CHAPTER 2

Qualitative Research

Heather R. Hall

OBJECTIVES

- Identify the process of qualitative research.
- Recognize the approaches used to collect data in qualitative research.
- Identify study methods (e.g., phenomenology, ethnography, historical research, grounded theory, and case study) when evaluating qualitative research.
- Describe trustworthiness in qualitative research.

The Process of Qualitative Research

The primary focus of this chapter is to explain the qualitative research process and its importance in the world of evidence-based practice (EBP). Entire books have been written to discuss qualitative research design. Therefore, it is beyond the scope of this chapter to examine qualitative research in depth. In this chapter, you will find details on, examples of, and references to additional materials to guide you through your study and the use of qualitative research.

Qualitative research brings together scientific and authentic life components to improve the understanding of a phenomenon (Barroso, 2010). A *phenomenon* is identified as the fundamental concept that the researcher is investigating. A phenomenon is the awareness that subjects are experiencing in the study and also involves emotional concepts such as pain, unhappiness, rage, irritation, and love (Creswell, 2007). Researchers from various disciplines may investigate the phenomenon from different viewpoints (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Strauss & Corbin, 1994).

Qualitative research has its philosophical foundation in realism, which makes it distinct from quantitative research (Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Munhall, 2007). Qualitative researchers question many of the practices concerning science and how knowledge is acquired. In qualitative research, an investigation procedure is applied to the examination used to investigate a social or human dilemma. The investigative procedure includes developing a complicated, holistic representation, evaluating

© Gremlin/ Getty Images

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

information, describing opinions of participants, and performing the study in a natural location (Creswell, 2007). Researchers apply an *emergent design* that consists of establishing an investigation on truths and perspectives expressed by participants. Neither the truths nor the perspectives were common knowledge of the researchers when they began their study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Qualitative research varies by category, rationale, and value (Patton, 2002). Findings for qualitative research are discovered by using different data gathering processes: (1) open-ended interviews, (2) observations, and (3) written documents (Patton, 2002). Interviews generate quotations from individuals about their experiences, views, thoughts, and understandings. Information derived from observations includes comprehensive accounts of people's leisure interests, conduct, actions, and all the interpersonal and group dealings that constitute the structure of recognizable human practices and happenings. Evaluation of written documents consists of analyzing selected passages, quotes, or complete sections from executive, medical, or program registers; memos and letters; executive pamphlets and statements; personal journals; and open-ended replies to surveys and assessments (Patton, 2002).

A researcher's ability to communicate easily and effectively with participants determines the successfulness of qualitative research findings (Knox & Burkard, 2009). Researchers have the responsibility of developing trust with participants, showing value for participants' views, and remaining aware of the cooperation between the researcher and participants. Therefore, the researcher must have the capability to develop a relationship, be an active listener, and place emphasis on another individual's world of experience (Polkinghorne, 2005).

Qualitative research is an investigation process that examines the entire phenomenon, along with the views of the individuals involved rather than examining the association of cause and effect amid identified variables, as in quantitative research (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006). Both qualitative and quantitative research methods are crucial to increasing and improving understanding of identified phenomena (Craig & Smyth, 2007; Munhall, 2007). Researchers may decide to combine qualitative research and quantitative research in one study to develop a mixed methods research approach (Bryman, 2007). Regardless of the method chosen, for research findings to be valuable, concepts must be transferable from the research study to other circumstances, conditions, settings, or phenomena (Sandelowski, 2000).

Importance to Evidence-Based Practice

Administration of EBP necessitates the use of clinical treatments that are established on understandable, user-friendly current research (Porter-O'Grady, 2006). Until recent times, qualitative research was not believed to offer value to EBP and therefore caused problems for qualitative researchers.

If research findings from qualitative studies had no effect on EBP, organizations providing funds would be reluctant to support these studies and educational curricula or to place significance on qualitative research. Researchers who choose to conduct qualitative research should include ways to integrate findings into EBP (Grove, Burns, & Gray, 2013; Sandelowski & Barroso, 2007).

Popay and Williams (1998) explained how findings of qualitative research provide insight into finding helpful EBP methods. They proposed that findings from qualitative research offer rationalization as to why a method is successful, clarify

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

unanticipated outcomes, and create assumptions and theory. Qualitative research offers explanations for why people conduct their lives in a particular manner. Data emphasize consequences from various situations and surroundings in which the participants work or even receive health care (Popay & Williams, 1998).

Investigative Procedures

Researchers do not identify qualitative investigative design choices before beginning the study (Polit & Beck, 2021). Researchers must plan for diverse situations and conditions; when researchers understand the facts involved with schedules, locations, and communication, they can make informed decisions about the investigative design (Polit & Beck, 2021). An additional, distinct contrast in qualitative research is that differences may occur in the actual research settings and time frame choices. Polit and Beck asserted that giving researchers the flexibility of collecting data from various research settings allows data to be gathered in unpretentious, genuine settings (e.g., home environment) that may help relax participants. Researchers have the choice of two different time frames when using qualitative research design: cross-sectional or longitudinal (Polit & Beck, 2021). Data are gathered from one place in *cross-sectional* design, whereas a qualitative *longitudinal* time frame (Auerswald et al., 2004) allows for data gathering over a longer period (Polit & Beck, 2021).

Sampling

Qualitative research designs are often criticized for the small number of participants or for their subjectivity. Disapproval of qualitative research is often based on misunderstandings of qualitative research aims and the methods used to generate distinctive, beneficial data for EBP by clinical professionals (Brown, 2012). Determining sample size in qualitative research does not follow one rule (Patton, 2002). Sample size depends on what the researcher desires to learn, the purpose of the study, useful data choices, trustworthiness of data, money available, and scheduled time constraints (Krueger & Casey, 2000; Patton, 2002).

Decisions concerning sampling are critical because a researcher cannot thoroughly study every applicable situation, incident, or person (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). There is no one rule related to sample size when using qualitative research design. A case study may include data from only one participant, especially when studying unfamiliar traditions, ethnicities, or customs (Patton, 2002). Safman and Sobal (2004) maintained that one to four participants are typically involved in health research, that focus group research averages 10 groups, and that observational research typically covers a time frame of 16 to 24 months.

Sample size for qualitative research is a point of discussion and disagreement for researchers. Grove et al. (2013) offered additional information about sample size for qualitative research. The researcher must determine the number of participants by first establishing the quantity of data required for achieving an understanding of the subject or phenomenon. Patton (2002) emphasized that the strength of qualitative research depends on the capability of the researcher to gather, analyze, and disseminate data in a well-founded and trustworthy manner, instead of placing the emphasis on the number of study participants. Sample size depends on reaching redundancy, *data saturation,* in data collection (Boeije, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

Four significant criteria are important in determining sample size that results in data saturation: (a) scope of research project, (b) type of subject to be studied, (c) usefulness of data gathered, and (d) research design (Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Munhall, 2007; Patton, 2002).

Multiple approaches used to select samples for qualitative research include convenience sampling, snowball sampling, purposive sampling, and theoretical sampling (Polit & Beck, 2021). *Convenience sampling* refers to individuals volunteering their time to participate in the study. *Snowball sampling* involves participants referring other individuals to enroll in the study. *Purposive sampling* involves the researcher's intentional choice of individuals or groups of people who will help the study (Polit & Beck, 2021). *Theoretical sampling* is essential to the grounded theory approach in qualitative research (Patton, 2002). This strategy does not include selecting groups prior to conducting the research; however, groups are chosen as needed based on theoretical significance for the purpose of allowing categories to emerge from the data (Polit & Beck, 2021). The sample selection is based on the probability of representing a theoretical construct (Patton, 2002). Tappen (2011) concluded that qualitative research participants consist of a biased sample but also stated that the bias is both purposeful and helpful to the research study. Morse (2006) differentiated between what Tappen (2011) called purposeful bias and a bias that could occur inadvertently. Bias that can occur accidentally consists of (a) placing too much confidence in a small number of participants, (b) concentrating on impressive incidents instead of the daily lives of participants, and (c) presenting too much of the researcher's involvement in researched actions (Morse, 2006). Documentation of actions and recordings should indicate the researcher's involvement in the actions studied if the researcher is required to take part in any activities (Tappen, 2011).

Collection of Data in Qualitative Research

The researcher's ability to collect important data influences the data's value in qualitative research. Arranging data in an organized manner initiates the data analysis procedure (Creswell, 2007). Grove et al. (2013) suggested conducting a pilot study to determine the best data collection method. The researcher executes four primary tasks during the data collection process: (a) choose participants, (b) collect data, (c) preserve research management as presented in research design, and (d) resolve predicaments that jeopardize research findings (Grove et al., 2013). Regardless of the data collection method used, the researcher's ability to communicate with participants is paramount in determining qualitative research validity and trustworthiness (Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

Regardless of training or schooling, some people should not attempt to conduct qualitative research. Marshall and Rossman (2006) asserted that without the ability to connect, communicate, and share with participants, the researcher will not be successful in completing a qualitative design study that yields accurate findings. Therefore, if talking with people does not rate at the top of the researcher's effective qualities, the researcher should not use a qualitative research design.

When the researcher makes the choice to use a qualitative research design, the data collection process begins. Neither the interview process nor the observational

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

process should be attempted until the researcher has studied each procedure carefully and prepared to implement the method properly. Each participant provides data to the research through an *interview*, a process in which the participant furnishes the researcher with details, figures, and other essential data (Bernard, 2006). Interviews are most often performed between researcher and participants, either face to face, by telephone (Bernard, 2006), or by computer (Mann & Stewart, 2002). The interview process is not to be taken lightly. The researcher should prepare carefully for the interview and study interview methods before creating the interview plan (Briggs, 1986; Converse & Presser, 1986; Dillon, 1990; Fowler, 1990; McLaughlin, 1990).

Observation is one data collecting process used in qualitative research (Patton, 2002). The observation method demands preparation and instruction before the researcher begins to use the process. Instruction for becoming a competent observer consists of (a) being attentive to what is being said and what is being seen, (b) writing skills that include specific narratives, (c) learning to write detailed field notes, (d) attaining the ability to distinguish important information from irrelevant information, (e) employing meticulous techniques to authenticate and corroborate observations, and (f) conveying the researcher's views while expressing self-understanding of strengths and weaknesses of such views (Patton, 2002).

Tappen (2011) maintained that the researcher needs to learn and use organizational methods while collecting data that will serve to not only control the order of data collected but also assist in the data analysis process. Some suggestions given by Tappen for organization of data include (a) making notations on records that include date, time, location, and informant; (b) the researcher's views concerning informants' actions; (c) the researcher's opinions concerning the interview or observation; (d) direct quotes from informants; and (e) the researcher's understanding and analysis of initial interpretations. The researcher is cautioned to record interviews by using exact language used by the informant. Use precise quotes; do not make grammatical corrections. Make notes about phrases that are accentuated or an informant's reluctance to speak (Tappen, 2011).

Some researchers prefer to use computer software created for use with qualitative research. Gibbs (2007) advised that not all researchers are comfortable using the software programs. According to Gibbs, some researchers reported that using the software caused them to feel less connected to the recorded information and to the study participants. Researchers must realize that software programs aid only in evaluating data; software will not reason, ponder, imagine, or assume (Gibbs, 2007).

Focus group interviews are commonly used to study issues related to human health. A focus group interview consists of a group of at least five people gathered to discuss a specific phenomenon. The session includes a moderator, who leads the discussion using questions related to specific topics. These planned sessions use the dynamics of the group to access the rich material with limited costs. The questioning route (also known as the interview guide) used by the researcher is significant to a focus group being effective (Stewart, Shamdasani, & Rook, 2007). Neely-Barnes, Graff, Roberts, Hall, and Hankins (2010) conducted a descriptive, qualitative study using eight focus groups with 45 parents of children diagnosed with autism, cerebral palsy (CP), Down syndrome, and sickle cell disease. Two focus group interviews were conducted for each diagnosis. This study explored the perceptions of parents related to their communication with

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

siblings of children diagnosed with the four disorders, which have an identified or suspected genetic basis (Neely-Barnes et al., 2010).

Qualitative research can be conducted as a pilot study. Hall and Graff (2010) conducted a pilot study using focus group interviews with parents of children with autism. This study provided parents with the opportunity to describe their parenting concerns related to autism and identified techniques that parents can use to assist with parental challenges.

Data Analysis and Interpretation of Findings

Coding

Coding in qualitative research occurs in three phases, which are labeled descriptive, interpretive, and explanatory (Grove et al., 2013). *Descriptive codes* explain how the researcher intends to control and deal with all recorded data. Descriptive coding is the easiest process of organization and categorization, and researchers often choose this coding method in the early phases of analyzing data. When using descriptive coding, the researcher aims to keep the language similar to the original terminology used by study informants in the interview phase (Grove et al., 2013).

As the data collection process progresses and the researcher acquires more understanding into the procedure, he or she advances past cataloging recorded accounts. The researcher begins to use *interpretive coding* to connect significance and consequence to informants' explanations (Grove et al., 2013).

Explanatory coding is the type of code developed late in the process of collecting data. This late stage of coding occurs when the researcher begins to sort out significances that are natural to the phenomena studied. Explanatory codes allow the researcher to make associations between data and the theory that is materializing (Grove et al., 2013).

Analysis of Focus Groups Data

Analysis of data gathered from focus groups is complicated because the researcher is required to perform analysis and make associations of individual participants' responses and the entire focus group's responses (Morgan, 1995). It is paramount to the trustworthiness of the study that the researcher conscientiously focus on not only the topics discussed by focus groups but also the agreement or disagreement on the topics among focus group participants. Likewise, opinions that differ from those of the majority of the focus group should not be ignored, but analyzed. In addition, participants often give communications nonverbally; these actions are important and should be included in the analysis (Morgan, 1995).

When the researcher reaches the analysis stage of the process, he or she begins to find answers to the research question or questions that caused the original interest (Grove et al., 2013). Experience should not be underestimated. If possible, the researcher should find someone familiar with the method of qualitative research being conducted. A researcher has the greatest opportunity to learn, investigate, and analyze the qualitative research method of choice by teaming with an experienced researcher (Morse, 1997; Sandelowski, 1997).

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

Methods of Qualitative Research

This chapter focuses on five commonly used qualitative research methods: phenomenology, ethnography, historical research, grounded theory, and case study (see **Table 2-1**). The reader will discover that the methods have likenesses, but they also have variations that make them distinctly different. Data for each method require the written word instead of numbers. Data analysis must be performed on the *text,* with the data collected as written words from interviews or observations. Regardless of the multiple similarities, each qualitative method was theoretically developed for a unique purpose as a means to study a phenomenon (Cohen, 2006).

Phenomenological Research

Phenomenological research is the method of discovering and structuring the meaning of human incidents through interviews with people actually involved in the real-life experience (Creswell, 2007; Polit & Beck, 2021). The researcher's objective is to become truly aware of and comprehend the significance and consequences of the phenomena as they are described by the participant. The researcher is expected to *bracket* (put aside) personal biases when involved in the phenomenological research process (Creswell, 2007; Polit & Beck, 2021).

Researchers using phenomenology look for individuals who have lived or who are living the phenomenon to be studied (Creswell, 2007). The researcher collects either written or oral data from participants, and the number of interviews

Table 2-1 Qualitative Research Methods

Method	Data Collection	Data Source	Data Analysis
Phenomenology	Unstructured interviews; new questions emerge as the data evolve	Individuals	Inductive analysis; data collection and analysis occur simultaneously
Ethnography	Documents, interviews, observation	Individuals within a culture	Ongoing throughout the data collection process
Historical	Firsthand account interviews, pictures, newspapers	Individuals or in documentation	Criticism and themes in the data
Grounded theory	Interviews, observation	Individuals	Systemic coding (open, axial, and selective)
Case study	Questionnaires, interviews, observation, participant journals	Individuals or groups	Patterns and themes in the data

Adapted from Boswell, C., & Cannon, S. (2017). *Introduction to nursing research: Incorporating evidence-based practice* (4th ed.). Sudbury, MA: Jones & Bartlett Learning.

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

depends on the researcher's chosen analysis method. The researcher may present questions in writing and request written responses or schedule an interview during which the conversation is tape-recorded. *Data saturation,* hearing the same themes over again with no new categories, normally determines the number of interviews used by the researcher and indicates that the research should conclude (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006).

Example of Phenomenological Research

Hill, Higgins, Dempster, and McCarthy (2009) used interpretive phenomenological analysis to evaluate the transcripts collected during a study focused on the understanding of fathers of children with acute lymphoblastic leukemia related to their family role during their child's diagnosis and treatment. The following themes surfaced: (a) adjustment to diagnosis, (b) experiencing the nature of maternal protection, (c) making every effort to have normalcy, (d) and providing and accepting support (Hill et al., 2009).

Phenomenological Data Collection

Data collection for a phenomenological study involves extended interviews with participants. Typically, participants are asked to convey their experiences with the phenomenon being studied while the researcher collects and stores the information communicated by each participant (Tilley, 2011). Grove et al. (2013) insisted that the researcher can use more than one method or a combination of methods to collect data when using the phenomenological research process by engaging both behaviors and intuiting. *Intuiting* involves the researcher concentrating all attentiveness and enthusiasm on strengthening understanding of the phenomenon of concern (Grove et al., 2013).

One method for collecting phenomenological data includes interviewing participants. The researcher must be patient and supportive in permitting the participants to use as much time as needed for them to present comprehensive explanations of their experiences. Instead of verbally communicating experiences, participants could be allowed to supply the researcher with a written account of their encounters with the phenomenon (Grove et al., 2013).

The researcher plays an important role in another method for collecting data for phenomenology research, including the researcher in the phenomenon. The researcher participates in the experience as an observer concerning all behaviors, the setting, and the researcher's reactions to what is occurring. The researcher takes notes, tape-records, or videotapes (Grove et al., 2013).

Phenomenological Data Analysis

Multiple data analysis techniques exist when using phenomenological research methods. Even though there are differences in the techniques, a pattern moves from the description stated by the participant and is then synthesized by the researcher with all descriptions from participants. Analysis of phenomenological research findings requires the researcher to present the reader with data that begin with the research question. Then the researcher leads the reader through the research process, which includes examples of participants' responses and the researcher's explanation.

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

Last, the researcher provides the reader with an account that expands and integrates the participants' experiences with the phenomenon of concern. Phenomenological research findings are presented to the reader in an explanatory narrative that both justifies the use of the qualitative research and explains the phenomenon studied through the experiences of participants (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006).

Ethnographic Research

Ethnography is the study of either a whole cultural or social group or a person or persons within the group (Wolcott, 1995). Ethnographic research originated when researchers began seeking information about cultures that differed from their own (Wolf, 2007). An ethnographer enters an unfamiliar cultural or social group and accepts the challenge of presenting accurate data from a group member's interpretation (Agar, 1986). To completely immerse themselves into a different culture, some ethnographers choose to move into the new world, study the speech and speak the dialect of the new culture, and involve themselves in every part of the culture. Researchers provide narratives that describe from their point of view every detail of the lives of the people studied, including their social networking, principles, and other actions (Wolf, 2007).

Chambers (2003) maintained that ethnography concentrates on scientific reports and explanations of cultural or social groups and organizations. The ethnographic study is established largely on the researcher's field experiences collected by examination of the participating sample through surveillance over an extended period. *Fieldwork* is a closely controlled method of questioning that allows an ethnographer to personally gather data over a broad period. Well-organized fieldwork blends skills and knowledge of the proficient ethnographer for a narrative to be constructed that gives the reader an awareness of the different culture studied (Wolcott, 1995). During the fieldwork, the ethnographer watches, listens, asks questions, and documents actions and conversations of participants for the purpose of creating the culture through words for readers (Creswell, 2007; Tedlock, 2000; Thomas, 1993).

Before the researcher is allowed to enter the new society, he or she must earn the respect of a chief member of the group, the *gatekeeper*. Until the gatekeeper believes that the researcher is honorable and trustworthy, the group will not participate (Creswell, 2007). Once the researcher gains entrance into the group and is accepted, reliable research documentation can be collected. The researcher is now ready to move forward with prepared research inquiry concerning the life, roles, and behaviors of the cultural or social group (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006).

Example of Ethnographic Research

Neufeld, Harrison, Hughes, and Stewart (2007) conducted an ethnographic research study to identify interactions that were nonsupportive among 59 women who were caregivers in diverse circumstances. Participants included mothers of premature infants, mothers of children diagnosed with asthma or diabetes, and caregivers for an adult member of the family with cancer or dementia. The participants who provided care in all circumstances stated that they experienced the following interactions considered nonsupportive: (a) unconstructive support, (b) unproductive support, or (c) deficient anticipated support. The participants' interaction

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

evaluation was based on individual expectations and their perspectives of the circumstances (Neufeld et al., 2007).

Ethnographic Data Collection

Ethnographic research begins with choosing a civilization, subculture, or racial group to study and the setting in which the group will be studied (Tappen, 2011). Ethnography requires the researcher to observe the participants or become engrossed in the situation, interview the participants, and explain the culture of the participants (Crabtree & Miller, 1992). Ethnography research requires the inclusion of a group of people living in the culture and experiencing the phenomenon involved in the research (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006). Research participants include either informants who provide researchers with common knowledge among the cultural group or *key informants* who impart significant knowledge concerning the phenomenon under investigation (Creswell, 2007).

Ethnographers gather data in the field—fieldwork—by literally going to the locations where the culture is actually being lived by the people. The researcher transcribes fieldwork into *field notes*. Gathering fieldwork and transcribing data into field notes often require an extended time frame. As long as the research is in progress, the ethnographer remains in contact with the study group by joining in the members' interests, leisure time activities, cultural events, and required specific locations. The researcher strives to become part of the group to better understand the culture (Sanjek, 1990).

Information gathered from interviewing participants is recorded by the researcher while the interview is in process or directly after. The researcher may choose to record data by either writing or recording. If the researcher senses that a participant is hesitant to answer if notes or recordings of any kind are in process, the researcher should record notes after the interview. The participant's permission must be acquired before any interview taping can proceed (Grove et al., 2013).

Transcription of interviews must be word-for-word precise because the transcriptions serve as data for establishing significance. Significant statements are categorized into clusters that denote themes that are shared in all participants' narratives. Themes develop a thorough explanation of the phenomenon, and the participants should be permitted to go through all data for accurateness (Riemen, 1998). Management of data includes producing and arranging data files, studying tests, and forming of preliminary coding (Creswell, 2007).

Ethnographic Data Analysis

Data analysis for ethnographic research is similar to data analysis for the grounded theory research method in that data are gathered and evaluated concurrently. In addition, data analysis starts with choosing main categories or domains and then listing less significant categories or domains under the main headings (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006). The ethnographer clarifies and interprets data while continuing to search for meanings. When analysis is complete and findings can be explained, the ethnographer organizes a report and/or lecture to present findings. Data are to be stored in transcribed forms (Creswell, 2007). Ethnographic research produces a vast amount of data (e.g., observations, interviews, photographs).

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

Historical Research

Historical research is a systematic attempt to study past life experiences by gathering, assembling, classifying, and evaluating data. One important objective of the researcher is to bring forth historical data to look for ways to direct present and future experiences. Findings allow the reader to understand what occurred in the past and modify life practices in an attempt to prevent unwanted past experiences from reoccurring (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006).

The researcher may choose to use a biography format as historical research; however, before documenting events in a person's life, the researcher must receive permission to do so (Creswell, 1998). After the researcher gathers historical data about the biographer's life, data interpretation begins. The researcher develops a theory about the person's life experiences and past and present influences in his or her life. The researcher then develops an abstract that emphasizes the person's life practices and the significance and consequences of these practices as stated in the documentation. Last, findings in documentation that focused on actions, theories, and practices discussed in the research should be presented (Creswell, 1998).

Example of Historical Research

Wood (2009) used historical research methods to study the function of surgical nurses in preventing sepsis in wounds. In addition, an aim of this study was to identify how this role was represented in nursing literature during the period preceding the use of antibiotics, 1895 to 1935. During this time, trained nurses working in the surgical clinical setting were seen as supporters of surgeons' efforts to prevent wound sepsis; however, nurses were blamed when a patient was diagnosed with wound sepsis. More use of sterilized dressing supplies, decreased dependence on needless antiseptics, and fewer rigorous processes preparing the supplies for surgery were the greatest changes important to awareness and practice. The literature associated the nurse with the surgeon, instead of the patient. The relationship between the nurse and surgeon should not be interpreted as being "subservient." Surgeons were seeking support and a meticulous approach from nurses. This research provides evidence for nurses related to not only the lasting characteristics of clinically based understanding and practice but also how others may not be quick to change (Wood, 2009).

Historical Research Data Collection

Data that provide the sample for historical research could consist of written documents, videotapes, interviews with participants who provide firsthand accounts, pictures, and other relics pertinent to the historical research. The historical researcher must be specific about the historical incident of concern and use only artifacts that provide crucial data for the studied incident. Data sources are considered to be primary or secondary. *Primary sources* include eyewitnesses to the historical event. Primary sources are expected to supply researchers with more trustworthy information than a secondary source (Christy, 1975). *Secondary sources* supply data that have been conveyed to them about the phenomenon. The further an informant is from being an eyewitness to an event, the more untrustworthy the information becomes (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006).

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

Historical Research Data Analysis

The evidence retrieved using historical research methods is evaluated using two forms of criticism: *external* and *internal* (Polit & Beck, 2021). The data's authenticity is evaluated using external criticism. Evaluating the value of the evidence of historical data is internal criticism. The purpose of the internal criticism is to judge the content.

Truth of the data is the foundational issue (Polit & Beck, 2021). Being familiar with the specific historical period is crucial for assessing reliability (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006). Data collection and analysis are simultaneous processes in historical research (Polit & Beck, 2021).

Grounded Theory Research

Grounded theory was developed for the purpose of studying communication and relations in social groups (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Grounded theory is considered the most popular and often used qualitative research method across many disciplines and branches of learning (Bryant & Charmaz, 2008). Parker (2006) defined *theory* as a notion or idea that gives details or describes happenings, sheds light on opinions, explains associations, and predicts effects or conclusions. Corbin (2009) maintained that grounded theory is differentiated from other qualitative research methods in that the objective is the development of theory grounded in facts. Qualitative research is particularly effective as a resource for grounded theory. Grounded theory is produced from fieldwork data collected through the researcher's observations and interviews in natural settings instead of in a laboratory (Patton, 2002). Research questions for grounded theory concentrate on fundamental social practices that generally concern the influencing of human behavior (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006).

The foundation for grounded theory is the use of communication with participants to learn about how they identify and relate to a particular phenomenon in their lives and how their ideas and principles are associated with their actions (Grove et al., 2013). The grounded theory method is particularly advantageous when the accepted knowledge comes from a speculative viewpoint and fails to adequately give an explanation of what is happening (Wuest, 2007). In grounded theory research, the researcher produces a theoretical plan about a phenomenon. The theoretical plan describes details concerning selected proceedings, communications, or procedures (Grove et al., 2013).

Grounded theory research is achieved through the compilation of interview records, numerous field visits to collect theoretical samples, continual evaluation of data, and the creation of a context-specific hypothesis (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Although the researcher reviews some literature for the study, the researcher does not prepare a thorough literature study. The researcher allows the theory to surface from collected data so that it serves as an indicator of related principles fundamental to social practices researched. The theory that materializes is created from the collected information (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006).

Interaction is the focal point of observation in the qualitative research grounded theory method (Grove et al., 2013). Individuals produce realism as a result of assigning significance to circumstances and conditions, which develops into the

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

foundation for achievement. When people participate together in social living, groups assign meanings and exchange these meanings with their latest associates by socializing with them. Interaction may guide the way to innovative and novel values, and the outcome could be a person or persons with a new identity of self (Grove et al., 2013).

Example of Grounded Theory Research

Davis et al. (2010) conducted a study using grounded theory. The aims of this study were to (a) investigate the quality of life (QOL) of mothers and fathers of children (aged 3 to 18 years) diagnosed with CP and (b) determine if caring for children with CP changes from child years to teenage years. The participants of this study were 24 mothers and 13 fathers of children with CP, with different levels of severity. A wide range of QOL resulted among parents. The following are affected while caring for children diagnosed with CP: (a) physical health, (b) social contentment, (c) autonomy and independence, (d) family strength, and (e) monetary solidity (Davis et al., 2010).

Grounded Theory Methodology Data Collection

Grounded theory research data collection is referred to as fieldwork (Grove et al., 2013). Participants are chosen for the study because of their capacity to play a part in the development of the theory. Participant grouping, which may begin as homogeneous, will become more heterogeneous as the theory grows (Tappen, 2011).

The researcher may typically use observation of participants as the data collection method. Concentration during observation should be directed at group interactions targeted toward the researched phenomenon. Researchers may choose to interview participants to allow them to express viewpoints (Grove et al., 2013).

Coding Grounded Theory

The researcher begins data analysis by using collected data for open coding. *Open coding* requires the researcher to use data collected from informants and observations and create about six categories that will develop into major themes in the research study (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Any category not directly related to the phenomenon of concern is not included in the coding process (Wuest, 2007). The fundamental actions required for developing categories consist of continual evaluation of data, codes, and categories (Kelle, 2008).

After the categories are selected, the researcher recognizes and names the principal phenomenon and initiates the investigation into the association among categories using *axial coding* (Creswell, 2007). The researcher searches for situations that affect the principal phenomenon, the conditions that influence methodologies, and the significance of accepting the methodologies. Then the researcher establishes a *coding paradigm,* a hypothetical standard that allows the associations of the axial coding to be viewed and studied (Creswell, 2007). The last step involves *selective coding:* the researcher acquires the model to develop hypotheses in which the categories are interrelated (Creswell, 2007).

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

Grounded Theory Analysis

Open coding calls for the researcher to scrutinize data meticulously and evaluate likenesses and differences (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). During the entire grounded theory process, the *constant comparative method,* in which data are constantly compared, is used. As codes or categories become apparent during the process, the researcher finds that they may enlarge or they may be minimized and become a component of another category. As the theorist continues through this process, a theory is developed. Therefore, in grounded theory research, the processes of data collection, coding, analyzing, and theory development have a mutual connection (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

To interpret findings of grounded theory research, the researcher furnishes details of the process and reasoning of the method and describes the theory developed. Researchers are encouraged to use diagrams and charts as well as detailed narrative to report their findings and show how the data are associated (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006). At the completion of the study, the researcher is required to put all data in safe keeping, including all notes, transcripts, and computer data (Creswell, 2007).

Case Study Research

Case study research involves the investigator examining both irregularities and harmonies of a particular circumstance or phenomenon. A case study can consist of quantitative and/or qualitative data, but it is identified by the center of attention being placed on one personal situation (Stake, 2000). An investigator generally prefers to examine an organization or routine practice, such as an activity, episode, curriculum, or several people. Before an investigator can secure contact with the study sample, he or she must obtain the trust of those involved (Creswell, 2007).

Case study research can consist of one case study, multiple case studies, or a series of case studies (Tappen, 2011). Each case study requires the researcher to examine the situation or phenomena, document data that are either relevant to the inquiry or explicatory of the circumstances or phenomena, and record a narrative explanation of each case (Tappen, 2011). An *intrinsic case study* provides an improved perception of the case. An *instrumental case study* allows the researcher to look more closely at a topic or subject of concern or to question a generality (Stake, 2000).

Example of Case Study Research

Krausz and Meszaros (2005) conducted a single case study to identify and comprehend how a mother's life is affected by having a child with autism, to analyze themes that have formed her life, to identify adaptation stages of parents of children with autism, and to develop meanings that others may benefit from based on the experiences of the participants. This study was written in narrative form and documented the heartbreaking process of acceptance related to the child's developmental condition. In-depth interviews were conducted during the data collection process. Eleven themes emerged consistently from the data; falling apart was the one new theme, and two strategies related to coping were apparent (Krausz & Meszaros, 2005).

Case Study Data Collection

Case study data are collected through interviews, observations, reexamination of documentation, and other techniques used to allow the researcher to understand

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

the phenomenon. The researcher is required to do whatever needs to be done to collect the necessary data (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006).

Case Study Data Analysis

Liehr and LoBiondo-Wood (2006) maintained that the case study account depends on proper analysis of data and an appropriate explanation of research findings. When the researcher has completed the process of examining recorded data, connecting relationships among data collected from all resources, and beginning to develop significance of data, the case study story begins. The researcher is responsible for considering all data pertinent to the phenomenon studied and presenting findings that accurately reflect research results (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006).

The case study research findings typically do not include research activities; therefore, interpretation of findings by the reader may be difficult (Liehr & LoBiondo-Wood, 2006). According to Stake (2000), findings for case study research are included in other segments of the study: (a) sequential progress of the research, (b) the researcher's account of the case study, (c) the explanation of case components, and (d) the emphasis of the case study attributes.

Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research

A necessary component in both qualitative and quantitative research is quality (Tappen, 2011). However, the precise definition of quality that is considered to be high has created a discussion among researchers. Scholars have debated the issue of whether rigor and validity should be used to identify quality in qualitative research (Polit & Beck, 2021). Rigor has been defined as the strength of the research design and the appropriateness of the method to answer the questions (Morse, 2003). Some scholars consider different criteria to classify rigor in the qualitative research process; therefore, they argue for the need to use other terms (Tappen, 2011). However, rigor has been used to express the attributes related to the qualitative research process (Barroso, 2010; Davies & Dodd, 2002). Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, and Spiers (2002) stated that "without rigor, research is worthless, becomes fiction, and loses its utility" (p. 2).

Framework: Lincoln and Guba

Lincoln and Guba (1985) developed a framework of criteria to identify quality in qualitative research. Trustworthiness is used as the central concept in the framework to appraise the rigor of the qualitative study and is a priority to scholars evaluating the research. The following four criteria for trustworthiness are equivalent to the criteria of reliability and validity in quantitative research design: credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Guba and Lincoln (1994) developed a fifth criterion, authenticity, following comments from others; it is a developing concept.

Credibility is a principal goal in qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Polit and Beck (2021) describe credibility as the assurance in data truth and the analysis of the data. Credibility includes conducting the study in a manner that increases the confidence in the results and following a method to exhibit credibility in the dissemination of the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

Dependability is the strength or reliability of data through time and circumstances. Credibility cannot be achieved if dependability is absent (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Confirmability is the comparison between at least two researchers regarding the accuracy, significance, or meaning of the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Confirmability is related to the data representing the information the participants described. In addition, data interpretations should not be created by the researcher. Data findings must describe the participants' words and the setting of the study, not the researcher's perceptions (Polit & Beck, 2021).

Transferability is related to the findings being applicable in other locations or groups of people. The researcher should offer adequate data to evaluate the applicability in other settings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Authenticity is the researcher reasonably providing certainty (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In a report, the authenticity is suggested when the tone of participants' lives is portrayed as their lives are truly lived. When the reader has increased sensitivity to the data descriptions of the topic being addressed, authenticity has been achieved (Polit & Beck, 2021).

Strategies to Increase Quality

Multiple strategies are used to increase the quality of qualitative research (Polit & Beck, 2021). The strategies to be discussed are (a) prolonged engagement, (b) persistent observation, (c) triangulation, (d) member checking, and (e) peer debriefing.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) described prolonged engagement as a vital component in determining the credibility of a study. Prolonged engagement includes the researcher spending quality time during the data collection process to increase his or her knowledge of the participants and guarantee data saturation. Researchers need to participate in persistent observation to enhance quality. Persistent observation includes the researchers paying attention to the specific details of a discussion among participants significant to the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Triangulation uses multiple references to establish truth and data, and conclusions can be cross-checked (Denzin, 1978; Polit & Beck, 2021; Tappen, 2011). In the data analysis phase, different viewpoints are provided regarding the same phenomenon; this enhances credibility by strengthening the conclusions (Patton, 2002). An essential method to establish the credibility of data in qualitative research is member checking (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Member checking involves the researchers offering participants feedback related to the analysis of data and recording their responses. Participants should confirm the researchers' analysis of data provided during the data collection process (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Polit & Beck, 2021). Peer debriefing includes meetings between the researchers and their peers to evaluate the characteristics of the study. During these meetings, the researchers are open to questions of other researchers who are not invested in the study and who have experience in a specific research process or with the research topic (Polit & Beck, 2021).

Meta-Synthesis

Qualitative meta-synthesis was recognized in the 1970s as a vital advancement in research (Sandelowski & Barroso, 2007). A meta-synthesis is a form of a systematic review relevant to qualitative research (Polit & Beck, 2021). Erwin, Brotherson, and Summers

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

(2011) stated that meta-synthesis is a planned method to synthesize and understand data across studies using qualitative research methods. The process involves distinct phases that allow the researcher to identify a research question. The researcher will "search for, select, appraise, summarize, and combine evidence to address the research question" (Erwin et al., 2011, p. 191). The findings of qualitative studies conducted on a specific topic are systematically reviewed and integrated. A meta-synthesis provides researchers an opportunity to put together findings from qualitative research important to the practice setting (Barroso, 2010; Polit & Beck, 2021).

For example, Bertero and Chamberlain (2007) conducted a meta-synthesis using 30 qualitative research reports related to the diagnosis of breast cancer and the treatments affecting the self. Self aspects were identified as affected by the breast cancer diagnosis and the necessary treatment: (a) knowledge of individual mortality, (b) existing with an unsure confidence, (c) confirmation of attachment, and (d) giving a new definition to self. Women who are diagnosed with breast cancer become accustomed to their life as a patient (Bertero & Chamberlain, 2007).

Disseminating Research Findings

Tappen (2011) advised researchers not to believe their research is finished when they have completed the analysis process. According to Tappen, the research process is unfinished until the researcher reveals findings not only to funders of the research but also to colleagues, other interested groups, and the general public. If the research is funded, the researcher must communicate with the funder before reporting findings. Often, the funders may request that findings be reported in a particular way (Tappen, 2011).

Tappen (2011) further cautioned the researcher concerning reporting findings to groups or the general public who may be interested in findings. Scientific terminology must be changed in a manner that the general public can understand and glean information from it. The researcher must relate findings in the current study with findings previously reported; relating findings either confirms or refutes previous findings. Results must be duplicated for readers to believe that the findings confirm that the research should be used in EBP (Tappen, 2011).

Researchers should write notes about their views, feelings, and opinions concerning situations that occur during the progression of the research procedure because the same conditions may not arise again (Lempert, 2008; Stern, 2008). A new investigator may find that one of the hardest aspects of the research process is the need for simultaneous data collection, evaluation, and theory development (Wiener, 2008). However, unless the researcher remembers to write notes and code data from the beginning of the process, he or she will become inundated with data. Too many times, researchers have failed to complete the research process of publishing findings because they were weighted down with too many notes and tapes that had remained untouched for too long (Wiener, 2008).

Conclusion

Qualitative research procedures are specifically designed to gain perceptions into particular, personal knowledge and an understanding of social practices. Qualitative research also provides insight into complicated, personal truths that cannot be

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

separated, influenced, and inspected the way physical certainties can. Miller (2010) describes the use of qualitative research increasing in health care and definitely in studies focused on nursing research. It is vital for advanced practice registered nurses to identify the use of qualitative research findings as evidence for changing nursing practice (Miller, 2010). The awareness of human practices, encounters, and social relationships that is generated by qualitative research techniques cannot be attained using procedures that condense human attributes to statistics and the circumstances of human existence to being labeled as variables (Brown, 2012).

Reflective Activities

1. Describe qualitative research as an investigation of human experiences in naturalistic settings, pursuing meanings that inform theory, practice, instrument development, and further research.
2. How does data saturation determine sample size compared to power analyses associated with quantitative studies? In fact, qualitative researchers also identify the need for larger samples without offering explanations as to the rationale for needing a greater number of participants (Cohen, Kahn, & Steeves, 2002).
3. Describe qualitative research methods in regard to the five basic elements: identifying the phenomenon, structuring the study, gathering the data, analyzing the data, and describing the findings.
4. How can qualitative research data be managed through the use of computers? How will the researcher interpret those data?
5. How can qualitative research data be translated into nursing practice?
6. Using Lincoln and Guba's (1985) framework of criteria related to quality (i.e., credibility, dependability, confirmability, transferability, and authenticity), choose a qualitative study to appraise the trustworthiness of the qualitative inquiry.

References

Agar, M. H. (1986). *Speaking of ethnography*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Auerswald, C. L., Greene, K., Minnis, A., Doherty, L., Ellen, J., & Padian, N. (2004). Qualitative assessment of venues for purposive sampling of hard-to-reach youth: An illustration in a Latino community. *Sexually Transmitted Diseases, 31*(2), 133–138. doi:10.1097/01.OLQ.0000109513.30732.B6

Barroso, J. (2010). Qualitative approaches to research. In G. LoBiondo-Wood & J. Haber (Eds.), *Nursing research: Methods and critical appraisal for evidence-based practice* (7th ed., pp. 100–125). St. Louis, MO: Mosby.

Bernard, H. R. (2006). *Research methods in anthropology: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (4th ed.). Lanham, MD: AltaMira Press.

Bertero, C., & Chamberlain, W. M. (2007). Breast cancer diagnosis and its treatment affecting the self: A meta-synthesis. *Cancer Nursing, 30*(3), 194–202. doi:10.1097/01.NCC.0000270707.80037.4c

Boeije, H. (2007). A purposeful approach to the constant comparative method in the analysis of qualitative interviews. In S. Sarantakos (Ed.), *Data analysis* (pp. 265–285). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Boswell, C., & Cannon, S. (2017). *Introduction to nursing research: Incorporating evidence-based practice* (4th ed.). Sudbury, MA: Jones & Bartlett Learning.

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

Briggs, C. L. (1986). *Learning how to ask: A sociolinguistic appraisal of the role of the interview in social science research.* Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, S. J. (2012). *Evidence-based nursing: The research-practice connection* (2nd ed.). Burlington, MA: Jones & Bartlett Learning.

Bryant, A., & Charmaz, K. (2008). Grounded theory research: Methods and practices. In A. Bryant & K. Charmaz (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of grounded theory* (pp. 31–57). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bryman, A. (2007). Barriers to integrating quantitative and qualitative research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1*(8), 8–22. doi:10.1177/2345678906290531

Chambers, E. (2003). Applied ethnography. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials* (pp. 389–418). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Christy, T. E. (1975). A methodology of historical research. *Nursing Research, 24*(3), 189–192.

Cohen, M. Z. (2006). Introduction to qualitative research. In G. LoBiondo-Wood & J. Haber (Eds.), *Nursing research: Methods and critical appraisal for evidence-based practice* (6th ed., pp. 131–147). St. Louis, MO: Mosby.

Cohen, M., Kahn, D., & Steeves, R. (2002). Making use of qualitative research. *Western Journal of Nursing Research, 24*(4), 454–471. doi:10.1177/01945902024004011

Converse, J. M., & Presser, S. (1986). *Survey questions: Handcrafting the standardized questionnaire.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Corbin, J. (2009). Taking an analytic journey. In J. M. Morse, P. M. Stern, J. Corbin, B. Bowers, K. Charmaz, & A. E. Clarke. *Developing grounded theory: The second generation* (pp. 35–53). Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press.

Crabtree, B. F., & Miller, W. L. (1992). *Doing qualitative research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Craig, J. V., & Smyth, R. L. (2007). *The evidence-based practice manual for nurses* (2nd ed.). Philadelphia, PA: Churchill Livingstone.

Creswell, J. W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Davies, D., & Dodd, J. (2002). Pearls, pith, and provocation: Qualitative research and the question of rigor. *Qualitative Health Research, 12*(2), 279–289. doi:10.1177/104973230201200211

Davis, E., Shelly, A., Waters, E., Boyd, R., Cook, K., & Davern, M. (2010). The impact of caring for a child with cerebral palsy: Quality of life for mothers and fathers. *Child: Care, Health and Development, 36*(1), 63–73. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2214.2009.00989.x

Denzin, N. K. (1978). *Sociological methods.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dillon, J. T. (1990). *The practice of questioning.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Erwin, E. J., Brotherson, M. J., & Summers, J. A. (2011). Understanding qualitative metasynthesis. *Journal of Early Intervention, 33*(3), 186–200. doi:10.1177/1053815111425493

Fowler, F. J. (1990). *Standardized survey interviewing: Minimizing interviewer-related error.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Gibbs, G. R. (2007). *Analyzing qualitative data.* London, England: Sage.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research.* Piscataway, NJ: Aldine Transaction.

Grove, S. K., Burns, N., & Gray, J. R. (2013). *The practice of nursing research: Appraisal, synthesis, and generation of evidence* (7th ed.). St. Louis, MO: Saunders.

Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105–117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hall, H. R., & Graff, J. C. (2010). Parenting challenges in families of children with autism: A pilot study. *Issues in Comprehensive Pediatric Nursing, 33*(4), 187–204. doi:10.3109/01460862.2010.528644

Hill, K., Higgins, A., Dempster, M., & McCarthy, A. (2009). Fathers' views and understanding of their roles in families with a child with acute lymphoblastic leukaemia: An interpretive phenomenological analysis. *Journal of Health Psychology, 14*(8), 1267–1280. doi:10.1177/1359105309342291

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

Kelle, U. (2008). The development of categories: Different approaches in grounded theory. In A. Bryant & K. Charmaz (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of grounded theory* (pp. 191–213). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Knox, S., & Burkard, A. (2009). Qualitative research interviews. *Psychotherapy Research, 19*(4–5), 566–575. doi:10.1080/10503300802702105

Krausz, M., & Meszaros, J. (2005). The retrospective experiences of a mother of child with autism. *International Journal of Special Education, 20*(2), 36–46.

Krueger, R. A., & Casey, M. A. (2000). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Lempert, L. B. (2008). Asking questions of the data: Memo writing in the grounded theory tradition. In A. Bryant & K. Charmaz (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of grounded theory* (pp. 245–264). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Liehr, P. R., & LoBiondo-Wood, G. (2006). Qualitative approaches to research. In G. LoBiondo-Wood & J. Haber (Eds.), *Nursing research: Methods and critical appraisal for evidence-based practice* (6th ed., pp. 148–175). St. Louis, MO: Mosby.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Mann, C., & Stewart, F. (2002). *Internet communication and qualitative research: A handbook for researching online*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2006). *Designing qualitative research* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

McLaughlin, P. (1990). *How to interview: The art of asking questions* (2nd ed.). North Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada: International Self-Counsel Press.

Miller, W. R. (2010). Qualitative research findings as evidence: Utility in nursing practice. *Clinical Nurse Specialist, 24*(4), 191–193. doi:10.1097/NUR.0b013e3181e36087

Morgan, D. L. (1995). Why things (sometimes) go wrong in focus groups. *Qualitative Health Research, 5*(4), 516–523. doi:10.1177/104973239500500411

Morse, J. M. (1997). Learning to drive from a manual? *Qualitative Health Research, 7*(2), 181–183.

Morse, J. M. (2003). A review committee's guide for evaluating qualitative proposals. *Qualitative Health Research, 13,* 833–851. doi:10.1177/1049732303013006005

Morse, J. M. (2006). It is time to revise the Cochrane criteria. *Qualitative Health Research, 16*(3), 315–317. doi:10.1177/1049732305285495

Morse, J. M., Barrett, M., Mayan, M., Olson, K., & Spiers, J. (2002). Verification strategies for establishing reliability and validity in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 1*(2), Article 2. Retrieved from http://www.ualberta.ca/~iiqm/backissues/1_2Final/pdf/morseetal.pdf

Munhall, P. L. (2007). *Nursing research: A qualitative perspective* (4th ed.). Sudbury, MA: Jones and Bartlett.

Neely-Barnes, S. L., Graff, J. C., Roberts, R. J., Hall, H. R., & Hankins, J. S. (2010). "It's our job": Qualitative study of family responses to ableism. *Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities, 48*(4), 245–258. doi:10.1352/1934-9556-48.4.245

Neufeld, A., Harrison, M. J., Hughes, K., & Stewart, M. (2007). Non-supportive interactions in the experience of women caregivers. *Health and Social Care in the Community, 15*(6), 530–541. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2524.2007.00716.x

Parker, M. E. (2006). *Nursing theories and nursing practice* (2nd ed.). Philadelphia, PA: F. A. Davis.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). The nature of qualitative inquiry. In M. Q. Patton (Ed.), *Qualitative research & evaluation methods* (3rd ed., pp. 3–29). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Polit, D. F., & Beck, C. T. (2021). *Nursing research: Generating and assessing evidence for nursing practice* (11th ed.). Philadelphia, PA: Wolters Kluwer.

Polkinghorne, D. E. (2005). Language and meaning: Data collection in qualitative research. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 52*(2), 137–145. doi:10.1037/0022-0167.52.2.137

Popay, J., & Williams, G. (1998). Qualitative research and evidence-based healthcare. *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine, 91*(Suppl. 35), 32–37. doi:10.1177/014107689809135s08

Porter-O'Grady, T. (2006). A new age for practice: Creating the framework for evidence. In K. Malloch & T. Porter-O'Grady (Eds.), *Introduction to evidence-based practice in nursing and health care* (pp. 1–29). Sudbury, MA: Jones and Bartlett.

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.

Riemen, D. J. (1998). A phenomenology: The essential structure of a caring interaction—Doing phenomenology. In J. W. Creswell (Ed.), *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions* (pp. 271–295). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Safman, R. M., & Sobal, J. (2004). Qualitative sample extensiveness in health education research. *Health Education & Behavior, 31,* 9–21. doi:10.1177/1090198103259185

Sandelowski, M. (1997). "To be of use": Enhancing the utility of qualitative research. *Nursing Outlook, 45*(3), 125–132. doi:10.1016/s0029-6554(97)90043-9

Sandelowski, M. (2000). Combining qualitative and quantitative sampling, data collection, and analysis techniques in mixed-method studies. *Research in Nursing & Health, 23*(3), 246–255. doi:10.1002/1098-240X(200006)

Sandelowski, M., & Barroso, J. (2007). *Handbook for synthesizing qualitative research.* New York, NY: Springer.

Sanjek, R. (1990). *Fieldnotes: The makings of anthropology.* Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

Stake, R. E. (2000). Case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp. 435–454). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stern, P. N. (2008). On solid ground: Essential properties for growing grounded theory. In A. Bryant & K. Charmaz (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of grounded theory* (pp. 114–126). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stewart, D. W., Shamdasani, P. N., & Rook, D. W. (2007). *Focus groups: Theory and practice* (2nd ed.). Applied Social Research Methods Series Volume 20. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1994). Grounded theory methodology: An overview. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 273–285). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tappen, R. M. (2011). *Advanced nursing research: From theory to practice.* Sudbury, MA: Jones & Bartlett Learning.

Tedlock, B. (2000). Ethnography and ethnographic representation. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp. 455–486). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Thomas, J. (1993). *Doing critical ethnography.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Tilley, D. S. (2011). Qualitative research methods. In C. Boswell & S. Cannon (Eds.), *Introduction to nursing research: Incorporating evidence-based practice* (2nd ed., pp. 193–216). Sudbury, MA: Jones & Bartlett Learning.

Wiener, C. (2008). Making teams work in conducting grounded theory. In A. Bryant & K. Charmaz (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of grounded theory* (pp. 294–310). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Wolcott, H. F. (1995). *The art of fieldwork.* Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.

Wolf, Z. R. (2007). Ethnography: The method. In P. L. Munhall (Ed.), *Nursing research: A qualitative perspective* (4th ed., pp. 293–330). Sudbury, MA: Jones and Bartlett.

Wood, P. J. (2009). Supporting or sabotaging the surgeon's efforts: Portrayals of the surgical nurse's role in preventing wound sepsis, 1895–1935. *Journal of Clinical Nursing, 18*(19), 2739–2746. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2702.2009.02895.x

Wuest, J. (2007). Grounded theory: The method. In P. L. Munhall (Ed.), *Nursing research: A qualitative perspective* (4th ed., pp. 239–271). Sudbury, MA: Jones and Bartlett.

© Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC. NOT FOR SALE OR DISTRIBUTION.