Triangulating Research Design

Specifications of differences in overall design between experimental and ethnographic research do not preclude legitimate sharing of data collection strategies

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY IN ETHNOGRAPHIC RESEARCH highly publicized discrepancy between two ethnographers' studies of the same Mexican village (i.e., Lewis, 1951; Redfield, 1930) as a consequence of the differences in their research designs. Redfield and Lewis addressed different issues, used different the same and the same and different segments of the	
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population. Their studies were conducted from different, unexplicated world views	
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information acquired from participants in group contexts. Their study indicates that what people say and do varies according to others present at the time.

Delineation of the physical social and interpersonal contexts within which data

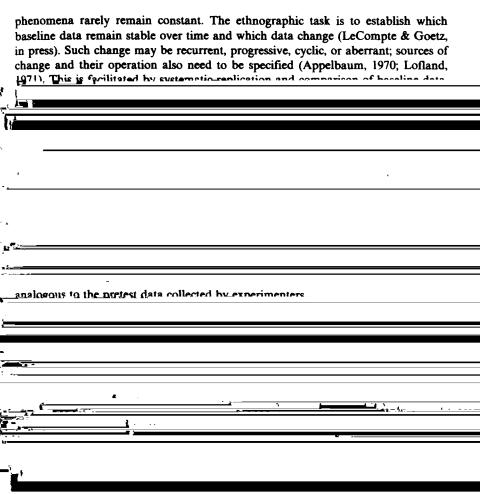
are gathered enhances the replicability of ethnographic studies. To an extent, these factors are subject to change over time. What may be a center for informal gathering among one group of high school seniors, for example, may be anathema to the succeeding class. Consequently, descriptions of contexts should include function and structure as well as specification of features.

Analytic constructs and premises. Even if a researcher reconstructs the relationships and duplicates the informants and social contexts of a prior study, replication may remain impossible if the constructs, definitions, or units of analysis which informed the original research are idiosyncratic or poorly delineated. Replication requires explicit identification of the assumptions and metatheories that underlie choice of terminology and methods of analysis. For example, the culture concept is defined differently by different researchers. Some use it globally: Linton (1945) identified it as the way of life of a people. Others prefer to define culture more narrowly in terms of observed behavior (e.g., Harris, 1971). Some virtually deny that culture exists

independently as an analytic construct, preferring to examine the minute-by-minute interactions by which shared meanings are negotiated among individuals and small groups (e.g., Furlong, 1976; Gearing, 1973, 1975).

If defined idiosyncratically in a study, major organizing constructs such as these

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Unusual observer effects (discussed above as informal social experiments) also

may threaten the validity of ethnographic studies. Contrivance effects may distort data gathered; this obtains in situations where the ethnographer plans and executes
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some exceptional act in order to elicit responses from subjects. Such strategies may violate the research ethics of participant consent (cf., e.g., Denzin, 1978; Jorgensen,
1971; Rynkiewich & Spradley, 1976), although inadvertent faux pas and gaffes are less controversial than deliberate manipulations and do provide valuable information.
on norms and sanctions. Here the researcher must establish that it is the act itself
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training also may distort data. For example, disciplinary biases may appear, however implicitly in the categories an investigator chooses as salient for analysis and coding

of ethnographic data, regardless of whether participant-derived categories or researcher-designated constructs are used. Researchers with different theoretical backgrounds may choose to focus on quite different aspects of the data. The strategies

for ensuring the internal reliability of ethnographic studies also contribute to controlling and managing observer analytic biases. Of these, participant reaction and confirmation—conducted through all levels of the ethnographic process—may be most effective in revealing researcher-induced distortions (Wax, 1971).

Selection and regression. In experimental research, control of selection and regres-

Selection and regression. In experimental research, control of selection and regres

Because most ethnographers study characteristics and behavior of human groups rather than the effects of specific treatments, ethnographic subjects are chosen for

relevance to specific interests. Glaser and Strauss's (1967) use of theoretical sampling—collecting data chosen for relevance to emerging theoretical constructs—is one purposive strategy for implementing this process systematically (for alternative forms of purposive sampling, see Patton, 1980). Following successful access to and entry into particular groups, methodical sampling assures that data adequately represent the population being investigated. Such sampling may take the form of cross-informant interviewing for confirmation and validation of interviews, structured questionnaires, or findings derived from participant observation across the spectrum of subgroups and factions. These strategies are as useful for ensuring external validity as they are for internal validity: if cross-group comparisons are to be credible, they must be grounded in accurate data from individual groups.

Mortality. The ways in which groups change over time as a result of losses and gains in membership pose special difficulties for ethnographers. Although experimenters may replace subjects who are lost from their studies, ethnographers assume

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retrospectively. All plausible causes are delineated by examination of collected data and through discussion with informants. Postulating associations among phenomena depends on elimination of alternative explanations (Campbell, 1979). Denzin (1978) conceptualizes the adequate support of relational generalizations as requiring establishment of time order, covariance, and elimination of rival hypotheses. He assesses participant observation as excellent, good, and fair, respectively, on these three factors.

Elimination of rival explanations mandates control of factors threatening internal validity. It also requires effective and efficient retrieval systems for ethnographic data

to support the fieldworker's search for negative instances of tentatively postulated relationships and disconfirming evidence for emergent constructs (Mehan 1979-

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