and outputs in the final research design:**
  - query = result: census with overview about cooking practices
  - thick participation = results: cultural competence + kitchentalk
  - apprenticeship = results: skilled touch
  - ethnographic interview = results: affirmation of categories
  - CGT = results: first model of the Lakandón Maya kitchen
Authors’ Notes

Bender, Stephanie
Universidad de Talca, Escuela de Pedagogías en Alemán, Campus Santiago – LBI, Chile
e-Mail: sbender@lbi.cl

Bravo Granström, Monica
University of Education, Weingarten, Germany
e-Mail: bravo@ph-weingarten.de

Domínguez Garrido, María C.
Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia (UNED-España)
e-Mail: cdominguez@edu.uned.es

Grassl, Reinhard
Certified Sales Manager, Head of Sales Department at Mangold International GmbH, 94424 Arnstorf, Germany
e-Mail: reinhard.grassl@mangold-international.com

Kiegelmann, Mechthild
e-Mail: mechthild.kiegelmann@ph-karlsruhe.de

Klepser, Roswitha
University of Education, Weingarten, Germany
e-Mail: klepser@ph-weingarten.de

Kramer, Jochen
Turkish Community in Baden-Wuerttemberg (Türkische Gemeinde in Baden-Württemberg, tgbw), Reinsburgstrasse 82, 70178 Stuttgart
Phone: 0711 888 999 13
e-Mail: jochen.kramer@tgbw.de

Medina Domínguez, María
Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia (UNED-España)
e-Mail: tatinamedina@yahoo.es

Medina Rivilla, Antonio
Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia (UNED-España)
e-Mail: amedina@edu.uned.es

Miyanyedi, Olcay
e-Mail: olcay.miyanyedi@tgbw.de
Müller, Franziska
University of Education Karlsruhe
e-Mail: franziska.mueller@stud.ph-karlsruhe.de

Panenka, Petra
e-Mail: petra.panenka@ph-karlsruhe.de

Reiber, Adina
University of Education, Weingarten, Germany
e-Mail: reiberadina@stud.ph-weingarten.de

Rosari, Sasmita
University of Education Karlsruhe, Germany
e-Mail: sasmita.rosari@stud.ph-karlsruhe.de

Schweizer, Karin
University of Education, Weingarten, Germany
e-Mail: schweizer@ph-weingarten.de

Tagaki, Masakuni
Masakuni Tagaki is a professor at Osaka Prefecture University, Graduate School of Humanities, and Sustainable System Sciences. His research interest is psycho-social issues of persons with acquired physical disabilities through qualitative inquiry of their lives. He is currently engaged in a research project based on a residents' consensus meeting on municipal disability policy in an urban area of Japan. I deeply appreciate The Toyooka officials and the member of the TMC and the TCSCL. This study was supported by Grant-Aid for Scientific Research, grant number 25780341 from Japan Society for the Promotion of Science. Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Masakuni Tagaki, Graduate School of Humanities and Sustainable System Sciences, Osaka Prefecture University, Gakuen-machi, 1-1, Naka-ward, Sakai, Osaka 599-8531, Japan.
e-Mail: Tagaki@sw.osakafu-u.ac.jp

Weitzel, Holger
University of Education, Weingarten, Germany
e-Mail: weitzel@ph-weingarten.de
Subject Index

action research, 5, 11, 107, 108, 113-115, 118, 134-139

case study, 85, 92, 134, 136
CGT, 163, 165-170, 172, 174-177
coding, 52, 69, 70, 146-149
community, 10, 59, 62-64, 73, 78, 97, 101, 107-112, 114, 127, 130, 133-138, 157, 164, 184
community support, 10, 59
constructivist grounded theory, 163
disability, 5, 8, 11, 107-111, 113-116, 118, 119, 121-139, 185
discrimination, 10, 59-61, 63, 73, 75-79, 109, 119, 155, 156
eating disorders, 5, 7, 9, 47-54, 56-58
elementary school, 67, 152, 156
ethnic identity, 61, 63, 82
ethnographic research design, 6, 11, 163-165, 169, 170, 177

focus groups, 10, 85, 93, 95, 105, 106
gender, 5, 7, 9, 10, 47-63, 66, 71, 72, 75, 78, 83
gender identity, 51, 52, 60-62, 66, 71, 75

INTERACT, 141, 146-149, 171
interactive research design, 11, 151, 163-168
interdisciplinarity, 157

key competences, 85

last year of Secondary Education, 87, 89, 91, 100, 101
LGBTQ+, 5, 10, 59-62, 64, 73-79
live observation, 141, 142

methodology, 36, 81, 91, 93, 96, 98, 99, 113, 120, 137, 138, 162, 163, 168
musculoskeletal system, 5, 13-20, 23, 24, 26, 27

narrative interviews, 32, 36-38, 43, 44, 47, 175, 176

observation, 5, 8, 11, 68, 141-146, 148, 149, 164, 168, 175, 176
qualitative content analysis, 13, 19, 158, 159
qualitative interview, 67

refugee children, 11, 151-153, 155, 156, 158, 160, 161
science education, 14, 27-29
student conceptions, 17, 27

thematic analysis, 59, 70, 80
traumatic experiences, 11, 151-156, 158, 160

video analysis, 142
VideoSyncPro, 145
vulnerability, 155