

CHAPTER 3

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY OF AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF DETERMINANTS FOR SCHOOL SUCCESS IN DISADVANTAGED ENVIRONMENTS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 dealt with a literature study of the determinants of school success in disadvantaged environments. The aim of the empirical investigation was to determine the relative influence of the identified determinants on school success in disadvantaged environments. Qualitative research methodology was used. Qualitative research methods rely upon the investigator's skill of observation and interpretation to provide valid information (Borg & Gall 1989:370).

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The qualitative research approach was chosen for the following reasons (Bogdan & Biklen 1992:59):

- Qualitative research uses the natural setting as the direct source of data and the researcher is the key instrument. Researchers enter and spend considerable time in school learning about educational concerns. Even when equipment is used, the data are collected on the premises and supplemented by the understanding that is gained by being on location. In this study, the researcher recorded material in its entirety. Qualitative researchers go to the particular setting under study because they are concerned with context. They feel that action can best be understood when it is observed in the setting in which it occurs.
- Qualitative research is descriptive. The data collected are in form of words or pictures rather than numbers. The written results of the research contain quotations from the data to illustrate and substantiate the presentation. The data include interview transcripts, field notes, photographs, videotapes, personal documents, memos, and other official records. In their search for understanding, qualitative researchers do not

reduce the pages upon pages of narration and other data to numerical symbols. They try to analyse the data with all of their richness as closely as possible to the form in which they were recorded or transcribed (Bogdan & Biklen 1992:66).

In collecting descriptive data, qualitative researchers approach the world in a nit-picking way. The qualitative research approach demands that nothing is trivial, that every thing has the potential of being a clue that might unlock a more comprehensive understanding of what is being studied.

- Qualitative researchers are concerned with the process rather than simply with the outcomes or products. How do people negotiate meaning? How do certain terms and labels come to be applied? How does a certain notion come to be taken as part of what we know as ‘common sense’? What is the natural history of the activity or events under study?

Qualitative research is an umbrella concept covering several forms of enquiry that help us understand and explain the meaning of social phenomena with as much description of the natural setting as possible. Other terms often used inter-changeably are naturalistic enquiry, interpretive research, field study, participant observation, inductive research, case study and ethnography (Merriam 1998:6).

- Qualitative researchers tend to analyse their data inductively. They do not search out data or evidence to prove or disapprove hypotheses they hold before entering the study, rather the abstractions are built in as the particulars that have been gathered are grouped together (Merriam 1998:6). Theory developed this way emerges from the bottom up (rather than from the top down) from many disparate pieces of collected evidence that are inter connected.
- ‘Meaning’ is of essential concern to the qualitative approach. Researchers who use this approach are interested in the ways different people make sense out of their lives. In other words, qualitative researchers are concerned with what are called participant perspectives. By learning the perspectives of the participants, qualitative research illuminates the inner dynamics of situations, dynamics that are often invisible to the

outsider. Some researchers who use videotapes to gather data show the completed tapes to the participants in order to check their own interpretations with those of the informants.

- Qualitative researchers in education can continually be found asking questions to stakeholders to discover “what they are experiencing, how they interpret their experiences and how they themselves structure the social world in which they live”. The process of doing qualitative research reflects a kind of dialogue or interplay between researchers and their subjects since researchers do not approach their subjects neutrally (Bogdan & Biklen 1992:29-33).

Four techniques of qualitative research data gathering were used, namely individual interviews, focus group interviews, document analysis and observation. The emphasis was on interviews, whilst document analysis and observation were only used for verification purposes.

3.2.1 Individual interviews

An interview is a purposeful conversation usually between two people but sometimes involving more. It is directed by one in order to get information from the other. In the hands of the qualitative researcher the interview takes on a shape of its own (Burgess 1985:101-121).

In qualitative research interviews may be used in two ways. They may be the dominant strategy for data collection or they may be employed in conjunction with participant observation, document analysis or other techniques.

The interview is used to gather descriptive data in the subjects’ own words so that the researchers can develop insights on how subjects interpret some piece of the world.

In studies that rely predominantly on interviewing the subject is usually a stranger. A good part of the work involves building a relationship, getting to know each other and putting the subject at ease.

According to Bogdan and Biklen (1992:129), most interviews begin with small talk. The purpose this chit-chat serves, is to develop accord. The researchers search for common ground, for a topic that he or she has in common, for a place to begin building a relationship. In situations where the subject knows the researcher, the researcher usually gets right down to business, but in situations where the researcher and the subject are strangers, the researcher may have to break the ice. Early in the interview the researcher tries briefly to inform the subject of his or her purpose and makes assurances (if they are necessary) that what is said in the interview will be treated confidentially.

Qualitative interviews vary in the degree to which they are structured. Some interviews, although relatively open-ended, are focused around particular topics or may be guided by some general questions. At the other end of the structured/unstructured continuum is the open-ended interview. The researcher in this case encourages the subject to talk about the area of interest and then probes more deeply, picking up on the topics and issues the respondent initiates. The subject plays a stronger role in defining the content of the interview and the direction of the study in this type of interview. With semi-structured interviews the researcher is confident of getting comparable data across subjects. Different types of interviews can be employed at different stages of the same study. At the beginning of the project, for example, it might be important to use the more free-flowing, exploratory interview because the researcher's purpose at that point is to get a general understanding of a range of perspectives on a topic. After the investigatory work has been done, the researcher may want to structure interviews more in order to get comparable data across a larger sample or to focus on particular topics that emerged during the preliminary interviews.

Good interviews are those in which the subjects are at ease and talk freely about their points of view. Good interviews produce rich data filled with words that reveal informant's perspectives. A good interviewer communicates personal interest and attention to the subject by being attentive, nodding his or her head and using appropriate facial expressions to communicate. The interviewer may ask for clarification when the respondent mentions something that seems unfamiliar, using phrases such as "what do you mean?" The interviewer also probes the respondent to be specific, asking for examples of points that are made. Possible questions that can be answered by 'yes' or 'no' must be avoided (Merriam 1998:79).

Not all people are equally articulate or perceptive, but it is important for the qualitative researchers not to give up on an interviewee too early. Some respondents need a chance to warm up. Information in the qualitative interview is cumulative, each interview building on and connecting to the other. It is what the researcher learns from the total study that counts. While the researchers might learn more from some interviews than from others, and while he or she cannot get the same intensity from everyone with whom he or she speaks, even a bad interview contributes something. Most important is the need to listen carefully to what the people say. Treat every word as having the potential of unlocking the mystery of the subject's way of viewing the world. Interviewing requires flexibility. The researcher should try different techniques, including jokes or sometimes gentle challenges.

The interviewer has to be careful not to exploit trust. One way researchers can counter-balance mistrust is to emphasise the importance of self-disclosure when interviewing. Photographs and memorabilia can serve as stimuli for conversation. It is important to create an atmosphere where participants can feel comfortable expressing themselves.

Group interviews can be useful in bringing the researcher into the world of the subjects (Krueger 1994:19). In this situation a number of people are brought together and encouraged to talk about the subject of interest.

Using a tape recorder during interviews raises some special considerations for fieldwork relations. Some subjects simply will not care if the interview is recorded. Others will ask what one intends to do with the tapes. They want assurances that private information they share with one will not be revealed to others at their expense. For short interviews that are part of a participant observation study, researcher have to take fieldnotes after the session. In long interviews the researcher may jot down notes to supplement his or her memory. The tape recorder should be thought of as a third party that cannot see. Good interviewers need to display patience. Interviewers have to be detectives, filling in bits and pieces of the conversation, personal histories, and experiences together in order to develop an understanding of the subject perspective.

3.2.2 Focus group interviews

A characteristic that distinguishes focus group interviews from other qualitative interview procedures is the group discussion. The major assumption of focus group interviews is that a permissive atmosphere fosters a range of opinions and this will ensure that a more complete and revealing understanding of the issue will be obtained.

Krueger (1994:1) describes focus group interviews as “organised group discussions which are focussed around a single theme”. The goals of focus group interviews are to create candid, normal conversations that address, in depth, the selected topic. The focus group is a special type of group in terms of purpose, size, composition and procedures. A focus group interview is typically composed of 6 to 12 participants who are selected because they have certain characteristics in common that relate to the topic of the focus group.

A focus group interview is a carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perception on a defined area of interest in a permissive nonthreatening environment. A skilled interviewer conducts it. The discussion is comfortable and often enjoyable for participants as they share their ideas and perceptions. Group members influence each other by responding to ideas and comments in the discussion.

Non directive interviews use open-ended questions and allow individuals to respond without setting boundaries or providing clues for potential response categories. The open-ended approaches allow the subject ample opportunity to comment, to explain, and to share experiences and attitudes as opposed to the structured and directive interview that is led by the interviewer (Krueger 1994:6). The focus group interview presents a more natural environment than that of an individual interview because participants are influencing and influenced by others just as they are in real life. The researcher serves several functions in the focus group interview: moderating, listening, observing, and eventually analysing, using an inductive process.

Although other research methods (e.g. individual interviews, observation) can bring the researcher in direct, intensive contact with individuals, the interactive group format of focus group interviews offers distinctive advantages for the collection of rich, in depth data. First, focus group interviews encourage interaction not only between the moderator and the participant but also between the participants themselves. Second, the group format offers support for individual participants and encourages greater openness in their responses. Third, focus group interviews allow and even encourage individuals to form opinions about the designated topic through interaction with others (Krueger 1994:48).

A major advantage of focus group interviews is their “loosening effects”. In a relaxed group setting where participants sense that their opinions and experiences are valued, participants are more likely to express their opinions and perceptions openly. Thus, the focus group format facilitates more candid and reflective responses by the participants (Vaughn, Schumm & Senagub 1996:18).

The rationale for focus group interviews is that the group environment allows greater anonymity and therefore helps individuals to disclose more freely. The reason why many researchers in education are electing to use focus group interviews is that they are less cumbersome than other research methods. The focus group is particularly useful when there is a lack of reliable and valid measures for obtaining information on the selected topics.

Asking quality questions in focus groups is not easy. It requires forethought, concentration and some background knowledge. Consider the following characteristics of good questions for focus group interviews (Krueger 1994:56-63).

- Focus group interviews use open-ended questions. The questions are the ‘stimulus’ for the respondent. This stimulus can be of two varieties - structured or unstructured. If the stimulus is unstructured, as in an open-ended question, it allows the respondent the opportunity to structure an answer in several dimensions.

The major advantage of the open-ended question is that it reveals what is on the interviewee’s mind as opposed to what the interviewer suspects is on the interviewee’s

mind. Toward the end of the group interview it may be productive to limit the type of responses and bring greater focus to the answers by shifting to close-ended (structured) questions.

- Focus group interviews avoid dichotomous questions. Dichotomous questions are those that can be answered with a simple ‘yes’ or ‘no’ response. In focus group interviews, the yes-no questions usually do not evolve the desired group discussion. They also tend to elicit ambiguous responses, which can in turn restrict the clarity of the discussion.
- ‘Why’ is rarely asked in a focus group. A ‘Why’ question has sharpness or pointedness to it that reminds one of interrogation. If the researcher decides to use a ‘why’ question it, should be stated in an inviting way.
- It is advisable to use uncued questions first, and cued questions later. In some questions the researchers is seeking new ideas, approaches, or examples from the participants. If examples are provided by the researcher it can limit or restrict the thinking of the participants. A better approach is to begin by asking the questions without providing a cue - the uncued questions. Typically, the responses will be based on most recent or most vivid experiences or impressions. The rule of the thumb is to ask the question in an uncued manner first and then follow up with cues to prompt additional discussion.
- Focus group questions are carefully prepared. Focus group questions require effort and systematic development. The best questions rarely come like a bolt of lightning out of the sky. Quality questions require reflection and feedback from others. The first step is to identify potential questions. The researcher begins by thinking about the problem or area of concern and listing all questions that are of interest to the users. Brainstorming sessions with information users or colleagues can be helpful in obtaining a range of possible questions and variations in phrasing.
- Quality focus group questions must be clear. Clarity does not mean short sentences and single syllabus words. Clarity has several attributes, including length, unidimensionality and wording. The length of the question is of some concern because

lengthy questions tend to be redundant or add a complicity factor that can be confusing to respondents.

Clarity can be reduced as the length of the question increases. The words must be understandable to the participants. Focus group interviewing is more than asking questions in a group. It involves asking well-thought-out questions in a focused environment.

- Focus group interviewing begins with consistent and sufficient background information. The researcher should provide consistent background information to each participant about the purpose of the study in order to minimise tacit assumptions. In all interview situations respondents make assumptions about the nature of the questions and then answer accordingly. The tacit assumptions are vexing because the respondent may be providing an answer based on faulty assumptions. Focus group participants usually want to know the purpose of the session.
- Focus questions are presented in a context. It is vital to establish the context of the questions so that participants are mentally ready to respond. This is accomplished through introductory comments by the interviewer and also through the first few questions in the group interview. Often verbal cues are helpful to guide the interviewee back to the original situation, event, or experience.
- Focus group questions are logical. Arrange questions in a focussed sequence that seems logical to participants. The most common procedure is to go from the general to the specific, that is, beginning with general overview questions that funnel into more specific questions of critical interests. Avoid hitting the participants with a specific question without first establishing the context created by more general questions.
- Allowance should be made for serendipitous questions. Occasionally in the flow of a focus group interview the researcher will discover a question that might be useful to the study. The question may never have occurred to the researcher prior to the discussion, but comments or perceptions of participants cue the idea. Much of the success of the focus group depends on the quality question.

3.2.3 Observation

Participant observation is a useful method if the focus of the study is on a particular school or some aspects of the school. Typical foci are the following (Bogdan & Biklen 1992:63):

- (1) A particular place in the school (a classroom, the teacher's room, cafeteria)
- (2) A specific group of people
- (3) Some activity of the school (e.g. curriculum planning).

Often studies use a combination of these listed aspects for their focus. The researcher will choose a school and then focus on some aspects of it. Picking on focus, be it a place in the school, a particular group, or some other aspect, is always an artificial act, for the researcher breaks off a piece of the world that is normally integrated. However, the qualitative researcher tries to take into account the relationship of this piece to the whole.

The researcher has to examine the organisation to see what places, groups or programs offer feasible concentrations. After visiting a school a few times the researcher should be able to determine the choices. A good physical setting to study is one that the same people use in a recurring way. In public schools the researcher can count on classrooms, an office, and usually a teacher's lounge. Physical units are not the only foci for study.

In choosing a setting or a group as the focus of observational case study, one should keep in mind that the smaller the number of subjects the more likely it is that they will change their behaviour by the researcher's presence. A larger number of subjects, on the other hand, usually makes it easier to be unobtrusive. The researcher should try to pick a setting or a group that is large enough so that the researcher does not stand out, but small enough so that one is not overwhelmed by the task (Bogdan & Biklen 1992:64).

Observation guides generally are flexible enough for the observer to note and collect data on unexpected dimensions of the topic. Observers can play more than one role. At one extreme is the complete observer. Here the researcher does not participate in activities. He or she looks at the scene, literally or figuratively through a one way mirror. At the other end is complete involvement at the site, with little discernible difference between the observer's and the

subject's behaviours. During the first few days of participant observation, for example, the researcher often remains somewhat detached, waiting to be looked over and hopefully accepted. As relationships develop, he or she participates more. At later stages of the research, it may be important once again to hold back from participating. Over-participation can lead to *going native*, a phrase used in anthropology to refer to researchers getting so involved and active with subjects that their original intentions get lost. Many observers of classrooms have situational constraints leading them to partake little in classroom activities. They choose to sit and take it all in. Those who do join activities face the dilemma of choosing how to participate (Bogdan & Biklen 1992:64).

Becoming a researcher means internalising the research goal while collecting data in the field. As one conducts research one participates with the subjects in various ways. One jokes with them and behaves sociably in many ways. One may even help them perform their duties. The researcher does these things, but always for the purpose of promoting research goals. The researcher's primary purpose is being there to collect data (Bogdan & Biklen 1992:64).

It is important, however, not to display too much of one's knowledge while talking with subjects, since they may feel uncomfortable being in the presence of a 'know-it-all'. Observations are distinguishable from interviews in two ways. First, observations take place in the natural field setting instead of a location designated for the purpose of interviewing. Secondly, observational data represent a firsthand encounter with the phenomenon of interest rather than a secondhand account of the world obtained in an interview. Informal interviews and conversations are often interwoven with observation (Bogdan & Biklen 1992:64).

Observation is a research tool when it:

- serves as formulated research purpose
- is planned deliberately
- is recorded systematically, and
- is subjected to checks and control regarding validity and reliability (Kidder et al 1981:264)

Just as a researcher can learn from a skilled interviewer, he or she can also learn to be a careful, systematic observer. The researcher can practise observing in any number of ways by being a complete observer in a public place, by being a participant's observer in his or her work or social settings.

An investigator might want to gather data through observation for many reasons. As an outsider an observer will notice things that have become routine to the participants themselves, things that may lead to understanding the context. Observations are also conducted from triangulation of emerging findings. That is, they are used in conjunction with interviewing and document analysis to substantiate the findings. The participant observer accesses things firsthand and uses his or her own knowledge and expertise in interpreting what is observed, rather than relying upon more removed accounts from interviews. Observation makes it possible to record behaviour as it is happening. Observation is the best technique to use when an activity, event, or situation can be observed firsthand and when participants are not able or willing to discuss the topic under study (Bogdan & Biklen 1992:65).

Researchers often begin a series of investigations by impressionistic, informal observation. The researcher can decide ahead of time to concentrate on observing certain events, behaviour or persons. Where to begin looking, depends on the research question, but where to focus or stop action cannot be determined ahead of time. Nevertheless, no one can observe everything, and the researcher must start somewhere.

The following is a checklist of elements likely to be present in any setting (Merriam 1998:97):

- (1) The physical setting: What is the physical environment like? What is the context? What kinds of behaviour is the setting designed for? How is space allocated? What objects, resources, technologies are in the setting? The principal's office, the school bus, the cafeteria, and the classroom vary in physical attributes as well as in anticipated behaviour.
- (2) The participants: Describe who is in the scene, how many people, and their roles. What brings these people together? What are the relevant characteristics of the participants?

- (3) Activities and interactions: What is going on? Is there a definable sequence of activities? How do the people interact with the activity and with one another?
- (4) Conversation: What is the content of conversation in this setting? Who speaks to whom? Who listens? If possible, a tape recorder can be used to back up notetaking.

The relationship between the observer and the observed can be categorised as follows (Merriam 1998:100):

- (1) Complete participant: The researcher is a member of the group being studied and conceals his or her observer roles from the group not to disrupt the natural activity of the group.
- (2) Participant as observer: The researcher's observer activities, which are known to the group, are subordinate to the researcher role as a participant. The trade-off here is between the depth of the information revealed to the researcher and the level of confidentiality promised to the group in order to obtain this information.
- (3) Observer as participant: The group knows the researcher's observer activities. Participation in the group is secondary to the role of information gatherer. The researcher may have access to many people and a wide range of information.
- (4) Complete observer: The researcher is either hidden from the group (for example, behind a one-way mirror) or in a completely public setting such as an airport or library.

What is written down or mechanically recorded from a period of observation becomes the raw data from which a study findings eventually emerge. It is much more likely that a researcher will jot down notes during an observation and wait until afterward to record in detail what has been observed. A participant observer has to rely on memory to recount the session. Even if the researcher has been able to take notes during an observation, it is imperative that full notes be written, typed, or dictated as soon after the observation as possible. Field notes based on observation need to be in a format that will allow the researcher to find desired information easily (Merriam 1998:105)

3.2.4 Document analysis

Interviewing and observing are two data collection strategies designed to gather data that specifically address the research question. Documents however are usually produced for reasons other than the research at hand and therefore are not subject to the same limitations (Merriam 1998:112). The presence of documents does not intrude upon or alter setting in ways that the presence of the investigator often does. Documents are in fact a ready-made source of data easily accessible to the imaginative and resourceful investigator.

(i) Nature of documents

The term document as the umbrella term has been chosen to refer to a wide range of written visual and physical material relevant to the study at hand. This term includes materials in the broad sense of any communication, for example novels, newspaper, love songs, diaries, psychiatric interviews and the like (Holsti 1969:1).

(ii) Types of documents

Public records, personal documents, and physical material are three major types of documents available to the researcher for analysis.

(iii) Public records

“The first and most important injunction to anyone looking for official records is to presume that if an event happened, some records of it exists” (Guba & Lincoln 1981:253). Public documents include actuarial records of births, deaths, and marriages, census, police records, court transcripts, agency records, association manuals, program documents mass media, government documents, and so on. Only the researcher’s imagination and industriousness limit locating public records. For those interested in educational questions, there are numerous sources of public documents, inter alia discussions of educational issues and bills.

Other sources of public information that are easily accessible but often overlooked include previous studies and data ‘banks’ of information. However, in using these resources the

researcher has to rely on someone else's description and interpretation of data rather than the use of raw data as basis for analysis.

(iv) Personal documents

In contrast to public sources of data, personal documents “refer to any first-person narrative that describes an individual's actions, experiences and beliefs” (Bogdan & Biklen 1992:132).

Such documents include diaries, letters, home videos, sermons, children's growth records, scrapbooks and photo albums, calendars, autobiographies, and travel logs. The rationale for the use of personal documents is similar to that for the use of observational techniques. Personal documents are a reliable source of data concerning a person's attitudes, beliefs, and view of the world. Because they are personal documents, the material is highly subjective in that the writer is the only one to select what he or she considers important to record. Furthermore, it provides an account that is based on the author's experience (Burgess 1985:132).

(v) Physical materials

Physical material as a form of document broadly defined, consists of physical objects found within the study setting. These objects are referred as artifacts, which include the tools, implements, utensils and instruments of everyday living.

(vi) Researcher-generated documents

Most commonly when documents are included in a study, what is being referred to are public records, personal documents, and physical material already present in the research setting. Because they have not been produced for the research purpose, they often contain much that is irrelevant to the study. By the same token they can contain clues, even startling insights, into the phenomenon under study. Most researchers find them well worth the effort to locate and examine. Researcher-generated documents are documents prepared by the researcher or for the researcher by participants after the study has begun. The specific purpose for

generating documents is to learn more about the situation, person or event being investigated. The researcher might request that someone keep a diary or log of activities during the course of the investigation.

A researcher's photographs are another example of this type of document. Such photographs, often taken in conjunction with participant observation, provide a "means of remembering detail that might be overlooked if a photographic image were not available for reflection" (Bogdan & Biklen 1992:143).

(vii) Using documents in qualitative research

Using documentary material as data is not much different from using interviews or observation. Since the investigator is the primary instrument for gathering data, he or she relies on skills and intuition to find and interpret data from documents. A qualitative study of classroom instruction would lead to documents in the form of instructor's lesson plans, learners assignments, objects in the classroom, official grade reports and school records, teacher evaluation and so on. Besides the setting itself, the logical places to look are libraries, historical societies, archives, and institutional files. The researcher must keep an open mind when it comes to discovering useful documents. Once documents have been located, their authenticity must be assessed. It is the investigator's responsibility to determine as much as possible about the document, its origins and reasons for being written, its author, and the context in which it was written. After assessing the authenticity and nature of documents or artifacts, the researcher must adopt some system for coding and cataloguing them. If at all possible, written documents should be copied and artifacts photographed (Merriam 1998:123).

3.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study focused on four successful secondary schools in disadvantaged environments, two rural and two urban schools. The choosing of four schools was deemed necessary and sufficient because they were from different disadvantaged environments. It was conducted in Gauteng Province only because of practical reasons (see section 1.7).

In two schools the principal was involved in an individual interview. In the other two schools an interview was conducted with the principal and the deputy principal (on request of the principal). The focus group interview involved deputy principals, HOD's and SGB members. The reason for this was to get views from top management, middle management and parents as they were stakeholders of the schools.

As a means of triangulation, observation was done in each school using photographs, as well as a holistic analysis of school policy documents.

The individual interviews, focus group interviews, observation and policy documents analysis was done by using the taxonomy themes *management*, *motivation*, *sharing* and *assessment* (see section 2.2). The data was analysed by identifying themes and categories and interpreting these with reference to the researcher's literature findings and triangulation of his empirical data.

3.4 CONCLUSION

Qualitative research methods are designed to give real and stimulating meaning to the phenomenon by involving the researcher directly or indirectly in the process. The research is usually conducted in a natural setting and premised upon the uniqueness of the individual and his or her environment. A high level of communication and analytical skills are needed to accurately report the full essence of the experience, reflecting holistic and detailed views of the participants. Qualitative research may be classified as deliberative, integrative and historical. Other research designs involve the analysis of the complex data collected by observations, interviews, or actual participation by the researcher.

The analysis of qualitative data range from organising a narrative description of the phenomenon, to constructing categories or themes that cut across the data, to building theory. Each of the levels of analysis calls upon the investigator's intuitive as well as analytical powers. The empirical data will be presented, analysed and interpreted in the next chapter.

