



IST 820 – Doctoral Seminar in Research Methods:
Elicitation and Analytical Techniques for Information Science

“FOCUS GROUPS”

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Introduction

Focus groups are widely used research tools in many disciplines. Morgan (1996) defines focus groups as a “research technique that collects data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher”. This elicitation technique works as a mediated group discussion or depth interview. The main purpose is to get information from the participants in the group setting. Krueger and Casey (2000) state that focus groups are groups that have been “designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment”. Focus groups are becoming popular in social research, though they are not new. Focus groups are formally constituted, structured groups of people brought together to address a specific issue within a fixed time frame and in accordance with clearly spelled out rules of procedure.

In general, focus groups are usually used in one of three ways (Morgan, 1997):

First, they are used as a self contained method in studies in which they serve as the principal source of data. Second, they are used as a supplementary source of data in studies that rely on some other primary method such as a survey. Third, they are used in multimethod studies that combine two or more means of gathering data in which no one primary method determines the use of the others. (p.2)

A good understanding of the focus groups technique allow researchers to determine whether or not this method may be appropriate for their research study. The present study synthesizes the history, main procedures, its application, use and verification in research, as well as practical issues and limitations based on previous research experiences.

Intellectual History

Historically, qualitative research grew out of several disciplines: literary criticism, social sciences and psychoanalytic theory. “The nature of qualitative analysis is tied to literary criticism and to the social sciences” (Debus, 1988). Focus groups have been used by social scientists since the 1930s when researchers began to pursue the idea that closed-ended questions did not always provide the most accurate responses. Research results could be unintentionally influenced—through oversight or omission in the question construction. It was thought that the interview itself might encapsulate the interviewer’s preconceived ideas because the interviewer was the “leader” of the interview. The interviewee was limited to answering in a way that was largely controlled by both the interviewer and the closed-ended questions. To help address this perceived problem, researchers began to explore techniques in which the researcher had a less dominant role and where the questions asked were nondirective (Krueger and Casey, 2000).

Robert Merton is considered the father of focus groups (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990). The first focus group took place at the Office of Radio Research at Columbia University in 1941 when Paul Lazarsfeld asked Robert Merton for help in radio research and

audience response testing. This was a radio studio where a group of people were asked to press a red button on their chairs when anything they hear on the recorded radio program evokes a negative response – irritation, anger, disbelief, boredom – and to press a green button when they have a positive response. The instrument used was known as Lazarsfeld-Stanton program analyzer (Merton, 1987). Merton added depth to this process in that at the end of the radio show, audience members (as a group) were asked why they responded positively or negatively at particular moments in the show. In this context, the first focus group was conducted (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990).

Robert Merton published remarks that compared his pioneering work on focused interviews with marketer's uses of the focus groups. Merton began to work with non-directive group interview techniques and soon found that people were most revealing when they found themselves in a safe, comfortable place with individuals like themselves. Merton began to employ this technique, first with the radio show but later in other media related instances (e.g. army training videos) (Krueger and Casey, 2000).

However, despite the fact that Merton in 1941 was a leader in his or her field, focus groups were not widely used in academic research until the 1980's. "Today, focus groups represent a commonly-used, qualitative research technique employed in a wide range of disciplines for a myriad of purposes" (Easton, Easton and Belch, 2003)

Philosophical Assumptions

Due to the variety of arenas in which focus group research has been conducted, focus group research is philosophically diverse. Most of the researchers who used Focus groups in market research take a "positivist paradigm" about them. They believe that participants in a focus group can be guided to the correct answer by the moderator and these participants are seen as representative of a larger demographic group. Therefore, their answers can be easily transferable to the larger group (Barbour and Kitzinger, 1999, p. 187; Saumure, 2001). Johnson (1996, p. 517) critiques dominant forms of focus groups research for being embedded in the 'assumptions of positivism, behaviorism and empiricism'. In contrast he argues for 'an alternative, radical use of focus groups, based on the new politics of knowledge associated with movements of social resistance' such as feminism (Pini, 2002, p.340).

On the other hand, there is also an interpretivist paradigm in focus group research. Researchers that advocate of this paradigm believe that reality is socially constructed and therefore the results of the interview will depend on the "context" of that interview. In this case, individual voice of the participants is important and they do not seen as part of a larger aggregate. It would be important to empower participants by listening to their individual realities. Dialogue is encouraged instead of allowing the moderator to guide participants to the "correct" answer (Barbour and Kitzinger 1999, 187).

Currently it is uncertain whether one of these views will overcome, each paradigm currently has its own supporters as well as its applications.

Summary of main procedures

One of the main strengths in focus group research relates to cost. Running a focus group tends to be reasonably inexpensive and a quick resource of data. However, conducting focus groups is not easy and there are issues about the procedure that should be carefully planned. For instance, Dr. Stam indicates that some of the difficulties are related to the organization and the recording tools used in the discussions:

“Focus groups are difficult because they are sometimes hard to organize. We ended up waiting for people too much of the time. Also, dealing with our focus group tapes was really hard because of the quality. We had just one tape recorder in the middle of the room. In retrospect, we should have tried to give each person a microphone and made sure we were in a quiet room. Our tapes have a lot of chickens and motorcycle noises in the background, so transcribing was annoying!”

Summarizing from Debus' (1988) thirteen key steps to be followed in conducting focus groups research, the outline of the process according Dawson, Manderson and Tallo (1993), and previous research experience conducting focus group, the main procedures are the following:

1. Define the subject the research question or problem and specify the research objectives
2. Verify the method – be sure that the objectives of the research are best met by conducting focus groups and not by some other type of research.
3. Define the qualifications about the research respondents. List of the factors that can specifically influence the topic and then determine which ones are critical for the research. The number of participants invited to a focus group is one element of the research design that is clearly under the researcher's control. Therefore, the number of participants and other qualifications about participants should be established in advance.
4. Establish homogenous groups. The focus group literature stresses the importance of homogeneity of the subjects (Easton et.al., 2003). Determine which respondent variables will affect the research findings, and set up separate groups so that respondents are similar in terms of the key variables. It is advisable to conduct at least two group sessions for each different variable.
5. Develop the recruiting/screening questionnaire. It is important to contact initially some authority within the group of participants that will help recruiting participants. The recruiting questionnaire is the basis for participant's selection. It is important to determine to whom we want to address the research questions. The screening guide allows researchers to determine whether potential recruits would be appropriate focus group members.
6. Select the focus group moderator and the rest of the team. The research team usually is conformed by the moderator, the researchers and sometimes a translator, note takers and observers if required. However, the presence of a moderator is one of the most striking features of focus groups (Morgan, 1987).

7. Select supporting materials for the group discussions. It may be necessary to use stimulus materials to encourage the discussion. Additionally, it is important to choose the best recording tool: audio recording or video recording.
8. Select the focus group sites. Some points are not accessible and receptive in certain regions. The appropriate site for focus groups should be comfortable, quiet, private and neutral to the participants.
9. Follow required policies about the protection of human subjects in the researchers institution. For example, academic institutions require the application compliance with Regulations for Protection of Human Research Subjects. Participants usually need to sign an Informed Consent document where issues of confidentiality are explained. Moran (1999) adds that focus groups members should be made aware that efforts would be made to protect the confidentiality of the participant's comments.
10. Define meeting details such as the date, time and length of each group according to the topic and the culture of the participants. It is important to have some understanding of the community where the research will take place. The amount of time one spends on this will depend on how familiar researchers are with the people, their culture and beliefs (Dawson, Manderson and Tallo, 1993).
11. Develop the topic guide (also called interview guide or question line) for the sessions. It needs to be very carefully thought out, and researchers need to be ready and willing to change it several times if necessary. Be prepared to rewrite after each focus group. At the beginning of the study, every focus group will provide researchers with new information, and so it is good to incorporate things learnt into a new topic guide in order to raise those issues with the next focus group. It is recommended that everyone involved in the project contribute to the topic guide. The people who will be making the decisions based on the results should see how the questions will be asked, as should the team conducting the focus group sessions. Everyone needs to agree that the questions relate to the objectives.
12. Conduct the focus groups. Be sure that all logistics are handled in advance and that all members of the team are clear about their responsibilities.
13. Analyze and interpret the focus group findings. The first step is to provide a demographic representation of each of the participants. Most of the time, data collected is transcribed and coded using different software tools such as Atlas-TI, Nvivo, and BEST. Furthermore, it is important to review all collected data and develop a report with the moderator and other research team members.
14. Translate the research results into an action plan. Eliminate actions that are not realistic or feasible; pursue actions that are readily implemented and involve minimal risk; further research areas of uncertainty or major risk.

All the described steps are subject to change and adjustment according to the research question.

Sorts of research using focus groups

In general, qualitative research is a type of formative research that offers specialized techniques for obtaining in-depth responses about what people think and how they feel (Debus, 1988). Focus groups are defined as a qualitative elicitation technique. The nature of qualitative analysis is tied to literary criticism and to the social sciences. The interpretation and synthesis of ideas and concepts has always been part of literary criticism, and the type of qualitative analysis that requires insight and illumination is part of sociological tradition. The current level of interest in focus groups interviews is evident from searches of sociological abstracts, psychological abstracts, and the social science citation index (Morgan, 1996). According to Morgan (1996), these sources show a steady growth in research using focus groups, indicating that “well over a hundred empirical articles using focus groups appeared in refereed journals during 1994 alone”.

Other disciplines where focus groups are relatively widespread include political science (Delli Carpini and Williams, 1994) as political pollsters use focus groups to ask potential voters about their views of political candidates or issues. Organizational researchers use focus groups to learn how employees and managers feel about the issues confronting them in the workplace. Survey designers use focus groups to pretest their ideas and to interpret the quantitative information obtained from interviewing.

Outside academia, focus groups are well known to be popular in marketing (Goldman & McDonald, 1987). Market researchers use focus groups primarily for economic reasons when they want to know how to make a better product or how to enhance profits. For example, Easton G., Easton A. and Belch (2003) used focus groups in order to provide feedback to a camera manufacturer about two new cameras that were being introduced, and to provide feedback about the commercials being employed for that purpose.

Two specific research areas where the applied use of focus groups has had a major and continuing ink to sociology are family planning and HIV/AIDS. These studies typically sought a better understanding of knowledge, attitudes, and practices with regards to contraception in the Third World (Morgan, 1996) and spread of HIV. As stated by Pini (2002) focus groups are a valuable method for feminist rural social research, “not simply as data gathering tools, but as forms of intervention for facilitating empowerment through the processes of group interaction” (p.342). It may be one of the research tools available for obtaining data from children or from individuals who are not particularly literate, or shy or discriminated because it empowers participants.

Dr. Kathryn Stam at Syracuse University, who was interviewed about her experience conducting focus groups for medical sociologists interested in peer influences on sexual behavior, supports the concept that focus groups are well suited to empower participants and make them talk about topics where they might feel shy or not comfortable:

“Focus groups are excellent for learning about group culture and peer references about a subject. Because they are sitting in front of each other, there is less of a tendency to “hide” behavior or attitudes that are

commonly accepted in the group. I was the facilitator for groups of women farmers who were talking about AIDS information and how difficult it is to talk to their husbands about AIDS and sexuality in general. Focus groups were ideal for that purpose because they did not have to talk about themselves or their own personal experience within an intimate relationship. Rather, they were there to discuss the community and how people reacted to AIDS news and information”.

Additionally, focus groups have been used in order to evaluate the use of information technology in qualitative research. For example comparing face to face focus groups with distance group discussions for research such as the use of Groups support systems (Easton et.al., 2003) or listservs (Rezabek, 2000).

Focus groups are also used as complementary technique together with other research techniques such individual interviews and surveys. A content analysis of Sociological Abstracts revealed that a majority of the published research articles using focus groups combined them with other methods (Morgan, 1996). According to Morgan, most frequent pairings were with either in-depth, individual interviews or surveys, being the combination with individual interview is the more straightforward since both are qualitative techniques.

Sorts of questions that are well suited to focus groups

Focus groups generally speaking, are appropriate to explore issues in a context, observe and understand attitudes and behavior, generate hypotheses, evaluate reactions, messages and products, provide background about an area of interest (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990) and provoke spontaneous ideas.

When focus groups are used together with in-depth interviews, the benefit of this arrangement is getting reactions from a relatively wide range of participants in a relatively short time. In a complementary fashion, focus groups studies have used follow-up interviews with individual participants to explore specific opinions and experiences in more depth, as well as to produce narratives that address the continuity of personal experiences over time (Duncan and Morgan, 1994).

Focus groups and surveys are one of the leading ways of combining qualitative and quantitative methods (Morgan, 1996), resulting four combinations: a) Surveys are the primary method and focus groups serve in a preliminary capacity where researchers use this design to develop the content of their questionnaires. Furthermore, focus groups are also used to provide data on how the respondents themselves talk about the topics of the survey. b) focus groups are the primary method while surveys provide preliminary inputs, such as assisting in selecting samples for focus groups or topics for detailed analysis. c) surveys are the primary method and focus groups act as a follow-up that assist in interpreting the survey results or clarifying poorly understood results. d) focus groups are used as the primary method and surveys as a source of follow-up data. This combination could be used to examine the prevalence of issues or themes from the focus groups.

The kinds of analysis that are possible using focus groups

Some researchers consider that focus groups can be executed and analyzed quickly in the absence of data processing capabilities. Nonetheless, for the comprehensive analysis of a focus group discussion, researchers should prepare available information for examination and discussion, such as the notes taken, moderator's journal and observations from the researchers. All the members of the research team should participate including the moderator.

Usually audio-recorded information will be transcribed and translated if necessary. The same applies to the video recording, but instead of making only a transcript of the spoken word, any observations from body language can be directly included onto the transcript.

Then, data should be coded according to the research dimensions. Codification can be done using software tools such Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) — also sometimes simply called Qualitative Data Analysis Software (QDAS or QDA software) — that searches, organizes, categorizes, and annotates textual and visual data. Programs of this type usually support theory-building through the visualization of relationships between data and/or theoretical constructs¹. Some of the most well known software are Atlas-TI, NVivo, Maxqda, NUD*IST, The Ethnograph, and HyperRESEARCH.

The role and special skills of the researcher in focus groups and the relationship of the researcher to the observed phenomena

The focus group moderator's role is critical to conducting an effective focus group. In selecting the moderator it is important to evaluate (Debus, 1988):

- (1) **Personal characteristics:** some desired characteristics include the ability to feel at ease and comfortable with other people, put others at ease, project unconditional regard and acceptance to others, convey warmth and empathy, project enthusiasm and the ability to conceptualize and to think through contingencies. Additionally, moderators should have good verbal, listening and interpersonal skills;
- (2) **Moderating style:** these vary greatly. Some moderators facilitate the group discussion by being friendly and involved, others by being more careless. Others are challenging or even argumentative in their style.
- (3) **experience and background:** experienced moderators can vary their style to suit the type of respondents and the objectives of a group.

Involvement of the moderator can be structured or non-structured .In a structured focus group the moderator works form a prepared topic guide that contains the issues to be addressed and the specific areas for probing. The topic guide ensures that all relevant

¹ <http://www.lboro.ac.uk/research/mmethods/research/software/caqdas.html>

areas to the research objectives are covered. The probing outline ensures that the specific information needs of management are met in each topic area.

A non-structured focus group is conducted using a very sketchy topic guide. Participants themselves determine the content and flow of the discussion. The rationale of conducting this kind of group is that it eliminates the moderator/management judgment.

Skilled moderators rely on a combination of techniques and use them as the situation requires, such as the querying the meaning of the obvious, use metaphors, image matching, probing, and chain of questions.

Researchers play an important role in the research design identifying the structure of the focus group as well as the settings and procedures for conducting the technique.

What is considered data and evidence in focus groups?

There are a number of ways to collect and store information from focus groups: researchers can collect demographic data about participants such as gender, age, and affiliation. In addition, an observer can take notes about the discussion, the body language as well as participants' behavior. The moderator can write on a journal his/her main impressions after every session (Pini, 2002). Furthermore, audio or video recordings of the discussions are used frequently to keep detailed evidence of the discussions and participants thoughts.

Data quality depends on a number of factors, including “whether the researcher locates enough participants, selects appropriate samples, chooses relevant questions, has a qualified moderator, and uses an effective analysis strategy” (Morgan, 1996). An important characteristic of focus group data is that “groups”, rather than individuals within groups, are the unit of analysis (Morgan, 1988; Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990).

An additional characteristic of focus group data is that, unlike survey data, focus group data consist of words and, unlike in-depth individual interviews, focus group data consist of group dialogue (Hughes and DuMont, 1993). These characteristics need to be considered for the coding phase as well as the analysis.

What is the function of participants in focus groups?

An advantage of focus groups is that participants are free to volunteer information on points that are important to them. Participants are encouraged to interact and manifest their thoughts and feelings. Conceptually, the interaction allows researchers not only to discover *what* people think about a particular topic, but also *why* they think the way they do (Morgan, 1988).

There are many methods for selecting your participants, and the type of sampling will depend on how researchers will use the information. Focus group results cannot usually

be used to describe how an entire population would respond to the same questions, so the type of sampling used in studies designed to describe whole populations is not really necessary.

The common (and simplest) method for selecting participants for focus groups is called "purposive" or "convenience" sampling. This means that the researchers select those members of the community who they think will provide with the best information and those that could even have some knowledge or influence on the problem. It need not be a random selection. It is important to ensure that participants in any one group have something in common with each other.

Main constraints, practical issues, and limitations of research conducted using focus groups.

Limitations and weaknesses of this technique that need to be considered before initiating a focus groups research are the following:

- The sample is neither randomly selected nor representative of a target population, so the results cannot be generalized or treated statistically.
- The quality of the data is influenced by the skills and motivation of the moderator. For example, it is very easy for participants to talk about a completely different topic.
- Because focus groups take place in an environment that is controlled by the researcher, it is not clear whether or not participant comments can be taken at face value or they may respond differently in a natural setting (Morgan, 1988).
- The group setting can influence individual behavior of participants. Thus, “whenever observing individuals in groups will distort what one is studying, methods other than focus groups should be preferred” (Morgan, 1988).
- Focus groups should not be used as a way of getting people to agree on a certain issue or as a forum for educating people (Saumure, 2001).
- Focus groups should not be used in situations where group conversations may create further conflict between already divided groups.

Issues of verification, scholarly acceptance, and integration into the mainstream of science

Focus groups can make an important contribution in research (Punch, 1998). As Morgan states (1988), “the hallmark of focus groups is the explicit use of the group interaction to produce data and insight that would be less accessible without the interaction found in a

group”. Well-facilitated group interaction can assist in bringing to the surface aspects of a situation, which might not otherwise be exposed.

In terms of scholarly acceptance, the steady increase in the use of focus groups over the past decade demonstrate that sociologist and other social scientists have found them to be a useful and practical method for gathering qualitative data (Morgan, 1996).

Forms in which research using focus groups is communicated

Frequently, findings from focus groups are only one component of a complete research. Therefore, the outcomes are considered for interpretation and further contribute the development of other instruments.

On the other hand, results from studies based on pure focus groups technique illustrate quotations from participants. Those quotations are the result of a careful analysis and are usually the ones that are more representative and better address the research question. It is important to report the sources for locating participants and other information about recruitment procedures as well as behavior of participants. According to Morgan (1996), ethical issues need to be discussed in focus groups about the diffusion of results because results primarily depend on researcher’s perception and interpretations.

The role focus groups play or might play in my area of interest

My general research interest area is the impact of information technology (IT) in organizations. Particularly, I am interested on the role, occupational subculture and career anchor of information technology professionals in organizations. Since this research could be considered at the group level of analysis, it is important to know about feelings and behaviors of IT professionals as a group. Stewart and Shamdasani (1990) state that “groups” are the unit of analysis of focus groups. With this purpose in mind, I consider that focus groups could be a good start point as an elicitation technique in my topic. It can be used to explore issues about IT professionals related the their role in organizations and their occupational subculture. Furthermore, focus groups can also be used to understand and evaluate behavior and reactions of IT people in organizations and subsequently generate hypotheses. However, it would not be the only one technique that I would use and rather I would complement with another one such as surveys or in-depth interviews.

Annotated Bibliography²

Debus M. (1988). *Methodological Review: a Handbook for excellence in Focus Group Research*. Washington, D.C.: Porter Novelli.

² <http://www.library.cornell.edu/okuref/research/skill28.htm>

This is a methodological review prepared for the Academy for educational development Healthcom. This review has nine sections that explain briefly basic concepts of qualitative research and its applications. Then, the two leading qualitative methods of depth interviews and focus groups are compared. Finally, all the required steps for conducting a focus group are clearly listed and explained. This review is a very good practical manual for conducting a Focus group. Particularly, the exhibits are useful checklists to evaluate the each step.

Easton, G., Easton, A. & Belch, M. (2003). An experimental investigation of electronic focus groups. *Information and Management*, 40, 717-727.

The authors, researchers at San Diego State University, used Group support systems (GSS) in order to examine how they support focus groups in marketing research area. They conducted an experimental study to investigate differences between large (12 participants) and small (8 participants) focus groups within the GSS treatment as well as an evaluative task to provide feedback to a camera manufacturer about two new cameras that were being introduced, and to provide feedback about the commercials being employed for that purpose. They conducted a total of 12 focus groups: 3 Face to Face (FtF) in small groups, 3 FtF in large groups; 3 using GSS in small groups, and 3 using GSS in large groups. Outcomes from participants were coded as *unique comments* and *useful comments* per participant not only about the product and also about their satisfaction with the process and the outcomes. Researchers concluded that using GSS as focus groups offers improvements in the number of comments, focus on the task and distribution of participation with no shortfall of participant satisfaction. Additionally, the results showed that the size of focus groups can be increased through the use of GSS technology.

Morgan, D. L. (1996). Focus Groups. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 22, 129-156.

David Morgan has written several publications about Focus Groups. In this paper, he provides a detailed review of Focus Groups literature in general and a detailed description of current issues for researchers conducting Focus Groups. In this review, he describes several definitions of Focus groups as well as contrast of opinions regarding the number of participants, formal settings, nondirective interviewing and the use unstructured questions formats that have been an issue around researchers. These comparisons help to show advantages and disadvantages of group interviews, concentrating on the role of the group in producing interaction and the role of the moderator in guiding this interaction. Morgan also presents its distinction from other types of techniques such as surveys and individual interviews. According to Morgan, future directions include: the development of standards for reporting focus group research, more methodological research on focus groups, more attention to data analysis issues, and more engagement with the concerns of the research participants.

Merton, R.K. (1987). The Focussed Interview and Focus Groups: Continuities and Discontinuities. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 51(4), 550-566.

Robert Merton considered by many authors the father of Focus Groups, is the author of this interesting article. This is a printed version of his talk about the topic. As Merton states, he did not think he would make such a talk because four years before 1987 he wrote a “self-emancipation proclamation” asserting that he would not again accept any invitation from any source to make a publication or public lecture. In this paper, the author describes in detail how focus groups started with a work with Paul Lazarsfeld back in 1941 in radio research and audience response test. This was a radio studio where a group of people were asked to press a red button on their chairs when anything they hear on the recorded radio program evokes a negative response – irritation, anger, disbelief, boredom – and to press a green button when they have a positive response. The instrument used was known as Lazarsfeld-Stanton program analyzer. He noticed about great deficiencies in the tactics and procedures of the assistant who was questioning the group. Additionally, he noticed not sufficient focus on specifically indicated reactions, both individual and aggregated. Then, Prof. Merton describes the evolution of focus groups literature as the intellectual diffusion of his work and the work of other researchers in the field.

Pini, B. (2002) Focus groups, feminist research and farm women: opportunities for empowerment in rural social research. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 18, 339-351.

The author, a researcher from the school of management at Queensland University of Technology in Australia, use focus groups in order to examine women’s involvement in the Australian sugar industry as a valuable method for feminist rural social research. 80 women participated in focus groups to study the contributions women make to the sugar industry and the reasons for women’s lack of representation in the elected leadership in an agri-political group of the area. The descriptions of how the author conducted focus groups and her experiences as moderator are very detailed. Several examples from the transcripts are provided as clear evidence of the advantages and disadvantages of conducting focus groups. As a result of this study, the author indicates that focus group technique presented the following advantages: focus group participation made what is invisible to many women visible; it enabled connections to be made between individual and collective experiences; it facilitated challenges to dominant beliefs’ and it provided space for discussion and reflexivity about gender issues. The author concludes by arguing that the potential of focus groups as an empowering strategy for participants is not just of importance of feminist scholars, but it could also be important for researchers interested in engaging less hierarchical research relationships.

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