

Editorial: From Grounded Description to Grounded Theory

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What is the difference between grounded description and grounded theory? Many researchers and supervisors of grounded theory ponder that question. It is not always easy to identify the difference, especially since GTs are written up as running conceptual discussions and, as such, might give individuals new to the method a feel of description.

As Dr. Glaser points out in his first article in this issue, "Grounded Description," it is easy to overdo the open coding stage and incidentally move from potential theory generation into "trying to describe the population studied, like a QDA study requires, by describing all the interchangeable indicators that grounded the concept." But GT is not about descriptive accuracy and full coverage— a fact which, at times, might be hard to grasp.

Up till now there hasn't actually been much qualified discussion on grounded description in the literature, but that doesn't mean that the boundaries between GT and grounded description are clear-cut and simple to understand. More often than not, GT papers submitted to our journal contain bits and pieces of grounded description. That is very understandable; GT authors want to do a good job and are quite naturally afraid of missing out on something in the data. Thus, **Dr. Glaser's** upcoming book on grounded description is most welcome and much needed.

In this issue of the Grounded Theory Review I am happy to present no less than the three first chapters of **Barney G. Glaser's** upcoming book, one full article, and two short format papers that focus on the increasing use of grounded description, reasons for ignoring it, and challenges of open coding descriptions.

Our reviewers do a great job in supervising the authors on how to develop further their emerging theories. And the experience is that with targeted feedback, the authors find it worthwhile to revise their papers several times. Tendencies of conceptual descriptions are often hard to fight, as leaving out data tends to be a bigger problem than including it. But I am impressed by the energy that GTers display in reworking their papers to make their theories as fit and relevant to the substantive fields as possible.

In the general section, you will find four new grounded theories provided by researchers from Asia, Europe, and the United States. **Alan Oh, Puteri Hayati Megat Ahmad, Ferlis bin Bullare @ Bahari,** and **Peter Voo** from Malaysia have generated an amplifying theory on "Pain resolving in addiction and recovery." Based on analyses of secondary data Alan and his colleagues identified pain resolving as a two-stage basic social psychological process of becoming. The addicts' identity is formed based on how they resolve their pain; the stages are instantaneous pain relieving and honesting.

The next theory by Norwegian researchers **Cathrine Moe** and **Berit Støre Brinchmann** explains how service users and caregivers might cooperate to achieve reablement through optimizing capacity. Reablement of the elderly is a relatively new research field, but the authors of this study indicate that by optimizing capacity with the

help of caregivers, elderly individuals are able to regain independence and stay longer in their own homes.

Tracy Flenady, Trudy Dwyer and **Judith Applegarth** from Australia have studied the patterns of behavior of nurses in emergency departments. Their new theory on rationalising transgression explains how nurses compensate, minimize or trivialize emotional discomfort associated with erroneous behavior. At first sight, the locus of attention of the theory might seem like a tiny topic but the theory speaks to a wider audience. In this study, rationalizing transgression refers to the ways that nurses perform respiratory rate observations and that they actually don't count them. Based on the generated theory, the authors question the effects of current methods of knowledge transfer.

James W. Jones from the United States presents a substantive theory of wayfinding. By interviewing two dozen practitioners in the construction industry, he identified how they resolve the main concern of seeking accurate information efficiently and effectively. Constructors typically seek information from architects, consultants, and other agents. The resolution, wayfinding, consists of five strategies in order to get the information constructors need.

In our section for short papers I am happy to publish two excellent papers by novice grounded theorists. **Sajeel Ahmed** and **Markus Haag** from the United Kingdom reflect on and explain ten specific decisions that were used to support and justify key choices during the PhD process while meeting the requirements of classic grounded theory and the the research institute. The authors address significant rhetorical wrestles to be resolved on the way.

Damian Stoupe from the United Kingdom introduces the concept of cultivating abstract wonderment. He argues that abstract wonderment is not only a preposterous concept, abstract wonderment is praxis. Damian has written these wonderful lines on the experiential journey of abstract wonderment: "For the researcher who is passionate about his or her topic and is willing to risk the praxis of abstract wonderment, it demands the inhabiting of the borders between enjoyment and fear, so we can enter a creative space in which new concepts, and meanings, can emerge."

Grounded Description: No No

Barney G. Glaser, PhD, Hon PhD

Grounded description is on the increase with the increase of grounded theory throughout the world. Much grounded description is jargonized as GT and it is not GT. Grounded description is trying to describe the population studied, like a QDA study requires, by describing all the interchangeable indicators that grounded the concept. In contrast, GT is not to describe the population. GT is the relation between concepts which emerged from the population by constant comparing and then are related to each other by a theoretical code. The GT theory then becomes general and abstract of the study population by time, place and people. The GT stands on its own, and the data on which it is grounded is often forgotten for the grab and general implications of the theory. For example, rooting from here to there is based on BMRs (eg, planning basic mobility resources for a trip).

Why is this happening? There are several reasons. Description is frequently demanded by an academic department perspective and professor demands since research is traditionally descriptive nearly 100% of the time. Being abstract of time, place and people is not the normal quest of academic research. Accurate description is the quest. The generated concepts used for normal description can be very discreet and its indicators also. They prove relevance and fit for population data. The abstract nature and its general implications of a GT core concept and its potential for generating a GT are ignored or lightly referred to while describing takes over.

Grounded description is a step toward discovery of a GT, not a GT. But many new to the GT methodology do not realize this. They become thrilled with generating a grabby concept and think that it is the final step to generating a GT and then describe it at length to prove its accurate existence. This approach, of course, suites the descriptive perspective of most academic research.

Grounded description is further supported by the simple fact that most people, including academics, cannot conceptualize. It is best, if at all, if they can come up with one generated concept. Or if not they can use a conjectured—usually ungrounded—concept, taken from their field literature. That is fine, since description proven accurate, runs the world, with conjectured concepts based on no facts a close second. A distant third is conceptualizing concepts, however powerful they may actually be.

There are many books written now on GT that are actually about grounded description. They confuse the definition and methodology of GT with lofty academic scholarship backed by high-level positions in a university department. They bring GT back to description. Mixed writing on QDA and GT often tend to regress GT to description procedures, such as taping preformed interviews.

In this paper I will discuss many of the differences between GT and conceptual description, so the reader can spot the latter being termed the former. Conceptual description easily results in data overload in quest of full coverage. For a GT concept why keep collecting interchangeable indicators as required by full accurate description once you have a concept? Five or six indicators can be enough, as apposed to dissertation requirements to get data from all respondents on a concept for descriptive generality that will soon become stale dated anyway. Full coverage of data collection is a waste of research resources for generating a GT once a core concept pattern is discovered and theoretically sampled for.

Since concepts are abstract of time, place and people, accuracy is not an issue. Concepts are ranges varying from none to a strong presence as told by other conceptual properties of the core concept that give the core concept a value on the range. And the properties can come from other data. For example rooting (getting from here to there) is a core concept with many general implications depending on the BMRs (basic mobility resources) involved. I will not tell you the data that this theory was generated from. It is not necessary as its generality is so clear and applies so easily. We all root every day to work, to meetings, etc. with planning and budgets.

Coopting GT's conceptual power, popularity etc. for certifying a paper, a meeting or a program occurs frequently by authors and professors. Certifying by reference to GT core variables is easily described at length since core variable general implications are so rich in description. Then GT is lost to its being treated as grounded description. It is called the reversibility of interchangeable indicators. It is hard to stop the flow of indicators for a concept.

GT's goal is to provide conceptual explanation of general patterns of behavior. It is not for verifying hypotheses like descriptive data is. Thus if GT is used to verify facts it easily becomes conceptual description and the GT power is lost to its descriptive use. And a GT has many indicators that can vary the GT conceptually. Some indicators may support the hypothesis and some disprove it. The loss of the GT goal and its power is great when a GT is reduced to descriptive verification.

Many novices and supervisors wish a double goal which is a grabby concept for a GT with lots of illustration. Conceptual theory suffers usually and description dominates. Lots of description easily crowds out conceptual theory with its rich empirical story talk about the general implications of a single rich core concept like super normalizing. Wanting credit for the rich full description wins, by giving many interchangeable indicators. Wanting full descriptive coverage is typical in rich, qualitative research that many colleagues want. Good grounded theory, concepts related to concepts, takes a minimum of illustration if at all. Often a good core concept is self-illustrating. No matter how rich conceptual description may emerge, it is not grounded theory. GT does not require full coverage. Indeed, often the data is forgotten for the emergent GT, which is abstract of the data and applies to many different substantive data. GT is not description, especially not full coverage.

In fact many a novice is never told about conceptual description not being GT and they pursue the former as the latter. They may discover later in the dissertation process

that it is only conceptual description. Or they never discover it and firmly believe they did a GT thesis. Supervisors have a similar problem when they have spent a long career doing conceptual description, do not know GT and simply call conceptual description GT. They feel the jargon fits. They give up nothing methodologically, since a highly illustrated paper, whether conceptual, or just description without concepts, is the way to do it. In short combining concept with heavy description is the way to success. And it is a perspective that is often departmentally required for the dissertation as the OK perspective. Indeed many students who have done a GT (interrelated concepts) have been forced by their committee or supervisor to add much description to the theory to get their dissertation approved.

Conceptual description is forced as descriptive coverage of a topic or group of participants. It is ignored or forgotten or not known that with GT the data from which the GT was generated can easily be forgotten for its general implications for many other data. That GT is abstract of time, place and people is forgotten in favor of descriptive coverage.

Conceptual theory (a GT) can be confused as another type of description and then be related to conceptual description, thereby weakening the GT. A supervisor wrote me after reading this paper,

I just read a paper and this is exactly what the authors were doing. Even when they come up with concepts they just do not get the difference between empirically describing the findings from their study for a GT. A theory to them is not abstract of their full descriptive coverage that they considered the basis of their full data coverage that was the basis of their study.

It is hard for novices and supervisors to give up traditional QDA. And of course many cannot conceptualize. The individualized autonomy, provided by GT methodology is required of researchers for doing GT fully conceptualized plus the ability to conceptualize new concepts. This confusion is usually and often supported by departmental social structures, especially for the PhD process.

Both GT and description are products of different methodologies that get confused to conceptual description. This occurs often during a collaboration of two or more researchers trained in different methodologies, GT methodology being one and a QDA descriptive methodology another. It is hard to give up one's training and its vision and a departmental structure of which there are many structures supporting QDA methods. The researcher sees the way of his methodology, his department perspective and his colleagues. QDA perspective, as conceptual description, wins for its simplicity compared to GT and for its simple methodology that has been in use many years before GT. The same applies to journals: papers are often returned with the request for more description.

Both products are generated from a methodology, conceptual description being far simpler and requiring less ability to conceptualize. And most people, including researchers, live on descriptive accuracy with little or no abstraction. Few individuals and researchers live conceptually. Thus learning to conceptualize and then using the concepts is highly individualized and requires autonomy. Not many researchers can hold the conceptual level according to GT methodology. Slipping down to conceptual description occurs easily and automatically as normal.

To be sure GT and description with a concept or two are both generated by a different methodology. Slipping to description is a slipping from the GT methodology to a descriptive methodology that to most researchers is known. The difference between the particularistic, routine normative data we all garner in our everyday lives and scientific data is that the latter is generated using a methodology. The method makes the product scientific. This may sound trite, but it is just the beginning of many complex research methodology issues. Whatever methodology may be chosen to make a research scientific has many implicit and explicit varying types of data collections. That is what respondents, what pacing and timing for data collection, what type of analysis, etc. and what type of product (book, paper and/or lecture) is the goal. In the case of description or conceptual description, the explicit research goal must be decided. Is full coverage wanted, how to achieve worrisome accuracy, how to interpret the findings etc., etc., how to give the actual generality of the data, what procedures to use? These issues and many more are debated at length in the QDA literature. Thus slipping from GT into conceptual description puts a non-GT claim of many issues on the ensuing analysis. GT is lost to another method with its own issues and problems. GT procedures are passed over and regaining them is doubtful.

There is doubtful correcting of the loss and of slipping away of conceptualization theory (GT) and its procedures. It is a growing problem for GT with still little recognition of the problem in the literature. Given the natural, automatic aspects of conceptual description and its integration into departmental structure and journal requirements, corrections back to GT are apt to come slow and hard to explain, however necessary.

GT is itself a grounded theory with conceptualization being the core category. We all know or have an idea what conceptualization is in general. It comes naturally to most of us, yet GT has procedures for generating emergent, discovered GT concepts. They must be followed for secured grounding. I discussed at length in *Doing GT* (1998), the conceptual license offered by GT methodology to the researcher. In exchange the GT researcher is supposed to use his procedurally generated, emergent, discovered concepts from his data, as opposed to using the reified concepts of conjecture offered by theoretical capitalists. Discovering one's own concept from the research data with fit and relevance is usually very exciting for the researcher. Only 4 or 5 concepts are usually necessary for a GT. New concepts are one of the original contributions of GT.

Unfortunately this is where generating GT often stops by slipping into extensive description of the general implications of the core concept that was discovered. Further steps of generating a GT for the core concern are ignored for and in favor of description procedures. The GT perspective is lost. The freedom, autonomy and license required to generate and write conceptual theory that explains the continual resolving of a main concern is lost. GT methodology is very different from conceptual description which uses a QDA methodology. The GT methodology goal is the multivariate integration of concepts that is of patterns named as concepts and their properties, generated by the constant comparative method. Conceptual description is full accurate descriptive coverage. Interchangeability of conceptual indicators is ignored and used as description. GT methods abstractly transcend all description methods and are never stale dated as descriptions soon

are. Worrysome accuracy for GT is not an issue as with conceptual description. Most GT is generated from qualitative data since it is easier to obtain and less expensive than other data, but it can be generated from. And qualitative data easily becomes descriptive.

These are but a few of the vast differences in the GT and conceptual descriptive methodologies. The reader who knows GT methodology can probably think of many more differences. The reader who does not know GT methods will just have to believe me. He/she will pursue descriptive methods to generate conceptual description with no conflict and not realizing the great loss to GT. As GT spreads slowly throughout the world, the methodological conflict between concepts and description grows and is being resolved in favor of GT conceptualization. It is social and psychological scientists who are mandated to conceptualize a theory and thus learn the rigorous GT procedures of concept generation so they could generate a GT.

The two most important properties of conceptualization that attract researchers are that they are abstract of time, people and place, and the naming of the concept usually has much grab. Thus concepts can live with use forever. One grounded concept can attract much delightful description, like supernormalizing.

The GT concepts must be generated from data: from a series of interchangeable indicators (see my book *Getting Out of the Data*). Concepts based on a single impression do not work, they must be based on the constant comparative method. That is comparing interchangeable indicators showing a pattern of behavior. Forcing a pattern on behavior to surmise a pattern does not work as grounded GT is a form of discovered latent structure analysis grounded in systematically collected data. Conceptual description is accurate description.

In sum the researcher should guard against letting a GT research slip into routine extensive description of one grounded concept.

Pain Resolving in Addiction and Recovery: A Grounded Theory Study

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to develop a classic grounded theory about how addicts resolve their pain during addiction and recovery. Interviews and observations were analyzed and secondary analyses were carried out. Pain emerged as the main concern with pain resolving as the emergent pattern of behavior through which they deal with this concern. Pain resolving is a two-stage basic social psychological process of becoming where their identity is formed based on how they resolve their pain. This process of becoming is progressive over time. These two stages are instantaneous pain relieving and honesting. Trapped in instantaneous pain relieving leads an addict to become a worthless person while continuous life-long implementing of honesting brings the addict towards becoming a fully functioning person. Instantaneous pain relieving and honesting account for the patterns of behavior in resolving pain when an addict is in addiction and during the recovering process respectively.

Keywords: pain, addiction, recovery, obsessing, instant pain relieving, vicious cycling.

Introduction

Theories of addiction are models that explain the causes of addiction and its obsessions. By using these models, addiction could be understood and thus treatment and interventions could be implemented to help addicts.

An accepted model currently used in explaining addiction is the medical model. The medical model of addiction views addiction as a progressive disease with symptoms characterized by an individual's loss of control over the addiction and the progression of the disease that leads to death (Miller, 2005). It also views that addiction could not be cured; however, it could be managed in the long term throughout an individual's life. It allows the individual to be medically cared for without any moral judgment.

The medical model has also evidenced that addiction is

a primary, chronic disease of brain reward, motivation, memory and related circuitry. Dysfunction in these circuits leads to characteristic biological, psychological, social, and spiritual manifestations. This is reflected in an individual pathologically pursuing reward and/or relief by substance use and other behaviors (American Society of Addiction Medicine [ASAM], 2011, para. 1).

Brain scans have shown that there are abnormalities in the individual's brain and the brain improves when the individual abstains from drugs (National Institute on Drug Abuse [NIDA], 2014). These findings are very encouraging.

The medical model of addiction has conceptualized addiction with scientific and clinical evidence; it is useful in understanding addiction and thus able to guide treatments and interventions in addiction recovery. Nevertheless, a social psychological study grounded in data on how addicts continue to resolve their main concerns in addiction and recovery would be beneficial to contribute to the existing body of knowledge on addiction.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to develop a substantive grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) theory that explains how addicts continue to resolve their main concerns during their addiction and recovery. Grounded theory study is not to produce factual, detailed descriptions of data, but an integrated set of related concepts identifying a main concern for participants, as well as the latent pattern underlying how they continually work to resolve their main concern (Glaser, 1998). It focuses on conceptual abstraction and not conceptual description (Glaser, 2001). It is not to be assessed, judged, and evaluated in terms of descriptive accuracy and prediction of a phenomenon of interest. By staying close to the process of theoretical sampling and constant comparison, an emergent theory relevant to the participants studied will result (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Thus, the theory generated in this study can be evaluated in terms of its close adherence to the methodology, its relevance to the participants, and its modifiability in light of newly uncovered data (Glaser, 1978).

Glaser (1978) emphasized conceptualization abstract of time, place, and people. A theory discovered with the grounded theory method should be easy to be used outside the substantive area where it was generated through the generation of a formal grounded theory.

Research Questions

In accordance with grounded theory methodology, the two main research questions guiding this study were as follows: (1) What is the main concern of addicts during their addiction and recovery? (2) How do they go about addressing or resolving this main concern? (Glaser, 1998). The conceptual abstraction of the latent pattern underlying the behavior of participants in addressing or resolving their main concern forms the theory of the substantive area.

Methodology

The methodological procedures delineated in grounded theory, as proposed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), are rigorous. Simultaneous and iterative process of data collection, coding, and constant comparative analysis are carried out to generate a theory. These procedures are highly systematic and consistent. By employing these procedures, the researcher stays close to the data. Thus, the theory emerges from the data. It has grab, fit, and relevance (Glaser, 1978) to study participants.

Glaser (1998) advised that pre-conceptions about the study are to be suspended to allow the theory to emerge. The researcher's pet theories are obstacles to generating a grounded theory. Researchers are strongly asked to trust in emergence and not to "force" a theory on the data. The theory must fit the data to generate a theory properly grounded in data.

The data gathered for this study consist of interviews and observations of recovering addicts and clinicians, and secondary analysis of personal stories from recovering addicts contained in 12-step fellowship printed and online literature of the Alcoholic anonymous (AA) (2001), Narcotics Anonymous (NA) (2008), Marijuana Anonymous (MA) (2001), Gamblers Anonymous (GA) (2007), Sex Addicts Anonymous (SAA) (2005), Co-dependents Anonymous (CODA) (2009), Al-Anon Support Group (Al-anon) (n.d.), Overeaters Anonymous (OA) (n.d., 2013, 2016), Emotions Anonymous (EA) (n.d.), and Emotional Health Anonymous (EHA) (2012) fellowships. Data of personal stories from a diverse group of fellowship were sampled because data show that addicts have multiple addictive and obsessive behaviors. An addict attends different fellowships to overcome specific problems helped by a respective 12-step fellowship.

Interview and observation data were collected directly from the participants by being in their recovery program. Participants were from two sites: (1) a private addiction recovery center that uses 12-steps as the main recovery program, and (2) a public mandatory addiction recovery center that has a 12-steps component as part of its program. Clinical meetings and group sessions were attended to obtain observation data. Individual participants were interviewed to get more clarification of behaviors and comments made during those sessions. Where applicable, when a participant was not able to provide clarification of his or her comments and behavior due to his or her language inability and/or refusal to comment, an experienced participant was sought via email to acquire the needed clarification. These email communications and field notes from the interviews and observations were coded and analyzed using the constant comparison method. The experienced participant who was sought had also proposed a study of 12-step fellowship literatures because they contain data that could answer many of the researcher's interview questions. By using secondary data, i.e., personal stories of addicts contained in the literature, the researcher could complete the study as he found that it was increasingly challenging to acquire more data from participants who are limited by their openness and lacked experience in recovery to provide diverse and extensive data for the study.

These personal stories were collected by the fellowships to share pertinent experiences of addiction and recovery to other people who want to embark on the recovery journey. Thus, these stories are good resource for data to generate a theory. These stories were coded and compared with the interview and observation data. Generally, these stories have two parts. The first part is the story of the recovering addict's addiction and the latter, his or her recovery journey. To date, these stories have not been analyzed using the grounded theory methodological procedures and thus, the stories provide vast opportunities for theorizing. The data from the personal stories helped to achieve theoretical completion. Statements made in these stories were useful to illustrate concepts contained in the theory.

Through theoretical sampling, constant comparison of data, and theoretical saturation, the main category of Pain Resolving and its sub-categories and properties

emerged. The theory is to be judged by its outcome (Glaser, 1998) and evaluated based on fit, workability, relevance, and modifiability.

A Theory of Pain Resolving

Pain is the main concern by most addicts during their addiction and recovery. They experience pain pervasively during their addiction and recovery. They resolve this main concern by pain resolving. As the core category, pain resolving has two sub-categories: (1) instantaneous pain relieving and (2) honesting. While addicts engage in instantaneous pain relieving to resolve pain in addiction, honesting is implemented as a strategy by them in the recovering process to resolve pain.

The next section of this paper discusses the following concepts: pain (as the main concern of the addict), pain resolving (the core category, as how the main concern is resolved), instantaneous pain relieving, honesting, and recovering process.

Pain as the main concern of addicts

Pain is the overall distress that addicts experience in addiction and the recovery process. It includes emotional pain and physical and mental distress.

Pain is largely emotional. Emotional pain is an emotional distressful feeling that the addict encounter as a result of painful experiences in life. It is the "human psychological suffering" (Khantzian, 2003, para. 1) that the addict come across in life. These painful experiences are events of (1) abandonment, (2) rejection, (3) loss, (4) non-approval, (5) betrayal, (6) humiliation, (7) abuse, aggression, and punishment, (8) enforcement of rigid social expectations and beliefs, (9) enmeshment, and (10) controlling. These painful experiences are events caused by others. When these painful experiences are predominantly caused by an addict's parents and family members during his or her childhood, these events are non-nurturing and traumatic to the addict. An addict shares that by the age of 17 years, he was a victim of emotional, physical and sexual abuse, spiritual neglect, enmeshment with his mother and severe abandonment (CODA, 2012, p.372).

These painful experiences cause addicts to undergo emotional pain in the form of feelings of worthlessness throughout their life. These feelings are interconnected and consist of (1) feelings of inadequacy where they feel that they are not good enough, less than or different when compared with others; (2) feelings of un-belongingness where addicts feel that they are unable to fit in, unaccepted, unwanted, un-validated, un-respected and unloved by others; (3) feelings of insecurity where they feel unsafe and unprotected; (4) feelings of emptiness where they feel isolated, bored, alone, lifeless and purposeless; (5) feelings of low self-esteem where self-esteem is the "relational value in other's eyes" (Leary, 1999, p. 34); (6) feelings of hopelessness where they feel useless and desperate. Manifested from these feelings are (7) painful emotions. Common painful emotions are shame, fear, guilt, anger, resentment, anxiety, and depression. They experience an overlapping combination of these feelings and emotions when experiencing the painful experiences in their life and they strive to resolve these feelings. An addict shares: "I felt alone, worthless, hopeless and desperate. I ached for relief" (NA, 2008, p. 354).

While pain is largely emotional, substantial parts of the pain that the addict experiences are physical and mental distress. Physical and mental distress include hurting, diseasing, disabling, and debilitating physical and mental conditions that an addict experiences; they are physical and mental disabilities and diseases that include psychiatric illnesses listed on the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition (DSM-5, American Psychiatric Association, APA, 2013). These physical and mental disabilities and diseases may arise early or later in the addict's life or as a result of the addict engaging in instantaneous pain relieving. An addict shares: "Towards the end of my using, I was suffering from short-term memory loss, shortness of breath and headaches" (MA, 2001, p. 154). An addict shares: "The depression didn't go away. Instead it got much worse. I heard voices and saw people who weren't there The medical team said I was severely depressed and schizophrenic" (NA, 2008, p. 357). Addicts who experience physical and mental distress encounter physical pain along with emotional pain.

Pain resolving

Pain resolving is a basic social psychological process of becoming where the identity of addicts is formed based on the how they resolve their pain. This process of becoming is progressive over time as addicts resolve their pain and is consists of two inter-related stages: (1) instantaneous pain relieving through vicious cycling in gaining instant (immediate but temporary) pain relief in the form medication, reward, sense of worth and escape from the pain by obsessing over a combination of instant pain relievers. Engaging in instantaneous pain relieving is a natural tendency by addicts; and (2) honesting where addicts resolve their pain by facing it when they are in the recovering process. Honesting is a binary strategy where addicts are being honest by relating and belonging to their trusted-others. It is a long-term resolution for their pain; they free themselves progressively from instantaneous pain relieving. Progressing into this stage also means that the addict has embarked on the recovering process.

Instantaneous pain relieving and honesting account for the patterns of behavior in resolving pain when addicts are in addiction and recovering process respectively.

In Stage One, engaging in instantaneous pain relieving, addicts progressively become worthless people who increasingly (1) lose their freedom and are trapped in a vicious cycle; (2) experience pain in the form feelings of worthlessness especially hopelessness and desperation pervasively in their lives, (3) lose their will and purpose to live except for obsessing over a combination of instant pain relievers, finally choosing or ending-up dying to resolve their pain; (4) under-developed in maturity as pain is instant relieved rather than faced; (5) perceived by others as immature and socially rejected as he not able to "engage with the world from a place of worthiness" (Brown, 2012, p. 37) and is "disengaged from active participation in normal social networks" (Bigus, 1996, p. 15) as time passes.

In Stage Two, addicts are progressively becoming a fully-functioning person who gradually (1) "able to experience all of his feelings" (Rogers, 1963, p. 22) of pain; (2) uses pain as a catalyst for his or her continued development and maturity; (3) is empowered to live the good life; and (4) is perceived by others as mature and socially respected as they progress over time in implementing honesting in the recovering process as a long term resolution for their pain thereby freeing themselves from instantaneous pain relieving. The good life is a process of movement and not a fixed

state where it involves an increasing (1) openness to experience, (2) tendency to live fully in each moment, and (3) trust in themselves to arrive at the most satisfying behavior in each situation (Rogers, 1961).

Although there are many addicts who are trapped in instantaneous pain relieving, addicts progress to honesting when they experience a moment of clarity that arises when they hit bottom in their life and experience intense pain in the form of worthlessness, hopelessness, and desperation. They realize that instantaneous pain relieving did not work to resolve their pain but only bring them more pain. Thus, they implement honesting. An addict (MA, 2001) says:

The day finally came when I had a moment of clarity. I hope I never forget that day. I couldn't take it any more. I was sick and tired of being sick and tired. I just wanted the pain of everyday life to stop! I wanted my life to be so much more, but I had no idea how to achieve it. I cried out to my Higher Power that night to help me. (p. 148)

Instantaneous pain relieving

When addicts are engaging in instantaneous pain relieving they are vicious cycling in gaining instant (immediate but temporary) pain relief by obsessing over a combination of instant pain relievers. When addicts obsess over an instant pain reliever, they fixate on, crave for, pursue, and use the instant pain reliever. They preoccupy themselves with the instant pain reliever in extremes compulsively and impulsively, and disregard the adverse consequences of more pain that arise from continuing to obsess over the instant pain reliever (Smith and Seymour in Coombs, 2004; Coombs, 2004; Smith, & Seymour, 2004; and Carnes, Murray, & Charpentier, 2004).

Instant pain relief is gained in the form of immediate (1) medication for the pain, (2) reward, (3) a sense of self-worth, and (4) an escape from the pain.

It is natural tendency for addicts to engage often in instantaneous pain relieving to resolve their pain as the obsessing over instant pain relievers "is often more subtle and serendipitous" (Suh, 2008, p. 29).

In this section, vicious cycling, obsessing over a combination of instant pain relievers, and instant pain relief are discussed.

Vicious cycling

When an addict is vicious cycling in gaining instant (immediate but temporary) pain relief, the following circular trajectories are observed (1) reprising of pain, (2) amplifying causal looping between obsessing over a combination of instant pain relievers and pain, (3) downward spiraling, and (4) intergenerational and social transmitting.

Reprising of pain arises because painful experiences are re-enacted when addicts obsess over a combination of instant pain relievers. Their lives revolve around their painful experiences, pain, and obsessing over a combination of instant pain relievers to gain instant relief in the form of temporary and immediate medication, reward, sense of worth, and escape from their pain. An addict states: "Day after day the same sad reality of living with a disease that wanted to kill me, and torture for those who had the misfortune to be part of my life" (NA, 2008, p. 327).

Amplifying causal looping between obsessing over a combination of instant pain relievers and pain is observed when the wearing-out of the immediate but temporary effect of the obsessing over instant pain relievers leads addicts to amplified pain. An addict shares: "you see, it was very short time after started using, that alcohol and drugs quit doing what they did in the beginning. The fear had returned, only much worse than before" (NA, 2008, p. 129). Thus, addicts have to continue obsessing over a combination of instant pain relievers in an increased fashion to relieve their amplified pain. The increased obsessing characterizes tolerance where addicts "require increasing amounts [of instant pain relievers] to achieve the desired effect" (Coombs, 2004, p. xiii).

An addict shares as follows: "My feelings of anger, resentment, and hatred fueled by justification for using more and more" (NA, 2008, p. 209).

Downward spiraling consists of the deterioration of addicts as time passes where they gradually lose attributes that they value in life and the control of their lives. When they lose these attributes, they lose those that determine their self-esteem. Relationships and acceptance of others is a major esteemed attribute among others. An alcoholic shares: "I went from being a solid A student to nearly flunking out of school, from being anointed a class leader to being shunned as a pariah" (AA, 2001, p. 424).

In losing control of their lives, they fail to control their obsessing over instant pain relievers and end up being controlled by their obsessing behaviors. They live in an illusion of control where control is a paradox. A marijuana addict (MA, 2001) describes his experience as follows:

At the end, I was smoking to stop the craving. Even though smoking pot wasn't fun, I couldn't stop. I've heard that one of the meanings of the word addiction is slavery, and I was truly a slave to marijuana. (p. 117)

Losing attributes that they value in life and the control of their lives cause addicts to experience more pain in the form of worthlessness especially hopelessness and desperation that lead them to lose their will to live.

Intergenerational and social transmitting occurs through learning where addicts develop their obsessing over instant pain relievers by modelling, exposing, and responding to others' obsessions over instant pain relievers and the painful experiences that are caused by other people on them throughout their lives. Such "other people" are those with whom addicts have close, intimate, and social contact. An addict shares: "I grew up the oldest child in an alcoholic family" (CODA, 2012, p. 273). Another addict (CODA, 2012) shares as follows:

I learned it was more important to please my parents than to express my feelings I was subjected to systematic beatings, public humiliation, unmerciful criticisms and constant intimidation. I grew up in confusion and terror, tension and fear became a way of life. (p. 545)

In turn, due to their obsessing over instant pain relievers, addicts enact painful events and pain of people around them (especially their children and family members).

Instant pain relief

Obsessing over a combination of instant pain relievers provide relief to addicts in the form of medication for the pain. When pain is medicated, it is numbed, deprived, coped, ameliorated, compensated and made tolerable (Khantzian, 2003; Suh, Ruffins, Robin, Albanese & Khantzian; 2008, Khantzian & Albanese, 2008; Carnes, Murray & Charpentier, 2004; & Coombs, 2004). An addict shares: "If I get rejected, left out, treated as second best, or am not wanted in some way, the pain can become acute. I used to medicate this pain with drugs" (NA, 2008, p. 221).

Instant pain relief in the form of reward is the savoring of excitement, pleasure and achievement. A marijuana addict shares: "I thought it was delicious. My head felt light and I began to giggle" (MA, 2001, p. 189). Another addict shares:

Relief came at the ripe old age of sixteen in the form of alcohol at a dance. Immediately my fear of girls was gone. My two left feet disappeared, and I knew exactly when and where to lay my newfound wisdom of people. (NA, 2008, p. 136)

Instant pain relief also comes in the form of sense of self-worth that is false; it consists of a false sense of adequacy, belongingness, security, self-esteem, wholeness and purpose, and hope. An addict clarifies:

I felt more confident, more popular, and less worried about what people think of me. My inhibitions melted away and I felt I could be who I wanted to be, that I fit into the world and somehow belonged. Music sounded better and women were more attracted to me. (MA, 2001, p. 127)

And finally, instant pain relief is in the form of escape from pain. Here, escape is a negative reinforcement to respond to an on-going state of distress (Duncan in Achalu, 2002). An addict shares: "I didn't want to deal with those feelings that had come up. I felt too vulnerable, and once again I was looking for a way out" (SAA, 2005, p. 219).

Obsessing over a combination of instant pain relievers

Instant pain relievers are "objects of obsession" (NA, 2008, p. 270) to addicts. As objects of obsessions they are "entities that are capable of stimulating a person" (Alavi, Jannatifard, Eslami, Alaghemandan, & Setare, 2011, p. 290).

The combination of instant pain relievers that addicts obsess over are interconnected and they are (1) addictive substances, (2) activity, (3) people and relationships, (4) self-importance, (5) perfection, (6) irrationality (7) denial, (8) deception, (9) avoidance, (10) aggression, (11) fantasy, (12) control, and (13) death.

The obsessing over a combination of instant pain relievers is self-organizing where its mix grows and adjusts gradually over time according to level of pain experienced by the addict. It portrays the multiple addictions that addicts have. An addict shares that her life is consists of many addictions and self-destructive behaviors that forms her multi-faceted addiction (CODA, 2012).

The self-organizing nature of obsessing over a combination of instant pain relievers is brought to life where the addict takes on the interconnected processes of experimenting and taking risks in adding and substituting the obsessing over an instant pain reliever to experience instant relief as pain level changes. The instant pain relievers that were added and substituted could be of similar or different types.

When the addict is experimenting and taking risks in adding, he or she is (1) simultaneously increasing (Carnes, Murray, & Charpentier, 2004) the obsessing over two

or more instant pain relievers, (2) combining, (3) intensifying i.e. accelerating, augmenting or refining, (4) masking, and (5) mediating (Carnes, Murray, & Charpentier, 2004) the obsessing over one instant pain reliever with another one, and (6) ritualizing (Carnes, Murray, & Charpentier, 2004) the obsessing over one or more instant pain relievers as a prelude to another one.

However, when the addict experimenting and taking risks is substituting, the addict is (1) replacing, (2) disinhibiting or lowering the inhibition of, or (3) inhibiting or deterring (Carnes, Murray, & Charpentier, 2004) obsessing over one instant pain reliever with another one.

Experimenting and taking risks in adding and substituting are acts of reinforcement where the addict obsesses over one instant pain reliever and reinforces the obsession over an instant pain reliever of a similar or different type. The functional analysis (Ramnero, & Torneke, 2008) of this reinforcement is that when the addict experiences pain as the antecedent (A), he or she obsesses over an instant pain reliever as a behavioral (B) response; the consequence (C) of this behavior is temporary pain relief. When the pain returns and often amplified with other painful experiences, this pain, in turn, will be an antecedent for the behavior of obsessing over another or similar instant pain reliever. This process repeats; with each repetition, the obsession over a combination of instant pain relievers grows and adjusts; pain increases thus leading the addict to vicious cycle.

This addict (NA, 2008) shares:

As I got older, my feelings of discomfort and isolation kept getting stronger. My ability to belong was a source of some of my most painful feelings. I couldn't find anyone to feel comfortable and close with. I did anything to get attention or approval from others. Sometimes I was loud and active; at times I was very quiet, I kept looking for a place to belong.... I started smoking cigarettes when I was sixteen and kept wanting to try new things. While I was attending college, I decided to get married to fill the hole that I felt inside me. In my second year of marriage, my daughter was born. My feelings of loneliness followed me into adulthood. I kept looking for new things to fill my emptiness. Every time I found something new I thought it would fix me. However, anything that I tried kept my interest only for a short while and eventually led to more problems and headaches. On the surface I seemed to have a good comfortable life, but on the inside I was ready to explode. I found drugs when I was twenty-eight. (p. 368)

Honesting

Honesting is a binary life-long and lifestyle-based strategy that most addicts carry out to face pain when they are in the recovering process as a long-term resolution for their pain; it frees themselves progressively from instantaneous pain relieving. Facing pain includes embracing, moving and living through it and taking a moment at a time to allow it to pass. An addict shares: "the only way to live is to walk through fear" (NA, 2008, p. 324). Addicts consciously and continuously work on themselves to implement honesting in their recovering process because it is natural tendency to engage into instantaneous pain relieving when they experience pain.

Honesting involves addicts being honest by relating and belonging to trusted-others. By relating and belonging to trusted-others, the addict is empowered in being honest. An addict shares: "I am empowered" (CODA, 2012, p. 248). This empowerment is in the form of support, guidance, belongingness, hope, and sanity.

Trusted-others are interconnected external trustworthy entities with whom addicts trust in being honest. They are a trusted person, group, and personal Higher Power. An addict shares: "I needed to trust something outside of me" (NA, 2008, p. 387). A trusted person is an individual that has the experience and expertise in empowering the addict in being honest. A trusted group consists of people who collectively empower the addict to be honest. They often consist of people who implement honesting and are in the recovering process themselves. A trusted personal Higher Power is a spiritual entity that is considered greater and better than the addicts based on their personal understanding. Many addicts commonly understand their personal Higher Power as a deity, while some addicts may regard spirituality, or extend their trusted group that embodies this spirituality as their personal Higher Power.

Trusted-others have specific characteristics that make them able to empower the addict in being honest. These characteristics are as follows: (1) love, and compassion which is a "deliberate commitment to pursue the welfare and best interest" (Miller & Rollnick, 2012, p. 43) of the addict; (2) unconditional acceptance which is the basic and warm acceptance (Rogers, 1957) towards the addict, (3) peace and joy that the addict wants, (4) more superior ability (that is knowledge and skills) than the addict and experience with which the addict could identify, and (5) honesty, which is genuineness and accuracy in representation (Rogers, 1957) to help the addict.

In this section, being honest, and relating and belonging to trusted-others are discussed.

Being honest

Being honest is a continuous process of capturing a moment at a time to gain clarity and be real with the empowerment of trusted-others.

In gaining clarity, addicts obtain a moment of clarity in the form of insight that their pain is largely due to their own obsessing over a combination of instant pain relievers with the empowerment of their trusted-others. An addict (NA, 2008) shares how a trusted-other empowers him in capturing his moment of clarity:

Our next meeting was very productive. He asked me: 'What are your feelings from the work you have done?' I said: 'I am not only just a drug addict. I have an addictive personality. My sexual life has the same symptoms of addiction as when I use drugs'. (p. 346)

Gaining clarity can be sudden or gradual. An addict (NA, 2008) shares:

Some people experience recovery like a lightning bolt: a sudden flash of understanding and clarity, an immediate lifting of desire to use. The effect of the program on me was more like rain or wind, gradually eroding my false beliefs. (p. 289)

When addicts are being real, they are empowered (1) to express themselves authentically, (2) to admit and accept the painful truths in their life, and (3) to take action and responsibility by their trusted-others.

In being real, addicts are empowered to express themselves authentically when they share their feelings openly with their trusted-others. An addict shares: "I was dumped, and instead of dwelling on the rejection, I took inventory. I shared and shared" (MA, 2010, p. 363). They are being themselves as they do not need to hide their feelings. It is "to be that self which one truly is" (Kierkegaard in Rogers, 1961, p. 166).

They are empowered to admit and accept the painful truths in their life because they do it in the presence of their trusted-others. An addict shares: "I went to a meeting in the morning and shared directly about my recent experience, and exposed the dark secrets of my shame to the light of recovery before a group of men" (NA, 2008, p. 354). Addicts admit and accept the painful truth in their lives especially their imperfections, inability to control to obtain their desired outcomes, and "the label" (Bigus, 1996, p. 17) of an addict. Acceptance is important in instituting change. Carl Rogers stated: "The curious paradox is that when I accept myself just as I am, then I can change" ("Revisiting Carl Rogers Theory of Personality", 2015, para. 1).

Addicts are empowered to take action and act responsibility. They take action by allowing themselves to be vulnerable, where vulnerability is "uncertainty, risk and emotional exposure" (Brown, 2012, p. 40); they take risks to be honest with the empowerment of their trusted-others. Next, they are empowered to take responsibility for their actions by making amends by apologizing and correcting his future behavior with the empowerment of their trusted-others. When they make amends, they mend their relationships with others. An addict (NA, 2008) shares how he was guided to make amends to mend his relationships with her family members:

I quickly went over my Ninth Step work with my sponsor so that I would be able to make amends to my mother, stepfather, brother, and sister-in-law all in one week. They all said the only amends I could make for them was to stay clean. (p. 280)

Relating and belonging to trusted-others

Relating and belonging to trusted-others consists of the following interconnected actions: (1) seeking help, (2) learning from trusted-others, (3) letting-go in their presence, (4) getting involved, and (5) staying open (which includes staying open-minded, aware, present, spontaneous, willing, humble, reachable and teachable) with trusted-others. These actions are social processes that benefit the addict (Timko, Halvorson, Kong, & Moos, 2015). A cyclic trust process can be observed when the addict is relating and belonging to trusted others.

The cyclic trust process in relating and belonging to trusted-others

When relating and belonging to trusted-others, most addicts go through a cyclic trust process that develops, progresses, and repeats as time passes. The process repeats when addicts relate and belong to new trusted-others in being honest to resolve their pain. The cyclic trust process has four inter-related stages: Denying, Accepting, Discovering, and Trusting.

At the denying stage, addicts resist and doubt the relevance of the trusted-others to their recovery. An addict shares: "it was hard for me to see how they applied to my situation. I was terminally unique" (CODA, 2012, p. 538). Another addict shares: "These people were not like me How could I relate to them?" (NA, 2008, p. 300). Addicts most often resist in relating and belonging to their personal Higher Power. This resistance is due to their (1) self-will or the illusion that they are in control, (2) blame of the Higher Power for causing their pain, (3) the belief that the Higher Power is judgmental and punishing, or (4) not believing in a Higher Power. The addict's trusted person or group helps him to relate and belong with his personal Higher Power which is his ultimate empower-er. An addict (CODA, 2012) shares: "My sponsor was wise in guiding me toward reliance on my permanent sponsor, God" (p. 419).

Next, at the accepting stage, addicts accept the relevance of the trusted-other out of no other choice. An addict shares: "This was not the place for me to step back in and try to figure out the 'hows' of God's work" (CODA, 2012, p. 541). They decide to accept the trusted-other as they are in a lot of pain. An addict shares: "I felt extreme emotion. I didn't want to go back but I knew I had to" (CODA, 2012, p. 513). Another addict shares: "I was hurting so much I was willing to do anything" (NA, 2008, p. 321).

At the discovering stage, addicts search, find-out, and experience the relevance of the trusted other with their recovery. An addict shares: "I started to hear, and started to have some hope, and started to laugh, and started to understand a little bit, and started to want to live" (NA, 2008, p. 328).

Finally, at the trusting stage, they build and have faith in the trusted-other because they are gaining their life and peace in through the empowerment of the trusted-other. An addict (NA, 2008):

For the same reason I didn't panic like I used to. Instead I took a deep breath and looked for a new position in the corporation. Out of the blue I was offered a better position. The miracle of that ordeal was not the last-minute job offer but the calm response so unusual for me. It was the first sign of my growing faith. (p. 268)

Recovering Process

By implementing honesting, the addicts are grounded in reality and thus are recovering. An addict shares: "I have to stay honest, for that's the way I stay clean" (NA, 2008, p.133).

Recovering is a two-fold, life-long progress-based process where addicts take a moment at a time, staying clean and going beyond. Recovering is asymptotic and a continuous process where addicts could only do the best they could at any point of time. Thus, they focus on progress and not a perfect outcome. An addict shares: "there is no end to the process, so there's no need to hurry" (NA, 2008, p. 288).

Staying clean and going beyond are interrelated process steps; they reinforce each other.

In staying clean, addicts make a choice to abstain from obsessing over their combination of instant pain reliever, and maintain their abstinence. Recovery is not a matter of cutting down, but a matter of stopping all together (Bigus, 1996) the obsessing over instant pain relievers. An addict shares: "What keeps us clean is the choice that each of us makes not to pick up and to live this way of life to the best of our ability" (NA, 2008, p. 276). Thus, addicts gain clean time and find their obsession over instant pain relievers diminish as time passes with the progress of their implementation of honesting. An addict shares: "I have not used, binged, purged, or self-mutilated for the fifteen years I have been in NA. I have not, since that early suicide attempt, heard voices" (NA, 2008, p. 363).

Going beyond consists of (1) continuously working on self, (2) gaining life and peace, (3) being grateful, and (4) impacting others. They are interconnected. However, they are distinguished as follows:

In continuously working on self, addicts work on their development (which includes personal growth, transformation, maturity, and self-discovery) by implementing honesting in all facets of their life to discover what they lack thus leading them to learn new professional, intrapersonal, and interpersonal skills to resolve their issues and heal themselves. An addict shares: "I have discovered so much about myself" (NA, 2008, p. 238).

In gaining life, they gain attributes that they value in life that determine their self-esteem. Relationships and acceptance of others is a major attribute among others that they gain. An addict shares: "I had earned the respect of my fellow NA members and the community. I even had a soul mate, a wonderful lady who was clean in NA. I was living life" (NA, 2008, p. 257). Addicts gain relationships by acquiring new relationships, regaining lost ones, and accepting that some relationships could not be regained.

Most of all they gain peace while still facing pain. Peace is the feeling of "worthiness" (Brown, 2012, p. 65)—an accurate sense of adequacy, security, belongingness, wholeness and purpose, and hope. Peace is experienced and expressed spiritually, intrinsically and extrinsically. An addict shares: "Given the reality that I will face severe illness each day, and still being able to stay clean, that's an incredible miracle! Spiritually, I'm in a state of grace" (NA, 2008, p. 260).

In being grateful, addicts are thankful for gaining life and peace from the empowerment to be honest that they gained from relating and belonging to their trusted-others. An addict (NA, 2008) shares:

I'm alive because of NA has blessed me with a clean life. Recovery makes it possible for me to treasure the moments when I have a serene heart, and to be grateful for the miracles, large and small, happening around me. (p. 260)

Being grateful, the addict impacts others by taking on the role of a trusted-other and giving back to other addicts and other people outside of the community of addicts. An addict shares about that he is able to give back to his daughter because he received it from his fellowship (NA, 2008, p. 388). By impacting others, addicts participate in a virtuous cycle where they benefit not only the life of others but also their own when they benefit others.

However, when addicts are in the recovering process, regressing and relapsing are common. Bigus (1996) observed that "recovery plans are usually doomed to failure" (p. 19). When addicts regress and relapse, they re-engage in instantaneous pain relieving. Regressing and relapsing happen for the following interconnected reasons: (1) addicts experience pain, (2) recovering is not prioritized by addicts, and (3) stopping to work on themselves by implementing honesting because of complacency is not prioritized. Most addicts return to honesting to return to the recovering process.

Limitation of Study

Data collected are from rehabilitation centers that have the 12-steps as the main ingredient or a component in their recovery program, and from secondary data available

from printed and online literature from 12-steps fellowships. Data from participants and secondary data from non 12-steps groups or organizations, such as therapeutic communities (TC's), sober houses, half-way houses, and other self-help groups such as the SMART Recovery (Self-management for Addiction Recovery) group, were not included in this study due to constraints of time, availability, and the researcher's knowledge about the organization.

Implication of Study

This grounded theory on substance addiction and recovery can be used by addicts to understand themselves better with the assistance of a mental health professional. Mental health professionals could focus on the main concerns that matters to addicts easily with the concepts that were generated from this theory. These concepts serve as guideposts for mental health professionals in treating addicts. Misdirection of issues by mental health professionals during treatment and interventions could be reduced and avoided.

Conclusion

Together with the medical or disease model, this grounded theory on pain resolving can be used to implement intervention programs for addicts. Mental health professionals will be able to focus on the main concerns and issues of addicts with guidance of this grounded theory thus reducing and avoiding misdirection of issues in treatment and interventions.

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Optimising Capacity – A Service User and Caregiver Perspective on Reablement

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Abstract

Reablement focuses on offering individuals the opportunity to regain independence and thus stay longer in their homes. Few studies have looked at service users and caregivers' perspectives on reablement. There is also a lack of theories grounded in this relatively new field of practise. This study aims to generate a grounded theory of service users' and their caregivers' experiences of reablement. The empirical data are based on interviews with 17 service users and 10 caregivers and observations of reablement provision. For seniors to manage as well as possible in their own homes emerged as the main concern. The core category is optimising capacity. The grounded theory builds on the core category, integrating identified strategies and concepts of health and coping. The conditions of reablement are grounded in the social and cultural life of the recipient. We conclude, therefore, that including the individual's life history and existing coping strategies is essential to the success of reablement.

Keywords: grounded theory, reablement, service user, caregiver, optimising capacities, open concept of health, coping.

Background

Reablement (also known as restorative care) is an approach focused on offering individuals the opportunity to regain independence and thus stay in their own homes longer. The goal of reablement is for service users to re-learn skills and find new ways to perform daily activities, be active, socialise, and participate in society. The method consists of using physical training and adaptive equipment to strengthen actions the individual defines as important (Tuntland, Espehaug, Forland, Hole, Kjerstad, & Kjekken, 2014.; Winkel, Langberg, & Wæhrens, 2014). Reablement is time-limited, person-centred, and typically delivered by an integrated team consisting of various health professionals such as nurses, occupational therapists, physiotherapists, and nurse assistants (Kjerstad & Tuntland, 2016; Wilde & Glendinning, 2012). Reablement services are increasingly offered to everyone who meets local eligibility criteria for home-care services. Still, aging persons (65+) are the most common recipients of reablement. The targeted populations are individuals with diverse mortality and morbidity risks, multimorbidity, and diverse

prognostic outcomes, symptoms and disabilities. Exclusion criteria are typically advanced cognitive impairments and end-of-life care (Legg, Gladman, Drummond, & Davidson, 2016; Wilde & Glendinning, 2012). Reablement is supposed to represent a shift from reactive home care services to preventative and proactive models based on early intervention and active engagement (Legg et al., 2016).

The evidence for reablement is growing, but the ill-defined intervention towards a heterogeneous service user group means that it is complicated to get an overview of the state of knowledge (Legg et al., 2016). Reablement is found to improve the ability of aging persons receiving reablement services to engage in daily activities (Lewin & Vandermeulen, 2009; Winkel et al., 2014) and to have positive impacts on their health-related quality of life and social care outcomes (Glendinning et al., 2010). Reablement is often presented as a solution to future health service challenges. However, there is still very little knowledge about what recipients of this service view as important. Few studies have looked at service users and caregivers' perspective on reablement. It is not clear who benefits most from reablement and which barriers to independence arise (Glendinning et al., 2010; Ryburn, Wells, & Foreman, 2009; Wilde & Glendinning, 2012). Barriers may be compounded when service users live alone or have few social contacts, or when they have a limited understanding of the purpose of reablement. It is unclear how reablement affects relatives and whether their involvement influences the outcomes (Glendinning et al., 2010; Wilde & Glendinning, 2012). Insights into service users' and relatives' experiences provide important feedback about the delivery and content of the reablement services (Wilde & Glendinning, 2012). A Norwegian study of older adults' experiences of reablement concluded that the support must be adapted to the older adults' resources and health and that municipal healthcare services need to consider individualised programmes of follow-up after reablement (Hjelle, Tuntland, Førland, & Alvsvåg, 2015). Another Norwegian study found it important to look beyond how activities are performed when examining participant satisfaction with homecare services (Witsø, Eide, & Vik, 2012).

The present study seeks to explore how service users experience reablement services. The study also includes the informal caregivers in order to build knowledge about their involvement and experiences. The goal of the study is to generate a grounded theory of service users' and their caregivers' experiences of reablement services. The following research question guided the study: What is the participants' main concern and how do they resolve it?

Methodological Approach

A grounded theory approach was considered suitable for exploring reablement from a service user and carer perspective with the aim of generating theory (Glaser, 1978; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). We use the data to discover the participants' main concern and the social processes to explain how the participants resolve it. Grounded theory focuses on human action and interaction. The aim of grounded theory is to discover patterns emerging in the data, and to formulate theories that are grounded in the world of the participants (Glaser, 1978; Walsh et al., 2015). Grounded theory is a constructive process in what Glaser and Strauss (1967) called the constant comparative approach. The approach involves a building process from descriptions to theory.

Study Context and Participants

The present study is a part of a Norwegian project investigating various perspectives on reablement (Moe & Gårseth-Nesbakk, 2015). The study was initiated by the municipality in order to evaluate its reablement service. The study took place in a Norwegian municipality located in the Arctic region. The reablement service has been established relatively recently and includes participants from rural and urban areas. The reablement practitioners recruited participants for the study. We asked for variations in age and gender and for participants from rural and urban areas. We also asked the reablement practitioners not to be selective. All service users receiving reablement were potential participants in the study. The target group for the reablement service was home-dwelling residents requesting municipal health care. They could also be existing service users receiving conventional home-care who were assessed to have rehabilitation potential. The exclusion criteria were significant cognitive impairment, mental health problems, or substance dependence, all of which hamper the reablement process. The reablement practitioners assessed the service users' competence to give consent before asking them to participate in the study. They gave the participants written and verbal information about the study. Participants consented to participate in research interviews, to the researcher observing the provision of reablement services in their home, and for the researcher to contact a care giver (a carer). An information letter was sent to caregivers, and they replied to the researcher by post. Altogether, 17 service users and 10 caregivers participated in the study. All service users had received reablement for at least three weeks before the interview (the average time spent in reablement was 6 weeks).

Data Collection

Data collection took place in 2014 and 2015; the data consist of individual interviews and field observations of reablement service provision in participants' homes. Six service users had completed the reablement service before participating in the study. The other 11 consented to the researcher being present while they received reablement services at home. Field observations of reablement service provision were undertaken to gain knowledge of "what is going on" in a reablement situation and to observe the service users' spontaneous responses and utterances. Notes were taken during and after the observations. Interviews were conducted in service users' homes. Each interview was prepared based on ongoing analysis, but all participants were encouraged to speak openly about their experiences and conditions related to the reablement process. Interviews were audio recorded and notes were taken after each interview. Caregivers were interviewed by telephone. The researcher took notes during the conversations. A six-month follow-up interview was conducted with service users in order to gain knowledge of the period after reablement and its process from a more distanced point of view. Follow-up interviews were scheduled after the first interview, and took place by telephone or in interviewees' homes.

Data Analysis

In accordance with grounded theory (Glaser, 1978; Glaser & Strauss, 1967), analysis and data collection were carried out simultaneously. The first 10 interviews were transcribed verbatim. The transcripts were read line-by-line and analysed several times using a system of open, selective, and theoretical coding (Glaser, 1978). The open coding focused on coding incidents in the data. QSR International's NVivo 10 software (QSR International Pty Ltd., 2012) was used to store data properly and as a coding tool. Codes were printed, sorted, and examined on a whiteboard. Field notes were coded and added to the whiteboard. Codes were sorted in categories and memo writing focused on the relationships between codes and categories. Memos were hand sorted as a part of the process of searching for participants' patterns of behaviour. Patterns are what the participants do to resolve their main concerns (Walsh et al., 2015). After identifying the participants' main concern, a core category was conceptualised. Categories related to the core category were identified (selective sampling) and sorted into subcategories. After the first 10 interviews, the main concern and the core category emerged. We conducted seven more interviews in the theoretical sampling phase until we reached saturation, meaning the new data fitted the concepts and properties. By writing memos on memos, we developed the theoretical codes further.

Research Ethics

The study conforms to the principles outlined in the Declaration of Helsinki. The Norwegian Data Inspectorate approved the study (reference 36770). The study was presented to the Regional Committee for Medical and Health Research Ethics in Norway. The committee found approval to be unnecessary (2013/2145/REK Nord). All participants received written and verbal information about the study and gave informed consent. All data has been treated confidentially.

The Theory of Optimising Capacity

The main concern of seniors receiving reablement and their caregivers consists of experiences of a challenging everyday life. The challenging life of seniors is composed of functional impairments, frailty, several health professionals, assistive technology, loneliness, medication, and environmental barriers. The life as caregivers consists of responsibility, practical tasks, support, multiple health agencies, and negotiating. For the seniors to manage as well as possible in their own homes emerged as the main concern. Even though the seniors and the caregivers are heterogeneous and diverse groups, they share this main concern. Seniors have the need for public health services because of functional impairments. However, there is a significant range in age, functional states, and goals for the reablement process. The main concern is congruent with the municipal goal for the reablement service, though the municipality's focus on independence is stronger. To manage as well as possible means not to aim for total independence or to find help from others as a defeat. It involves managing important, daily activities such as maintaining personal hygiene, preparing meals, and manoeuvring safely inside. Managing daily life is also about doing meaningful activities outside the home. To manage as well

as possible involves an acceptance of the life situation and a wish for a qualitatively good life within available capacities.

The theory of optimising capacity builds on the core category and summarises the process of how study participants act to resolve their main concern. Optimising capacities means making the best out of each person's resources, despite functional impairments. Optimising capacities by such strategies as appreciating a push, physical strengthening, adapting the environment, and building confidence explains how the seniors become able to live in their own homes. Appreciating a push is accepting the motivational work of reablement professionals. The strategy relates to the core category by being the first step in the reablement process. It is also a prerequisite for the other strategies. Physical strengthening relates to the core category by being a significant factor in optimising service recipients' physical capacities. By training muscular strength and flexing joints, the capacities of the body increase. Adapting the environment highlights the role played by the external surroundings. The home situation can become manageable if adaptations and changes are made. The last strategy, building confidence, is a process that goes on in parallel with the other strategies. Building confidence takes time and is based on repetitions of exercises and activities, increased knowledge, and support from others. All together, these strategies lead to an optimising of capacities during the reablement process, making the seniors able to live as well as possible in their own homes. The strategies are presented in the following sections.

Appreciating a push

Appreciating a push means accepting the motivational work done by the reablement practitioners. Seniors residents, like most others, sometimes need motivation and a helping hand to start and sustain physical activity. The push is mentioned as "a kick in the butt". The appreciation of a push is the start of the reablement process. The strategy includes trusting the practitioners, experience meaning, being viewed as a capable person and valuing the social dimension of having someone coming to your home every day. The strategy does also include perceiving there is no choice and filling the expectations of citizenship.

Trusting the practitioners means finding them to be qualified, and the knowledge concerning the rehabilitation potentially valuable in advanced age, and the benefits of being active understandable. Experience meaning involves that the goals and methods of the reablement service are meaningful. If they are not, the reablement service will be a hassle. The idea of experience meaning depends on what the individual finds important. Seniors are being viewed as capable persons when the practitioners point out their resources and rehabilitation potential. The fact that someone outside the family view you as a capable person is emphasised as important. Valuing the social dimension is a significant property of appreciating a push. The intensive training of reablement includes home visits every day. Valuing the social is appreciating the aspect of doing activities with someone.

I believe this is good. It might also be because I enjoy the company. The fact that they are coming every day is a big motivational factor. It is so much easier to do exercises together with someone. Everyone needs a "kick in the butt". I needed someone to get me started (Woman, age 78).

The idea of perceiving there is no choice is about feeling obliged to accept the reablement service. It is about experiencing the message of "this is what is being offered to you", which does not involve a possibility to choose. In that way, appreciating a push

also includes the external aspect of being a recipient of public services. Filling the expectations of citizenship consists of predetermined roles as being a part of society. Media and other societal discourses build on the impression of how hard it is to receive proper elderly care. This leads to a resident gratitude for everything being offered.

Appreciating a push leads to a new glow, better mood, and an increased spark of life. Even though the appreciation of a push is based on external factors rather than inner motivation, the result is accepting the reablement service. Therefore, this strategy lays the foundation for the other strategies.

Physical strengthening

Physical strengthening is performed by doing strengthening exercises and activities of daily life at home and in the neighbourhood. As reablement is activity-based, physical strengthening is a core aspect of optimising the physical capacities. Exercises and other therapeutic activities are based on a detailed screening that identifies activity goals and functional impairments. The screening also reveals other factors contributing to functional losses such as pain, malnutrition, and medication use.

The physical strengthening primarily involves remedying muscular weakness evoked through long-time passivity or immobility after disease and surgery. The muscular weakness causes walking difficulties, unsteadiness, and pain. Walking difficulties and unsteadiness cause fear of falling and immobility. Even though physical strengthening is a well-known strategy in the society, the idea of being active to counteract frailty of old age is new. A 93-year-old woman stated:

This is completely different from home-care. I have exercises. I can feel it in my back, my thighs and my legs. This is good. I walk without my rollator. I have not dared to do that before. I am so happy I rejoice at every step forward.

Surgery, injury, or years of immobility, lead to insecurity of burdening injured body parts, for instance a broken hip. Having professionals facilitate the process with repetitive practice of activities gives security. Security is therefore a condition and a result of physical strengthening. Another condition is the knowledge of the benefits of being active in late age. Even though physical activity not necessarily increases the quality of health, it is good for building muscles, digestion, appetite, sleep, and cognitive function. The physical strengthening does also condition on a clarified health situation as a promotor of regularity and harm avoidance. A clarified health situation means that the health situation is assessed, illness is treated, and the functional situation is relatively stable and predictable. Advanced age causes risks of getting sick or having new functional impairments, which cause a fragile stability of the health situation. Still, the physical strengthening process helps prevent new problems.

The physical strengthening leads to a strengthen body and thereby an optimising of the physical capacities. The strategy also influences the stamina to manage even more activities. Feelings of being too old or too frail are reduced and replaced by increased self-confidence in managing. The latter creates a concern about the seniors' ability to assess the intensity of training. The stamina to manage even more activities can lead to overload and repetitive strain injuries.

Adapting the environment

Adapting the environment means adjusting to external conditions. In order to optimise the capacities, the environmental conditions must be right. Adapting the environment involves modifying the homes and the outdoor facilities.

Adapting the home means making it suitable for aging residents. A benefit of receiving reablement service at home is that the exercises relate to everyday life and well-known surroundings. Adapting involves reorganising furniture, removing objects, and using welfare technology and assistive devices.

Reorganising furniture means modifying their placement to reduce barriers. For example, a crowded bathroom may be tidied up to give place for a rollator, or a more appropriate chair can be placed by the dining table. Removing objects means getting rid of carpets, doorsteps, or others barriers for safer movement inside. By testing various models of assistive devices and welfare technology, the care given can find a functional solution to deal with the barriers in managing everyday life. Such devices can be a safety alarm, a rollator, a chair in the shower, or handles. By receiving reablement in their own homes, seniors value the practitioners for seeing new solutions. Reorganising also involves removing existing assistive devices being improperly used. Adapting environment therefore leads to a change in habits and patterns of action. Instead of organising the home in such a way that things can be reached without moving, reorganising aims to make it safe and easier to manoeuvre inside. The indoor adaptations depend on the willingness of the senior to make changes and his or her ability to learn how to use new devices.

Adapting the outdoor facilities means to reduce barriers for outside activities. The weather has a significant impact on the lives of seniors living in the Arctic. Especially in winter, the conditions (snow banks and icy roads) can be inhibiting. A condition for adapting the environment is whether municipal agencies can handle the winter environment to make the outside conditions optimal, or whether private agencies (such as family members or volunteers) can shovel snow and sand stairs. Handles and proper placements of the mailbox and trash also make outdoor adaptations. Adapting the outdoor environment involves safe walking paths, benches to rest, and easily accessible supermarkets and pharmacies.

Several assistive devices are funded by the welfare agencies but the individuals' economic capability does sometimes influence the ability to adapt the environment. The consequences of adapting the environment is the opportunity to live longer at home.

Building confidence

Building confidence means to trust the own ability to manage everyday tasks. Confidence increases as a result of physical strengthening and adapting the environment, and as a result of social support, knowledge, and safety. The loss of confidence emerges from several aspects. After a long life of hard work and economic scarcity, some seniors feel tired. The traditional view of aging is for many residents to rest and withdraw from activities, which leads to an understanding of "this is as it should be". A grief from a loss of function contributes to a lack of confidence. Building confidence is therefore a way of thinking, involves an acceptance of the reablement practitioners' encouragement, and are repetitive experiences of managing. Accepting the practitioners' encouragement

involves doing things—even if you do not believe that you will succeed. One woman (age 73) says:

I feel valuable and they see me. They can see it is hard to age. When you break your femoral neck and get a setback, it does something with your mind. The reablement practitioners make me believe in myself again.

Repetitive experiences of managing means experiencing and managing exercises and activities. By doing activities repeatedly, facilitated by the reablement practitioners, confidence builds. Despite the fact that reablement practitioners focus solely on physical activities, confidence increases during the reablement period. The strategy of building confidence does not represent a dualistic view of the human body, but emphasises the reablement role of optimising the mental capacities: "Reablement has helped me in two ways. I have gained the courage to do things that I have not been able to do earlier. I can also feel that my body has become stronger" (Woman, 71 years old). Confidence building is conditioned by social support. Social support explains how the social network encourages and keeps the faith in managing. The support is provided by pushing, challenging, and encouraging. The entire social network—reablement practitioners, family members, a partner, friends, other health personnel, or volunteers—offers support. The consequence of building confidence is safe and empowers seniors to be able to take control over their own lives.

Discussion

The theory of optimising capacity explains how participants act when and after receiving reablement. The main concern is perceived to be "for the seniors to manage as well as possible in their own homes". It became clear that the participants did not long for big, unattainable goals. They want to make the best out of their situation. In this way, the theory represents a relatively optimistic view of elderly care and might provoke service users, caregivers, and health personnel who have different and difficult experiences of elderly care. The authors are aware that many seniors are not included in the reablement service. The study therefore does not include those excluded from reablement or those who say no to reablement. This limitation makes the study an investigation of the patterns of action of a small segment of the senior help-seeking population and of senior residents with sufficient capacity to act.

Four subcategories conceptualise actions for optimising capacity, which is how the participants solve their main concern. By optimising their capacity, seniors and their caregivers utilise the available possibilities. The theory explains what is identified as the most important pattern of behaviour and does not cover all the actions of the participants. The subcategories explain the theory and the integration of these concepts in our theory contribute to a greater understanding of what is going on when seniors receive reablement services.

The integration of extant literature

We conducted a literature review after the emergence of the theory and this review revealed a lack of theories exploring the experiences of reablement service users and their caregivers. Our theory contributes to explanations of the social patterns of the reablement service from the seniors and their caregivers' point of view. The theory of

optimising capacity emerged through careful analysis. During the theoretical coding process, we became aware of the open concept of health and the idea of coping; we found our theory to be closely related to these concepts.

Wackerhausen (1994) introduced the open concept of health as a humanistic alternative to the existing concepts of health. According to Wackerhausen, health is "the individual's capacity to act" (p. 43) within the framework of the individual's goals and values, conditions of life and their physiological and psychological abilities to act. The individual's goal is made visible through dialogue; it is not set by the health practitioner as an objective expert. The reablement service is directed to the senior's own goals for reablement. The focus is on re-learning skills and finding new ways to perform daily activities, being active, socialising, and participating in society. The service users increase their capacity to act through physical training and adaptive equipment, as described in previous studies (Tuntland et al., 2014; Winkel, Langberg, & Wæhrens, 2014). This study relies on Wackerhausen (1994) to expand the understanding of the reablement processes by integrating the conditions of life and personal factors. The personal factors that constitute the abilities to act include motivation and personal resources. Through the open concept of health, the focus changes from health as a bodily or mental state to the relationship between the goals, conditions of life, and ability to act.

Western cultures generally define a healthy person as someone who is active and dynamic (Wackerhausen, 1994). This cultural expectation has also reached seniors. The World Health Organization (2002) and the European Parliament (2010) promote active aging as a strategy for social and economic sustainability (Walker, 2008). Our study shows the importance of allowing seniors to define their reablement goals themselves rather than having the reablement team define service goals. The expectations of being active might be overwhelming. The motivation and will to carry out the reablement process depend on the participation of the service users. The participants value the time the reablement service provides. This appreciation enables the practitioners to ask participants about their life situation, their life history, where they worked, and how they solved important issues earlier in their lives. Optimising capacity emphasises the importance of continuing existing coping strategies. Still, adapting the environment and physical training might introduce new strategies of actions. This adaptation requires a great awareness of seniors' motivation and ability to integrate new patterns of actions in their daily life. The focus on adapting the environment is in line with Michael, Green and Farquhar's (2006) conclusion that environmental adaptations influence activity among older adults.

The relationship between goals, life conditions, and ability to act makes participants aware that they cannot reach the same activity goals throughout the year. Their ability to move outside in winter depends on how other agents remedy the conditions and their own ability to buy adequate clothing. Sometimes the outside activity goal is temporarily on hold because the senior realises it will be too challenging to go outside. To sustain the reablement process, it is important that seniors experience a relationship between inside and outside activity goals. They can maintain strength and balance by doing activities inside to maintain their ability to go outside later.

The capacity to act relates to psychological and physiological factors, including motivation and personal resources. Anxiety and depression are recurring phenomena for some seniors. This study reveals that reablement has an impact on participants' mental health (on building confidence) and we may consider this a secondary benefit. Mental

health improves, even as there is less focus on it. The improvement of the mental health, still depends on the degree of mental illness. Reablement, as a short-term intervention, fails to support individuals in need of longer-term support. Through physical training, reablement participants strengthen their body and their ability to do activities that matter to them. They become able to walk longer distances than before, to do kitchen chores, to walk safely up and down stairs, or other important daily activities. Being able to engage in activities can also lead to new activity goals. Managing one's own in a specific area might thus transfer to other areas. Building confidence can make a person believe there are developmental possibilities even in old age and can also make him or her motivated to carry on after reablement. The latter is considered the most precarious part of the reablement service. A majority of the senior participants expressed a great enthusiasm for reablement during the first interview. The follow-up interview, on the other hand, revealed a greater diversity of views on the period after reablement. Identifying the conditions for the theory of optimising capacities will have implications for the reablement practice. These implications will be elaborated in the following section.

Implications for Practice

The theory of optimising capacity explains how a successful reablement process leads to increased senior health. The focus is not on health as a bodily or mental state, but as a relationship between the goals, conditions of life, and ability to act. The achieved health is not static, but changes in accordance with new goals, conditions of life, or abilities to act. To sustain the reablement process, it is therefore necessary to have flexibility and stability. This study names the identified conditions for the grounded theory "stability agents", necessary for the reablement process to promote positive health outcomes. We will elaborate on the implications of these conditions for practice. First, it is important that the professionals focus on the seniors' own goals. The professionals involved must have a high level of ethical awareness. They must be sensitive to each individual's life history in order to find each individual's goals and strategies. This is supported by the open concept of health: the goal must be free of coercion (Wackerhausen, 1994), and the Hjelle, et al. (2016) study concluding that the support must be adapted to the older adults' resources and health. Otherwise, the aging person will find the reablement activities to be a hassle and the intervention to be paternalistic. It is also important that the seniors participate in the design of the reablement plan. The principle of respect for autonomy is foundational to the open concept of health and a condition for a successful reablement process.

The second condition is an understanding of the goals and methods of reablement. It is essential for service users' motivation and participation that they understand the goals and methods of reablement and find them meaningful. This is closely related to Antonovsky's (1996) concept of "Sense of Coherence" where the crucial component is meaningfulness. Individuals who experience a high level of coherence despite a difficult situation can still experience good health. The salutogenic model supports the emerging theory of viewing reablement as a health promotion service optimising the participants' capacity—if the seniors experience sense of coherence. Salutogenesis is defined "as the process of movement toward the health end of a health ease/disease continuum" (Antonovsky, 1993, para. 9). It is crucial that service users and caregivers see the connections between interventions, activities, and the defined goals.

The third condition is having knowledge of the advantages of being physically active in old age. Knowledge also promotes confidence. Information and repetitive practice build confidence for the seniors that is necessary for their ability to act. The reablement process depends on seniors' ability to make an effort for themselves. Frailty and discouragement are barriers to the ability to act. Finally, the present study shows the importance of social support. Support from significant others can make a big difference in the outcome and maintenance of the reablement process. The theory of optimising capacity shows that the family situation and social support are important. Several seniors live alone and their nearest family members are most likely to support them through the reablement process. It is therefore important that there is a dialogue between the service users, the caregivers, and the reablement practitioners. The reablement process might lead to a change of lifestyle, and it is essential that the family culture is supportive.

The theory of optimising capacity integrates elements of the open concept of health by emphasising the relationship between the individual goal, the ability to act, and life conditions. This relationship supports the study findings that a holistic approach is a key to success. The participants highlight the importance of focusing on the entire life situation, not only a specific functional loss. Service users and caregivers emphasised the importance of the reablement team's focus beyond the physical achievements. The focus on nutrition, medication, social needs, and support were highlighted as significant factors. The theory of optimising capacity therefore embraces the individuals' physical, mental, environmental and social life conditions in a holistic reablement service.

Study Limitations and credibility

The authors are aware that there are different levels of theoretical abstraction within grounded theory. Grounded theory is based on a third-level conceptual perspective analysis. Most published grounded theory research uses the third level of analysis, representing an overall integration of data into a theory through data sorting. The fourth level is a more general conceptual level that relies on constantly comparing substantive theory articles (Artinian, 2009; Glaser, 1998). The grounded theory in this article relies on the third level. We have made this choice to stay closely related to the practice field. In this way, we aim to create a theory applicable to practice.

To ensure the credibility of the study, we used the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This involves always comparing new data with the existing data, which helps us validate our preliminary findings during the research process. The constant comparative method also requires the researchers to keep on track and makes the research process rigorous. Ongoing analyses have been presented to the municipal Council for the Elderly for feedback and external checks on the research process. A representative from the Council for the Elderly also participated in the early stages of the study to ensure peer/service user participation.

To assess the quality of the grounded theory, we used the criteria of fit, work, relevance, and modifiability (Glaser, 1978). The categories must fit the data. The concepts were constantly modified as new data emerged and all concepts and properties can be tracked to the empirical data. By "work", we mean that we need to ensure that the theory explains what is going on in the substantive area. Our theory evolved as data and concepts emerged and was constantly crosschecked to the existing analysis. The

constant reanalysis gave us confidence that the theory worked as an explanation for what is going on in the reablement situation. The theory is relevant to the participants as it evolves directly from the data and is found in nearly all the participants' patterns of action. Modifiability means that the theory changes during the research process, as the collection of new data requires modifications of what came before. Furthermore, it means that the generated theory is always modifiable. New data that may be collected from other areas may modify the theory in further studies.

Implications

The reablement process is dynamic and the open concept of health is a relationship between dynamic factors. The study helps visualize patterns of action and conditions that allows a reablement service to optimise capacity. The study will contribute to the evaluation and development of such a service, and will be beneficial for service users, caregivers, reablement practitioners, and policy makers. There is still a need for more in-depth knowledge about how service users and caregivers experience reablement services. More theories that are applicable to practice should also be developed.

Conclusion

With this study, we aim to contribute to existing knowledge about reablement. We believe there is a need for theory development in this area, as it is a relatively new field of practise. Reablement is to large extent a part of the innovation strategy in the public health sector in Norway and the other Nordic countries. The feedback from the service users and their careers is an important factor when evaluating such a service. The purpose of the study was to explore the service users' experiences of the reablement service and reflect upon these experiences. To optimise capacity was identified as a core category and a main strategy allowing the senior participants to live in their own homes. The results of this study revealed four strategies connected to the core category. The participants highlight the focus on the goals of each individual, the practitioners' motivational work, the holistic approach, and the social as conditions of a successful reablement. We believe these elements are grounded in the social and cultural life of each individual. Including the individual's life history and existing coping strategies are therefore essential to a reablement service. The grounded theory of optimising capacity integrates the empirical data and the concepts of coping and health.

However, active aging cannot be the only solution in future elderly care. It is important that seniors do not get the impression that being healthy is only a matter of choice. Reablement can contribute to health promotion, but there are still many seniors living with complex health issues. They are in need of a longer-term follow up by the municipal health service.

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Declaration of conflicting interests

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests.

Authors' contributions

Both authors contributed to the research design. The first author collected data from interviews and participatory observations, performed the data analyses, and drafted the manuscript. The second author participated in data analyses and provided comments on the manuscript. Both authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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**Rationalising Transgression:
A Grounded Theory Explaining how Emergency Department Registered
Nurses Rationalise Erroneous Behaviour**

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Abstract

The aim of this classic grounded theory study was to unearth the main concern of emergency department (ED) registered nurses (RN) when they perform respiratory rate observations to generate a substantive theory that explicates how the identified problem is resolved. Analysis of data collected from 79 registered nurses revealed that health sector forced compliance in recording observations meant that ED RNs are more than likely to record a respiratory rate without actually counting respirations. This erroneous behaviour provokes varying degrees of emotional discomfort as the nurses' actions are often incongruent with their professional values and beliefs. The theory Rationalising Transgression explains how nurses continually resolve this issue by compensating, minimalizing, or trivialising to titrate the level of emotional discomfort associated with erroneous behaviour, consequently facilitating the rationalisation of transgression.

Keywords: nursing, wasting time, trivialising, cutting corners, emotional discomfort, social norms.

Background

It is internationally acknowledged that inconsistent monitoring of vital sign observations and lack of understanding regarding the significance of physiological changes patients experience are two contributing factors of undetected clinical deterioration (Australian Commission on Safety and Quality in Health Care [ACSQHC], 2012; National Institute for Clinical Excellence, 2007; National Patient Safety Agency, 2007). Vital sign observations provide health care clinicians with valuable information regarding each patient's clinical acuity throughout all stages of their emergency department stay. Many hospitals now employ observation charting systems that require nurses to measure and record scores for each vital sign observed, with the combined value of scores referred to as an early warning score (Day & Oxtton, 2014; Prytherch, Smith, Schmidt, Featherstone, Stewart, Knight, & Higgins, 2006). The total score from each round of observations is a reliable predictor of clinical deterioration; when the score reaches a certain threshold, a predetermined response is triggered (Ludikhuizen, Smorenburg, de Rooij, & de Jonge,

2012; Silcock, Corfield, Gowens, & Rooney, 2015). There are many studies whose authors reported the efficacy of these early warning scores in regards to the timely identification of clinical deterioration of patients in an emergency department setting (Hogan, 2006; Hosking, Considine, & Sands, 2014; Lam, Mak, Siu, Lam, Cheung, & Rainer Lam, 2006; So, Ong, Wong, Chung, & Graham, 2015).

The respiratory rate, one of the vital signs that contribute to the early warning score, is significant in that abnormal respiratory rates alone are widely reported as accurate indicators of clinical deterioration (Considine, 2004; Considine, Charlesworth, & Currey, 2014; Hosking et al., 2014; Jonsson, Jonsdottir, Möller, & Baldursdottir, 2011; Ljunggren, Castrén, Nordberg, & Kurland, 2016; Parkes, 2011). Abnormal respiratory rates herald potentially life-threatening conditions and provide health care clinicians with the opportunity to respond expediently to these episodes of clinical decline. Timely recognition and response to clinical deterioration have the potential to prevent high acuity unit admissions, reduce hospital admission length of stay and significantly improve overall mortality rates (Ljunggren et al., 2016; McBride, Knight, Piper, & Smith, 2005). Accordingly, to achieve optimal patient outcomes, it is integral that respiratory rate observations are collected regularly, obtained correctly, and recorded accurately for every patient. Despite this acknowledged importance of the respiratory rate observation, Ansell, Meyer, and Shona (2014), Cooper, Cant, and Sparkes (2014), Cretikos et al., (2008), Hosking et al., (2014), Odell et al., (2007) and Parkes (2011) revealed this vital sign is often absent or erroneously recorded on emergency department observation charts. While emergent literature confirms this practice occurs, what is not known is why it occurs. One of the main aims of this research is to add insight around this topic.

Method: Why Classic Grounded Theory?

Classic grounded theory was the research methodology chosen to analyse qualitative data collected because it allows researchers to recognize the emergence of a concern as identified by the participant group within the substantive area under examination (Glaser, 1992; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Classic grounded theory also provides the scaffold required to uncover a resolution (known as the core category) to this concern. Glaser (1992) informed us that while individuals within groups understand events from their own perspective, and respond personally, latent patterns of behaviour occur, and are waiting to be identified. Grounded theory is the perfect medium for this discovery to occur. One of the greatest strengths of classic grounded theory is the method's ability to explicate what is actually going on in the substantive area of interest, rather than just describe what is happening (Glaser, 1978, 1998).

Data Collection

Data were collected solely by the primary researcher and comprised several sources including demographic data, open-ended responses from a questionnaire, detailed responses from semi-structured face to face or telephone interviews, memos, reflective journaling, conceptual models, anecdotal evidence, the use of extant literature (in the final stages), and documents related to the substantive area. As part of the online registration process, participants were offered the opportunity to provide written answers to the following two open-ended questions:

- If you have ever NOT included the respiratory rate when performing a full set of vital sign observations, can you write about the reason(s) why?
- If you have ever recorded a respiratory rate observation as “in the normal range” without actually counting it, can you write about the reason(s) why?

While attempts were made to develop the open-ended questions as non-prescriptive as possible, it is acknowledged that the questions are still fairly specific. This specificity was justified as the researcher believed it was important to provide an opportunity for nurses to respond to these questions in a written format with time to compose their answers. When the response to these questions was so overwhelming (79 participants overall, with 55 detailed written responses), it was decided to introduce data collected from this avenue only after the interviews commenced. The researcher felt that this decision enabled her to remain as open minded as possible to the overall responses from the interviews, and facilitated the emergence of themes, rather than directed their emergence.

Interviewees were chosen from the total pool of respondents, with 11 face-to-face, and seven telephone interviews occurring over a three-month time frame. The interviews each began with the same grand tour question:

- Please share with me your experience around collecting respiratory rate observations whilst working in the emergency department.

As the coding process progressed, participants were contacted and/or telephoned for follow up details/information based on theoretical sampling needs. Despite advice from Glaser (1998) to the contrary, the initial six interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. This decision was based on several factors. First, as this theory will form an integral component of a Doctor of Philosophy thesis, it is a requirement that the researcher be able to produce transcripts of interviews. Next, being a novice researcher, the primary author doubted her ability to take suitable notes from which to code. Finally, the researcher felt more comfortable when communicating with the participants if she maintained eye contact when they were talking, rather than focus on note taking. After the initial six interviews, however, enough confidence was gained for the researcher to trust her note taking ability. By this stage, journaling nearly always occurred after the interviews; the researcher just made notes of certain body language and other implicit incidents throughout the interviews. These later interview notes proved to be extremely valuable; by this stage, the researcher had become sensitive to the data and instinctively included incidents that later aided in densifying categories.

Substantive Coding

Initially, the data was run open, with the data coded every way imaginable, including with and against all other data (Glaser, 1978). Each datum was analysed, with the focused intent of identifying what concept it indicated. Memoing continued throughout this iterative process to ensure an audit trail developed to explain the relationships between incidents and the coding choices. This classic grounded theory approach facilitated the generation of rich and sensitive dimensions of substantive codes, all intrinsically grounded in the data and therefore capable of extraordinary explanatory power.

Collecting more data as the process continued, conducting more interviews and listening to the participants speak about their experiences added more fodder to the constant comparative nature of the classic grounded theory process. As the researcher continued simultaneously to collect, analyse, code and memo data, the perpetual process of classic grounded theory facilitated the correction and verification of identified categories and their properties, while allowing the researcher to generate new ones. Questions that continued to be referred to included "what is this data a study of; what category or property of a category, or what part of the emerging theory, does this incident indicate; what is actually happening in the data" (Glaser, 1978, p. 57).

It was from this constant comparative process that the core category "rationalising transgression" emerged; it had the most explanatory power and accounted for nearly all the substantive codes and their properties. Memo sorting played an integral role in acknowledging links between categories that were previously unrecognised.

Selective Coding

Selective coding was employed whereby data continued to be collected and analysed but was then delimited to include only variables of the remaining categories with the intent of saturating them as much as possible (Glaser, 1998). As selective coding progressed, three categories and their properties were identified to add much more explanatory power to the theory. Once these categories and their properties were identified and saturated, nearly all variations in behaviour were explained.

Theoretical Coding

Initially, data coding was guided by the process family, as the researcher was convinced that what was emerging, was a process. The researcher acknowledges that she was perpetuating one of the follies that Glaser (1998) warned about: having a preconceived notion and forcing the data to comply. When it became evident that the emerging core category was not a process, the researcher went back to the beginning and re-coded again, using the six C's to organise the data (Glaser, 1978). The headings used included causes, contexts, contingencies, consequences, covariance and conditions to help categorise the data.

This categorisation proved truly enlightening as the first aha moment arrived soon after the coding began again. It became obvious that the main concern originally identified was only half-articulated. Initially, it was found that those participants from the substantive area did not believe that respiratory rate observations were required for all patients. However, the emotional impact on the cohort when they erroneously recorded a respiratory rate to "make the paperwork look right" had not been identified. When the researcher combined this information with an early category conceptualised as "forced compliance", she recognised that varying degrees of emotional discomfort were present. The indicators for this emotional discomfort had not been recognised in the earlier stages of constant comparison; it was not until the coding family of the Six C's was used to guide the coding that it emerged. With this idea in mind, the researcher went back over earlier transcripts and field notes to look for incidents in the data that implicitly or explicitly indicated emotional discomfort. At that point, based on theoretical sampling

needs, the researcher went back to the field and conducted three brief interviews with participants from whom she had previously collected data. This psychological discomfort was completely missed in the first few iterations of coding and proved to be a significant factor of the emergent theory Rationalising Transgression.

Theoretical Sampling

Theoretical sampling guided the researcher during data collection through all stages of analysis, ensuring categories and their properties were densified and saturated. The utilisation of theoretical sampling informed the researcher what data to collect next, and where to look for it. Memos were produced copiously; they guided the researcher in subsequent data collection by generating questions to ask of new participants or indicating comparative groups that were to be re-interviewed using different questioning tactics. As each category became saturated, integrated, and elaborated with the emerging theory, theoretical sampling ceased for that category.

The Theory and The Main Concern

The main concern of emergency department (ED) Registered Nurses (RN) is that they do not believe that counting and recording a respiratory rate is a requirement for all patients at each round of observations. These nurses consider that counting the respiratory rate for all ED patients is a superfluous or redundant job and wastes valuable time. This perspective poses a professional dilemma, however, as at each round of observations, nurses are required to document scores for each of the prescribed vital signs, including the respiratory rate. Registered nurses are held accountable for their professional practice and incomplete documentation could be perceived as professional negligence. Another impact from a missing value for any one vital sign is that the total score given to indicate the patient's clinical acuity at that round of observations will be incorrect due to the incompleteness of scoring for each observation. To avoid the appearance of professional neglect, and to ensure the patient has an early warning score for each round of observations, nurses often record a value for the respiratory rate without counting the respirations.

The erroneous recording of the respiratory rate triggered by the forced compliance of organisational requirements results in varying degrees of internal conflict. This conflict provokes emotional discomfort due to the disparity between professional and/or personal beliefs and the erroneous behaviour to comply with organisational requirements. The level of distress associated with incongruent behaviour varies between individuals and is evidenced by implicit and explicit incidents such as spoken language, choice of adjectives, the tone of voice, facial expressions, and body language.

The theory rationalising transgression explains how nurses titrate the level of emotional discomfort associated with erroneous behaviour and facilitates the rationalisation of transgression. Rationalising Transgression is done through compensating, minimalizing and trivialising and explains how nurses view, experience, and react to the conflicting issue (organisational requirements versus professional/personal beliefs and/or values) from different perspectives. These varying perspectives impact the level of emotional discomfort that is experienced when erroneous behaviours are employed to meet organisational requirements. The degree of emotional discomfort experienced by each nurse dictates which strategy he or she employs to rationalise his or her erroneous behaviour.

Compensating

By compensating, the value of the conflicting issue is adjusted to take into account perceived benefits or gains as a result of errant behaviour. Nurses believe they are compensating for errant behaviour by enhancing patients' outcomes, subsequently reducing the degree of emotional distress associated with erroneous behaviour. Nurses rationalise transgression in recording methods thus by employing two strategies: valuing time and valuing experience. Social norms specific to this category were also identified and are outlined below.

Valuing time

Valuing time is a strategy that nurses employ to rationalise errant behaviour that occurs when their prioritisation of tasks conflicts with the demands of organisational requirements.

Time is an extremely valuable commodity to nurses and they distribute their time according to the significance of the task to be performed. When nurses believe that certain tasks are of more value to a patient's outcome than other tasks mandated by organisational requirements, they rationalise their errant behaviour by valuing time. Nurses value time when they erroneously report they have completed a task, but have in fact spent that time performing other more seemingly important tasks with a genuine belief they are enhancing patient outcomes. The belief that they are "doing more good" by using their time thus reduces the emotional discomfort associated with errant behaviour.

When this strategy is employed to rationalise erroneous reporting of respiratory rates, the nurses infer that their time is spent more wisely on alternative tasks; as a consequence, the patient benefits from the transgression in behaviour. Nurses who employ this strategy place the importance of counting respiratory rates far down the list of patient priorities and believe they are maximising their time by performing tasks that they have categorised higher thereby enhancing patients' outcomes.

As a commodity, time is expressed in many iterations; it permeates the data with its significance as a resource to spend wisely. Examples of this include spending time, wasting time, running, taking time, restricted by time, and standing around. Thus, time is valuable and wasting it is something to be avoided at all costs. This perspective, coupled with the nurses' belief that in many cases respiratory rates are a superfluous task, facilitate erroneous reporting. Allotted time is critically assessed; under certain

conditions or circumstances, spending it on issues other than counting respiratory rates can be justified.

Social norms

Social norms play a role in nurses' perception of the use of time. For example, nurses voice concerns that they "appeared to be doing nothing" if they just stand around "wasting time" counting respiratory rates. If nurses stand still long enough, other nurses, doctors or even patients would allocate them more work and/or ask them questions that take up more time. This perception, counting for a minute is a waste of time, seems to be perpetuated by nurses stating they feel annoyed when staff appear to "waste time by completing a respiratory rate for **all** patients".

A minute standing still in the ED seems like it takes forever. I know what it looks like . . . you're in the middle of this perfect storm, no beds, ambulance's ramping, buzzers going off, patients needing medications, dressings, a blanket, a cup of tea . . . and I am standing still apparently doing nothing.

Valuing Experience

Valuing experience is a strategy that nurses employ to rationalise erroneous behaviour occurring when they are required to perform a duty or task they consider superfluous to the patients' needs.

Nurses are valuing experience when they choose to perform more highly skilled tasks than seemingly mundane organisational requirements; they believe they are improving patients' outcomes by doing so. Experience is not always expressed in terms of time, but can mean years of experience a nurse has practiced, specific qualifications gained, historic experience with a patient, experience with a certain ward, or even experience with certain circumstances.

Valuing experience rationalises transgression in recording methods as nurses' believe they enhance patients' outcomes by providing them with the benefit of their experience instead of performing seemingly superfluous tasks such as counting respiratory rates. Nurses consider the value of their experience to be an integral component of their day-to-day professional practice and feel this experience enables them to participate in errant behaviour when they deem other tasks more deserving. Further, nurses feel their professional experience is undervalued if they are **made** to count. The valuing experience strategy reduces the emotional discomfort associated with their errant behaviour by facilitating the belief that the benefit of their experience is more valuable to the patient (when applied to aspects of patient care) than counting a respiratory rate.

Minimalizing

Minimalizing conceptualises how the value of the conflicting issue is adjusted by reducing the importance of the organisational requirement. Minimalizing reduces the emotional discomfort associated with transgression and thus rationalises errant behaviour. The strategy comprising minimalizing reduces the emotional discomfort associated with erroneous recording methods by minimalizing the importance of the task. Organisational requirements dictate that a value is required for the respiratory rate observation; but when nurses consider that little or no consequence would occur if the entry was correct

or wrong, transgression was rationalised. Nurses minimize the conflicting issue, thereby titrating their emotional discomfort, by employing the strategy labelling the patient.

Labelling the patient

Labelling is a strategy that nurses utilise to rationalise errant behaviour that occurs when they are mandated to perform tasks that they deem have no benefit or value to patients.

Labelling is done when nurses use labels to quantify patients' conditions and is usually based on a subjective assessment of their issues. While it is understood that erroneously recording a respiratory rate jeopardises the maintenance of professional standards, rationalising transgression by labelling the patient's condition as unworthy of requiring respiratory rates appears to be an acceptable practice. Once a patient is labelled as not requiring respiratory rate observations, the level of emotional discomfort by not counting respiratory rates is reduced as its importance for this type of patient is reduced. Two examples of labelling include "a sore big toe does not require a respiratory assessment" and

I might be looking after a DKA (Diabetic ketoacidosis is a serious medical condition that warrants close clinical attention) and have to run and do obs [observations] on a migraine, there is no way I'm going to count resp rates for the migraine when I have to get back to the DKA.

If patients present with a non-respiratory rate condition, have minor injuries, or a seemingly superfluous issue, their presentation is critically assessed as not benefiting from a respiratory assessment; an erroneous completion of the documentation is rationalised because the impact of conforming is minimalised. Labelling as a strategy is employed to provide reassurance that the patient's health outcomes would not benefit from an accurate respiratory rate observation being performed; however, as the paperwork still requires a value, it is recorded as completed and within normal ranges. The inconsistency is still present, but the significance of the outcome from erroneous recording is reduced, and hence, rationalised.

Trivialising

Trivialising conceptualises how the value of the conflicting issue is adjusted by trivialising errant behaviour and/or the organisational requirement. When nurses sanction negligent behaviour, and/or negate the importance of organisational requirements, they trivialise. When nurses employ these strategies, they adjust the deficit between organisational requirements and personal beliefs or values to virtually nil and reduce the emotional discomfort triggered by erroneous behaviour thereby rationalising transgression. Cutting corners is a strategy nurses employ to trivialise, whereas the other ED is a special place accounts for the social and environmental norms that facilitate trivialising.

Cutting corners

Cutting corners is a strategy that nurses use to rationalise their erroneous behaviour to just "get the job done". Nurses experience little to no guilt or remorse when they cut corners when they participate in errant behaviour to demonstrate the appearance of conformity.

Cutting corners is done when nurses perform allotted duties with a perfunctory attitude and with the minimal amount of effort required. Subsequently, they experience little to no emotional discomfort from doing so. An example of cutting corners occurs when nurses' tick and flick respiratory rate observation paperwork without actually assessing the patient; they experience no sense of guilt or remorse for doing so. When this strategy is employed, nurses trivialise the organisational requirement and sanction negligent behaviour. Utilising this strategy, nurses adjust the deficit between organisational requirements and personal beliefs or values to virtually nil. They reduce any emotional discomfort caused because of erroneous behaviour; therefore, they rationalise the transgression, thus avoiding internal conflict when the erroneous behaviour is employed.

Environmental norms

When nurses speak about the ED as an environment in contrast with other wards within the hospital, it appears that the usual organisational requirements are not an expectation in ED. Some organisational requirements are trivialised by incidents such as the following: "we are too busy saving lives to stand still and count a respiratory rate"; "high pressured situations call for extreme measures"; "this isn't a ward you know . . . things are different down here"; and, "when I worked on the medical ward it was a routine, that's what we did, but now I am in ED, it's different . . . there are way more important things to do than count a respiratory rate".

When an ED is contrasted to other wards where conformity to normal organisational requirements is an expectation, the unique ED environment is used as a method of trivialising organisational requirements. Once trivialised, the degree of emotional discomfort experienced due to non-compliance is removed, and transgression is rationalised.

Social norms

Social norms contribute to this strategy in that nurses compare themselves to others; they rationalise their poor behaviour through comments such as "everybody does it", "this is the way I've always done it", and "I have worked in many EDs and this is how everyone does it". It is by these strategies that erroneous recording methods are trivialised as a commonality among staff in this environment, correspondingly reducing the amount of conflict experienced.

Discussion

The new theory, rationalising transgression, comprises compensating, minimalizing and trivialising and explains how ED nurses rationalise erroneous behaviour by adjusting the value of the conflicting issue of organisational requirements versus professional/personal beliefs. When nurses employ the strategies discussed in this paper to adjust the importance of the organisational requirements in regards to their own professional and/or personal beliefs, they titrate the degree of emotional discomfort associated with erroneous behaviour, consequently facilitating the rationalisation of transgression.

A review of the literature revealed that the emotional discomfort experienced by the cohort involved in this study could be classified as a form of psychological discomfort

termed cognitive dissonance (Festinger & Carlsmith, 1959). Dissonance is a negative state of mind that occurs when an individual has conflicting cognitions: cognitions being beliefs, thoughts, values, and opinions (Taylor & Bentley, 2005). Leon Festinger (1957) discovered the theory of cognitive dissonance, which is based on three fundamental assumptions: (a) people are sensitive to inconsistencies between their beliefs and actions; (b) these inconsistencies trigger dissonance described as psychological discomfort; and, (c) the dissonance can be resolved in one of three ways. The three methods include changing beliefs (a person no longer has a problem doing the task), changing behaviour (a person decides not to do the task again), or change how the task is perceived (a person rationalises behaviour so it no longer appears to be inconsistent with his or her beliefs) (Festinger, 1961). Of these methods, Festinger (1957) claimed that behaviour is the most resistant to change and is therefore the most unlikely method of dissonance reduction. He went on to explain that most people are more likely to change how they perceive the task by altering their attitudes, beliefs, and opinions. This idea was corroborated by the participants within the study, who, despite feeling conflicted, continue to perpetuate erroneous behaviour, and rationalise the transgression by changing how they perceive the task.

Pallak and Pittman (1972) agreed with Festinger's theory, but extended it by purporting that, depending on the level of dissonance experienced, some individuals can never reconcile conforming. Elliot and Devine (1994) supported previous theories that dissonance is a form of emotional discomfort. However, these researchers stated there was no empirical evidence that specific reduction strategies alleviate dissonance. These authors claimed that future research should aim at gaining a comprehensive understanding of the overall dissonance state to understand better not only what induces this form of emotional discomfort, but also strive to understand strategies that reduce its impact. The theory of rationalising transgression relates to cognitive dissonance theory in that it was identified that nurses experience psychological discomfort by doing something that conflicts with their professional beliefs, and then choose to change how they perceive the task to rationalise this transgression. This new theory conceptualises how those people rationalise transgression by adjusting the value of the organisational requirement or the professional/personal belief they held about the task. This new theory explains how the participants resolved their dissonance through the application of the three categories minimalizing, compensating or trivialising. The theory of rationalising transgression extends the theory of cognitive dissonance in that it provides a deeper understanding of the strategies certain cohorts employ to overcome dissonance and thus rationalise transgression.

The emotional discomfort experienced by the nurses in this study can also be contrasted with moral distress, which has been written about in nursing literature, and describes the pain or anguish one experiences when confronted with moral conflict or constraint (Fourie, 2015; Oh & Gastmans, 2015; Woods, Rodgers, Towers, & La Grow, 2015). When developing an explanatory grounded theory of moral distress and its consequences, Nathaniel (2004) identified that little was published regarding the psychological implications triggered by moral distress. Nathaniel (2004) subsequently addressed this dearth by generating the theory of moral reckoning, which explains the basic social psychological process nurses' move through when they reflect emotionally and critically on their physical and emotional responses to challenging patient care circumstances. Nathaniel's (2004) explanation of a situational bind, a facet of the theory of moral reckoning, resonates with aspects of rationalising transgression, in that a

situational bind concerns circumstances comprised of varying degrees of complexity and context that trigger diverse emotional responses among nurses. A specific example of a situational bind discussed in the Nathaniel (2004) theory occurs when nurses' core values conflict with professional or institutional norms. This conflict aligns with the theory of rationalising transgression in that nurses' are found to experience emotional discomfort as a result of internal conflict when their erroneous behaviour is incongruent with their professional or personal beliefs or values. On the contrary, the two theories deviate when discussing how nurses' resolve the pain caused by their emotional conflict. Moral reckoning presents the stage of resolution as the process employed and explains that nurses make one of two choices to resolve internal conflict: making a stand or giving up. Rationalising transgression on the other hand, discusses three strategies (comprised of five properties) that nurses utilise (depending on their level of internal conflict), to neutralise the emotional discomfort they experience associated with erroneous behaviour.

The Main Concern of the Participants

The main concern of the registered nurses identified in this study who currently practice in emergency departments in Australia was that they did not want to collect respiratory rates on "seemingly" clinically stable patients. This hypothesis is corroborated by findings from a recent study involving 81 emergency nurses; the authors reported three quarters of those interviewed believed that clinically stable patients did not require regular vital sign observations (Burchill & Polomano, 2016). The link between higher clinical acuity and more frequently recorded vital sign observations was also reported within a study by Johnson, Winkelman, Burant, Dolansky, and Totten (2014). They reviewed 202 patient charts spanning ten months and found that a lower triage score, or an increased clinical acuity, reduced time between observations. Further, a retrospective cohort study that reviewed the triage observation documentation during a 12-month time frame reported that more than 60% of the 2081 patient charts reviewed did not have a respiratory rate recorded in their initial set of vital observations (Gravel, Opatrny, & Gouin, 2006). Gravel et al. (2006) attributed this high rate of omission to the nurses' perception of the patients' level of clinical acuity did not warrant recording the vital sign. This information presents a paradox. How do nurses gain a truly accurate clinical picture of a patient's health status without collecting objective and subjective data? Published best practice guidelines regarding respiratory rate collection methods confirm that health professionals gain a much more accurate overview of a patient's clinical acuity when data are gathered via a comprehensive health assessment (Jarvis, 2008; Long Khanh Dao Le, 2016; Walsh, Erb, & Kozier, 2010; Weber & Kelley, 2009).

A facet of this study that is under-explored and requires future focus is the question of the accuracy of the guesstimates the nurses make when they record a respiratory rate without actually counting respirations. The topic surrounding nurses using only subjective data to identify and thus report clinical deterioration has been acknowledged by Andrews, (2004), Ansell et al., (2014), and Cretikos et al. (2008). It is certainly not unusual to hear reports of nurses who claim they recognise deterioration instinctively, and just know when something is wrong with a patient preceding clinical decline (Brier et al., 2015; Odell, 2015). In fact, some activation criteria actually include nurse concern as an option for escalating care (Hodgetts et al., 2002). Despite this knowledge, there is a paucity of evidence to support the efficacy of intuition-based

clinical assessments. Andrews and Waterman (2005) discussed the need for nurses to take a more structured approach to clinical assessments, and suggested that nurses employ frameworks such as early warning score tools in order to arrive at a substantiated overview of the patient's clinical acuity at any given time. Andrews and Waterman (2005) also suggested that the value of nurses' subjective assessment not be downplayed; often, this form of evidence provides valuable context around the specific clinical situation. The need for a structured approach when collecting vital signs is substantiated by recent research that revealed the significance of just a subtle shift in the respiratory rate of patients in acute care settings (Bleyer et al., 2011; Ljunggren et al., 2016). These authors purported that only four breaths on either side of the normal range for adults (normal range for a healthy adult is 12 to 20 breaths per minute) could be indicative of ominous underlying conditions and must not be ignored by clinicians. Once this evidence is considered, it is hard to put faith in the ability of anyone to identify four breaths out of range over one minute using only subjective measures to gauge the patient.

Nurses spend many years striving to obtain the professional standards of practice required to achieve and maintain their nursing registration status. Forcing them to comply with seemingly superfluous or redundant tasks could be considered demeaning, and a waste of their valuable time. However, several items of interest must be highlighted here; patients who are in the emergency department long enough to have their vital signs measured more than once, are generally very unwell; seemingly benign health conditions have the ability to turn into medical emergencies within minutes; deterioration in patients is being missed; an abnormal respiratory rate is an early, accurate indicator that something is wrong; early detection of deterioration saves lives; and finally, it only takes 30 seconds to one minute to accurately assess the respiratory rate.

Methodological Considerations: Quality of the Theory

This new grounded theory, rationalising transgression, will now be evaluated for quality by testing its fit, work, relevance, and modifiability (Glaser (1978, 1992). The theory fits the substantive area of interest as the conceptualised codes, categories and ultimately, the theory itself, efficaciously express the patterns identified in the behaviour that participants continually used to resolve their main concern. Just as this theory fits by identifying and aptly grouping latent patterns of behaviour analogous with the substantive area, the theory also works in that the identified three categories and their properties, clearly explain how the participants continually resolve their main concern by adjusting the value of the conflicting issue. The relevance of this theory is evident when the significance of the respiratory rate as a physiological benchmark is considered. It has been categorically established that abnormal respiratory rates herald clinical decline, and are known to precede life-threatening events such as cardiac or respiratory arrest. If optimal patient outcomes are to be achieved, it is therefore essential that the respiratory rate be collected regularly and recorded accurately. Contrary to this knowledge, Ansell, Meyer, and Shona, (2014), Cooper, Cant, and Sparkes, (2014), Cretikos et al., (2008), Hosking et al., (2014), Odell et al., (2007), and Parkes, (2011) all concur that this vital sign is often inaccurate or missing; further, there is a scarcity of research explaining why this erroneous behaviour occurs. The relevancy of this theory is that it provides explanations from those people actually working in the substantive area, thus, the

theory is grounded in data. This theory explains why nurses do not always collect and record an accurate respiratory rate, and even more illuminating, explains the reasons they use to rationalise this transgression. Finally, this theory is modifiable in that if more latent patterns of behaviours are identified by this cohort in order to resolve continually this identified concern, then the theory can be modified to accept these new behaviours. It is not a finite theory; it is malleable and modifiable to accommodate new data as and when it is identified as having relevance to this substantive area. The generalizability of the theory generated from this research to areas other than nursing becomes obvious if you consider that conflicting issues such as organisational requirements versus professional/personal beliefs occurs in many professions; this conflict often results in errant behaviour. Consequently, the conceptualised categories generated from this study, explaining how transgression is rationalised, have the potential to be conceptually generalised.

Limitations

The main limitation identified was that participants were passively recruited; this recruitment could be seen as a limitation in that only those willing to share their experiences were included. And, as such, these participants comprised a like-minded cohort. Potentially limiting inclusion from a more diverse cohort exists in this study.

Implications: Impact on Current Clinical Practice

This grounded theory identified two significant factors that impact current practice:

1. Registered nurses in emergency departments report suboptimal practice occurring in regards to respiratory rate collection methods.
2. This poor practice occurs in part because nurses believe that respiratory rate observations are not required for every patient; organisational requirements mandate that a value for this vital sign be given at each observation round are superfluous and redundant.

Each of these revelations, on their own, carries significant weight when considering patient health and safety standards, ethical considerations, and professional practice, particularly if optimal patient outcomes are to be achieved and maintained. Despite a plethora of published research confirming the efficacy of abnormal respiratory rates as accurate indicators of clinical decline, poor practice continues vis-à-vis the collection and recording methods employed. Clearly, there is a deficit between researched best evidence and current practice employed by registered nurses working in emergency departments. This discrepancy must be addressed expeditiously. Obviously, new methods of transferring knowledge are required to do so. Contributions, such as this new theory that provides meaning to the strategies nurses employ in order to rationalise erroneous behaviour is beneficial from an educational point of view. In the field of healthcare specifically, if clinical educators can recognise and understand the justifications behind suboptimal healthcare practices, then they are better armed to address the issue.

Contribution to the Extant Body of Knowledge

While there is abundant literature regarding the value of this vital sign when monitoring the physiological status of patients as well as literature confirming that the respiratory rate is often missing or erroneously recorded on patient charts, there is a paucity of research reporting why this occurs. Hence, this theory lends weight to the increasing data bank surrounding respiratory rate collection methods, and adds valuable insight to the clinical practice of the cohort responsible for collecting and recording this vital sign. This theory also adds to the body of knowledge regarding cognitive dissonance in that this new theory provides insight regarding the strategies employed by certain cohorts when overcoming cognitive dissonance.

Further Research

What has become glaringly obvious throughout the analysis of data collected for this project is that current methods of knowledge transfer are not working. For registered nurses from such a broad demographic to comment repeatedly that they are more likely to erroneously record a respiratory rate than to count and record it accurately, important information is lost somewhere. It is, therefore, evident that further research around the implementation of evidence-based practice must occur judiciously. Efficacious methods of knowledge transferral must be earnestly pursued if best evidence is to be successfully transferred to best practice. Successful implementation of evidence into practice in regards to the topic area in this study will translate into the improved accuracy of early warning scores for emergency department patients. Accurate early warning scores facilitate early recognition of deterioration of emergency department patients, which, in turn, activates potentially lifesaving intervention expediently thereby improving patient outcomes.

Conclusion

Rationalising transgression is a new substantive theory to explain how nurses titrate the level of emotional discomfort associated with erroneous behaviour and consequently facilitate the rationalisation of transgression. Rationalising transgression is done through compensating, minimalizing and trivialising, and explains how nurses view, experience, and react to the conflicting issue (organisational requirements versus professional/personal beliefs and/or values) from different perspectives. These varying perspectives impact the level of emotional discomfort that is experienced when erroneous behaviours are employed to meet organisational requirements. The degree of emotional discomfort experienced by the nurses dictates which of these strategies they employ to rationalise their erroneous behaviour.

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Wayfinding: A Grounded Theory Study of the Information-Seeking Behavior of Constructors

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Abstract

This study examined how and why practitioners in the construction industry sought information in their routine work activities. A grounded theory method found the main concern of constructors is the ability to seek accurate information efficiently and effectively. A substantive theory termed *wayfinding* was developed through interviews with 24 constructors, which is applied using five strategies. These strategies include clarifying, confirming, sourcing, preparing, and managing risk. Strategies are adopted based on the intent and type of information being sought within perceived boundaries of time and accuracy required. Techniques used to implement these strategies include networking, branching/filtering, and cost-saving. The implementation of the strategies varied with experience, with novices using a more limited range of strategies and techniques than experienced constructors.

Keywords: Wayfinding, Information-seeking, constructors, strategies, managing risk.

Introduction

Those people involved in the management of construction work in a fast-paced, high-pressure environment where decisions must be made quickly and effectively. The ability to find accurate information rapidly is an important part of this environment (Sears, Sears, & Clough, 2008; Stowe, 2009). Although it is an essential process for the constructor, it is barely mentioned in most texts developed for construction curricula in higher education; the result is that it is not a standard subject of study and hence is learned through personal experience in the "school of hard knocks" once the field is entered.

In this study, the author examines the professional lives of constructors using a classic grounded theory method and finds that seeking information is their main concern. The result of the study is a theory that explains how and why constructors seek information as part of their day-to-day activities. This theory, called wayfinding, explains the information-seeking behavior of constructors so that it may be used by people currently in industry, educators preparing people to enter the field, and other related, interested parties.

Method

The author of this study examines the way that practitioners in the construction industry seek information in the course of their work. The selection of a grounded theory approach was driven by the intent of the investigation. The objective was to provide an integrated explanation of how this information-seeking behavior takes place in the working lives of constructors to inform practice and praxis. Grounded theory is particularly well-suited for fields of practice, as it can be used to "give the practitioner a conceptual tool with which to guide practice" (Merriam & Simpson, 2000, p. 113). The developed theory may therefore be usefully employed by those in practice, teachers in the field, and other related disciplines. A classic grounded theory approach was used, as described by Glaser (1964, 1968, 1972, 1978, 1992, 1998), Glaser and Kaplan (1996), and Glaser and Strauss (1965, 1967).

Individual interviews were the primary data collection tool; 23 interviews were conducted with a total of 24 participants. Interviews started after the research protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Board; analysis commenced with the first interview and continued throughout collection. Categories emerged as data were initially open-coded directly on the transcripts and field notes. The memoing process helped the researcher to discover the main concern and core category quickly; selective coding and theoretical sampling were then emphasized until saturation of concepts was reached.

After temporal spacing, the researcher returned to the data and memoranda for theoretical coding to integrate the categories into a cohesive theory, finding all approaches to be members of the strategy family (Glaser, 1978; Hernandez, 2009). The main concern of information-seeking is resolved by practitioners through adopting various wayfinding strategies, which were conceptualized in the theory as it was written. Specific techniques used within these strategies that maneuver through others while wayfinding are also identified, and the differences between strategies and techniques used by novices and experienced practitioners delimited.

Quotations and Definitions

For clarity, all quotations taken during the interviews conducted for this study are shown in italics without any quotation marks. They are all anonymous, and gender is not noted except for instances where an appropriate pronoun makes the reference more readable. All other quotations are cited in standard format. The following terminology was used throughout the study:

Constructor – a person who is employed within the construction industry primarily as one who is involved in the management of the building process, as opposed to the design or facility management processes or actual trades. Actual titles might range from project manager to estimator to scheduler and others. Although many constructors have college degrees, this was not a prerequisite for this study. A constructor is also referred to as *practitioner*.

Information-seeking behavior – actions by constructors to find information, ranging from design clarifications to constructability issues, chiefly used as part of the decision-making process. Information-seeking behavior is also referred to as research or research behavior.

Description of the Main Concern

The main concern of constructors is the ability to seek information quickly and accurately. Seeking information is a significant part of constructors' days. *I'd say 60-75% of my time is spent finding things out—it's a constant battle.* Information-seeking is embedded into the modern construction process. The construction plans show the completed product, the *what*, but not how to achieve it, the *how*. Seeking information on these *how, what, where, when, and who* issues is an everyday part of constructors' lives.

Whetten and Cameron (1995) identified informational deficiency as a primary source of conflict in business organizations. While conflict may be undesirable in any organization, a lack of information is particularly critical in construction due to its nature. The construction process, once commenced, is extremely schedule- and cost-driven. Any lack of information that could potentially hinder progress must be dealt with immediately.

Equipment and labor costs can easily run in the thousands of dollars per hour on large and complex jobs without even considering the additional costs of other workers, subcontractors, and resources that might be waiting or affected by any delays. Constructors must therefore become efficient in terms of costs and time while simultaneously seeking and obtaining accurate information.

Information is viewed through a positivist paradigm by constructors. As Guba and Lincoln (2005) described this paradigm, inquiry is used for explanation, prediction, and control. The high-pressure, high-stakes construction environment demands information to solve problems; there is no inquiry for its own sake or for personal transformation. Information is needed, it exists, and the matter is simply to find it—even if that task is not so simple.

I always felt that even in our industry there's always an answer out there someplace and if you have enough tenacious attitude about yourself, you will eventually find the answer. There's somebody out there who's got the answer. . . It's always there. I don't know if I've never not found the answer to a question. At least in our world.

Building is an action verb and the resultant product of construction actions. Constructors practice in rapidly-changing environments that are filled with risk. Civitello (1987) stated that costs, complexity, and time pressure in the construction have all increased rapidly and described it as "one of the most intensely competitive work environments ever to evolve" (p. 4). Gould and Joyce (2009) stated that "Leading a significant construction project can be compared to going into battle" (p. 48). Just like in battle, there are seemingly victors and the vanquished, with bankrupt construction companies littering the field at a higher rate

than other industries (Koksal & Arditi, 2004). As previously described, the ability to find accurate information quickly is critical in this arena (Sears, Sears, & Clough, 2008; Stowe, 2009). This ability is true universally for all levels of constructor, from novices to experienced practitioners. It is an inherent part of the construction process.

Theory of Wayfinding

Constructors resolve their main concern of information-seeking through the core variable wayfinding. The term wayfinding was selected to explain the process where constructors try to resolve their need of seeking accurate and useful information as efficiently and effectively as possible. The researcher settled on this term for several reasons. First, it accurately and literally describes the process of finding one's way to and through information to locate that which is needed. Additionally, it was taken directly from constructors' own description, albeit with a change to a gerund phrase. "You just always have to find a way to get it [information]—you just keep looking until you've got it." Finally, the term draws from other fields that have established bodies of knowledge on finding one's way in different, yet related, environments. It fits conceptually and ties in related, relevant literature from other fields.

The term wayfinding was first used by Lynch, a city planner and professor at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, in his 1960 book, *The Image of the City*; he wrote of how city-dwellers made sense of their environment through mental maps and how they used them to navigate. This is similar the description of the necessity of information-seeking behavior and the paucity of research on it.

Constructors wayfind to locate information quickly and effectively to resolve their main concern of needing accurate and relevant knowledge in a timely manner; Wayfinding is done for a variety of reasons and is practiced by adopting one of five strategies based on the type of information being sought and the intent behind its use. The strategies utilized as well as the techniques used in their implementation vary with the experience of the constructor. Experienced constructors utilize a wider variety of strategies and different techniques than do novices.

Strategies of Wayfinding

The pressures and context of the construction industry have been previously examined. Constructors use wayfinding to seek information utilizing five strategies: clarifying, confirming, sourcing, preparing, and managing risk.

Clarifying

Clarifying is a common strategy typically used to seek information in response to a *what* or *where* question. In practice, every construction project will require clarifications, from providing missing dimensions to explaining unclear details to resolving discrepancies between the architectural and electrical drawings. Constructors usually have an idea of what the design intent was, but want confirmation before setting their plans in concrete (so to speak).

Clarifying has two main approaches with different intentions: resolving and shifting. As the name implies, resolving is normally a routine—relatively low-level approach of information seeking that is often delegated to less experienced and/or new constructors. Its intent is straightforward in that it simply seeks explanatory information.

Resolving can have immediate or future importance. Design information eventually but not immediately needed is generally submitted in writing to (or through) the architect with a request for providing it in a certain amount of time, such as within two weeks. For example, if an interior paint color is not noted but the construction has only progressed to the foundation stage, there is ample time for resolution of the issue without any significant time or cost impact. However, if the information is not provided in time, or if the discrepancy is not discovered until the painters are on site and ready to work, a different type of clarifying may be utilized.

Clarifying can also be used by more experienced constructors as a high-level strategy to shift responsibility and stall for time. Shifting also seeks a resolution; however, until the clarification is provided (typically by the designer), the constructor has an excuse for not proceeding with the work. Besides buying time, this excuse might also form the basis for a claim of additional cost. Shifting is typically initiated using a positive method of communication, such as a telephone call or face-to-face, but is generally followed up in writing to document the discussion.

Also, by asking for many clarifications, a constructor may imply that the design was incomplete and/or inaccurate, which reflects poorly on the designer and shifts fault for cost and time overruns away from the contractor. This maneuvering behavior may be for a current or successor construction activity that would be affected.

Confirming

Closely related to clarifying, confirming differs in approach and intent. It might be said that confirming is to stating as clarifying is to questioning, i.e., confirming is declarative instead of interrogative. It is used much less frequently and usually in rather specific cases where ambiguity might exist but the constructor has a preferred resolution, particularly if there are cost or time considerations. Although it is offered as a statement, it is a disguised form of a request for information, with a negative response taken as tacit approval. It is a strategy used with *what* and *how* issues.

One constructor related a very specific situation where confirming was used instead of clarifying. Instead of asking a question about it,

[W]e said, "Oh, by the way, we're going to use brown blank covers to cover up those receptacles that we're removing." Not soliciting a question or a response, but just telling them that this is how we're going to do it. . . . We obviously didn't want to ask the question; we were more inclined to say 'This is how we're going to do this.' From the surface it seemed like a good idea and we didn't give them a lot of time to think about it.

This situation was later confirmed by the constructor in the meeting minutes as a statement rather than a clarification. Clarifying is conducted by experienced constructors rather than being delegated to novices who might not be suitably prepared for this more nuanced approach. It provides a quick and cost-effective solution to the issue if accepted without question. If unsuccessful (i.e., the proposal is not accepted), the constructor might resort to another strategy, most commonly clarifying through shifting.

Sourcing

Perhaps even more commonplace than confirming, sourcing seeks information on *who*, such as providers of goods and services. Sourcing occurs most frequently during the preconstruction phase, such as during bid preparation, and tapers off as construction progresses and the project is "bought out." Implicit in the strategy is that there are usually many sources available; relevancy drives the intent to locate those who meet certain criteria (competitive pricing, availability of labor, etc.) quickly. Sourcing, therefore, typically seeks *an* answer (or answers) instead of *the* answer. For example, a constructor may not need to know every possible source that can supply concrete block to a job site, only those that are within a practicable distance need to be included initially with the final decision typically based on lowest cost.

Like clarifying, sourcing is often performed by novice constructors, particularly those in estimating departments or during the estimating phase of a project. However, when sourcing is selected by experienced practitioners, more sophisticated techniques such as networking and branching/filtering (described in the following section) are often employed to simultaneously source and manage risk.

Sourcing is directly impacted by time available and inversely affected by funds available for the work impacted. The more time is available before the sourcing information is needed, the more time may be spent gathering as many sources as possible before selection. Conversely, in an emergency, only one source may be sought to proceed as quickly as possible. With regard to cost, a very tight budget will generally mean that multiple sources will have to be sought through competitive bidding. Alternatively, a large budget might allow the constructor to pick a favorite source without need for additional competition.

Preparing

While clarifying seeks answers to the *what* and *where*, preparing reaches for the *how*, *when*, and *where*. As previously discussed, the designers are typically absent from this aspect of construction, so this part of construction is typically done between constructors of different levels on the same project, such as the general contractor and his or her subcontractors. Preparing is done with the intent of readying for the current project as well as advancing one's knowledge for the next one.

Preparing is conducted with suppliers who furnish products and installation materials as well as coordinate the installation of self-performed work. Examples of preparing are confirming what time the truck will arrive, delivering the drywall this afternoon, or requesting subcontractor information on how long of a lead the air handler unit will require for fabrication. One constructor related the experience of working with a specialty pool subcontractor on a project while simultaneously learning how to prepare better for the next job.

We rely heavily on who's providing the pool and the pool equipment. You rely on them and say, 'Gosh, you guys have been doing this—it's your bread and butter—all we're doing is putting the concrete around it—help me understand this.' Having gone through one of these processes, the next pool that I do I have 30 questions that I'm going to ask up front because I've learned that those were relevant questions that we've paid the price at the tail end with regards to work that had to get removed and that had to get redone, things that didn't work and those types of complications that obviously were missed at that time. While we got it done, we paid a premium to get it done.

Additionally, there are local and regional differences in construction that require special preparation.

You do have to be careful—things work differently in different parts of the state, even. In Northern Indiana, the site contractor puts the stone down for the paver. He prepares the subgrade, but up there he would provide the stone and get it rolled in tight, pretty close. The paver is going to come in and fine-tune it, check it, and pave it. So, you have to be aware of those differences and sometimes they don't find out and sometimes they miss.

The modern construction industry is one of coordinating all these different entities. On a typical project, 75 to 85% of the project is built by subcontractors. Preparing gathers information to plan, coordinate, and schedule the construction. It starts during preconstruction and runs continuously throughout the project, seeking new and updated issues. Preparing is done by all types of constructors, with more complex preparing conducted by more experienced practitioners, as well as preparing for future projects.

Managing risk

Construction is a risky business. Many actions in the information-seeking process are tangentially related to managing an organization's risk, such preparing a confirming memorandum after a clarifying telephone call with the architect, or recording a confirming statement in the meeting minutes. Documentation is a main emphasis of risk management in many cases.

There are also other information-seeking actions directly related to managing risk. The first is the prequalification process, which usually involves requesting the contractor, subcontractor, or supplier to furnish information about his or her organization for evaluating his or her ability to perform on a particular project. This evaluation often revolves around prequalifying subcontractors and suppliers, such as obtaining Dun and Bradstreet reports, bonding capacity, or whether they are paying their suppliers on time. Generally, the greater the risk, whether to cost or time, the more information will be sought. Managing risk information-seeking approaches are conducted by all levels of constructors, although the information is evaluated and decisions made at more senior levels.

Techniques of Wayfinding

Once a strategy is selected, a variety of approaches are available to the wayfinder to employ while seeking the needed information; these approaches are referred to as techniques. The three primary approaches include networking, branching/filtering, and cost-saving.

Networking

The preferred technique of wayfinding by constructors is networking. For the purposes of this study, networking refers to information-seeking communication with a person or organization with whom a constructor has some sort of pre-existing relationship. The communication is usually face-to-face or by telephone. Contact through other means, such as an e-mail, is usually a precursor to a richer format.

By far, the most common networking relationship is that with other coworkers. This behavior is typically just an informal matter consisting of walking to another's office and asking a question. "Networking is a huge, huge thing. I don't know how you do that except through the organization." The selection of which individual to ask varies with the experience of the constructor. Novice wayfinders usually base the choice on proximity: they ask the person closest to them. As they gain experience, their network of coworkers grows and they can go to individuals who are most likely to be a good source of the particular type of information being sought.

I know who to go to around here for about anything. One of the guys used to work on facilities side, one guy has a lot of [client name] experience, etc. A lot of it is based on what their experience was before [they came to that organization]—not just on who's next door.

Even if the first person does not have the information sought, the network can lead to the next potential source. Although intra-organizational networking is convenient, the important temporal aspect is noted even by inexperienced constructors.

I'd go to certain people. You know who likes to teach and who's not going to sit there and try to teach for an hour. You know, I want a short answer—you know who likes to teach and who likes to talk. I've found my couple favorites and I go to them for questions.

External networking is also commonplace. Some of these external networks are based on contractual relationships. For example, a constructor would contact the roofing subcontractor for a question about how long the roofing will take to install—a type of preparing. In addition to current contractual relationships, external networks based on previous contractual relationships, past coworker relationships, and inter-organizational relationships are commonplace.

Network relationships can be personal, but not necessarily. Even networks that are several individuals “removed” are still used. For example, constructors call subcontractors who worked for their organization, even if they were not personally involved in the project. The network relationship is typically used as a key to open the discussion before the information is requested. “I wasn’t even on the job, but I just called up [name omitted] and told him who I was with. It doesn’t take much.” One constructor related building these networks to assembling a library.

You have got these old business cards of folks so when you need to go back and you don’t quite remember who it is you have it...You begin building your own library of subcontractors and vendors.

Even competitors are sometimes networked if there is a personal relationship (such as a prior coworker situation), although there are limits on being able to use these sources.

Wayfinders also use many other types of networking. Trade organizations and professional organizations often provide a useful starting point. Family members are also used, particularly by novice wayfinders. “I use my dad a lot as a reference.”

Networking uses an established relationship of some type to search for information. Since the network does not have to be personal but organizational, it can be effectively used by novice constructors who seek information through internal and external networks. However, constructors often must seek information in fields and geographical regions where they do not have any pre-existing relationship. In these cases, an alternative method must be used.

Branching/filtering

Branching and filtering are simultaneous techniques that are used to seek information in areas where the constructor does not have any existing relationships. Although constructors are relatively well-connected, situations still arise where there is no network to assist in the constructor’s wayfinding efforts.

The wayfinder therefore uses his or her knowledge and experience to select a source, called a branch in this study, which has a high probability of leading to the actual information being sought. The distinction is small but important; the constructor does not look directly for the information, but seeks a branch that would be networked to the actual information. Sometimes this is a deliberate choice, sometimes there is no alternative. This branch is then used as a filter to select the best source of actual information. Examples illustrate this concept best.

I got [sic] an example for you. I had this owner call me up on a Friday afternoon wanting an estimate for some demo job in Cincinnati. And he had to have an answer on Monday. So I walk around and nobody's here—they all cut out already for the weekend. So I'm like, 'We've never done any work in Cincinnati—how in the hell am I supposed to get a price for demo?' So I got to the idea of calling the dumpster guy, and it happened that he was also a demo guy. It was that easy. [I came up with that because] when a guy demos some buildings he's got to put them in dumpsters to get them to a landfill. So I figured, they always want to know what it's for—they would know who was using their dumpsters for demo and who [sic] I could call. So the dude was real cool and said he knew the exact spot I was talking about and that he'd drive by there over the weekend and have me a price first thing Monday morning. Just because I know about ordering dumpsters.

However, sometimes the branches are very deliberately selected. The next example is from a constructor looking for a concrete subcontractor in another state where he has no networks.

Now let's say we're going to Boulder, Colorado to do a job and you don't know nobody [sic] in Boulder, Colorado. So, who's the first person you call? I'd . . . look up the concrete suppliers. Call them and say, 'Who's the concrete contractors that could do this job?' They are going to give you the names of people who pay their bills. They won't give you the names of bums who won't, right?

The constructor knows that a concrete subcontractor would have to purchase concrete from somewhere. The contractor uses his knowledge and experience of the industry to select the concrete supplier as a potential branch. The branch is naturally networked to concrete subcontractors in the region. The branch also filters the potential sources for the constructor by only providing names of subcontractors who paid their bills, a measure of their financial solvency and stability.

With a few more questions, the constructor can refine the list even further by providing details of the project so that the supplier can filter out subcontractors who might be too small or too large for the project. The constructor could go even further and cross-reference subcontractors through several suppliers and see if the same names keep coming up as potential good leads. Branching and filtering are advanced techniques typically used for sourcing by experienced constructors. The process is also a form of risk-managing and breeds efficiency due to its delimiting of potential information sources. It is an intermediary step that would then be followed up with a direct contact.

Cost-saving

A final approach of wayfinding by constructors is cost-saving. It is not a method of its own; rather, it is a selection process for choosing the most cost-effective approach with regard to time and accuracy. One participant related using the free services that come with being a member of a particular construction organization for legal advice instead of paying a lawyer in certain cases. This variety of tools and methods is employed by constructors to seek information successfully.

Types of Wayfinders

Although there are many different positions and titles in the construction industry, two basic types of constructors exist regarding the way that they seek information. The novice

wayfinder is relatively inexperienced and is typified by a young person entering the field, such as a freshly minted university graduate of a construction management program. However, age itself is not a property, but rather the level of constructing experience. The experienced wayfinder can draw upon his or her knowledge and background to seek information differently—and usually more efficiently and effectively—than the novice. This efficiency and effectiveness is a matter of degree rather than an absolute distinction; some novice constructors exhibit wayfinding actions of more experienced practitioners.

Novice

The novice constructor wayfinder is relatively inexperienced at seeking information as a constructor. Although age may be a factor, younger people naturally have less opportunity to have considerable construction experience, it is not simply a matter of age. Experience is the deciding factor; more precisely, relevant experience is necessary. For example, one constructor tells how his organization, a commercial contractor, hired an individual with many years of experience in residential construction. The new hire had to essentially relearn information-seeking in this new realm.

Novice constructors are much more self-aware of the information-seeking process. They readily report that they spend more of their day looking for answers than their more experienced counterparts. "I feel like I'm asking questions all the time."

The wayfinding approach of the novice is often different than that of an experienced constructor. Physical proximity plays a key factor with the novice, resulting in him or her turning to the person at the next desk or cubicle first to seek information or answers. Efficiency, particularly with regard to speed, is a factor in this behavior. "I probably ask him [the person in the cubicle next to him] more than anybody."

However, proximity is a greater influence when those in close proximity to the novice constructor are also relatively less experienced. Novices change their information-seeking behavior to avoid potential embarrassment, appearing ignorant, or being considered a nuisance. Terminology is a common type of information that is sought by the novice using face-saving techniques.

Lingo, as far as construction things go, sometimes I have no idea what people are saying to me. Like 'escutcheons' for fire systems. I'd never even heard that word before and it was brought up in a meeting and I couldn't even spell it and I was like, OK, I'm not going to look like I'm stupid so I wrote "e. . ." and rambled on in my notes and then went back and typed it in and learned what it was.

Another related using other sources to gain a basic understanding on a topic before bringing a question to others. These face-saving techniques are particularly employed when the novice's boss or superior is involved. "Yeah, you want to ask as few questions to your superiors as possible. You want to make sure you've explored every avenue to make sure that you can't get the information before you start asking around."

Unsurprisingly, novice wayfinders are delegated information-seeking activities more frequently; the reasons for their searches are commonly clarifying and sourcing.

Experienced

Experienced wayfinders are relatively well-versed in their industry, region, and information sources. These people are more seasoned constructors and still seek information as a regular part of their workday, but also spend a greater portion using the information than just seeking it.

They are also less self-aware of seeking information; for many, information-seeking has become so routine that it is simply accepted until probed. "I wouldn't say it's a big part of my day." After inquiring about some sourcing activities, though, he revealed that there were types of information that he did seek regularly. "Now pricing, that's a different story, more so than product data. I do that all of the time." Even experienced constructors are faced with wayfinding topics about which they know very little. Although their actions are sometimes similar, the approach is different from that of the novice in that the experienced constructor is unconcerned with saving face during the process.

Experienced wayfinders still seek information for some of the more basic strategies, such as clarifying, sourcing, and preparing, but they also search for information to confirm and manage risk. They employ more advanced techniques, such as branching/filtering and understand the interconnectedness of the industry system. Experienced constructors are more efficient and effective at finding accurate information; they have to be in order to survive in the industry.

Discussion

The demanding, fast-paced construction industry requires much from its participants. Constructors' main concern is seeking accurate information efficiently and effectively to compete in this field. This main concern is resolved through wayfinding using five interrelated strategies. This theory, called wayfinding, explains the reasons why wayfinding is performed, tools and techniques used, and the types of constructors who wayfind. The wayfinding process allows the resolution of the constructors' main concern of being able to find effective information quickly.

Implications of Wayfinding

Wayfinding offers a description of the process that constructors use to seek information. As previously noted, constructors are extremely busy and temporal demands are always a concern. Wayfinding offers a thorough, concise explanation of information-seeking behavior as a starting point for reflection and critical thinking as well as self-improvement. As Brookfield (1987) stated, "Learning to think critically is one of the most significant activities of adult life. When we become critical thinkers we develop an awareness of the assumptions under which we, and others, think and act" (p. ix). Constructors who understand their

metacognitive processes—and those of others—might be able to better compete in this competitive industry.

Wayfinding highlights the importance of the information-seeking process. Constructors recognize the processes described; they confirm and validate its current practice. For example, the value of networks is emphasized at personal and professional levels. This value might assist a constructor who is considering whether to join a particular organization or send in renewal dues for an existing membership. Wayfinding also offers a starting point for dialogue between and among constructors by offering a conceptual description of the process as well as common terminology. This discussion may be particularly beneficial to experienced practitioners, for whom the information-seeking process has become so familiar and routine that it is invisible. Educators of future constructors can help them understand the importance of seeking information as well as realistically prepare them for these activities, perhaps accelerating the transition from novice to experienced practitioner.

Novice constructors can recognize some of the more advanced techniques used within their organizations and can perform more informed inquiries regarding the reasons and techniques being used. They may also identify some of their assigned tasks as building their wayfinding skills and understand the value of them more readily. All levels of constructors can use the theory to self-identify strengths and weaknesses as a starting point or continuation of their professional development.

Additionally, other parties within the building industry should be aware of these strategies, particularly as these strategies might be used against them. For example, architects should be aware of the subtle difference between resolving and shifting when clarifying is used. Diligence must be exercised to prevent confirming from inadvertently usurping design intent. Constructors' superior knowledge of the impact of information on time and cost may lead to increased use of shifting, for example.

Wayfinding and Existing Theory

Wayfinding builds upon and is different than theories of information-seeking in other rather varied fields. Ellis (1993), in his grounded theory of information-seeking of academic researchers, quoted several academics who spent considerable time monitoring publications to keep current on a topic, without a specific piece of information being sought. However, effectiveness is a trait that is shared between wayfinders and some other academics. Bronstein and Baruchson-Arbib (2008) examined Jewish studies scholars and found that they preferred more effective methods of seeking information over those people that made the least effort, i.e. effective was preferable to easy. Wayfinders prize effectiveness and efficiency; however, efficiency is viewed with regard to time expended rather than effort. In other words, a difficult but quick approach would often be chosen over an easier but slower one.

In another field, Ellis and Haugan (1997) described the information-seeking behaviors of engineers and scientists in an industrial research setting. These researchers described browsing through scientific journals and catalogs, where, "They usually scan through all the publications to find something of particular interest" (p. 398). The engineers and scientists also look through patent literature, which might provide relevant information or confirm what information is not available (i.e., the absence of an existing patent on an invention or process). Again, this is notably different that the information-seeking of constructors.

While wayfinding describes how individual constructors seek information, it also hints at the potential of organizational knowledge management systems. Markus (2001) examined knowledge reuse and its implications for knowledge management repositories, and found that novices had different approaches for seeking expertise. Future researchers may explore the relationship between individual constructors' information seeking and construction organizations' knowledge management approaches. Duncan and Holtslander (2012) examined the information-seeking behavior of senior nursing students, who might be considered novices, and found that frustration with terminology was the main concern. Although wayfinding did not find frustration to be a main concern, several novices did describe seeking information on unknown construction terminology. Educators, in particular, may wish to examine these implications in their preparation of future professionals in these and other fields.

This author examined wayfinding—the information-seeking behavior of constructors, who are part of a larger process of building any type of structure. This process is one in which they are typically seeking information from architects, consultants, and other agents, whose interests may not be aligned or may even be at odds to that of the constructor. This type of information asymmetry has been shown to lead to opportunistic behavior in information systems consulting (Dawson, Watson, & Boudreau, 2010), and could be examined in future research that could explore how information is provided to constructors by other parties.

While this author focused on constructors, these same strategies may be also used in other business and personal interactions well beyond the construction industry. Additional research into other types of strategic information-seeking behavior is warranted.

Conclusion

Construction is a risk-laden, fast-paced business endeavor with information requirements inherent to its very structure. The author in this investigation showed that constructors' main problem is seeking accurate information efficiently and effectively. Cost and time constraints are major concerns that are often balanced against each other during the process. Constructors use wayfinding to seek relevant information quickly to resolve their main concern.

The theory of wayfinding explains how constructors seek information in their professional careers. Five approaches within the strategy family were discovered, some with additional conceptual delineations within the strategy. Wayfinding is conducted by adopting one of five strategies: clarifying, confirming, sourcing, preparing, and managing risk. Three techniques were found: networking, branching/filtering, and cost-saving. Wayfinding varied by two types of constructors: novice and experienced. Wayfinding is the selection of a strategic approach to seeking information to enable the constructor to proceed with accuracy, speed, and success.

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Entering the Field: Decisions of an Early Career Researcher Adopting Classic Grounded Theory

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Abstract

Classic grounded theory methodology is a much-debated topic in research, especially when novice researchers are selecting classic grounded theory for their research or theses. There is a constant need to justify and defend certain processes of grounded theory, which often challenge other research methods. As a novice researcher, I have often found myself juggling between the need to follow specific procedures and regulations of the university while opting to support the views of Glaser and the application of classic grounded theory for my research. To tackle such difficulties, specific decisions were used to support and justify key choices that favoured classic grounded theory and the requirements of the research institute and my research process. This article provides a reflection on the decisions taken at different stages of the research process to help readers make informed decisions before entering the field.

Keywords: exploration, rhetorical wrestle, classic GT, emergence, entering the field, sampling, constant comparison.

Introduction

Every researcher is faced with many choices and decisions that help him or her guide the research towards a path. This article highlights a set of ten decisions I made during my research based on specific requirements of my institute and methodological choice. The decisions were mainly important to defend against the rhetorical wrestle and the adoption of classic grounded theory based on Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Glaser (1978, 1992, 1998, 2001, 2003, 2005). The ten decisions discussed in this paper provide an outline for novice researchers to justify their adoption of (classic) grounded theory as well as to offer them guidelines on conceptualising the research process of their own research projects.

As a PhD candidate in an era influenced and dominated by information and communication technology (ICT), I decided to do my PhD on computer-mediated communication focusing on investigating the influence emoji have on communication. The reasons for perusing such an area were personal interest and the desire to understand the communication process through computer-based channels.

While being unaware of concepts of theoretical sensitivity and philosophical perspectives, one of the first stages of my research process was to conduct a literature review in the research area, focus the research, and support it with a theoretical perspective. The first point of action was to conduct databases searches for existing papers with relevance to “emoji” as the key area of research. The results were surprising: only seven papers focused on emoji. They mainly focused on quantitative measures, and the papers did not provide much insight from a qualitative perspective on emoji and their influences in terms of communication. Thus, a more in-depth study was needed to explore and understand the research area further to develop an initial base in the context of emoji.

Decision One: Choosing an exploratory research design

The lack of publications in the topic area provided this researcher an opportunity to investigate and develop research from the ground up. Thus, an inductive style seemed appropriate. Also, an exploratory design was selected to investigate the unknown area of research, following Blaikie's (2009) views that exploratory research is very much suited in areas where little is known and helps develop a better idea about a social phenomenon. A strong emphasis was to develop an initial understanding of the research area using the exploratory research approach and open areas which can be further investigated. A justification was also provided from Blumer's (1969) perspective that exploratory research is applied to develop a “clearer understanding of how one's problem is to be posed” (p. 40).

Many authors, such as Creswell (2012), Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2013) and Bryman (2016), tended to relate exploratory research with qualitative research methods. However, from the various views on qualitative research, Hakim's (2000) view is an interesting one, as she emphasized that qualitative is about people and the focus of qualitative research is mainly to address patterns or clusters of attitudes and behaviour which emerge from the data. Similarly, Glaser (1978, 1992, 1998) also focused on the emergence of theory from data. However, Glaser (1978, 1992, 1998) provided a clear distinction between qualitative research and grounded theory.

Rhetorical Wrestle: Discovering vs Specifying

One of the main problems I faced with my colleagues, supervisory team, and reviewers was that I was constantly required to develop research questions and objectives, and create a specific path to define the research. This was always the main point of criticism. However, I always answered, “In defining a set of research questions and objectives, I am already limiting the ability to explore and discover”. This may seem a somewhat bizarre but one way of looking at research questions and objectives is that they are a way of setting boundaries. Interestingly Glaser commented on what grounded theory is:

It's not complex. It's very straightforward and very simple. All you're doing is looking for patterns of behaviours that explain the main concern and then you name the patterns. Patterns are what people are doing to resolve their main concerns. (Walsh, Holton, Bailyn, Fernandez, Levina, & Glaser, 2015, p. 21)

Supporting Glaser's view, from my exploratory research, were simply looking at what is going on and developing a theory based on behaviours of people. However, there is always a need to justify and defend an area of interest with research norms, to develop

questions, objectives, support points with literature, etc.; it is never enough to do research just because an area is of interest to a researcher. In essence, there is more pressure on justifying, specifying, and defending rather than exploring, discovering, and addressing an area of interest.

Developing Criteria for Selecting a Methodology

To address such a rhetorical wrestle and to support a specific methodological choice, various methodology selection criteria are developed. A reason for developing a methodology selection criteria is to justify and defend the need to support exploration and not to limit discovery in the research area. Supporting the idea of discovery, flexibility, and creative thinking are key benefits of perusing discovery as they allow the researcher to bring novelty to an area where little is known. The limited publications also allow a researcher the opportunity to present an initial theoretical perspective on emoji, which was otherwise missing. Thus, to take advantage of the situation, the researcher focuses on a process where he can go through a continuous cycle of exploring, understanding, and developing, while the process is facilitated with flexibility, creative thinking, and focusing on depth and richness of data, ultimately, aiming for novelty in the developed theory. Figure 1 illustrates the methodological selection criteria developed for the research.

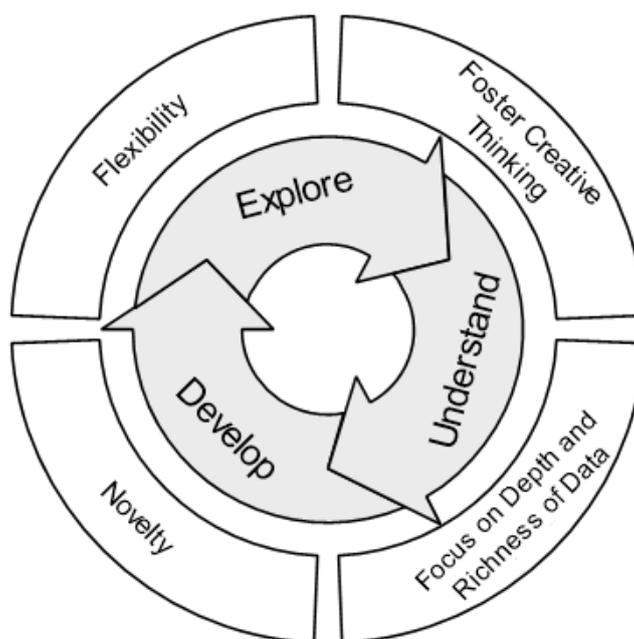


Figure 1. Methodological selection criteria

Decision Two: Adopting grounded theory

Out of many approaches to research, from phenomenology to case study, grounded theory method was selected for this research study as it is well suited in areas where little is known; it allows the researcher to focus more on exploring and the emergence of theory from discovery.

Originating in sociology and nursing, grounded theory aims to understand actions in a substantive area and generate theory from the data, in essence “theory grounded in data” (Bryant & Charmaz, 2010, p. 328). It is more suited for exploring initial discoveries

(Corbin & Strauss, 2014). Grounded theory allows a researcher to be flexible and provides a systematic approach to understanding complex phenomena, with potential towards conceptualising data (Charmaz, 2003; El Hussein, Hirst, Salyers, & Osuji, 2014). But the method is inadequate for generalizability and possibly leads to methodological errors if not applied accurately (Charmaz, 1990).

One of the key features that makes grounded theory so unique is that it allows room for fostering creative thinking. The grounded theory process emphasizes emergence, constant comparison, memoing, and most importantly, starting the research project without any preconceived ideas or concepts. The process allows room to analyse the data using creative thinking and to derive inductively meaning from data. As Glaser (1978) stated, grounded theory constantly promotes open-minded thinking to a "myriad of new possibilities" (p. 6), and enables data depth and richness towards conceptualisation.

Debates and Perspectives on Grounded Theory

Glaser (1992) defined grounded theory as "A general methodology of analysis linked with data collection that uses a systematically applied set of methods to generate an inductive theory about a substantive area" (p. 16).

Glaser's definition is acknowledged by researchers; however, variations in the way grounded theory is approached exist among grounded theorists. Common differences are in the way data is collected, analysed, and handled (Evans, 2013). Glaser (2002), while criticising Charmaz's constructivist grounded theory, pointed out that grounded theory is a general method and is not restricted to any one theoretical viewpoint, but rather it is neutral to an ontological and epistemological stance. Thus, classic grounded theory is free to adopt any ontological and epistemological stance and the theoretical perspective could be different in different cases (Holton, 2009). This notion of "neutrality" of ontology and epistemology is open to criticism and it is a common subject of debate in grounded theory literature to date. Straussian grounded theory follows on from the classic version in its neutrality towards the philosophical position and allows room for freedom but focuses more on the rigour of the process rather than the actual discovery of theory; also the process is more structured and is defined by a more inflexible and rigid coding of data analysis (Evans, 2013). Constructivist grounded theory, on the other hand, focuses more on interactions and involvement in the research, adopting constructivist views. The three different views presented by Glaser, Strauss, Corbin and Charmaz lead to an interesting debate about what grounded theory is. Grounded theory, unlike other research methods, can be quite confusing for novice researchers due to the time it may take to grasp the many variations—a necessary objective to allow them to decide which version of grounded theory suits their research.

Decision Three: Classic grounded theory

After extensive reading on the key debates and discussions on grounded theory, classic grounded theory was adopted to address the research aim, notably to develop a theory grounded in data. Looking back at the selection criteria in Figure 1, I saw that classic grounded theory was more suitable to allow flexibility and foster creativity as researchers could avoid any preconceived influences, aims to keep theoretical sensitivity at a minimum at the start, and builds theoretical understanding based on data.

Straussian and constructivist versions were discarded as they involve the use of existing literature and enforcing preconceptions through interactions (of individuals in the constructivist version), and thinking systematically about data (axial and focused coding used in Straussian and constructivist grounded theory). Classic grounded theory is unique as it allows researchers to be abstract, to focus on discovery, to be unique, and to give room to foster individual creative thinking by not relying on any other source but the data itself. Glaser gave his view in an interview:

In a field where there are five people and everything has a model, the person don't have themselves. It's all about how good the model is... you can talk, you can interpret, you can do anything anytime. Interesting huh? and that's my joy. I don't want yourself, I want you to have it. In terms of science, I always say autonomy, creativity, and originality. (Gynnild, 2011, p. 252)

Classic grounded theory certainly reflects the idea of autonomy, creativity, and originality. This research is also driven by similar ideas: flexibility, creative thinking, novelty, and dependence on data for depth and richness. Thus, classic grounded theory was selected.

Glaser's Perspective

One of the appealing factors of classic grounded theory (sometimes referred to as "GT") is that it is an exploratory research methodology; however, the methodology approaches exploration by embedding data and discovery to the entire research process. The mantra "All is data" (Glaser, 2001, p. 145) is always emphasized by Glaser in all his publications and suggests that data should be considered first, which help to build the emergence of theory.

While focusing on data, Glaser (2005) suggested that

The quest for an ontology and epistemology for justifying GT is not necessary. It will take these on from the type of data it uses for a particular research FOR THAT RESEARCH ONLY. GT is simply an inductive model for research. (p. 145)

The differences in ontological and epistemological stance are acceptable in classic grounded theory and do not require researcher to have a philosophical stance at the start. Along with data, another core element of classic grounded theory is abstraction and multiple perspectives, which help identify hidden patterns to form a theory. Glaser (2002, para. 6) commented

Grounded Theory is a perspective based methodology and people's perspectives vary. . . Multiple perspectives among participants is often the case and then the grounded theory researcher comes along and raises these perspectives to the abstract level of conceptualization hoping to see the underlying or latent pattern, another perspective.

Simply, a grounded theory researcher focuses on what is going on and identifies hidden patterns, which generally form the basis of the theory. However, the process of grounded theory is very much focused on the key principles that surround it. Without concepts such as theoretical sensitivity, theoretical sampling, and constant comparisons, grounded theory method is incomplete and it is not possible to apply it. Glaser (2001) said, "The product of classic grounded theory is abstraction, NOT accurate description, thus classic grounded theory is not aimed at solving the accuracy problem" (p. 145). He also explained that "Grounded theory is conceptualized patterns; it is abstract of time, place and people" (Glaser, 2001, p. 129).

Theoretical Sensitivity

Theoretical sensitivity, according to Glaser (1978, 1992, 2001), refers to qualities of the researcher, which relates to his or her ability to generate understanding, meaning, and subtlety (separating relevant from irrelevant factors) towards the data. Theoretical sensitivity is very much dependent upon literature, personal and professional experiences, and the analytical process (Glaser, 1978).

Classic grounded theory emphasizes that researchers applying the methodology need to keep the theoretical sensitivity as low as possible at the beginning, and allow the data to increase the researcher's theoretical sensitivity as he or she becomes more involved in the research process and the data. The grounded theory research requires the researcher to start his or her research with as few predetermined conceptions as possible, thereby being sensitive towards data to eliminate pre-existing hypotheses and biases (Glaser, 1978; Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006). There have been misconceptions that classic grounded theory asks researchers to start from a blank state or tabula rasa to legitimize theoretical sensitivity (Clarke, 2005), but neither classic nor any other grounded theory method claims that requirement; instead, Glaser and Strauss (1967) acknowledged that starting from a blank state is not possible but recommended that the researcher should purge preconceived ideas as much as possible to let the theory emerge.

Decision Four: Delaying the literature review

One of the key areas of concerns related to research I had as an beginning researcher was the need to bind research to literature or theoretical perspectives. Relying on the literature of theory, a researcher is not able to be creative or generate new ideas as the existing literature influence certain thoughts. This was another factor that encouraged the selection of classic versions over other approaches. Glaser and Strauss (1967) suggested

An effective strategy is, at first, literally to ignore the literature of theory and fact on the area under study, in order to assure that the emergence of categories will not be contaminated by concepts more suited to different areas. (p. 37)

Literature was seen as a factor that could contaminate creative thinking and limit novelty in the research. Therefore, it was necessary to purge preconceived ideas as much as possible, and not allow existing theories, concepts, and framework to influence the thinking process. Moreover, delaying the literature review allowed the researcher room to be flexible in the thinking and exploration process by letting the data address key findings and work with data only to develop conceptual ideas. Therefore, this researcher delayed the literature review until the point of theoretical coding (explained further in later sections), as suggested.

Theoretical Sampling and Constant Comparison

Core to classic grounded theory is theoretical sampling and constant comparative analysis (CCA); as key principles, these two concepts allow the researcher to simultaneously code, analyse, and collect data, and let the emergent theory *guide* the researcher. In grounded theory terms:

- **Theoretical sampling:** Sampling is done based on what emerges from data, and then the researcher decides what data to collect next. Data collection is more focused on generated ideas and emerging incidents within data. Theoretical sampling allows the researcher to follow up on the incidences within data; it also helps to simultaneously consider for validity (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Silverman, 2015).
- **Constant Comparison Analysis:** This is a core technique that requires the researcher constantly to compare data with data, data with emergent data, new and previous data with new and previous memos, codes, themes, and categories. Constant comparison analysis requires the researcher to go back and forth on data, codes, themes, categories, and properties (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The use of theoretical sampling and constant comparison analysis is extremely important as it permits the researcher to question the data in terms of what is happening? What does the data represent? What is to be studied? What are the key incidences? The questioning is much focused on the data at every stage of the research process (van Niekerk & Roode, 2009).

Preparing to Enter the Field

Considering the concepts of theoretical sensitivity, theoretical sampling, and constant comparison analysis, it is important for the researcher to start from data, and constantly compare incidents and properties of categories to develop a theory. Before entering into the field, it is important to understand the area under investigation; generally, the researcher uses literature review and preconceived ideas to develop research questions, but according to Hernandez and Andrews (2012, para. 4) the “researcher begins the study with a desire to find out what is going on in a particular substantive area. The research problem is not preconceived prior to the study beginning”. Based on this idea, the initial focus of this study was to concentrate on exploring the influence of emoji on communication and relying on data to provide conceptual ideas on the key effects.

Before going into data, some ethical protocols were needed in place, specific initial selection criteria were needed, consideration for access to participants, and consideration for the practicalities of time, situation, and context of the study and specific techniques for recruitment were needed to start the study.

Decision Five: Developing initial sample selection criteria

Due to the uncertainties of time and types of participants involved, the research process becomes slightly challenging when adopting classic grounded theory; once again, novice researchers are faced with the dilemma of needing to provide a set of plans for the duration of the PhD. Theoretical sampling is one of the major components that brings uncertainty to the duration of the research and its participants. However, to start the research process, an initial sample is needed which ultimately allows the researcher to enter the field. Thus, a decision to develop initial sample selection criteria was taken to

guide the researcher in the field, and to satisfy some expectation from the research institute to provide a plan.

To guide the research process, two elements were considered that fit with the requirements of classic grounded theory and the practicality of completing a PhD within a set timeframe. The sample selection criteria focused on relevance and accessibility. Relevance is important because research findings must be relevant to the investigation of emoji, otherwise the research is meaningless. On the other hand, consideration of accessibility is important to complete the research within a set duration; if data are not accessible, it could halt the research and the analysis process. Some considerations include:

- Emoji are seen to be different in the various different platforms, which many change the meaning of such emoji. As Miller, Thebault-Spieker, Chang, Johnson, Terveen, & Hecht (2016) identified, consistency between online platforms is important to avoid misinterpretation. Therefore, one specific platform needed to be selected.
- Regarding informed consent and privacy, the researcher needed to select a public platform, to involve participants who can provide informed consent and offer meaningful conversations.
- Considering the scope and the practicality of completing a PhD, initially, the researcher believes that participants need to be in easy reach of the researcher and should be individuals who are willing to be contacted and willing to engage without a loss of time. Later, sampling is dependent on theoretical occurrences.
- Regarding classic grounded theory, the participant selection needed to be neither too specific nor too narrow so as not to cause data contamination.
- Thinking of the key aim of the research, the researcher wanted to get participants who either send or receive emoji and are engaging with emoji-based text in some way.

After consideration of all the key points, the researcher determined that the sample selection criteria were participants who were individuals who send or receive emoji on Facebook.

Impact on Research

When developing the selection criteria, it was important to consider certain factors that could impact the results and findings of the research. However, Glaser (2002) strongly pointed out that factors, which may impact the research, should be considered as they emerge during the research process and not to be presumed in advance. Once again focusing on data, Glaser (2002) commented that:

The data is what it is and the researcher collects, codes, and analyzes exactly what he has whether baseline data, proper line data, interpreted data or vague data. There is no such thing for GT as bias data or subjective or objective data or misinterpreted data. It is what the researcher is receiving, as a pattern, and as a human being (which is inescapable). (para. 2)

Factors of biases, fallacies etc. should be considered as they emerge and should be reflected as just another variable.

Decision Six: Sampling one by one

Considering the concepts of theoretical sensitivity, theoretical sampling, and constant comparison analysis, this researcher made the decision (a) to collect, code, and analyse each data sample one by one, so that it could be analysed in depth and not influence any data sample other than the ones that guided it; and (b) to allow each data sample to generate emergent categories which would guide the next collected data sample in more detail. Moving the research process item by item allows the researcher to be more detailed towards the findings, foster creative thinking, and provides more focus to give depth to the emergent incidences within the data.

Moving to the next step, a consideration of data sources for data collection was needed and the selected sources were needed to fit with the research aim and the methodology.

Decision Seven: Observations and interviews

Initial thoughts on the key data source included only online observation of Facebook posts of participants and an analysis of them. However, the key focus of the study is to explore the effect of emoji on communication. Considering online observation as the main source will only provide a researcher a perspective on the data and will not consider participants' perspectives on emoji. Therefore, it was important to include interviews to gather more rich and in-depth data using interviews. However, solely conducting interviews was not enough, so a final decision was made to include online observations and interviews for data collection. In this situation, online observations were used to generate an initial understanding, initial codes, and categories that guided and led the researcher to the interview. During the interviews, the researcher could focus more on the relevant areas of the interview based on emergent themes from online observations. This idea is also supported by Glaser (1998), as he stated "In grounded theory, there is no such thing as observation without interviews to give them meaning. The reverse is also true; interviews without some observation are not embodied by behaviour and in this regard not as grounded in meaning" (p. 109).

Supporting classic grounded theory ideas of observation and interviews and planning for a perfect fit with the research aim, the researcher focused on two main sources of data: online observations and interviews.

Consideration of Language

According to Hennink (2008), in qualitative research, researchers seek to make sense of language and communication; thus, language is a vital aspect of the research process. Various different types of qualitative data analysis—such as grounded theory, content analysis, discourse analysis, thematic analysis, etc.—all base their results on findings from conversations and language used by the participants, which form the basis to understand behaviours and social processes. Thus, it was important for this researcher to consider all forms of languages and not exclude them from the research process based on culture and individual backgrounds. Consideration of all languages would allow for a better understanding of behaviours and social processes. Once again, by focusing on the different forms by which data are received should be considered in the way it is analysed.

Decision Eight: Non-participant observation

The research involved investigating emoji in an internet-based setting. The text by Mann and Stewart (2000) is key; the authors focused on identifying techniques used for online methods for research. Markham (2010) also acknowledged the importance of using the Internet as a key area of research: some areas discussed are “interaction and performance of identity and community” (p. 116). A focus of such publications was mainly to move traditional research methods towards being more focused on the Internet domain to help so-called Internet researchers. According to Hesse-Biber and Johnson (2015), the Internet has allowed researchers to use observational methods online to consider data collection of online cultures and events, to reveal attitudes and behaviours of participants, and to provide a wider perspective on social processes in online settings. According to Silva (2012), a researcher conducting online observations should consider three dimensions:

- Direct vs Indirect: Involvement of researchers and participants in the research process
- Structured vs Unstructured: Methods of data collections applying systematic or non-systematic methods
- Participant vs Non-participant: Involvement of the researcher and the degree of interaction with the participants.

Importance of Emergence

While following seminal texts for Internet-based research, there was also a need for alignment of such Internet-based techniques with classic grounded theory principles. Immediately, structured observations were excluded from the research; such methods would force preconceived ideas and may contaminate the research process. Also, observations in natural settings are more effective thereby allowing emergence to take place effectively; involvement of researchers to change the course of natural settings could jeopardise the research (Joinson, Katelyn, Tom, & Ulf-Dietrich, 2009). Thus, non-participant observations are more appropriate for classic grounded theory.

Online observations, according to Salmons (2015), address “how participants interact in online groups” (p. 124). Within Facebook, groups are considered as the connections that participants have and the individuals who comment on participants’ posts and interact with the participants through likes and tags. Interactions within Facebook are based on text, posted images, likes, reactions, and videos. Such interactions are used as a point of observation for data collection.

Some Areas of Limitations

With online observations of Facebook posts, the data included non-English conversations, as meaning and interpretation are key to this research. Translation of non-English conversations was conducted. According to Crystal (2010), the translation process involves tuning the source language with the meaning of the target language. The source language is the original language; the target language is the intent language

used for meaning. In this case, there can be many source languages, depending on the participants, and the target language is English.

In order to develop meaning and understanding of the source language and to get the text close to an exact or true meaning, double translations into the target language were conducted for validation purposes. A third translation will be considered in the future if necessary. The process of translation was dealt with ethically and responsibly; the following steps were taken:

- First, consent from the participant to involve a third party in the translation process was given.
- Second, before presenting the data to the third party, the identity of the members in the conversation was blurred out and kept anonymous.
- Third, the data were presented to a third party in a raw format while maintaining anonymity of members in the conversation, so the translation could be done without any conflict of interest.
- Fourth, after completion of both translations, the translated documents were compared and matched to see differences and similarities. So far no differences were found in the translations; the translations were considered as true.

Decision Nine: Absence of interview guides

To keep the idea of emergence and allowing data to emerge, Glaser (2001) suggested that grounded theory is not qualitative data analysis (QDA) and should be seen differently; to support his views, he argued that QDA aims toward complete data coverage, whereas grounded theory does not. He insisted that in order for the theory to emerge, guiding questions and preconceived ideas should not be included in the interviews. Glaser (2001) mentioned (2001) that "using predetermined interview guides for in-depth interviews on everyone, would seriously impede a GT research" (p. 171).

In the initial stages, he very much favours conversational interview as it helps to allow the interviewee to talk about their own perspectives rather than the interviewer imposing thoughts which may lead to a descriptive theory. The use of conversational interviews allows the researcher to explore general topics and uncover the views of the participant. Van Enk (2009) highlighted that when conducting conversational interviews, it is important to remember that it is not about the researcher, his or her experiences, his or her opinion of the participant, or how he or she relates to the participant; it is about the participants, their lives, their perspectives, and their opinions. The researcher should be more of a listener, a facilitator and take a back seat in the interview to allow the participant to express themselves and be open. But, as the research progresses forward, the researcher moves to the next sample based on emergent areas, considers emergent themes, categories, and theoretical sampling; the researcher has to consider tailoring the questions, listening, and making observations according to the current situation. But again, it is important to remember that questioning should not be imposed based on emergent themes. Ball, Müller, and Nelson (2014) defined theoretical interviewing as: "the process of continuous checking between data and analysis helps to guide subsequent data collection through theoretical sampling which that the emerging concepts become increasingly abstract and theoretical" (p. 116).

In essence, interviews are guided by the data and analysis; minimal guidance is given to avoid imposition of emergent concepts. Another key important instruction provided by Glaser (2001) is that:

the questions are content guided based on the emergent theory's categories as the research generated properties of them. Thus emergent questions are emergent interview guides to use on one or few participants available at the time. Emergent interview questions are NOT to be used with all participants. (p. 174)

Supporting such ideas, the researcher excluded interview guides and allowed emergent categories to guide the research process, and thus, adopted theoretical interviewing.

Decision Ten: Entering the field

After developing the initial selection criteria and receiving ethical approval, without losing any more time, the researcher was ready to enter the field. But, considering the concepts of theoretical sensitivity, theoretical sampling, and constant comparison analysis, a decision was taken to collect, code, and analyse each data sample one by one so that the data could be analysed in depth and not influence any other data sample other than the ones that guided it; and to allow each data sample to generate emergent categories to guide the researcher to the next collected data sample. Moving the research process item by item allows the researcher to be more detailed towards the findings, foster creative thinking, and it can provide more focus to give depth to the emergent incidences within data.

Process Analysis

Glaser (1978, 1992, 1998, 2001) insisted that researchers using the methodology should focus on the data and where it leads more than anything; researchers should not enforce preconceived ideas into their study. Grounded theory is very much data-dependent and it lets the data guide the researcher towards the theory rather than the researcher leading the data to a theory. This ideology caused key debates in the grounded theory literature and is also one of the reasons for creating variations of the method. In the original text, Glaser and Strauss (1967) mentioned that "when the analyst's purpose is only the specifying of a unit of analysis, he stifles his chances for generating to a greater degree" (p. 26). In simple terms, analysts should keep an open mind and allow data to specify what the unit of analysis should be. The unit of analysis for this research is the incidents within data discovered during the study. Thus, *the data guide the researcher, not the researcher guiding the data*. Classic grounded theory is dependent on the process and the analysis rather than one unit of analysis from start to end.

Overall Research Process

The research process applied to this research is based on the aforementioned key points and classic grounded theory concepts, highlighted here in Figure 2. The figure indicates that from the first participant, the researcher conducts online observations (Facebook posts) and then codes and creates memos as necessary using substantive coding principles of open coding. Once some initial codes and categories have been developed, the researcher interviews the same participant based on initial coding, memos, and

categories previously developed in the online observations. Next, the researcher codes, creates memos, and develops categories for those interviews and then compares the interview with the online observations one by one. When moving to the next participant, the researcher uses previously created codes, memos, and categories to guide the choice of the next sample participant; he or she then starts from online observations, to the creation of codes, memos, and categories, finally moving to interviews that are guided by the previous set of codes, memos, and categories. At every stage, all the generated codes, memos, categories, and properties are constantly being compared with each other and the data sets to guide the next data set.

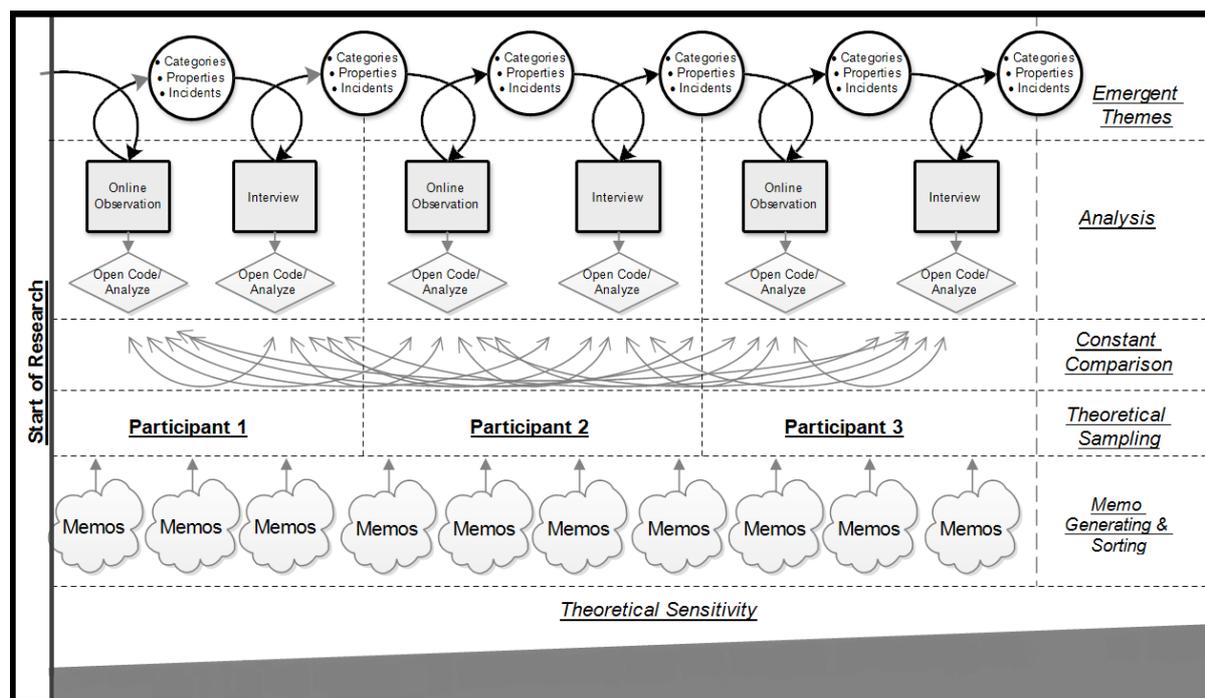


Figure 2. Research process

It is also an important point to note that as the researcher moves from one data set to next, theoretical sensitivity increases at every stage of the research process (shown in Figure 2).

A Reflection on the Process

Researchers adopting grounded theory methods are faced with many forms of rhetorical wrestles; to justify the use of classic grounded theory, I supported each wrestle with a set of decisions that ultimately provided some perspectives on my thought process to the reviewers.

Flexibility, creativity, novelty, and data depth and richness were key areas of consideration, which informed the decisions taken throughout. These criteria were necessarily constantly compared with basic grounded theory principles. Essentially, the process involved three different stages.

Stage 1: Selection of research design.

For any research study, one of the first methodological choices to be made is the design. This stage consisted of the first three decisions, up to the point of selecting classic grounded theory, where, based on the goal, the need was to mainly select a design that fit the criteria for conducting such a study. However, the process of choosing a specific method required extensive reading of key debates and criticism to look for relevance and fit for each methodological choice with respect to the research aim.

Stage 2: Preparing to enter the field.

Following the selection of the methodology, there is always a need to have preparation for the research project. The second stage consisted of the aforementioned decisions four to nine. One of the key challenges faced was the rhetorical wrestle required with the institute while being consistent with the classic grounded theory methodology. The second stage of the research process used Glaser's publications as primary sources for justification and support using classic grounded theory.

Stage 3: Enter the field.

The last stage was to invoke decision ten: to enter the field and start the research process.

Conclusion

The authors focused on highlighting some areas of consideration for early researchers adopting classical grounded theory. It is always challenging to make decisions that may sometimes contradict traditional norms of research, where these norms force a researcher to make some not necessarily relevant decisions. Glaser (1998) discussed some rhetorical wrestles faced by researchers that shed light on the sort of challenges that may arise. The authors of this paper address some significant rhetorical wrestles faced during this research. The teachings of Glaser and supporting texts have guided these decisions through the research process and the uniqueness the applied methods could bring to the research process. Concepts such as theoretical sensitivity, constant comparison, and theoretical sampling not only allow researchers to bring uniqueness but also enable them to consider research from a very different angle. Novice researchers adopting classical grounded theory methodology must remain open to debates, justification, and contradictions to support the mantra of "all is data" (Glaser, 2001, p.145). If applied appropriately the researcher will end up with a unique theory grounded in data.

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Understanding Abstract Wonderment: The Reflections of a Novice Researcher

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to present a novice researcher's understanding of Glaser's dictum to approach classical grounded theory studies with a sense of abstract wonderment. In the paper, the argument is made that far from being a preposterous concept, cultivating abstract wonderment as a form of praxis can help liberate the researcher from the bonds of preconceptions and attachments, which impede the emergence of a grounded theory. The paper reflects a personal grounded theory study arising after a crisis of confidence encountered during a formal PhD grounded theory study. It offers considerations on how to cultivate a sense of awe and abstract wonderment.

Keywords: abstract wonderment, engagement, cultivating awe, memoing, panic, communicating.

Introduction

Novice researchers face a plethora of difficulties when setting out on a grounded theory study. Apart from the confusing array of grounded theory research methods, those interested in Classic Grounded Theory (CGT) are challenged to approach the study with an "abstract wonderment of what is going on that is an issue and how it is handled" (Glaser, 1992, p. 22). The meaning of abstract wonderment is left to the individual researcher to explore. Occasional advice is provided as it is a means of differentiating Glaser from Strauss and Corbin in not having preconceived ideas about the research (Jantunen & Gause, 2014), and that it should be replaced with "general wonderment" (Cutcliffe, 2005, p. 422). Within this paper, as a novice researcher, I will provide an interpretation of his understanding of Glaser's dictum, and argue that any move away from "abstract wonderment" will hinder the process of emergence.

I start from an assumption that Glaser is challenging novice and experienced researchers to approach their study much as a young child would approach a new experience, free from the shackles of health and safety. It is a challenge to temporarily suspend the use of those concepts and labels we have collected over our lives, which have made the world familiar and less scary, to move away from a place of safety, where all is known and ordered, into a space of "unknowing". He is daring us to let go of our desires to join the ranks of the theoretical and methodological capitalists whose only relationship with their research is that of an overly concerned parent with a child or maybe worse, that of the knowledgeable specialist—the technocratic priest (Saul, 2013). Glaser is demanding that novice researchers learn how to let go of damaging

attachments and develop a critically conscious relationship with their data and participants—and engage in a genuine dialogue based on trust rather than control.

As with many of Glaser's challenges within CGT, it is a counter-cultural move. Counter-cultural in an age of fragmentation where concepts and labels are required to provide a sense of certainty and security that ensures the desired outcome is achieved. It is a challenge to join the ranks of the "maladjusted" (Freire, 2013, p. 4) who retain their autonomy, view the world through a lens of critical consciousness thereby transforming their research fields and the wider environment.

Engaging with Wonderment

In "Discovery" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), readers are challenged to let go of the hegemonic instinct to fit the unknown into the already known; they are advised that it is "presumptuous" to identify categories and hypothesis in the early days of a CGT study. A succinct summary of the criticisms of this approach, offered by Thomas (2007), asserts that this dictum "is nothing to the presumptuousness of assuming the empty, directionless, uninflected mind of 'abstract wonderment'" (p. 132). This paper is a response to Thomas, arguing that far from being empty, directionless and plodding, abstract wonderment is essential to extend the development of a critical curiosity that counters the desire to constrict the unknown within known, predetermined, boundaries.

"Abstract wonderment" is a strange phrase to use; Thomas (2007) argued that it is a contradiction in terms. A return to the historical usage dispels the myth of contradiction by identifying the key foci for its use. The phrase first appears at the turn of the 20th century relating to the "abstract wonderment of childhood" (Harte, 1896, p. 417) followed twenty years later in a reference by Woodsworth that equated the phrase with "distant admiration" (Mills, 1991, p. 138). It is not until we reach 1959 when abstract wonderment is referred to in terms similar to that described by Glaser—to situations where issues are "taken out of the context of abstract generalisations, and encountered in the form of applied specifics" (Esquire, 1959, p. 6). Drawing from these three historical understandings, abstract wonderment appears to reflect the adoption of a detached admiration or awe where the researcher seeks to explore familiar, or maybe not so familiar, situations through a childlike lens.

Pedagogical writers have expounded the benefits of engaging wonderment in teaching children, and adults, linking it with curiosity (Malik, 2014; Nelson & Palumbo, 2013; Valiga, 2012). Abstract wonderment is more radical; it demands that the researcher move towards a space of unknowing, to be willing to encounter their research in much the way a young child encounters new experiences. Imagine a toddler with a new toy; the toddler looks at the toy, examines it from all angles, feels it, smells it, tastes it, shakes it—while he/she is seeking to make sense of it and trying to understand it. This wonderment does not disappear, rather it transforms; new toys or experiences are constantly compared to previous encounters; it is only as we get older that we begin to let go of this ongoing sense of wonderment—only allowing it catch us, as adults, by surprise. Glaser is challenging researchers to deliberately cultivate and reengage with that childish skill whilst using our adult skills of being able to intellectualise and conceptualise our experiences; he is simply asking us to spend some time enjoying the data—play with it—while seeking to understand it.

A radical interpretation of wonderment, such as this, does not ignore prior knowledge, rather it requires the novice researcher to suspend their theoretical and experiential “knowing”. In “Theoretical Sensitivity”, Glaser (1978) warns the novice researcher about the dangers of following in the footsteps of the “theoretical capitalists” (p. 9). His challenge is not just that we will be influenced by the big names but, more subtly, he argues that that we should treat the data with more reverence than we would the works of Weber, Vygotsky, Senge, or even Glaser. This demand resonates with the challenge of the Kantian parallax wherein we are called to set aside our own expectations and beliefs, along with those of others, to be able to observe the reality of that which lies between the different perspectives. In my research, I have been interviewing people about workplace behaviour; these personal stories, sometimes harrowing, are of people who have been bullied or mobbed; these stories, or data, deserve to be treated with respect and admiration and not as a means to a professional end.

Glaser (2015) extols the virtues, and difficulties, of achieving autonomy, at a methodological and institutional level but neglects to explore how this autonomy is limited by our own attachments. Wonderment is not just a concept it is an action; it is the act of letting go of our concepts and labels, our attachments, and experiencing something unique, such as holding a new-born baby or watching a sunset—moments where our vocabulary is just not broad enough to describe what we are experiencing, or in terms of research, what we are observing and discovering. This “emotional response to perceptually vast stimuli that defy one’s accustomed frame of reference in some domain” (Piff, Dietze, Feinberg, Stancato, & Keltner, 2015, p. 297) closely identifies with the key characteristic of wonderment; awe.

The Impact of Awe

Awe pushes against the boundary between pleasure and fear, challenging us to change our mental schemas (Keltner & Haidt, 2003) within an extended perception of time (Rudd, Vohs, & Aaker, 2012). This challenge arises as a response to our awareness of the vastness of what we are experiencing and the need to accommodate that experience (Keltner & Haidt, 2003). In approaching CGT with “abstract wonderment” (Glaser, 1992, p. 22), researchers are being asked to free themselves from time, place, and people to enable them to experience the vastness of the data and challenged to construct new mental models (concepts/codes/theories) that will explain that vastness.

The experience of wonderment carries a risk. Allowing ourselves to experience the shock that surprise can generate within us, especially when we realise that we are at the limits of our own knowledge (Foucault, 2001) or that we have an error in our own thinking (Cooke, 2012) is not comfortable. It requires us to experience an unfiltered reality, to experience the disruptive influence of the Kantian parallax; it requires us to let go of our comfortable, and comforting, self-centred attachments. This increased self-awareness, it is suggested, is the product of experiencing awe—a movement towards focusing on the social context in which we exist (Piff et al., 2015) or are researching. The main focus of the CGT researcher is social—the people and their problems (Glaser, 1978, 1992; Glaser & Strauss, 1967); a focus which, when grounded in awe, offers the opportunity to develop new information resources as opposed to gaining social or material rewards (Shiota, Keltner, & Mossman, 2007). The researcher therefore

emerges as an autotelic person, one who researches for the love of researching (Csikszentmihalyi, 1998). With the increasing demands on academics, including novice researchers, to satisfy performance criteria, namely achieving output measures, the autotelic researcher may be viewed as being “maladjusted”.

Becoming a “Maladjusted” Researcher

We often think of someone who is maladjusted negatively—someone who is struggling to cope with the demands of society or their workplace. Glaser (2001, 2015) drew attention to the ways a “normal” society, the academic community, demands that the novice researcher adapts and surrenders their autonomy, bringing to mind an image of a “stifling atmosphere of prejudice and traditions” (Kropotkin, 2002, p. 35). Such an atmosphere is dominated by theoretical and methodological capitalists (Glaser, 1978, 1998) who have spent their time “organizing society around answers and around structures designed to produce answers” (Saul, 2013, p. 7). While Saul described such people as technocratic priests, it may be more accurate to use the language of Pope Francis who draws a distinction between clericalism, which seeks to control and restrain, and the role of the priest, grounded in awe and wonderment, that supports and empowers people. The distinction is the use of the expert knowledge to support or restrict individual autonomy.

When we “adjust”, we surrender our own freedom of thought; we see the world through the eyes of another; we become satisfied that someone else has the answer and engage in discussions on their behalf, passively receiving information. To be maladjusted is to be a heretic, to become a critically conscious human being, and to live in relationship with others and the environment. Freire (2013) argued that being separated from, and yet open to, the world is the distinguishing characteristic of being human; “unlike [other] animals, [we] are not only in the world but with the world” (p. 3). This active engagement in developing understanding and choice, which leads to a transformation of our environment, is opposed to the adjusted status in which the critical being is reduced in state to little more than a serf (Samson, 2014). Fromm (2013) took this one step further likening the well-adjusted person to “an automaton [who] cannot experience life in the sense of spontaneous activity [taking] as a surrogate any kind of excitement or thrill” (p. 253) and “conforms to anonymous authorities and adopts a self which is not his. The more he does this the more powerless he feels, the more he is forced to conform” (p. 254).

Achieving an autonomous state does not entail the rejection of all that has gone before. Indeed Glaser (1998) and Freire (2013), recommended the researcher to avoid direct conflict with the clericals and their vested fictions, preferring a more subversive and emergent approach through conversion and respectful argument. Freire argued that the maladjusted “can discuss respective positions. He is convinced he is right, but respects another man’s prerogative to judge himself correct. He tries to convince and convert not to crush his opponent” (p. 9). Glaser re-emphasised this point by arguing that “diplomacy is important as revelation starts” (Glaser, 1998, p. 248). The autonomous researcher, armed with the cultivated skills of awe and wonderment, will be able to trust that this process of emergence will achieve the ends that they desire.

Cultivating Awe and Wonderment

Awe, and by extension, wonderment can be cultivated (Keltner & Haidt, 2003; Piff et al., 2015; Rudd et al., 2012). It can recreate itself; the more one becomes mindful of the power of awe, the more aware of the instances of it one can experience (Keltner & Haidt, 2003). This section is a practical exploration of how, as a novice researcher, I have sought to integrate “abstract wonderment” into my research.

My ongoing study, among a diverse group of UK based employees, representing different hierarchical levels, sectors, and age groups, is an exploration of what people understand by workplace behaviour. A key concern raised by the participants was not the expected issues of workplace abuse, in which I have specialised for the last ten years as a professional workplace counsellor, but the performance required by each employee to satisfy the actual, and perceived, demands of their intended audience. This performance is disconnected from the reality of everyday life outside of work, where the meek and mild can become emboldened and encouraged in a hyper-competitive and individualistic organisation to transform into psychopaths in business suits.

Through the memoing process, I gained a surprise insight into my own tendency to adapt my message to please the research audience. Looking back over my memos, I realised that an important aspect of which I had known but dismissed, was the anarchist perspective on business with its emphasis on mutual aid. I had implicitly under-emphasised and excessively critiqued this approach as being unrealistic and unworkable. This critique was founded upon a belief, based upon my past experiences as a senior purchasing manager in multinational organisations, that if I were to walk into a business meeting and suggest adopting anarchist principles, the reception would be, at the very least, somewhat muted. I was unconsciously constraining my research because I was attached to my perceptions of what an audience would accept.

I had to accept that, despite my protestations of having no preconceptions, I always had an attachment to the future career potential of my research. I became aware that I had succumbed to the ethos of careerism that “fuels a timid, if not cynical, intellectual inertness, which allows otherwise smart energetic people to not pose critical questions as they hide in the thickets of mainstream professional correctness” (Luke, 2016, p. 1). This realisation was challenging as it required a conscious decision to continue in this way, or to find a new way of doing things that would be more congruent; it went to the heart of what the purpose of my study was. To carry on doing just enough would satisfy the university’s minimum evaluation criteria and would probably help in developing a career (being an exotelic person). It would not, however, satisfy the reason I began my research project, which was to explore employee’s understandings of workplace behaviour (being autotelic) and offer future employers a higher quality, autonomous researcher.

This realisation resonated with a particular category emerging for the data particular data comparison in which I was engaged, and was of no small consequence. The interviewees constantly stated that they felt like their roles were consistently being devalued and that they were merely; “doing their job” and more specifically “doing just enough”. They suggested that the workplace was no longer a place where you could have “fun”—where fun meant “having the opportunity to be yourself”. Work was viewed as a place to “go through the motions”—institutional exotelism”; and that was just what I had been doing.

The impact of this realisation cannot be underestimated. It exposed a fragility of which I was not aware in relation to data analysis, but also encouraged the resurfacing of a deeper fear of “getting things wrong”, particularly in relation to writing. My response to this new situation was simple; I panicked. The hubris I had felt as a novice researcher, thinking I had read all the books and understood the process, evaporated. It was replaced with thoughts about the whole process being “a waste of time . . . [becoming] irritable. . . [and going into] a somewhat deep depression and [feeling] a disturbing identity loss” (Glaser, 1978, p. 23); I wondered whether I really knew what I was doing and if I could do it.

A Creative Use for Panic

Panic is disabling. It is a destructive cycle epitomised by two key characteristics: procrastination and the search for the perfect solution (Nolen-Hoeksema, Wisco, & Lyubomirsky, 2008); the main purpose of this behaviour is to avoid the stimuli and, therefore, avoid the panic. For this novice researcher who had lost confidence in his own abilities, it meant avoiding the research and hiding away and seeking sanctuary in non-structured reading.

A three-phased structured approach is required to help reduce the impact of panic. An educational phase, where the client is helped to make sense of what is happening, is supported by cognitive restructuring—helping the client comprehend that this is a normal response to an external stimuli and not a catastrophe—and, sometimes, interoceptive exposure where the client is exposed to the stimulus and helped to re-conceptualise panic attacks (Wolf & Goldfried, 2014). While a CGT study does not seek to provide solutions, it is clear there are similarities with the approach; the counsellor helps to develop a theory to explain the clients main concern (the panic attacks) and how they resolve that process. The additional element is addressed by Simmons and Gregory (2003) in their discussion of grounded action, where the next logical step occurs in finding an alternative way to process their concern.

While panic is often viewed as stifling, it can be part of a creative process. Drawing on Edvard Munch’s painting of “The Scream”, Zausner (1999) suggested that it offered an insight into the artist’s creative response to his own panic attacks—a process described as “active insight” (Zausner, 1999, p. 103). This is an organised process of using information about the panic, and its stimuli, to help discover connections, generating new information, which transforms the panic into “creative chaos”. Parallels, for developing this creative chaos, exist within “Theoretical Sensitivity” in the recommendation that “the pressure for venting . . . must be dissipated only in writing memos or text” (Glaser, 1978, p. 23); or, put more simply, write your way out of the panic. Not only is information transformed, but the person moves towards greater self-esteem, and important for my particular situation, greater self-awareness.

Self-awareness, according to Morin (2005) is a “complex, multifaceted, phenomenon which is shaped by a host of ecological, neurological, social and cognitive processes” mediated through our inner speech (Morin, 2005, p. 128). This inner speech is described as “a flashlight [which is] used to find one’s way through a gloomy room” (Morin, 2002, p. 523); it provides a clarity to our emotional responses, such as values, beliefs, sensations, and so on; without the spotlight, we know they are there but we may

not be aware that we are experiencing them. Thus, the inner voice helps us to develop our skills at self-reflection and the being able to compare external and internal stimuli (constant comparison).

Communicating with Memos

By approaching data intending to understand, using constant comparison to explore what emerges through abstract wonderment, as opposed to confirming hypothesis or preconceived ideas, the researcher adopts a different mental model of communication. The model evokes a relationship of equals with the data, understanding communication as a horizontal activity. Freire (2013) contrasted this empathic, critical dialogue with a transmission, what he called "communiqué", of "anti-dialogue" (p. 43), founded on acritical arrogance and mistrust. His argument was simple; a critical dialogue should cause the surprise emergence of new understanding.

While Glaser (1998) emphasised the importance of memoing at each opportunity for personal and academic situations, it was not until I explored the meaning of abstract wonderment in relation to the panic I had felt that I realised the importance of his advice; memos had been quick notes that acted as reminders. Exploring "abstract wonderment" and the importance of horizontal dialogue led me to the strange relationship that Niklas Luhmann had with his note taking system, or Zettelkasten (Luhmann, 2012). Luhmann's note taking system was predicated on the idea that communication was generated by random acts of surprise, based upon trust, which help lead to a further and deeper understanding of a topic; this communication can be achieved with a dialogue between the researchers and their memos.

Memos should not be static but dynamic helping to make connections. Such a relationship should be capable of inspiring moments of awe, moving from a sense of chaos towards creative chaos; it forms a partnership in which each partner should be capable of surprising the other. This surprise is stressed when the two communicators (the researcher and the memos) operate different schema; placing this in the context of abstract wonderment means we enter the research field open to the experience of engaging with a different schema. This movement is supported by a nascent critical consciousness, a maladjustment which encourages a critical curiosity (Freire, 2013); the birth of a "maladjusted" autotelic researcher.

As with any relationship, the creative partnership between the autotelic researchers and their memos demands concentrated effort and time. It is easy to ignore advice about pacing a CGT study (Glaser, 1998); however, this becomes important in relation to entering the creative space. The experience of my own journey suggests that while it is possible to develop an attitude of wonderment built upon a critical consciousness; entering the creative space of "abstract wonderment" is time limited. Inspiration can strike at any moment but building the habit of developing a period to time during each day dedicated to creative thought is a recommended strategy; how long that period should be, will differ between people.

This time is dictated by our ability to remain cognitively absorbed. Cognitive Absorption (CA) is a concept identified by Agarwal and Karahanna (2000) within the technology field, to refer to the deep, immersive state of involvement that a person enters when using software; its characteristics can apply to the state of abstract

wonderment. The authors argue that when a person engages with CA, they enter a state of “flow”, or period of complete, focussed, immersion, while engaged in an intrinsically rewarding activity that is only just on the edge of being “doable”. It is playful state characterised by; curiosity, control, temporal dissociation, focused immersion and heightened enjoyment. In this state a researcher will work at the limits of their abilities at the border between excitement and fear; this is the point when, as discussed earlier, we experience “awe”.

To develop an expertise in any field requires periods of “deliberate practice” (Ericsson, 2008), p. 1) not practising what we already know but pushing ourselves to the limits of our abilities. For the CGT novice researcher this implies practising letting go of our preconceptions, trusting ourselves and experiencing abstract wonderment. Ericsson et al. (2007) quoted Auer who advised that “It really doesn’t matter how long. If you practice with your fingers, no amount is enough. If you practice with your head, two hours is plenty” (p. 124). While deliberate practice is valuable, what may be described as “purposeful leisure”, time spent recovering and recuperating from deliberate practice, intending to facilitate further thinking, is equally important. Outdoor recreation has empirical research foundations for its restorative power in restoring mental processes and positive functioning (Kaplan, 1995; Ulrich, Dimberg, & Driver, 1991)

My initial attempts at entering a state of abstract wonderment were fraught with difficulties. Apart from finding a place where I would not be disturbed, the primary difficulty was understanding how long I could remain in this state for and it being effective. The first attempts at using the Pomodoro Technique, or the therapeutic hour—50 minutes with a ten-minute break—proved to be of limited use. First, I found it difficult to enter the CA state, to let go of the daily trivia enough to fully engage with the sense of abstract wonderment and, second, to stop and start broke the flow. Being able to see a dingle from my study led me to settle on a pattern of working two 90-minute sessions a day interspersed with taking the dog for a long walk in the wood, thereby mixing wonderment with wanderment.

Conclusion

My single voice reflects on personal experiences seeking to understand what Glaser meant in his use of the term abstract wonderment. It is true that I could have written to him to ask what he meant but that would have placed him among the ranks of the theoretical capitalists, a position in which I do not think he would appreciate being placed. The autonomous researcher must seek out his or her own understanding, conceptualise on his or her own, and then address the current literature.

I began this paper by drawing attention to Thomas’ (2007) belief that the concept of abstract wonderment is preposterous. If the researcher demands a risk-free existence supported by the comforting structures of society, it would be foolish to engage with abstract wonderment. To view abstract wonderment as a concept is to miss the point; abstract wonderment is a praxis. Although Freire (1996) regarded praxis as the means by which the oppressed can develop their own critical awareness, in light of Glaser’s (2015) concerns for the autonomy of novice researchers, this concept may not be too far off being the right word. It implies developing an experiential understanding of the topic under investigation, which can only be attained by letting go of our

attachments and being open to the experiences that are offered to us. For the researcher who is passionate about his or her topic and is willing to risk the praxis of abstract wonderment, it demands the inhabiting of the borders between enjoyment and fear, so we can enter a creative space in which new concepts, and meanings, can emerge. For abstract wonderment, the closure of meaning, that is inherent where forcing and preconception are dominant, is anathema.

Grounded theorists research the real world. The aim of a CGT study is to “generate a theory that accounts for pattern of behaviour that is relevant and problematic for those involved” (Glaser & Holton, 2004, p. 1). Abstract wonderment is a creative skill that helps a researcher encounter those involved with an attitude of openness, acceptance and curiosity. By deploying this skill, a researcher can not only empower him or herself but empower participants by identifying the underlying unity (Glaser, 1999) that explains “what is” and helps them move to “what ought to be” (Simmons, 2011, p. 18). In my case, this means talking to real people who are facing real difficulties in their workplaces. The problems they have highlighted are messy and complex; they are the experts in this situation; my role is to try and make some sense out of what they offer me. Participants have said that they have no voice in their workplace; it is my responsibility, as a researcher, to listen and understand to what they are saying. I can only do this if I truly let go of my own attachments and approach them as unique human beings with their own stories. For me, this release can only happen if I approach them with a sense of awe and abstract wonderment as the wonderful, unique human beings that they are.

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Ignoring Grounded Description

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Why is there so much grounded description? The simplest, direct answer is that to many a researcher this is GT. This view is supported by several factors. It is easy and natural to describe accurately. So slipping into grounded description comes naturally and is ok as GT. Also departmental support for description is strongly supported by perspective and academic rewards and history and routine QDA. Also many researchers and readers of research cannot conceptualize very well if at all. They want accurate description about the data in the study. They are not into taking a core category as a general category applicable to general implications applicable to much data elsewhere. Their study is about explaining processes the data, NOT in studying the implications of core and sub-core categories as they are integrated into an explanatory theory. I trust the reader can think of other sources of letting GT research slip into conceptual description.

Another major source of ignoring detailing no conceptual description when doing GT is the write up of the methodology for doing GT in the many books now written on doing GT and its procedures. The reader is not warned of the possibility of slipping from the prospect of doing good conceptual GT into the grab of doing extensive conceptual grounded descriptions. Conceptual description is assumed as GT. For example in Holton and Walsh's new excellent book (Classic GT 2015, Sage) they have a chapter entitled "Discovering New Theory as the End Purpose of Classic GT." They state immediately that "developing is what we are meant to do" doing GT. They then devote ten pages complete with charts and diagrams explaining different types of theory. It is too complex and abstract to follow for designing a theory for a GT. Not once do they warn the reader about the slipping of conceptual into extensive description of a grounded concept. They talk of grounding concept with no illustration of data source, which is the opposite of giving too much data. Mild illustration dosage stops excessive conceptual description in writing the final product. Having a mild illustration dosage design prevents excessive conceptual description take over.

In another chapter on analyzing data (chapter six) they again do not warn of excessive conceptual description. They talk quite correctly that GT depends on the conceptualization of data by coding and memoing. They refer to the several incidents used as interchangeable indicators when using the constant comparative method to generate and discover conceptual codes. But they do not warn of writing about all the interchangeable indicators yielding a concept. This, of course, results in excessive conceptual description to no benefit to generating a conceptual GT. The excessive writing of incidents just describes the grounding of the GT over and over. It slips the theory into description, and loses the conceptual level of a GT, while still calling it a GT. Telling one incident as an illustration of a concept/code is enough. Discovering a latent pattern is exciting and it is hard to not

describe it at length and easy to miss not relating it to other concepts to generate a conceptual theory. Holton and Walsh do come close to citing the grounded conceptual description problem when they say "description captures a moment in time. But the essentially limited nature of descriptive writing hinders the theory's ability to produce a complex yet parsimonious multivariate abstract theory". Thus hinders theoretical explanations of the latent patterns in the data. Description takes over. The warning is but a step away and very important to highlight. Again the natural need to describe a length and the tremendous prevalence of description in academic research forces disattending the take over of conceptual description to the loss of GT. As Holton and Walsh say, "Concepts remain buried amid detailed empirical accounts and it is difficult if not impossible to see the simple elegance in the relationship between concepts that together integrate a GT and provide its explanatory power."

In their current book (*Rediscovering Grounded Theory*, 2014) Gibson and Hartman devote 21 pages to an elegant chapter on the philosophy, perspective and use of codes, that is concepts. Yet due to their lack of experience in actually doing GT research, they do not mention slipping from concept into description thus losing the theory involved. They see codes or concepts as necessary for theory, but they do not warn about slipping from the concept level back to empirical description level by excessive illustration of the data that grounded the code. Their chapter 9 on rediscovering coding is 20 excellent pages relating data to codes, yet there is no mention of excessive description of the data used to ground a code for a theory. When extensive description is done it is considered GT without realization that the GT has slipped into lengthy description. When doing GT we all can make this mistake inadvertently still in 2016. Hopefully that paper will correct this slippage.

My book *Theoretical Sensitivity* (1978) deals extensively with substantive coding pages 55 to 82. I introduce the chapter by saying coding releases the abstract analysis from the empirical bond of the data. Coding allows the researcher to transcend the empirical nature of the data, which is so easy to get lost in, while at the same time trying to account for abstract patterns in the data. The abstract conceptual view of data was there, but lost in actualizing research procedures. Thus I saw the problem in 1978, but I neglected to say careful to not reinstitute the data bond back to the empirical level by excessive illustration of the code using a lot of interchangeable indicators. I do say later in the chapter to keep code illustrations down to a bare minimum. It is clear that I almost saw the problem of conceptual description but missed it and thus did not warn my readers.

For the researcher who finds himself doing conceptual description her/his decision or choice is clear. Does he stop and do GT methodology carefully and not use excessive description Or does he continue to do a conceptual description with a QDA methodology? Either is quite acceptable generally speaking. Of course academic department perspective plays a role in the decision, but logically neither is better than the other. A rhetorical wrestle between the two methodologies to favor one over the other is a waste of time. Both are quite respectable (see *Choosing GT*, by Barney G. Glaser, 2014). It is a simple choice depending on what the researcher wants and what his department will accept for a PhD thesis. A choice must be made to keep the methodology decided on clear. No choice and continuing conceptual description results in a jumbled report. Open substantive conceptual

coding goes anywhere out of control when not in control by a GT procedure. Is the search for more concepts or more data indicating a concept becomes the question for the researcher and his readers.

Open Coding Descriptions

Barney G. Glaser, PhD, Hon PhD

Open coding is a big source of descriptions that must be managed and controlled when doing GT research. The goal of generating a GT is to generate an emergent set of concepts and their properties that fit and work with relevancy to be integrated into a theory. To achieve this goal, the researcher begins his research with open coding, that is coding all his data in every possible way. The consequence of this open coding is a multitude of descriptions for possible concepts that often do not fit in the emerging theory. Thus in this case the researcher ends up with many irrelevant descriptions for concepts that do not apply. To dwell on descriptions for inapplicable concepts ruins the GT theory as it starts. It is hard to stop. Confusion easily sets in. Switching the study to a QDA is a simple rescue. Rigorous focusing on emerging concepts is vital before being lost in open coding descriptions. It is important, no matter how interesting the description may become. Once a core is possible, selective coding can start which will help control against being lost in multiple descriptions.

Trying to find an indicator for a preconceived, conjectured concept can lead to excessive descriptions. This occurs because there are no indicators usually for a conjectured concept. The descriptions become the study by default. They honor, if possible, a nonexistent concept with no relevance and fit. But usually they just end up a QDA with no concept. In short it is best to stick to open coding for a core concept and then saturating the concept with a few indicators of its properties. This will control and stop conceptual descriptions. Open coding allows the researcher to see the direction in which to take his research so he can become selective and focused conceptually on a particular social problem. When he does focus his research, the relevancy and fit of his indicators will limit them to brief illustrations of his concepts. Excessive conceptual descriptions will be minimized or stop. The data can, once a core category is discovered, then be handled theoretically with minor need for it to be handled descriptively.

The opposite occurs if the core category has no grab and is hard to understand. The reader may request many indicators of it for illustration and understanding purposes. It may take many descriptions to indicate meaning of the core category. The possibility of generating a GT theory is lost. It has not been generated clearly. If many descriptions do not work, a QDA methodology description takes over. Thus it is always best to label a core concept with self-illustrating grab if possible.

Getting out of the data is vital for generating a GT. And staying out of the data (staying abstract of time, place and people) is just as important. It is easier to conceptualize if the researcher does not know the field of the data. He can be more objective and focused. Knowing the field can flood the researcher with descriptive data and lots of conjecture. It is

easier to code someone else's data because of the defacto distance from the data and descriptions are less in mind.

Open coding is guided by several rules and questions which by their proper use limit descriptions to the emergent problem. The first rule is to constantly ask of the data "what is this a study of?" This question severely limits descriptions by having to have them related to the core problem and possible emerging core category. As the core category generation firms up, descriptions get limited. The second question follows closely behind: What category does the problem incident indicate or what property of the core category does the incident indicate. As a GT becomes more and more generated it becomes easier to choose only descriptions that earn their way into the emerging theory. No forcing the data with concepts that do not apply severely limits descriptions to concepts that do apply.

A third question is asking of the emerging analysis what theoretical codes may apply to integrate the emerging theory. This question leaves behind conceptual descriptions and deals only with integrating into a theory the concepts that have emerged. In sum, as the GT analysis proceeds there is less change of excessive descriptions, even if they were exceeded in the beginning.

Using the constant comparative method for open coding can lead to excess descriptions. Many descriptions emerge when coding qualitative data line by line. They are attached to nothing until a pattern emerges, so many can occur. But as soon as a pattern emerges excessing descriptions should stop as only a few are needed to illustrate the emerging concept and its properties. Until then the researcher must support the initial confusion and temptation to use existing rhetorical concepts prematurely to be backed up by many descriptions that will not be useable for the resulting GT. In short, using conjectural academic concepts fosters a lot of description, whereas emergent concepts only require a few illustration descriptions.

Up to this point I have discussed excessive descriptions as coming naturally when trying to do GT. A few researchers know the problem yet pursue description while saying they are doing GT research. They boost their Descriptions as GT, and they are just routine QDA. They wallow in story talk rather than discovering patterns and conceptual explanations in their data. This move to descriptions only lets the researcher off the creativity challenge. Instead of using the procedures of GT to reveal latent patterns in his data, he just does data talk claiming accuracy. This copping out on GT in favor of talk story is frequently endorsed by supervisors, committees, academic departments and university evaluation systems. The academic bureaucratic dominant researching is some form of QDA for hypothesis testing with accurate descriptive data. GT is not a testing methodology. It looks for latent patterns abstract of time, place and people. Choosing to search for accurate description stultifies the abstract creativity required by GT.

Coding qualitative data with a preconceived list of codes will result in many descriptions that will not apply to an emergent GT. They will simply describe what is not relevant or fit to an emerging GT. A code list comes from a pure QDA method of which there

are several. At least excessive descriptions based on an emergent core concept will fit with relevance.

Some researchers read through their data quickly to get an overall feeling for it. It is natural to get many descriptions from this reading. They come without illustrating concepts yet to be discovered. I do not recommend this overall all reading for doing GT. It wastes time and could easily derail open coding focus on a probable core using the constant comparative method. Descriptions not indicating concepts lack fit and relevance to any grounded patterns. In a quest for an overview of impressions much latent patterns can be missed because of a glossing over of action details. Descriptions can excite and be enjoyable, no matter the pattern or not they indicated. They are grounded but not GT.

The overview approach by itself tends to yield thin theory if at all, with dubious relevance to life and action that leaves the feeling that much has been left out. It fosters conjecture and speculation. The only hope is to attach the descriptions to an academic speculation that is OKd by colleagues. Rich GT theory is denied when not coding properly for a GT. Pet theoretical themes and concepts are forced on the data. Descriptions capture the analysis in QDA fashion yielding many accurate data. Line by line constant comparison of data to yield grounded concepts is a lost procedure.

Refuting Denzin's Claims: Grounded Theory and Indigenous Research

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to refute claims made by Denzin (2007, 2010) concerning grounded theory and indigenous research. I will argue that Denzin does not provide anything of substance to support why grounded theory, unless modified, will not work within indigenous settings. I will refer to some examples of indigenous researchers who have used grounded theory for their research within indigenous settings, including my own doctoral research. Further, I will argue that the basis for his claims are dubious as he paraphrased, out of context, the work of a Māori scholar, to justify his argument.

Keywords: Indigenous, Māori, kaupapa Māori, Denzin, grounded theory

Introduction

Glaser (2009) wrote that classic grounded theory "has been virtually high jacked by so many who have not appreciated that classical GT is not a qualitative descriptive method; some simply because they do know better and others because they think they do know – or know better" (p. 13). Examples can be found in *The SAGE Handbook of Grounded Theory* including Denzin (2007) who claimed that ". . . critical theory, and grounded theory, without modification, will not work within indigenous settings" (p. 456). Denzin (2010) later repeated this assertion. The purpose of this paper is to refute Denzin's claim and to argue that it is founded on "tricky ground".

Indigenous Research

Indigenous research is becoming more noticeable in the social sciences due to the efforts of indigenous scholars such as Linda Tuhiwai Smith, who wrote the seminal work *Decolonizing Methodologies: Research and Indigenous Peoples* (Smith, 1999), which had a focus on Māori research. Māori are the indigenous people of New Zealand (King, 2003). Other books about indigenous research have recently been published (Brown & Strega, 2005; Chilisa, 2012; Mertens, Cram & Chilisa, 2013; Lambert, 2014; Walter & Andersen, 2013; Wilson, 2008), alongside a plethora of journal papers. Within the Māori scholarship, the philosophical perspective that informs most Māori research is *kaupapa Māori*. According to Smith (1999), most of the literature pertaining to kaupapa Māori is "located in relation to critical theory, in particular to the notions of critique, resistance,

struggle and emancipation" (p. 185). While kaupapa Māori appears to be the dominant philosophical perspective among Māori research, a cursory search of the repository databases of New Zealand's eight universities shows that grounded theory is frequently used by Māori researchers in order to make sense of their data (Baker, 2008; Pohe, 2012; Stuart, 2009; Wilson, 2004; among others).

Kaupapa Māori was the philosophical perspective for my Ph.D research and I used grounded theory as the method of analysis. First, I should point out that kaupapa Māori is political, and as Pihama (2001) asserted, everything associated with the struggle for the position of Māori is political. Classic grounded theorists may argue that this perspective potentially brings preconceived assumptions that could influence how the data is conceptualized. Yes, this perspective is possible but a researcher must work with the data independently of external influences, which is why Glaser and Strauss (1967) wrote that researchers should "ignore the literature of theory and fact on the area under study" (p. 37). However, Glaser (1998) did go on to state that during the sorting and writing up process, "the literature search in the substantive area can be accomplished and woven into the theory as more data for constant comparison" (p. 67). The literature pertaining to Māori is intertwined with kaupapa Māori; there is no way to avoid it if one is conducting research about Māori. Therefore, the kaupapa Māori literature and other scholarship relevant to the phenomenon are likely to become part of the data for constant comparison.

In terms of my data collection with research participants, much of the fieldwork was carried out at *marae* [traditional Māori meeting houses]. It cannot be argued that a marae is not an indigenous setting. I have presented my doctoral work at conferences for Māori researchers (National Māori Doctoral Conference and the Māori Association of Social Science Conference). Through my discussions with other Māori researchers I have found that many have used grounded theory or are familiar with it. In other words, grounded theory is frequently used within indigenous settings, or at least Māori research settings.

Denzin's Claims

Denzin (2007) stated, ". . . critical theory, and grounded theory, without modification, will not work within indigenous settings" (p. 456; Denzin, 2010, p. 298). Interestingly, in a different publication, Denzin (2009) used the *same* ideas and very similar sentences and paragraphs, when he stated, ". . . critical, interpretive performance theory, and critical race theory, without modification will not work within indigenous settings" (p. 180). So about which theory is he talking? The same piece was also published in Denzin and Lincoln (2008). I recommend a close reading of Denzin (2007, 2009, 2010) and Denzin and Lincoln (2008) in order to assess the similarities.

The major issue with Denzin's (2007, 2010) statement is that he does not provide anything of substance to support *why* grounded theory (or the other theories for that matter), unless modified, will not work within indigenous settings. The basis for his claims against grounded theory are dubious. For example, Denzin (2007) wrote:

Paraphrasing Linda Tuhiwai Smith (2005: 85), the ground on which grounded theory stands is tricky. It is tricky because it is "complicated, and changeable, and it is tricky also because it can play tricks on research and on the researcher" (L. Smith, 2005: 85). Grounded theory's ground, and the spaces it

encompasses, are always constructed, never bedrock solid, always nuanced, and potentially dangerous. The ground itself is a function of the researcher's shifting relationship to the world. (p. 458; Denzin, 2010, p. 300)

The problem with Denzin's (2007, 2010) paraphrasing is that the original source (Smith, 2005) does not refer to grounded theory. In fact, grounded theory is not mentioned *anywhere* in the chapter (23 pages) by Smith. Here is what Smith (2005) wrote about the "tricky ground":

In the spaces between research methodologies, ethical principles, institutional regulations, and human subjects as individuals and as socially organized actors and communities is tricky ground. The ground is tricky because it is complicated and changeable, and it is tricky also because it can play tricks on research and researchers. Qualitative researchers generally learn to recognize and negotiate this ground in a number of ways, such as through their graduate studies, their acquisition of deep theoretical and methodological understandings, apprenticeships, experiences and practices, conversations with colleagues, peer reviews, their teaching of others. (p. 85)

It seems that Denzin's (2007, 2010) assertion is on "tricky ground" as he has used Smith's (2005) work out of context to support his argument. This idea is interesting as Denzin co-edited the book in which Smith's chapter appeared, and he has co-edited a book with Smith (Denzin, Lincoln & Smith, 2008). I am unsure of Denzin's (2007, 2010) motivation but perhaps his assertion was designed to move indigenous researchers away from using grounded theory, and direct them towards his own methodology. Denzin (1997) has stated that he was "a failure at grounded theory" (pp. 1-2), and that he "became a critic of grounded theory" (p. 2). He further elaborated, "Later I developed my own version of what Anselm [Strauss] does. I called it interpretive interactionism" (Denzin, 1997, p. 2). Regardless, Denzin (2007, 2010) did not substantiate his claims about grounded theory.

Discussion

My doctoral research focused on Māori perspectives of public information advertisements (aka public service advertisements) in New Zealand. I conducted focus groups and individual interviews with Māori and developed notes about important points, concepts and ideas, as I searched for patterns in the data; this is grounded theory. Grounded theory procedures are fairly simple (Glaser, 2004), and can be used with any data (Glaser, 2008). Moreover, grounded theory is "possessed by no discipline or theoretical perspective" (Glaser, 2005, p. 1). However, some authors have complicated grounded theory by publishing "grounded theory" literature that is not consistent with the original methodology, remodelling it as an extension or part of symbolic interactionism, social constructionism, among other perspectives. This movement is best summarized by the co-founder of grounded theory:

The jargonizers adopt adapt and co-opt classical GT with structurally based possessiveness as they remodel GT to multiple QDA [qualitative data analysis] methods. The structure of their departments, books and journals give them an assumed authority, with little or no scholarly grounding. (Glaser, 2009, p. 10)

Unfortunately, this movement has a degree of influence in academia. Denzin is internationally renowned as a sociologist (Marvasti, 2008), qualitative researcher (Paternoster & Bushway, 2011), and prominent editor (Olesen, 2002). Moreover, Denzin is a co-editor of the book, *Handbook of Critical and Indigenous Methodologies* (Denzin, Lincoln & Smith, 2008). It is reasonable to suggest that Denzin's (2007, 2010)

statement may dissuade indigenous researchers, especially emerging indigenous researchers, from using grounded theory. For my own doctoral dissertation I was advised to stipulate that my research was *based on* grounded theory and to include reference to thematic analysis. This approach was recommended because of concerns that a doctoral examiner may hold biased views against grounded theory. This is not surprising as doctoral students who use grounded theory may encounter obstacles within the academy (Elliott & Higgins, 2012; Glaser, 2015; Guthrie & Lowe, 2011; Jones, 2009), despite the fact that grounded theory is one of the most popular research designs for use with qualitative data (Birks & Mills, 2015; McCallin, Nathaniel & Andrews, 2011). Claims such as those by Denzin (2007, 2010) seep into the academy and go unchallenged because of the status of the author; thereby adding confusion to what is really a "straightforward methodology" (Glaser, 2004, p. 4).

Conclusion

In this paper I have refuted Denzin's (2007, 2010) claims about grounded theory and indigenous research. I pointed out that Denzin did not provide anything of substance to support *why* grounded theory, unless modified, will not work within indigenous settings. Moreover, I highlighted Denzin's (2007, 2010) paraphrasing of Smith (2005) was on "tricky ground". The fact is that grounded theory can be used for indigenous research and it does work within indigenous settings. Grounded theory can work with any theoretical perspective including indigenous methodologies. This is best summarised by Glaser (2005):

. . . as a general method it can use any other type data, even other types of qualitative data, as well as quantitative, visual, document, journalistic and in any combination, and any other theoretical perspective, such as e.g. systems theory, social structural theory, structural functional theory, social organization theory, cultural theory etc. (p. 1)

In conclusion, I hope that indigenous doctoral students, irrespective of discipline, will not be dissuaded by Denzin's (2007, 2010) claims, as grounded theory does indeed work within indigenous settings. This belief is demonstrated by the growing body of work by indigenous researchers who have used grounded theory. As pointed out by Barney Glaser when I queried him about whether grounded theory would work within indigenous settings: "It is all just data with patterns in it" (Glaser, personal communication, July 7, 2014). Indigenous data also has patterns in it.

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Tracy Flenady is a registered nurse, specialising in emergency nursing; she also maintains strong academic links and works predominantly with nursing students. Tracy is the project manager of a grant awarded to improve new nurses' awareness of patient safety issues through the use of simulation training, and is working towards achieving a PhD. Tracy has a particular interest in sociology, fuelled by her perpetual pursuit to understand human behaviour. Email t.flenady@cqu.edu.au

Barney G. Glaser is the cofounder of grounded theory (1967). He received his PhD from Columbia University in 1961. He then went to University of California San Francisco, where he joined Anselm Strauss in doing the dying in hospitals study and in teaching PhD and DNS students methods and analysis. He published over 20 articles on this research and the dying research. Since then, Glaser has written 14 more books using and about grounded theory and countless articles. In 1998 he received an honorary doctorate from Stockholm University. Email: bglaser@speakeasy.net

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