



MATILDE

Migration Impact Assessment to Enhance
Integration and Local Development in
European Rural and Mountain Regions

MATILDE toolbox: methods to assess migration impact in rural and mountain areas

MATILDE DELIVERABLE 2.7



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Deliverable 2.7 – MATILDE toolbox: methods to assess migration impact in rural and mountain areas

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AUT	Austria
BG	Bulgaria
CSWG	Case study working group
D	Deliverable
EU	European Union
ES	Spain
FIN	Finland
GDPR	General Data Protection Regulation
GER	Germany
IOM	International Organization of Migration
IT	Italy
MATILDE	Migration Impact Assessment to Enhance Integration and Local Development in European Rural and Mountain Areas
MIPEX	Migrant Integration Policy Index
NGOs	Non-governmental organizations
NOR	Norway
OST	Open Space Technology
SW	Sweden

TCNs Third Country Nationals

TR Turkey

UK United Kingdom

WP Work Package



EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In the MATILDE toolbox that guided the collection and analysis of empirical data with regard to migration assessment in rural and mountainous areas, three specificities were addressed to capture valid and reliable data: first, a variety of methods were presented in order to acknowledge the diverse capacities of expression of different groups (e.g. language or writing skills). Second, a subject-centred approach was chosen that warrants interactions on eye-level and thus facilitates a participatory research style. Third, a place-based research design was enabled and modifications due to local constellations were encouraged.

The MATILDE toolbox defines a set of methods for data collection and analysis, while in terms of the former phase mostly qualitative and participatory tools are included, while in the latter also quantitative techniques are sketched subsequent to the assumptions on specificities of target groups and localities illustrated above.

In the course of empirical fieldwork with migrants in rural settings, we first see the need to briefly sensitise researchers to **methodological presuppositions**, mainly stemming from the assumption of hierarchies and uneven situations of interaction. We explicitly invite scholars to reflect on their positionality and think about how to access participants and build trust. Moreover, in migration context, fieldwork has to be sensitised to language and cultural barriers, while the question of adequate and trustful interview settings has also been solved when entering the field. A proper knowledge and sensitization to localities, e.g. what are current challenges, who is present and who has a saying (or not)? Especially when it comes to a consequent implementation of the aim to include people

on-site, some basic presuppositions on participatory and action research as a research style are crucial.

The MATILDE toolbox then presents **qualitative data collection techniques** with regard to preparation, conduction and documentation, while each method concludes with a reflection of experiences from the fieldwork phase. In concrete terms, we discuss 1:1 interactions, such as qualitative interviews, group formats, e.g. focus groups, or open space technology. Moreover, the tool of observations with its manifold forms of implementation is presented, while mapping techniques, such as mobility or social mappings are presented. While the latter often refer to different types of data (e.g. the spoken word and a graphic product), photos or videos are in the core of participatory photo / video talk.

Besides data collection, the MATILDE toolbox also offers **modes of data analysis**. For qualitative data, we elaborate on coding, thematic analysis, the documentary method and sequence as well as visual analysis. Finally, analyses for quantitative data as well and framework related to migration governance, e.g. IOM Migration Governance Framework and MIPEX, are discussed.

1. INTRODUCTION

Author: Stefan Kordel

The MATILDE toolbox guided the collection and analysis of empirical data with regard to migration assessment in rural and mountainous areas. The presented approach has to address various specificities:

- 1) The need for a mixed methods approach in order to acknowledge the diverse capacities of expression of different groups (e.g. language or writing skills);
- 2) The advantages of a subject-centered approach that warrants interactions on eye-level and thus facilitates a participatory research style; and
- 3) A place-based research design that intends to take into account local constellations and responds to that by means of adequate tools.

The aim of the MATILDE toolbox is to define a set of methods for data collection and analysis, while in terms of the former phase of data collection mostly qualitative and participatory tools are included, and in the latter also quantitative techniques are sketched. At first, methodological presuppositions are discussed, mainly stemming from the assumption of hierarchies and uneven situations of interaction, where the researcher is privileged in manifold ways. Thus the positionality of researchers has to be reflected and issues of accessing participants and building trust have to be discussed. Moreover, in migration context, fieldwork has to be sensitised to language and cultural barriers, while the question of adequate and trustful interview settings has also been solved when entering the field. A proper knowledge and sensitization to localities, e.g. what are current challenges, who is present and who has a saying (or not)? Especially when it comes to a consequent implementation of the aim to include people on-site, some basic

presuppositions on participatory and action research as a research style will be introduced.

In the main part of the toolbox (section 3), qualitative data collection techniques will be discussed in terms of preparation, conduction and documentation, while each method concludes with a reflection of experiences from the fieldwork phase. The following table (Table 1) provides an overview of the data collection techniques in the MATILDE case studies. Section 4 contains data analysis, while several modes of analysis are presented for both qualitative and quantitative data.

		Case study									
		AUT	BG	ES	FIN	GER	IT	NOR	SW	TR	UK
Methods applied	Qualitative Interviews										
	Focus Groups										
	OST/Participatory Workshops										
	Observations										
	Mobility Mapping										
	Social Mapping										
	Participatory Photo/Video Talk										
Additional methods	Check of competences										
	Mental mapping										

Table 1: Overview of applied methods in MATILDE case study regions

2. METHODOLOGICAL PRESUPPOSITIONS AND CHALLENGES¹

Author: Stefan Kordel

The mixed methods approach for data collection and impact assessment to be applied in MATILDE will be conducted on the basis of a profound methodological reflection both with regard to theoretical basis of methods / tools and practicalities to be considered. This is especially relevant since a variety of target groups and individuals with different backgrounds will be included, ranging from experts, e.g. politicians on national scale or managers of companies, to people involved in everyday encounters with migrants, such as collaborators in administrations or members of NGOs or relief groups to, finally, third country nationals (TCNs) themselves. Such a variety reinforces the need for an elaboration of challenges and practicalities. In the following, methodological presuppositions will be presented, addressing

- (1) the **positionality of researchers** in the course of the research process in general and the interview situation as a form of social interaction in particular, encompassing access and trust as an important prerequisite for interactions on eye level but also for getting valid data, language and cultural peculiarities, since they play an important role in interactions with migrants, and finally elaborations on interview settings.
- (2) the process of **becoming familiar with the locality**, since this is of vital importance in small scale settings, i.e. rural and mountain areas
- (3) **ethical issues**
- (4) **participatory and action research as a research style**, which goes beyond a simple application of a single participatory tool, but should sensitize all MATILDE partners for an inclusive and cooperative research process (see also D2.8 Stakeholder Involvement Plan)

¹ This chapter is loosely based on Kordel et al. 2018.

2.1 POSITIONALITY OF RESEACHERS

A considerable amount of scholars in social sciences recently continued a debate on power structures and hierarchies that become evident in othering processes, i.e. identity constructions through distinction from the 'other' (Said 1978), and a way of speaking about instead of speaking for (Neuburger and Schmitt 2012). In the course of the othering debate, put forth by Edward Said, the normalization of the self and the connotation of the other as deviant, implies a superiority (Gregory 1998; Hussein de Araújo 2011), which then results in the positioning of a researcher as a (superior and) distant outsider. Being aware of the dichotomizing categories of outsider and insider, might be a first step for challenging unequal power structures. The humanist turn in geography, for instance, focused such dichotomies (Buttimer 1999), whilst, more recently, current debates in feminist theory and postmodernism continued with efforts to diminish them (Merriam et al. 2010).

Certain markers, such as name, profession, gender, age, physical appearance, clothing, use of language, family status, religion and many more can have an influence on the hierarchy of the relationship between researcher and interviewees/participants and finally have an impact on power, respect and trust. When researchers are motivated to reflect about their own reactions, they can be sensitised and enabled to balance between distance and identification with interviewees/participants (Kordel et al. 2018).

Acknowledging one's own privileged position and addressing the own perception as one amongst others, represents the prerequisite for a reflexive attitude throughout the research and assessment process. Reflexive researchers are aware that they do not just collect facts and one truth, but rather construct their interpretations on the basis of their personal field experiences (Hertz 1997), or, as Finlay puts it "with reflexive analyses, the researcher is aware of experiencing a world and moves back and forth in a kind of dialectic between experience and awareness" (Finlay 2002: 533). Throughout the research process, people's subjectivity should be at the core. In order to engage with the

perspectives of interviewees/participants, Husserl (1970) suggests phenomenological reduction, i.e. excluding personal views and attitudes. Reflexivity should be achieved during both the preparation, implementation and analysis of results.

2.1.1 ACCESS AND TRUST

Especially in the initial phase of the research process and when it comes to sampling and recruiting participants, access and trust is crucial and predetermines the successful implementation of interviews and the output of valid and reliable data. Trust between researchers and interviewees/participants is important to avoid potential emotional or physical threats for interviewees (RatSWD 2017) and simultaneously forms the basis of an authentic interpersonal relationship (Miller 2004). To establish trust, gathering information about interviewees/participants and their life worlds and especially the first contact, which might be facilitated by gatekeepers, is crucial (Donà 2007; Kabranian-Melkonian 2015). Such gatekeeper might be members of the ethnic community or volunteers or social workers (Curry et al. 2017). Moreover, the behavior of researchers is of high importance for getting access to groups and places, as McDowell (2010: 162) notes: “[Researchers should] construct an encounter in which the exchange is both sufficiently collaborative to make the ‘respondents’ feel comfortable and that their participation is highly valued while at the same time not being intrusive or too focused on the interviewer’s own life, values and beliefs.” Following this logic, for researchers it is recommendable to adapt to the surrounding to a certain degree. This includes clothing, behaviour, time management and time use (Kearns 2010). Accordingly, commonalities between the researcher and the interviewee/participant can be highlighted to achieve trust (Donà 2007). The basis of trust has to be made transparent also in the further course of the research process.

Finally, apart from trust, a timely information of the target group by means of social and local media or visits at frequent places (e.g. language courses) about the research project,

was addressed as an important way of access and thus can increase the rate of participation (Harris and Roberts 2011; Elliott and Yusuf 2014).

2.1.2 LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL PECULARITIES

Sharing a common language represents an important means to build trust. In order to overcome language barriers, technical advices (translation by means of smartphone apps, Eimmermann and Karlsson 2018) or interpreters can be included (Enzenhofer and Resch 2011). In the latter case, the distribution of roles is affected and can increase the distance between the researcher and the interviewee/participant (Block et al. 2013). Thus, the role and positionality has to be critically evaluated, not least if the interpreter belongs to the same community or has a similar background, e.g. a refugee experience or comes from the same country. To reduce concerns, interviewees/participants facing language challenges should decide themselves about the language and the use of an interpreter (Huisman 2011; Elliott and Yusuf 2014; Kissoon 2011; Fozdar and Hartley 2014; Wernesjö 2015). Mistranslations are mostly related to metaphorical language, connotations or local peculiarities and can be reduced by involving the interpreter in the cross-check of the transcript.

2.1.3 INTERVIEW SETTINGS

Besides the previously mentioned issues, the interview setting itself, i.e. place, time and interpersonal relation, represents an important factor of success. Sites of the interview should be known by interviewees/respondents and be perceived as secure and safe. Thus, the interviewer should be flexible with the selection of places and include interviewees/participants in the decision (Penman and Goel 2017; Harris and Roberts 2011; Ziersch et al. 2017). Sites of interviews could be private and professional places, such as workplaces in the case of experts, flats and apartments of migrants or (semi)public places, such as cafés, restaurants or libraries (Poppe 2013; Dandy and Pe-Pua 2015). At

sites of interviews, noise and interruptions, caused by leaving the room, children, family members or neighbours should be avoided (Huisman 2011). In order to allow the participation of parents with small children, providing childcare by means of assistants can be considered (Farber et al. 2018). For creating a comfortable interview setting, the provision of drinks and food can be adequate in some cases, particularly if a longer duration is foreseen (Dandy and Pe-Pua 2015; Farber et al. 2018). Especially if volunteers and migrants are considered to be included, either as individuals or in groups, one should be aware that they spend their free time and could consider (financial) compensation (e.g. for travel costs) or other incentives (Kissoo 2011, Farber et al. 2018).

2.2 BECOMING FAMILIAR WITH THE LOCALITY

Becoming familiar with the peculiarities of both the locality and people is crucial for interviews and discussion to be rich in content and substantial. Thus, an intensive preparation of the interview itself is necessary. This could be achieved, firstly, by recapitulation of the regional and local characteristics of the region, provided in Deliverable D2.1. and, in some cases, by additional research about the concrete locality and the stakeholder landscape (see also D2.8 Stakeholder Involvement Plan about methods how to identify them). Secondly, an immersion to the field should take place, whilst the degree of immersion strongly depends on the aim and method to be applied. Participant observation or simply hanging around in a specific locality could enhance the understanding of local peculiarities and prevent the drawing of early conclusions. In the context of research with migrants, hanging around with migrants (Rodgers 2004) and informal conversations (Miller 2004), was clearly pointed out as added value to get to know life worlds of individuals and approach potential informants/participants.

2.3 ETHICAL ISSUES

The conduction of empirical material requires the consideration of ethical aspects regarding the involvement of individuals, in this case TCNs, who may be particularly vulnerable. Any interaction with these subjects shall take place on the basis of the guidelines on data collection, security, and protection. In line with the European Commission's Guidance Note on research on refugees, asylum seekers and migrants, the principles of sensitivity, objectivity, transparency, avoidance of ethnocentricity and rigorous safeguard of participants' dignity, wellbeing, autonomy safety and security need to be applied, while participants' values and their right to make their own decisions need to be guaranteed. Unexpected, incidental, or unintended findings that are not harmless need to be reported based on national legislation. Informed consent or alternative forms of consent from participants has to be sought, while sensitive personal data need to be protected and pseudonymisation techniques need to be applied (see also Annex 1 and D1.3 Data management plan, see also D1.7 Ethics Plan, see also D2.5 Data collection guidelines).

2.4 PARTICIPATORY AND ACTION RESEARCH AS A RESEARCH STYLE

Participatory research follows a humanist paradigm with the intention to adopt an insider perspective and aims to include all people in research and development processes. The formation of a participatory research tradition is ascribed to critiques in development studies of being extractivist, applying an unequal sampling and not including people in decision-making processes (Chambers 1994a) and was further influenced by activist participatory research (e.g. Freire 1968), applied anthropology, and agrarian system analysis. As a reaction, practitioners in development cooperation applied Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA), which aims "to enable local (rural and urban) people to express, enhance, share and analyse their knowledge of life and conditions, to plan and to act" (Chambers 1994b). With Participatory Action Research (PAR), a further step of

development took place, combining two objectives: “One aim is to produce knowledge and action directly useful to a group of people through research, adult education or socio-political action. The second aim is to empower people at a second and deeper level through the process of constructing and using their own knowledge” (Reason 1998: 271).

In epistemological terms, participative research changes the understanding of roles of researchers and interviewees/participants. The focus is set on learning from, with and through participants by enabling them to express their knowledge and their preferences based on their own system of categories and values (Chambers 1994b). In order to include all people, even those who are not able to read and write, methods and tools should incorporate visual elements and reduce spoken and written ones (*ibid.*, see chapter 3). Interviewees/participants “should have an active part in the whole process by examining, engaging, interpreting and reflecting on their social world and forming their sense of identity” (Hearne and Murphy 2019, cit. after Gruber et al. 2020: 21, Deliverable 2.8 Stakeholder involvement plan) and should be seen as co-researchers, while researchers themselves are moderators and tutors of the learning process instead. Moreover, a linear research process is replaced by a cyclical one, since various iterations of planning, acting, observing and reflecting take place.

With regard to the degree of participation in a research or development process, the ladder of participation, based on Arnstein (1969) and further developed by Straßburger and Rieger (2019, participation pyramid) is a useful tool for reflection. The stage model applied for MATILDE (see D2.8 Stakeholder Involvement Plan) has to be considered in the design, implementation and analysis of concrete methods of tools and this makes the participatory approach as a research style for MATILDE.

3. QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

In the following, different data collection techniques are presented. In chapter 3.1 and 3.2, qualitative interviews and focus group discussions that were already applied in the course of WP3 and WP4 and, which have a comparatively low degree of participation, are introduced. Afterwards, i.e. in chapters 3.3 to 3.7, more participatory techniques are presented, starting with explorative ones, in particular (for an overview of applied methods in MATILDE, see list of methods Annex 2).

In order to reflect peculiarities in terms of the application of the tools with TCNs and in rural and mountainous context, an evaluation of the MATILDE case studies took place by means of a questionnaire (Annex 3). Experiences from the fieldwork are presented jointly with the tools.

3.1 QUALITATIVE (IN-DEPTH AND NARRATIVE) INTERVIEWS

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Definition and application: A qualitative interview is commonly addressed as a form of conversation with a purpose, i.e. give fulsome answers, to provide more in-depth information, to reflect and to think (Legard et al. 2003). Empirical material is generated by the interaction between the researcher and the interviewee.

Qualitative interviews can be designed more or less structured varying in openness accordingly. The ***problem-centred expert interview*** as a special form of the qualitative interview aims to unravel interpretational and orientation knowledge from experts (Bogner et al. 2009). Expert knowledge, either gathered through professional or volunteering practice, includes an institutionalized competence to construct reality (Hitzler et al. 1994). Instead, an open and less structured form of the qualitative interview is the ***narrative interview***, which aims to depict self-experienced events and situation to understand views and practices of people in their respective social context (Atteslander 2000: 155). Either one's whole biography or a specific period of time can be focused (Mattissek et al. 2013: 178). The generation of narratives within a qualitative interview, associated with an invitation to immerse to a certain situation in the past, can be fruitful.

Advantages: Qualitative interviews offer the chance to grasp meanings of individuals, based on their expert knowledge or their experiences, and thus contribute to a deeper understanding of how people construct their realities in the respective national, regional or local setting.

Disadvantages: Qualitative interviews need time, personnel resources and a proper preparation (as described in chapter 2). A challenge is the different level of experience of interviewees/participants with interview situations and differing needs to talk. Thus, interviewers have to check in advance whether more chatty or shy people are interviewed and try to react to this.

Standardisation: On the one hand, similar questions and procedures can be used across groups in order to achieve comparability (Morgan 1996; Skop 2006). On the other hand, however, “exploratory, open-natured format may be more consistent for scholars dedicated to the goal of not imposing the research’s assumptions or interpretations of the research” (Skop 2006: 120).

Level of moderator involvement: The researcher has the role to direct the interview process and must be clear about how to manage the interview effectively so as to meet the purposes of the research. Interview guidelines help to control the progress of the interview in a way: they mostly serve as an orientation and have to be understood as a checklist to be ticked throughout the interview. Simultaneously, and depending on the aim of the interview, a participatory research style can also keep flexibility and give the interviewee/participant the feeling to have an influence on the progress of the conversation to some extent.

Number of qualitative interviews: To decide the number of qualitative interviews for a project, commonly, no concrete numbers are given. Instead the rule of saturation is applied, i.e. data collection is stopped once no new insights are gained. Moreover, especially for research in rural and mountain areas, one has to face limitations in

acquiring interviewees/participants due to limited number of people/experts present there.

Number of participants: The number of participants to be included in one qualitative interview usually should not exceed one. As soon as more people are present, questions of hierarchy or personality of interviewees/participants may come into play that may bias the results (see elaborations on focus groups). For couples, however, common or shared experiences may more easily be narrated in a joint interview as additional information from the partner, affirmations, corrections or discussions may add to the explanations given (Hertz 1995; Åkerlund 2013). If other, non-interviewed people are present, the researcher should reflect on the social desirability of answers given by the interviewee.

Length of qualitative interviews: Qualitative interviews differ at length, depending, e.g. on the research topic and the time availability of participants.

PREPARATION: SAMPLING, BRIEFING

Sampling: Whilst there are no closely defined rules for sample size, sampling in qualitative research usually relies on small numbers with the aim of studying in depth and detail. Seeking a richness about a particular phenomenon, the sample is derived purposefully rather than randomly (Tuckett 2004; Marshall 1996). Three broad approaches can be applied:

- ***Convenient sampling***: the least rigorous technique, involving the selection of the most accessible subjects. May result in poor data quality and intellectual credibility.
- ***Judgement sampling***: the researcher actively selects the most productive sample to answer the research question. This can involve developing a framework of the

variables that might influence an individual's contribution and will be based on the researcher's practical knowledge of the research area, the available literature and evidence from the study itself.

- ***Theoretical sampling*** necessitates building interpretative theories from the emerging data and selecting a new sample to examine and elaborate on this theory.

Locality: When determining the location of the qualitative interview, researchers should consider preferences of the interviewee/participant, e.g. choose work places in the case of professionals or private/semi-public spaces in the case of migrants.

CONDUCTING INTERVIEWS

The way how to conduct qualitative interviews is reflected in the interview guidelines, which follow a dramaturgical order, mostly starting with a can opener, moving to the main part of the interview and ending with a summarizing section and an outlook.

Narrative interviews usually include one or more long-lasting narration phases, which should not be interrupted by interventions of the interviewer (Mattissek et al. 2013).

Legard et al. (2003) subsumed various practices that should be avoided in order to obtain full and unbiased accounts and for narrations to be depicted throughout qualitative interviews:

- never assume: it is essential not to assume an understanding of facts, without giving the interviewee the opportunity to explain what the terms used mean; similarly it is essential not to assume that the reason for a particular course of action or belief is clear, although it has not been made explicit by the interviewee/participant.

- refrain from commenting on an answer: although it may help in establishing a trusting relation between the researcher and the interviewee, commenting on an answer by saying e.g. “that’s interesting”, can introduce an element of judgement and interrupt the flow.
- refrain from summarising an answer: attempts to summarize the full meaning may seem patronising to the interviewee/participant. The likelihood is that the summary will be partial or inaccurate. If the researcher needs to check the right understanding of a response, they should do so in the form of a direct question.
- refrain from finishing off an answer: avoid putting words into the interviewee’s mouth; however tempting, it may be to finish off their answer. It is better to ask a further question that will help them to make their point.
- avoid extraneous remarks: such as “right”, “okay”, “yes” or “I see” can encourage the participant to close down, to see what they have already said as sufficient. Prefacing questions with “and” or “so” is another habit of new and nervous researchers, but it results in a tone which is less spontaneous and relaxed.

Instead, reception signals („hummmm“, nodding, smiling) may be more helpful to maintain the narration. Moreover, interviewers have to tolerate silence for a while (Kordel et al. 2019).

Qualitative research methods are commonly based on face to face interactions or, as Berger and Luckmann (2009) put it, “the fundamental experience of the other is that of face to face. The vis-à-vis situation is the prototype of all social interaction. Any other form of interaction is derived from it.” (ibid.: 31, translated by D. Spenger) Therefore, conducting audio interviews (telephone interviews) has long been unpopular in qualitative research (Novick 2008). However, due to restrictions of contacts and hygiene guidelines in pandemic times, gathering empirical data face to face is often not possible. Thus, audio

and audiovisual interviews represent an important alternative, which will be elaborated in the following:

Audio interviews

As Misoch (2015) points out, the application of audio interviews can be a fruitful method within all forms of semi-structured guideline interviews and episodic interviews. For narrative interview forms, however, a telephone execution proved to be problematic.

Advantages of audio interviews

- lower travel costs, increased efficiency, larger geographical dispersion;
- in methodological terms: as visual elements are absent, the interview has less influence in the process of storytelling of the interviewee (Misoch 2015);
- thanks to greater anonymity, interviewees show a higher openness and willingness to talk about sensitive topics than in physical interview situations (Blee 2003, Schulz and Ruddat 2012);

Disadvantages of audio interviews

- non-verbal and only visually perceptible signs of encouragement to continue speaking or consent are omitted, which further intensifies the asymmetry of the communication situation (ibid.);
- high dropout rate is to be expected (ibid.);
- absence of visual control of the interview setting, as “channel control is effected by small non-verbal signals, mainly head-nods, and eye movements“. (Argyle 2009: 72);
- lacking knowledge about the current environmental conditions of the interviewee and he has no influence on whether or not other people are present who are

crucial to the atmosphere of the interview (e. g. in interviews with young people) (Misoch 2015);

- making use of breaks is not possible: While during face to face interviews, breaks can be an expression of concentration of the interviewee, in audio interviews, however “[t]here is a marked tendency to avoid silences [...], and long silences over the telephone are considered improper and rude” (de Leeuw 1992: 15).

Audiovisual interviews

A further step to face to face communication is marked by audio visual online tools, i.e. video calls, given that consent is provided by participants. The opportunities for online interviews are various and their popularity is growing fast in contemporary research (Deakin and Wakefield 2014, Nehls et al. 2015).

Advantages of audiovisual interviews

- a certain degree of ‘social presence’ supports the confidence of interviewer and interviewee (Misoch 2015);
- potential of accessibility, both geographically and with regard to less mobile interview persons (ibid.);
- Also, taken technical resources as a prerequisite, group interviews can be conducted and therefore dynamics in distinct social groups can be traced (ibid.).

Disadvantages of audiovisual interviews

- lacking olfactory, tactile or gustatory elements;
- during the interview technical problems (e.g. video quality, microphone quality) can arise and disrupt the conversation (ibid.);
- due to relatively higher anonymity, video calls have a less reliability and cancellation is rather likely (Deakin and Wakefield 2014, Misoch 2015).

DOCUMENTATION, DEBRIEFING

Qualitative interviews are commonly documented in two modes:

- Notes taken by the interviewer: such notes support both the flow of the interview itself and facilitate the comprehensibility afterwards. Based on the notes, usually minutes are drawn up afterwards.
- Recordings: audio-recordings by means of a voice recorder in a transferable media format are standard in qualitative data collection, but need formal consent of all parties involved. In case approval is denied despite of previous explanations on anonymity and European data protection standards, a second interviewer should be present to take notes.

A debriefing after the interview includes a critical reflection on the contents as well as the interview situation. Ideally, this debriefing includes all members of the research team who participated in the interview and takes place directly after.

EXPERIENCES FROM THE FIELD

In the context of migration impact in rural and mountainous areas, experiences from MATILDE case studies in Vorarlberg (AUT), Carinthia (AUT), Harmanli (BG), North Karelia (FIN), Ostrobothnia (FIN), Innlandet (NOR) and Bursa (TR) were collected, addressing various phases of qualitative interviews:

- For **access to interview persons** in rural areas, snowball sampling was considered as useful, and also allowed for identifying networks, relationships and prevailing mechanisms of social inclusion (case study Vorarlberg, AUT). As a starting point, mayors often provided access and a first set of information on community activities and identified a range of relevant local actors (case study Vorarlberg,

AUT). Attempts to realise interviews with business representatives was often hampered by busy schedules (case study Harmanli, BG).

- **During the interviews**, researchers experienced very emotional situations when recounting particularly pleasant experiences or frightening challenges (case study Vorarlberg, AUT). Empowering of migrants took place when participants reflected on their activities and realised the amount of activities they have conducted. Some individuals also showed frustration about past experiences, particularly because of the perceived lack of acknowledgement and gratitude from the regional and national level (case study Vorarlberg, AUT).
- In terms of **language barriers**, a translator of TCNs decent played a facilitating role not only for having a proper communication with the interviewees but also for providing a considerable margin of advantage in building rapport and trust to have a frank conversation (case study Bursa, TR; Harmanli, BG).

Addressing **online interviews**, participants faced some technical issues, e.g. due to bad telephone or internet connection in rural areas (case study Harmanli, BG).

3.2 FOCUS GROUPS

Authors: Tobias Weidinger and Cristina Dalla Torre



Definition and application: Focus groups are a special form of group discussion, where data are collected through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher or the participants (Morgan 1996, cf. Krueger 1994). They are used to “uncover the ‘world-views’ (especially regarding attitudes, perceptions and experiences) of different groups of people (...) in a variety of locations (...)” (Skop 2006: 121). Therefore, they are applied both in the explorative phase of research to generate hypotheses (Bloor et al. 2001) or in the validating phase, e.g. for examining acceptance of options or discussing potential strategies (Pratt 2002; Schulz 2012).

Advantages: Focus groups offer the chance to grasp effects of group dynamics and controversies (Bedford and Burgess 2001, 124, cit. after Skop 2006; Schulz 2012). By means of spontaneous expressions and interactions, they stimulate new ideas and questions (Pelz et al. 2004; Cyr 2016). Focus groups may also provide a forum for perspectives of disadvantaged or marginalised groups and provide a means to overcome feelings of systemic exclusion (Skop 2006; Carey 2015), thus constituting a potential element of participatory action research and empowerment (Skop 2006; Gailing and Naumann 2019).

Encouraging reflective research practice (Skop 2006), participants may finally question assumptions of researchers and prevent them from jumping to early conclusions (Kamberelis and Dimitriadis 2013), thus being able to 'reduce the imbalance in power relationships between researcher and participants' (Gailing and Naumann 2019).

Disadvantages: In contrast, group dynamics may hamper individuals from talking freely (Littig and Wallace 1997) and leading to 'censoring' or 'conforming' (Jowett and O'Toole 2006, see also Skop 2006), and simultaneously creating 'chatterboxes' and '(wo)men of few words' that call for a high level of moderator involvement (Bennett 2002; Hollander 2004; Schetula and Gallego Carrera 2012; Schulz 2012). In addition, a too rigid orientation at the interview guideline, a too rapid change of topic and mistakes in the time management may compromise the 'success' of focus groups (Vogl 2014).

Standardisation: On the one hand, similar questions and procedures can be used across groups in order to achieve comparability (Morgan 1996; Skop 2006). On the other hand, however, "exploratory, open-natured format may be more consistent for scholars dedicated to the goal of not imposing the research's assumptions or interpretations of the research" (Skop 2006: 120). Morgan (2002, cit. after Skop 2006) suggests a more closed character with predefined questions for the first and a more open character for the second part of the focus group.

Level of moderator involvement: Generally, the role of researchers (or moderators) is to facilitate the discussion in a less-directive way, as the focus is on the participants and the relations between participants (Parker and Tritter 2006). However, due to the researcher's purpose of data collection, he or she may want to control that relevant topics are discussed (e.g. directing attention away from what are deemed less important issues) and participants are able to interact (e.g. trying to get everyone to participate equally in the discussion) (Morgan 1996). Benighaus and Benighaus (2012) distinguish two types of techniques for moderators: a) Questioning-route-technique, where core questions are prepared beforehand and moderator 'machines off' the questions, fostering comparability

between focus groups and facilitating the coding (ibid.); b) topic-guide-technique, where a list of topics is prepared beforehand, while moderators are free to formulate questions their own (ibid.).

Number of focus groups: According to Morgan (1996), the most common rule of thumb is that most projects consist of four to six focus groups (Morgan 1996; Stewart and Shamdasani 1990 cit. after Skop 2006). The typical justification for this range is that the data become 'saturated' and little new information emerges after the first three to four focus groups, so moderators can predict what participants will say even before they say it (Morgan 1996).

Number of participants: The number of participants to be included in a focus group depends on the topic to be discussed. Smaller groups are more appropriate with emotionally charged topics that generate high levels of participant involvement, while larger groups work better with more neutral or unknown topics that generate lower levels of involvement (Morgan 1996). In previous research, the number of participants ranged from four to twelve per focus group (Hoggart et al. 2001, cit. after Skop 2006; Ruddat 2012; Gailing and Naumann 2019).

Length of focus groups: focus groups differ at length, depending, e.g. on the research topic and the time availability of participants. In previous research, they even lasted up to three (Benighaus and Benighaus 2012) or even to 5.5 hours (Gailing and Naumann 2019).

PREPARATION

Sampling: The sampling of participants requires preparatory work to not reinforce existing power relations (Skop 2006). Segmentation, i.e. creating groups that consist of particular categories of participants, may foster the security of the group and the participation of group members and facilitate discussions by making the participants more similar to each other (Morgan 1996; Skop 2006). The selection of participants respectively the composition of the group should be based on the research question and social and demographic characteristics of the target group (e.g. age, gender, mother tongue, ethnicity/race, social class, Knodel 1993, cit. after Skop 2006).

Locality: When determining the location of the focus group, researchers should be aware of the acoustics of the rooms, their accessibility for participants as well as the symbolic meaning attached to them (Gailing and Naumann 2019).

Ex ante-exercises: Due to the fact that focus groups may be unknown for some (Gailing and Naumann 2019), pre-focus group interviews, pre-screening questionnaires or exercises may be helpful to explain the project and get to know more about participants as well as to help participants structure their thoughts beforehand, which may foster their articulateness during the discussion (Kneale 2001 cit. after Skop 2006; Skop 2006).

CONDUCTING FOCUS GROUPS

Following Benighaus and Benighaus (2012, referring to Krueger and Casey 2008), the conduction of focus groups can be divided in five phases:

First Phase – Introduction: The moderator welcomes participants and presents him/herself. He/she explains the topic and the aims of the discussion, provides

information, e.g. on the sponsor of the project, data protection and processing, and names rules for the discussion.

Second Phase – First-Person-Perspective ('I'): Incorporating an introductory question, participants present themselves.

Third Phase – Group-Perspective ('We'): Incorporating the practical or occupational background, participants' experiences related to the topic are collected.

Fourth Phase – Main Questions ('It'): Main questions are discussed consecutively, from general to specific ones.

Fifth Phase – Conclusions: Allowing participants to amend, the most important aspects of the discussion are summed up by the moderator. After solving unanswered points and dealing with formalities, participants are dismissed.

DOCUMENTATION, DEBRIEFING

Focus groups can be documented in three modes:

- Notes taken by the interviewer: such notes support both the flow of the discussion itself and facilitate the comprehensibility afterwards.
- Recordings: audio-recordings by means of a voice recorder in a transferable media format are standard in qualitative data collection, but need formal consent of all parties involved.
- Visualisation: important issues of the discussion can be visualised on a notice board for all participants, either during or at the end of the discussion, i.e. to 'safe' results (Benighaus and Benighaus 2012). The visualisation, however, should not interrupt but foster the discussion.

A debriefing after the interview includes a critical reflection on the contents as well as the interview situation. It can be supported by a template provided by WP leaders. Ideally, this debriefing includes all members of the research team who participated in the interview and takes place directly after.

EXPERIENCES FROM THE FIELD

Experiences with focus groups were made throughout the case studies Carinthia (AUT), Vorarlberg (AUT), Harmanli (BG), Huesca (ES), North Karelia (FIN), Torino (IT), Innlandet (NOR), Bursa (TR) and Scotland (UK):

- During the implementation of (online) focus groups, flexibility and the relationship of trust have been the keys for a large and engaged participation (case study Scotland, UK).
- To set up an appropriate setting for focus groups, i.e. where participants feel safe and their emotions are recognized, was hampered due to Covid-19 restrictions (e.g. case study Carinthia, AUT; Vorarlberg, AUT; North Karelia, FIN; Innlandet, NOR).
- With the help of tool MURAL, the participants of the focus groups were able to prepare themselves for the topics. Via MURAL, a photo wall was inserted, where the researchers put personal photos, to initiate a personal environment and to motivate the participants to put pictures on the wall as well. This personal touch, the safe space in the call and the understanding of all participants made the challenge of emotional discussion in an online setting possible (case study Carinthia, AUT).
- In order to facilitate participation, different time schedules of potential participants were considered, e.g. one focus group was organized in the evening of a day of bad weather, for instance, so that the target group of fishermen would be at home, while another one was run earlier to fit with an important football match (case study Scotland, UK; also Huesca, ES).

3.3 OPEN SPACE TECHNOLOGY (OST) / PARTICIPATORY WORKSHOPS

Author: Dominic Sauerbrey



Definition and application: Open Space or Open Space Technology (OST) is a method designed for organizing and running large group workshops or conferences (500-1000 participants) where participants have been invited to deal with a specific problem or issue by setting their own agenda (Owen 1997, Bohinc 2017). At the same time, OST has also been applied for smaller (less than ten participants) or even bigger conferences (> 1.000 participants) (Owen 2008). Prerequisite for the successful application of the Open Space Technology, also known as the 'method of the big coffee break' (Baumann and Detlefsen 2005: 249), is to conceive 'Open Space' literally by ensuring that the participants are not faced by too many constraints during the event (e. g. imposed official agenda), hindering them to express and exchange their ideas, objections or propositions in an open manner (c.f. Owen 2008). Thus, topics to be addressed during those events should relate to each other but be open and controverse at the same time, allowing participants to approach them with different points of view while aiming for constructive and viable solutions (Owen 2008, Dittrich-Brauner et al. 2013). Topics encompass, for instance, environmental protection, urban development (Nanz and Fritsche 2012), the future of corporations (Herzog 1999) or discussions about how to shape a common future for communities in light of novel immigration processes.

Advantages: One of the main benefits of applying OST is that it is a relatively cheap and unconventional opportunity to organise large group events while also promising quick results by inviting diverse participants to join in the decision process and to take over responsibility (Owen and Stadler 1999). Owen indicates that every participant, having made a deliberate choice to participate, has a specific motive which should be heard and integrated into the event (Owen 2008). Open Space thus can attribute to an empowering atmosphere where people can articulate their intrinsic motivations and unspoiled point of views regarding the discussed topic in a productive manner (Owen 2008). Furthermore, the method of Open Space can facilitate the interaction among the participants by inviting them to collaborate, solving problems on their terms, by organizing themselves in different groups which deal on certain aspects of the main theme (Bohinc 2017). Considering the strategic value of such meetings, OST can also have a positive impact on the sustainability of the goals that are formulated and envisaged during the meeting (Herzog 1999). Allocating the responsibility to the participants can ensure the sustainability of a project since participants are made aware of the fact that the results of the event were not dictated by the organisers but elaborated by themselves (Owen 2008). Overall, applying OST does not only promise quick but also sustainable results which makes it especially attractive for the exploration phase but also for the transformation phase of a project for both organisers (Bohinc 2017) as well as researchers (Freitag 2009).

Disadvantages: The advantages listed above depend on the character of the persons involved. Open discussion formats like Open Space tend to favour the engagement of extroverted people who can flourish in these socially dynamic environments whereas introverted people oftentimes tend to have problems to take the initiative in these informal settings (c.f. Collins et al. 2013). Consequently, ideas and perspectives of extroverted people may be overrepresented while those of introverted people who flourish in more formal settings may be underrepresented (ibid.). Despite this could be counteracted by the law of feet during the group discussions (Owen 2008, Dittrich-Brauner et al. 2013), it does not apply to the preceding drafting phase where groups are

being formed by group leaders taking the initiative by stepping forward. Finally, while OST might be suitable in the exploration phase of projects, it is rather problematic when it comes to improving already existing and working projects since the discussions often produce radically new ideas and stir up new expectations instead of delivering the incremental refinements and corrections which were hoped for (Owen 2008, Herzog 1999). Regarding the application of OST for research purposes, this circumstance of losing control could counteract with premeditated questions and topics the researcher was originally interested in (cf. Freitag 2009).

Standardisation: OST relies on the individual motivations of each participant (c.f. Owen 2008) which is why no strict guideline or catalogue can be formulated due to its potentially imposing effects. However, Owen started to formulate general principles and propositions on how to approach an Open Space Event as a moderator in his books 'Brief User's Guide' (1992) and 'Open Space Technology – A User's guide' (1997). Besides that, there exists an active community of practitioners which are exchanging experiences and thus are continuously developing the technology (<https://openspaceworld.org/wp2/oslist/>). Experts in the field describe the process to run an event as intuitively reacting to how the events are unfolding (Owen 2008).

Level of moderator involvement: During an OST event, the tone gets dictated by the participants and thus not by the moderator. Except for the beginning when the moderator introduces herself/himself to the group, her/his task is to facilitate the discussions by solely focusing on maintaining the right, i.e. suitable and safe, atmosphere (Owen 2008). (S)he achieves that by providing the right spatial arrangements but not intervening thematically since the principle of participants' self-organisation and empowerment are sought to be uphold (ibid.). Closing the event by moderating the final discussion is also her/his task (Owen 2008).

Number of groups: The number of groups is not predetermined by the organisers but decided by the number of people who consider an aspect of the main theme important

enough for a group discussion (Owen 2008). In that case she/he takes responsibility for the group by setting room and time for the discussion (Nanz and Fritsche 2012).

Number of participants: OST events are originally designed for bigger group workshops ranging from 50 to 1000 people (Owen 1997). But as mentioned above there are also exemptions of less (< 50) and more (> 1000) participants (Owen 2008).

Length of groups: The length of the whole event varies between one to three days (Petri 1999) whereas the length of the individual groups can vary regarding the time allotted to by the setting of the event as well as the individual decision of the group leader. In general, one principle of OST is that every group session takes as long as each participants considers it to be worth his or her time (Owen 2008). Practitioners, however, calculate with time slots of one or one and a half hours (Herzog 1999, Agonda n.d.).

PREPARATION: SAMPLING, BRIEFING

The only possibility for creating a sample is by addressing the right groups and institutions that could be potentially interested in the main theme of the Open Space event. However, this impact is limited since “voluntary self-selection is the absolute sine qua non for participation in an Open Space event” (Owen 2008: 26). The main theme of the event should be selected as well as introduced carefully by choosing a topic that is controversial and urgent, while sketching it out briefly and concisely in the invitation (ibid: 30f., Herman n.d.). This, if anything, indirect influence on the composition and number of the participants may run risk to undermine the premeditated research issue as well as to lower the representativity of the self-selected group with regards to other parties concerned by the main theme (Freitag 2009). The actual event usually starts with a short introduction of the person responsible for the event, having initiated this mode of group discussion, who is oftentimes a state official or a manager of an organization (Owen 2008). Following this segment, the moderator starts to open the space by pacing up and

down the room, making eye contact with the participants, and giving a brief description of the self-explanatory method (ibid.).

CONDUCTING OPEN SPACE EVENTS

The general lack of research projects utilizing OST implies that the main motive of applying OST is not about gathering qualitative empirical data in a narrow sense, even though, the processes of self-organised group discussions and decision-making offer opportunities for subsequent analysis and interpretation (cf. Freitag 2009). The following processes should be considered after the opening of the room:

- **Bulletin Board:** At the beginning, each participant is invited to step into the middle of the room to propose a specific aspect regarding the main theme which is in her/his opinion worthwhile further discussions by saying: “My name is (...), my issue is (...)” (Herman n.d.). Due to this act (s)he takes over the responsibility for the proposed topic, determining the time and the room for the group discussion on the bulletin board. (Owen 2008)
- **Market Place:** After the bulletin board has been filled by several participants, taking on diverse topics, the total group is asked to sign up for the different group sessions they are interested in (ibid.).
- **Group Sessions:** The mode of the group session depends on the group size and its participants. The principle of self-organisation reoccurs in this dynamic group settings, since each group can freely choose how to run the sitting (Owen and Stadler 1999, Owen 2008). Furthermore, the principle of ‘the law of feet’ allows each member of the group to leave the discussion, if (s)he has the impression to neither being able to contribute to the discussion nor profiting from the conversations taking place (Owen 2008). The task of the moderator during the

group sessions is to avoid interventions and to maintain the open space by ensuring an environment which allows for fruitful discussions (ibid.).

World Café: Another open format suited to facilitate group discussions in an empowering atmosphere is the World Café method which shares several similarities with OST. Organising World Café events are considered possible for twelve up to 12.000 participants (Nanz and Fritsche 2012). The all-encompassing belief of World Café that “we humans want to talk together about things that matters to us” (Brown and Isaacs 2005) leads to the conclusion that this impulse should be utilised by acquiring a shared knowledge or collective wisdom that fosters the creation of solutions and initiates change (Brown and Isaacs 200). Similar to OST, the World Café method is especially applicable in the exploration phase of projects where a roadmap hasn't been laid out yet. Dittrich-Brauner et al. (2013) also recommend applying the World Café method right after presentations for people to reflect about their own opinions and ideas regarding the subject of the talk (ibid.). In general, for hosting World Cafés, relatively little logistical efforts have to be made, apart from arranging the right setting by recreating a Café atmosphere and bringing people together. The former is achieved by arranging smaller tables around which chairs for four to six peoples are placed (Nanz and Fritsche 2012). Originated by the first spontaneous World Café which was taking place in January 1995, practitioners sometimes use (easel) papers as tablecloths on which participants can write or illustrate their ideas and thoughts (Brown and Isaacs 2005). World Café events usually start with the participants simultaneously joining the room and taking a seat at one of the arranged tables (Dittrich-Brauner et al. 2013). The moderator is then required to introduce the event's theme or main questions to the participants for the group discussions to begin (ibid.). As during OST events, one person who is called ‘the host’ takes over the responsibility for a group by staying at the table and reporting the findings of the discussions which were taking place up to this point at his or her table to newcomers (cf. Nanz and Fritsche 2012). The rest of the initial group, however, is supposed to change

tables after one session which usually takes 20-30 minutes (ibid.). After several rounds, the moderator's task is to gather and present the results of the different tables for example by exhibiting the tablecloths, using post-its for the central points, creating an idea cluster, telling an elaborated story or by engaging a professional illustrator (The World Café Community 2002 cit. after Dittrich-Brauner et al. 2013). Löhr et al. (2020) suggest that café hosts and moderators also take additional notes during the sessions at the tables. However, this is very resource-intensive.

Village talk: Recently, Florian Wenzel and Christian Boeser-Schnebel (2019) developed the concept of the 'village talks' (German: Dorfgespräche). Village talks, firstly, aim at providing a dialogue format to establish interaction between all members of local communities and, secondly, at initiating a local development process. Superordinate goal, however, is to maintain an open and plural democratic society, where diversity is addressed actively and productively. The concept encompasses three steps that are split into three consecutive evening events: 1) Establishing personal encounters by drawing on new places and ways of communication; 2) Initiating productive confrontations about (non-)shared values and existing conflicts; and 3) Consolidating joint action.

Author: Tobias Weidinger

DOCUMENTATION, DEBRIEFING

The individual who has initiated the group has the responsibility that every group discussion is being documented (Nanz and Fritsche 2012, Owen 2008). Researchers observing OST events for scientific purposes rely on those documents since group discussions are taking place simultaneously, while reconstructing all of them would mean a considerable logistical effort (Freitag. 2009). All those group reports are put together in a collective report of which every participant receives a copy at the end of the event (for examples c.f. Kultur.Forscher! 2012, <https://www.openspaceworld.org/cgi/netwiki.cgi>). The so-called morning and evening news are pivotal modes for wrapping up the discussions of the day while also establishing a sense of subjective togetherness during

the event (Owen 2008). Especially for OST events which extend to three days and involve several smaller group discussions, another segment called 'Prioritisation and Action Plans' plays an important role (ibid.). During the segment of prioritisation, which usually takes place after the general report has been handed out, the whole group selects up to ten topics which are considered most important for further elaborations by voting democratically either using stickers or ballots (ibid.). This allows researchers to receive immediate feedback or reflection from the participants, evaluating their own group decisions and results (Freitag 2009). At the end of each OST event there is also a closing plenary assembly where each participant has the opportunity to briefly reflect on the personal findings and the lessons made during the event (e.g. implementation of the talking-stick ceremony) (Owen 2008).

EXPERIENCES FROM THE FIELD

The case study Innlandet (NOR) provides experiences with open space technology:

- Café hosts were identified as key to interpersonal dynamics. They are especially important for including all group members, making sure everyone understands the tasks, and ensuring progress. This is a demanding and tiring responsibility. Therefore, café hosts should be selected carefully.
- A proper preparation, especially of cafés hosts, e.g. by a combination of written guidelines and a meeting prior to the event, facilitates a smooth process.
- In order to allow every participant to raise her/his voice, the groups should not be too large, it may also be useful to appoint two café hosts instead of just one.

3.4 OBSERVATIONS

Author: David Spenger



Definition and application: Observation is an ethnographic method which has become popular in many fields of social sciences. Ethnographic methods, as it is applied in human geography, help to understand how individuals create and experience their life-worlds through place making, inhabiting social spaces, forging local and transnational networks, and also representing and decolonizing existing imaginaries about space and place (Watson and Till 2010). Observation can be generally defined as “the systematic description of events, behaviors, and artefacts in the social setting chosen for study” (Marshall and Rossmann 1989: 79). Therefore, it comprises the recording of all sensory perceptible aspects of human actions and reactions which are not initiated by researchers (Thierbach and Petschick 2014). It is important to distinguish between observations that follow a scientific purpose from day-to-day observations (Driscoll 2011). While everyday observation can also initiate orientation and gather information about a locality, it does neither have a primary scientific purpose nor follows scientific principles like repeatability or intersubjective traceability (Atteslander 2008, Watson and Till 2010). By means of scientific observation, researchers may become familiar with the locality. Such an observation can also include everyday techniques like reading the newspaper or more quantitatively oriented observations like conducting a traffic census.

Level of moderator involvement: Depending on the level of involvement of the researcher, observations can be divided into four types (Mattissek et al. 2013, cited after Gold 1958: 219-221). First, the researcher is completely participating in the field and its own role as an observant is (almost) not visible (*complete participant*). Second, the researcher widely participates in the field, but his role as an observant is either perceptible or is communicated explicitly (*participant-as-observant*). Third, the observation is given priority to the participation and a low level of moderator integration and identification is characteristic (*observer-as-participant*). Fourth, the moderator is not involved in actions nor events and remains distant to the field, e.g. through video recording (*complete observer*). According to Mattissek et al. 2013, in a strict sense, the first two types can be defined as participatory observations and the last two types as non-participatory observations. An observation can be implemented by the research herself/himself (internal) or a third person (external), who is not familiar with central objectives of the study (Weischer and Gehrau 2017). Also, a combination of both internal and external observation can be a fruitful data collection and encourages a reflexive attitude (ibid).

Advantages: Observations take place in the everyday environment of people, and not in laboratory settings. The aim is not to modify their actions by the presence of the observers (Mattissek et al. 2013). According to Spittler (2001), observations allow researchers to grasp complex issues at a glance, which can mostly be expressed in a ponderous way. While qualitative interviews are mostly done only once and are relatively short, (participatory) observations are favourable for long-term and in-depth understanding of practices and situations (Mattissek et al. 2013). Therefore, “[w]hen you want to know what people actually do, (...) there is no substitute for watching them or studying the physical traces their behavior leaves behind” (Bernard 2006: 413).

Disadvantages: Contrary to what is often assumed, observations are not objective, but always subjective and selective. Thus, research results are part of a process of specific construction (Atteslander 2008). Especially in an unfamiliar context, the observers will initially be particularly attentive and will focus on many aspects, which they assume to be

'new'. When things become more familiar, their attention will decrease (Mattissek et al. 2013). As a consequence, researchers doing participatory observations find themselves in an ongoing dilemma. On the one hand, they have to be interested in being integrated into the field and increase familiarity with the situations, on the other hand they also have to keep distance (Mattissek et al. 2013, cited after Lüders 2010). This dilemma needs continuous self-reflection. Finally, observations require a lot of time and are not very effective compared to interviews (Spittler 2001). Therefore, it can be fruitful and recommendable to combine observations with qualitative interviews (Mattissek et al. 2013).

Standardisation: Depending on the level of moderator involvement, observations can be structured or unstructured (Mattissek et al. 2013), while the former focuses on selected aspects of the field, for the 'purpose of quantification' (Lamnek 2010: 508). Therefore, schemes and categories for data collection and analysis are defined beforehand (Flick 2009, Mattissek et al. 2013). To strengthen the level of standardisation, an observation guideline can be elaborated. Unstructured observations don't follow a standardized scheme during the observation. Rather, it is open to new structures, processes, situations and their interpretation during the observation (ibid.). Nevertheless, also unstructured observations are conducted in a systematic way and are not left to arbitrariness, that means, it is planned, recorded and analysed afterwards (Mattissek et al. 2013, cited after Lamnek 2010). Moreover, it is important to note, that – due to ethical reasons – observations have to be transparent and should not be conducted in a hidden way (Legewie 1991, Bernard 2006). In most cases, a mixed form is used: The observed are informed about the scientific observation but don't know the exact purpose of study (Mattissek et al. 2013).

PREPARATION: SAMPLING, BRIEFING

Before entering the field, the human interaction to be observed has to be chosen (Ostrower 1998), while observers have to identify a suitable research area and position

within this given scenery (Mattissek et al. 2013). Especially in participatory observations, it is crucial to get access to the field of interest, mostly via *gatekeepers*, who are widely accepted in the group and don't have the role of an outsider (see reflections on access in chapter 2.1.). Moreover, ethical issues have to be considered during observations, e.g. not to eavesdrop people's conversations. Afterwards, a common understanding of taking field notes has to be developed, i.e., what to record, e.g. material conditions, social interactions and to which level of detail notes should be taken. Besides, it is recommendable also to include open questions that arise during the observation.

CONDUCTING OBSERVATIONS

Following Spradley (1980), observations are carried out in three phases: *Descriptive observation*, *focused observation* and *selective observation*. As soon as access to the research field is completed, the observers start to take notes. In the first phase, researchers are orienting themselves in the field and are describing situations and actions in a relatively unstructured way. The aim is to catch the complexity of the field and to clearly define research questions. In the second phase, only those observations are noted which go well with the processes and problems of interest. The third phase validates the observed processes and patterns and gathers more selective examples which are of central interest.

Considering the fact, that the observer is influencing the field already due to being present, a current process of self-reflection should accompany the observation. This performativity has to be acknowledged from the very beginning. One has to assume that due to the presence of researchers from an EU project such as MATILDE, local actors might change/adapt their behavior.

DOCUMENTATION, DEBRIEFING

Documentation is crucial when conducting observations. Field notes do not represent the observed reality, rather, they are the result of complex processes of ascribing meanings (Lüders 2010). What has to be recorded and documented should be fixed before entering the field. If two or more observers are present, a comparison of field notes can serve as a debriefing. Most importantly, researchers are required to avoid bias in taking field-notes and should concentrate on directly observable situations and actions and should not include interpretations, assumptions or judgements (Driscoll 2011). To do so, a “double-entry notebook” can be used, which has a column for direct observations and a column for interpretations and thoughts (ibid).

EXPERIENCES FROM THE FIELD

In the context of migration impact in rural and mountainous areas, experiences from MATILDE case studies Carinthia (AUT), Ostrobothnia (FIN), North Karelia, (FIN) and Bursa (TR) address various modes of observations:

- Informal observations were conducted by means of “hanging around” at frequented places, e.g. main squares, bus stations, shopping malls, libraries and cafés and restaurants. Such places were visited to get a scent of the atmosphere, have an opportunity to talk to locals and get an impression of how immigrants and natives interact (case study Ostrobothnia and North Karelia, FIN).
- Informal observations were conducted in a structured way, e.g. by means of a protocol, to ensure that researchers were looking for comparable things and situations in the studied municipalities (case study Ostrobothnia, FIN; Carinthia, AUT).
- Observation trips led to unpredictable circumstances in terms of not knowing whom or how many people one will encounter, resulting in unexpected, surprising

situations and difficulties to keep the envisaged time schedule (case study North Karelia, FIN; Carinthia, AUT).

3.5 MOBILITY MAPPING

Authors: Tobias Weidinger and David Spenger



Definition and application: Mobility mapping is a spatio-visual tool, which allows to investigate the spatial dimension of everyday life of individuals or groups, and to quantitatively and qualitatively capture both spatial (im)mobility and the meanings attached to places (Kordel et al. 2018). Individuals or groups are invited to draw maps with individually important places that are frequented (or not) as well as means of transport used to get there. Thereby, perceptions and experiences of distances to and (in)accessibility of places are captured (Kumar 2002, Weidinger et al. 2019). If combined with narrative interviews (see also narrative mapping, Lutz et al. 2003, Täubig 2009), mobility mapping also offers the opportunity to grasp information about travel purposes, frequencies, preferences as well as meanings attached to places. Mobility mapping is mostly applied at a later stage of the research process, when a specific group is identified, whose (im)mobility patterns are of interest (Kumar 2007).

Advantages: Mobility mapping offers valuable insights in the (im)mobility patterns of a group or an individual. Participants are encouraged to think about their life worlds, activating a reflection process. Due to its visual character, it is less dependent on

language and literacy of participants, and, thus, fosters their power to recall and to structure. It also stimulates the interaction and discussion between the participant and the researcher and even allows for a joint analysis during the interview. Finally, spatial (im)mobility and related experiences of exclusion and inclusion can be compared according to variables such as age, gender or household composition to identify commonalities and differences in mobility patterns (Weidinger et al. 2019: 17). Thus, mobility mapping addressed core challenges in rural and mountain areas.

Disadvantages: Mobility mapping is very resource-intensive and time-consuming. It may be difficult to implement with participants, who only recently moved to the place of residence, with those, who are not used to open forms of interviewing and drawing exercises and those, who are not confident about their competences of drawing or writing (Weidinger et al. 2019). Moreover, at least two persons, e.g. one researcher and one assistant are needed to implement mobility mapping.

Standardisation: To foster intersubjective traceability, the researcher should standardise colours and shape of cards used during mobility mapping (Kordel et al. 2018). Too strict instructions on how to complete the mapping, however, could neglect subjective encounters (Pretty et al. 1995, Weidinger et al. 2019: 8).

Level of moderator involvement: The role of the researcher is to motivate participants to draw or write themselves. If they hesitate, they should be reassured that scale-based drawing, completeness, aesthetic quality or orthography do not matter (Kordel et al. 2018). Only if specifically requested by participants, researchers can 'take back the pen' from the participant and write or draw under their guidance (Kordel et al. 2018).

Length of mobility mapping: The process may last between 45 minutes and up to two or three hours.

PREPARATION: SAMPLING, BRIEFING

Sampling: Depending on the aim of the study, either a supposedly homogenous or a rather heterogeneous group may be chosen, while different sampling strategies should be applied. A mobility mapping should be implemented with one single person or a family.

Locality: Appropriate locations should feature a big table or enough space on the floor.

Ex ante-exercises: The team of researchers should do some background checks about the site of investigation, e.g. structures, places and actors. They need to prepare small cards of different shape for the places frequented (or not) with pictograms about different realms of everyday life (e.g. on shopping, visits to the authorities or services, free time), different colored marker pens for the different modes of transport and prompt cards with the respective pictograms and short written explanations. For reasons of inclusion, the latter should be provided in all relevant languages spoken by participants. Finally, researchers need to set fix roles and responsibilities beforehand, e.g. a first person asks questions (interviewer), a second person takes notes (note taker), and a third person provides the material to the participant.

CONDUCTING MOBILITY MAPPING

Introduction: At the beginning, the interviewer explains that s*he wants to learn about the everyday life and (im)mobility practices and how the method is working. Those, who hesitate to draw and write by themselves, are encouraged, while pointing out that assistance is offered during the whole process, e.g. in terms of providing the 'correct' spelling of place names (Weidinger et al. 2019).

Implementation: Participants are invited to draw their apartment, house or accommodation at the very center of the poster. Then, they are asked to tell about the places they usually visit in their everyday lives. Once the participants have started to

narrate or write/draw the small cards, they are not interrupted until they stop. After they have finished, they should clarify or add places they had mentioned, but not written/drawn or vice versa. The prompt cards with pictograms and short explanations of different realms of everyday life serve as reminders. In a next step, participants arrange the small cards with the places visited around the apartment/house/accommodation according to the perceived distance to their home. If the participant is fine with the arrangement, the small cards are glued on the poster.

Afterwards, participants are requested to draw lines between the house and the places visited, indicating the means of transport used to reach these places. For the different means of transport, e.g. on foot/walking, by bike, by public transport or long-distance bus services and by car/given a lift, different colors of marker pens are used. If they had not yet done so before, the interviewer would encourage the participant to explain the meaning of the drawn places, including reasons for going there, activities on-site, the duration and frequency, who is accompanying them and the modes of transport used to get there (Weidinger et al. 2019).

After that, the participants are invited to draw or write places, where they have to go to, but do not want to as well as places they never frequent for various reasons on differently shaped small cards. Reasons may include inaccessibility due to expenditure of time or financial resources, legal issues or health constraints, negative representations of or negative experiences at places due to discrimination or racism, indicating exclusion processes (Gifford et al. 2007; Täubig 2009; Weidinger et al. 2019). Finally, the cards are also fixed on the poster.

Conclusion: To bring the mapping to a close, a balance can be drawn up. At the end, a picture of the final version of the map is taken by the interviewer and the map is handed over to the participant.

DOCUMENTATION, DEBRIEFING

For documentation purpose, an audio recording is foreseen. If the participant refuses permission for the interview to be recorded, a thought protocol is produced afterwards. Photos of mobility maps may also need to be edited digitally before initiating the analysis. In the debriefing, the team of researchers also reflects on the interview situation (atmosphere, location, allocation of roles between researchers) (Kordel et al. 2018).

EXPERIENCES FROM THE FIELD

Experiences from two MATILDE case studies, Carinthia (AUT), Harmanli (BG), Huesca (ES) and Turin (ITA) reflected about modification of the mobility mapping tool:

- A modification of the mobility mapping by introducing a **diachronic perspective**: second-generation migrants were invited to recall significant places in their childhood and today. The joint review of past places, the placing and re-semanticizing of one's own places, seeing them confirmed by others, invited participants to reflect on belonging and shared spatial heritage. The mapping also allowed to highlight single subjects' territorial and spatial experiences creating a collective perspective on possible space enhancement actions (case study Turin, ITA).
- As other qualitative tools, the sampling of participants depends on local mediators (case study Huesca, ES).
- A modified version of the mobility mapping, termed '**intercultural mapping**' was applied to capture the spatial location of migrant-owned enterprises (e.g. shops and restaurants) in an inner city by means of a walking-along exercises with the participant and a subsequent development of a map of all the enterprises. Besides the identification of enterprises, participants also provided background information about owners (case study Carinthia, AUT).

3.6 SOCIAL MAPPING

Author: David Spenger



Definition and application: The process of social mapping “seeks to explore the spatial dimensions of people’s realities” (Kumar 2007: 54). The scale is not fixed by researchers, since local people are given autonomy in what is of most relevance and importance for them (Kumar 2007, Ferguson and Heinz 2014). Social mapping is best carried out at the beginning of the appraisal and can provide useful information for further steps in the research process (Callens 2002). Besides, the application of social maps is suitable for participatory situational analyses, needs surveys, planning and evaluation processes, as well as for research questions which aim to find out how people perceive their life worlds, their relationships within the community, their access to resources and their agency (Kumar 2002 cit. after Gangarova and von Unger 2020). Moreover, through the process of drawing and talking, social maps allow participants to move from description to depiction to theorising the reasons for the ways in which they have represented features on the map (Emmel 2008). Therefore, the map is not an end in itself, rather than a tool for gathering information and can work as an ‘ice-breaking’ element (Kumar 2007). Social maps can also be applied for identifying diachronic dynamics in a given social setting, e.g.

they can be used to grasp changes in social networks and of different positions within them. For doing this, different social maps have to be conducted at different points of time.

Advantages: Social mapping has the advantage of visualizing the variety of individual information about a specific place. Within the process of gathering information, a more and more complete image of the place is created. It is also possible for participants to join later, discuss and add representations to the map. The composition of the group does not play a decisive role, given that there are enough different perspectives represented (cf. Schönhuth and Jerrentrup 2019). Besides accessing life-worlds, the method can also promote and support communities, e.g. it can contribute to processes of community-building (von Unger 2014). Finally, social maps can be combined with other methods for further in-depth analysis, such as wealth ranking or Venn diagram (Callens 2002, Kumar 2007).

Disadvantages: Hand-drawn maps allow for great flexibility, but are not always directly comprehensible for external users. In the choice of methods, it is necessary to clarify methodological priorities: The mapping process itself, in which the subjective views are expressed by the participants in a simplified manner, or the map as a result, which is also immediately comprehensible for outsiders and clearly communicates certain content (cf. von Unger 2014). Kumar (2007) points out that the process of social mapping also needs a certain level of confidence.

Standardisation: Carrying out social maps should at least include two researchers/facilitators, one moderator and one note-taker.

Level of moderator involvement: Within the process of mapping, the moderator should keep an eye on the level of participation of different groups. Especially marginalised communities should not be excluded, but should be motivated to contribute in the process (cf. Kumar 2007). During the whole process, researchers should take care that once somebody has given an oral or drawn statement, other participants are invited to

comment on this, agree, disagree or add something. In order to ensure that participants understand this tool, a simple example can be generated at the very beginning (Sontheimer et al. 1999)

Number of social maps: The number of social maps to be conducted depends on the research purpose, i.e. the topic, and the size of the community.

Number of participants: Participatory maps can be implemented with both individuals and groups. Regarding the latter, the interviewer must facilitate negotiation among the group members about how the map is drawn. One effective way of achieving this is to ask the group to nominate a person to draw the map at the outset (cf. Emmel 2008). As Kumar (2007) points out, social mapping can be applied very effectively in small and medium sized localities having comprising of 80 to 100 households.

Length of social maps: The required time for social mapping depends on a variety of factors, including the size of locality, the number and interest of participants, the level of details sought and the type of materials used (Kumar 2007). In previous projects, well prepared social maps last from one and a half to two hours (Sontheimer et al. 1999).

PREPARATION: SAMPLING, BRIEFING

Sampling: According to Kumar (2007), for contextualization and further interpretation, it may be helpful to characterize the people participating in the process of social mapping, e.g. with regard to their socio-economic background, gender, occupation etc. (ibid.). At the same time, ethical issues have to be considered. Poverty and disease, for instance, may go hand in hand with social stigma and the description as 'poor' can cause hesitation in participation (Callens 2002). Alternatively, the exercise can be done with few key

informants who know the village well. In this case, the selection of key informants should be reflected, as they most likely belong to the better-off group (ibid).

Locality: The selection of the location for social mapping can be seen as crucial for its purpose. The required number of participants should be present at the selected site and it should be a central place that is accessible for all members of the society. Moreover, it should be comfortable and potential external influences, e.g. weather or noise, should be considered (cf. Kumar 2007).

Ex ante-exercises: It is recommendable for the moderator to inform the participant(s) about the mapping process beforehand. The explanation should include the study objective, the research question and a brief description of what is expected of them. The moderator should allow the participant(s) to take their time for explanation and drawing and inform them about the time required (cf. Emmel 2008).

CONDUCTING SOCIAL MAPPING

Taking into account the aforementioned preconditions, the process of social mapping follows several steps pointed out by Kumar (2002: 54; 56) and Ferguson and Heinz (2014). It is important to mention that the implementation and documentation of social mapping are closely intertwined (see also chapter 3.4).

- First, a suitable location and a time span should be selected for the exercise and appropriate materials will be identified. It should be ensured, that all members of the society have access both spatially and timely. With regard to these issues, local people should be consulted, and later on invited to the event.

- Second, the purpose of the tool should be explained to the participants. For the beginning, participants should be asked to draw the main physical features of their locality.
- Third, the moderator keeps watching and listening to the discussion and drawing process alertly. Meanwhile, the note-taker takes detailed notes.
- Fourth, the moderator lets the discussion flow and shows that (s)he has faith in the participants. They should have the total control and initiative.
- Fifth, the moderator should keep an eye on the participation of every section of the society and take proactive steps to involve those being left out.
- Sixth, the moderator should keep in mind, that her/his role is limited to the facilitation of the process. Therefore, she or he should only intervene when its necessary, e.g. when the interaction between the participants is tensed.
- Seventh, clarifications or additions from the moderator's side, should be put forward smoothly, e.g. by asking "what about...?", "what does this symbol represent?".
- Eighth, when the mapping has finished, for orientation, some participants should be asked to identify their houses on the map.
- Ninth, according to the specific purpose of the exercise, participants should be requested to provide details about their household.

Social Network Analysis:

As social mapping addresses the material and social aspects of social life (Kumar 2002), it can be easily combined with social network analysis. A social network can be understood "as a specific set of linkages among a defined set of persons, with the additional property that the characteristics of these linkages as a whole may be used to

interpret the social behaviour of the persons involved” (Mitchell 1969: 2). Networks consist of *nodes* (e.g. persons, collective actors) and their relations to each other (*ties*). e.g. friendship, conflict (Gamper 2020). The main aim of a network analysis is to describe actors and their relationships and to make causal statements about the effects of relationships on actors – or vice versa (ibid.). Network analysis can be divided into two main groups, (1) egocentric networks and (2) and overall network analysis. The former describes the interpersonal networking of a certain actor (ibid.). This subject-centered network consists of the relationships of the interviewed actor (ego) to other actors in its network, the so-called alteri, to which it relates to (ibid.). It is also possible to ask ego about relations between the alteri (ibid.). The overall network analysis considers nodes and their ties within predefined limits, while its focus is on the internal networking of the actors in a certain area (ibid.). Thus, the main research focus is on a certain number of actors and their very specific relationships (Jansen 2006). As in social mapping, since many local actors are involved, the overall network analysis can be a valuable supplement.

Moreover, social network analysis can be either quantitative or qualitative – or a combination of both. In standardized network research, statistical descriptions of structure or causal relationships are of interest (Gamper 2020), including the use of parameters such as network size, centrality, heterogeneity and density (Scott 1988; Wasserman and Faust 1994; Jansen 2006). Qualitative network analysis investigates the ‘stories’ behind interpersonal relations and seeks to understand mechanisms and contexts (Gamper 2020). Thus, for deconstructing the development of networks or its dynamic change, the stories of people and the possibilities for action in the respective context must be understood (White 2008; Schweizer 1996).

For network analysis, a narrative stimulus represents a starting point, while the respondent draws her/his individual network on a blank sheet of paper or reconstruct it using a software program (e.g. VennMaker) afterwards. The subjective ascription of meaning is done through the interviewed person (cf. Gamper 2020).

DOCUMENTATION, DEBRIEFING

According to Kumar (2002: 69), “[t]he map is not an end in itself”. Rather, it is a means to grasp the material and social aspects of the local life (ibid.). Therefore, the process of conducting the map is highly meaningful and should be documented via continuous note-taking.

Details which are indicated with symbols in the map should be recorded and explained in the legend. Cards of different colors can also be used for collecting the information about the households. Different colors can represent different categories of households, e.g. based on socio-economic status (cf. Kumar 2002: 68).

Besides the documentation steps during the mapping process, the result have to be saved, too, e.g. by means of taking a picture or copying the map. For data analysis, it is useful to compile the information gathered about the households in a tabular form (ibid.).

EXPERIENCES FROM THE FIELD

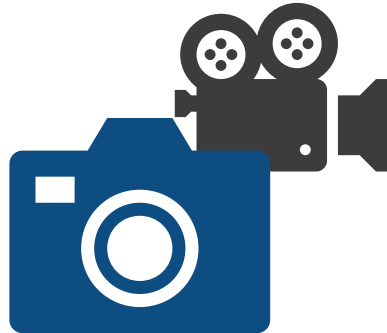
Social mapping was implemented in the MATILDE case studies, Vorarlberg (AUT), Carinthia (AUT), Harmanli (BG), North Karelia (FIN) and Turin (IT) while the experiences report various details:

- Instead of letting participants draw everything on their own, the researchers, beforehand, prepared **icons with different symbols**, i.e. pictures and logos, representing activities and places in the municipality as well as different kinds of relationships, e.g. volunteers, family, friends or colleagues. In addition, blank cards were used to add new activities and persons not yet illustrated by icons. The visualization proofed to be helpful to ask specific and concrete questions, especially in the case of restricted language skills (case study Vorarlberg, AUT).

- **Social mapping and mobility mapping was combined** and, in most cases, conducted immediately after the **narrative interviews** in a relaxed atmosphere. Thanks to the already existing deeper communication during the interviews, the respondents readily shared details about the social contacts that are most important to them. The tool also enabled the participants to particularly reflect on their social contacts within the local community (case study Harmanli, BG).

3.7 PARTICIPATORY PHOTO/VIDEO TALK

Author: Stefan Kordel



Definition and application: Using visual material, e.g. photos or videos, for empirical research developed from anthropological documentaries and sociological record keeping to “inserting a photograph into a research interview” (Harper 2002: 13). The subjective interpretation of visual artefacts is key to visual methods and pictures are commonly addressed as representations, “showing not what was but how things were seen” (Rose 2008: 152). A collective interpretation and negotiation processes about meanings of photos or videos may finally draw on a participatory process.

Visual methods, i.e. photo or video talks, can be designed for various purposes, target groups and with a varying degree of participation. The following table provides an overview about four key tools, evolving from different sub-disciplines of social sciences. Despite most of the tools were initially designed in terms of photographs, videos can easily be included, too, if necessary.

Photo-elicitation is a combination of photography and interview, which has its roots in ethnology and sociology (Harper 2002). The photo itself is taken by the interviewer and is subsequently discussed jointly with the participants. If the aim is to depict collective representations, the tool can also be applied among small groups.

Auto-driving, deriving from psychology, aims at taking photos of individuals in situations of everyday life over a certain period of time. Photos are taken by the researcher, too, while a diachronic perspective is envisaged in order to identify changes in behaviour.

When applying ***photo-novella*** (photo-voice), the participant is involved in taking photos or producing videos. She or he is documenting her:his life-world, also over a certain period of time. The roots of this method can be found in ethnology.

Reflexive photography makes use of participant-generated visual data. With its implementation, reflexivity is achieved twice: when the photo is taken and when the content of the photo is put into context during the interview. Referring back to self-generated photography enables the researcher to trace the discursive negotiation of meanings (Kordel 2015).

Advantages: Visual methods provide the opportunity to grasp meanings of individuals and groups of places and its social contexts. Inserting photos or videos appeals to all senses and taking photos can be a stimulus for further discussions. Respondent-generated photographs, in particular, enable the researcher to acknowledge individuals' perspectives when "viewers attribute new meaning through their own cultural experience" (Edwards 1992, 8). During the interviews, photography becomes a communicative bridge between the interviewer and the participant "that can lead into unfamiliar, unforeseen environments and subjects" (Collier and Collier 1986, 99; Kordel 2016).

Disadvantages: Visual methods need time, personnel and material resources as well as a proper preparation. Challenges encompass the different levels of experience of participants with technical preconditions as well as logistical issues.

Standardisation: On the one hand, a certain degree of openness, for instance, which objects participants have to take photos of, is crucial for visual methods. On the other hand, in order to achieve comparability, one can include guiding questions and stimuli,

such as: places that are important in everyday life, that you do not like, situations that are characteristic for XYZ.

Level of moderator involvement: The researcher has, firstly, the role to introduce the method, including the suggestion of advices and the explanation of technical peculiarities if photos/videos are taken by the participant. Secondly, she or he has to be accessible for further questions and problems during the phase of taking photos/videos. Thirdly, the researcher has to organise and conduct the interview. During this phase, it has to be ensured that photos or videos to be discussed during the interview are available at this moment (either printed or displayed on a technical device). Despite the subsequent interview itself is mostly directed by the participant, interview guidelines help to control the progress and serve as an orientation.

Number of participatory photo/video sessions: To decide the number of interviews to be carried out including photo or video material for a project, the same rule as for qualitative interviews, i.e. the rule of saturation, is applied.

Number of participants: The number of participants to be included in one combined photo-taking-interview session should not exceed one, while interviewing couples or members of one household can help to unravel common or different perceptions as well as shared experiences (Åkerlund 2013).

Length of qualitative interviews: Visually stimulated interviews differ at length, depending, e.g. on the number of photos or videos to be included, the narrative competence of participants as well as their time availability. To reduce the length of interviews, the number of photos / videos can be reduced and a pre-selection can be made jointly with the participants.

PREPARATION: SAMPLING, BRIEFING

Sampling: see qualitative interviews (chapter 3.1)

Locality: A decision for the locality has to be made twice: firstly, it is important to decide in which locality or its surroundings, photos/videos should be taken. The immediate living environments and the most important places in everyday life, i.e. the place of living are most common. This has to be communicated, since participants tend to show photographs taken during excursions or trips to (tourist) places to showcase their lifestyle (Kordel 2016). Secondly, the place, where photos are discussed jointly, has to be selected carefully, e.g. a proper illumination is important, when showing digital photos or videos, while a large table is, for instance, necessary, when using printed photographs. Like for qualitative interviews, researchers should consider preferences of the interviewee/participant.

Ex ante-exercises: As suggested before, clear introductions of the method have to be communicated during an introductory meeting. Small cards with instructions, e.g. what kind of objects or situations the photo has to be taken of, how many photos, where?, may be helpful. Furthermore, one has to point out that aesthetical issues are not given priority. Reassuring the participant that it does not matter whether or not one is a good photographer is another important issue that is highly interlinked to power relations (Kordel 2015). Moreover, it has to be decided, what devices will be used for taking photos (own cameras, cameras provided by researchers, cameras of mobile devices, disposable cameras) and whether photos are printed for the subsequent discussion. Regarding the latter aspect, printed photos entail the opportunity of haptic treatment during the interview, which may stimulate the discussion.

CONDUCTING PHOTO/VIDEO TALKS

Concerning the interview itself, one could begin with asking for the participants' experiences of taking photos. This allows for an affective approach and can give the interviewer a first insight into the evaluation of the implementation of the method itself, e.g. (dis)satisfaction, and eventually of the places visited. Regarding the incorporation of visual materials in an interview, Collier (2003: 245) emphasizes the benefits of inserting a photograph at the very beginning of an interview. "Apart from that, photographs can also be used as interventions within an interview, discussing problems from several points of view and finally as fixtures for one's daily life. Despite Collier's (2001) beliefs about the importance of including photographs in sequence, it is assumed that this runs the risk of destroying the associative character of the interview" (Kordel 2015). Thus, interviewees should be invited to talk about the pictures whenever they wish. As Kordel (2015) showed, some do and refer actively to the photos during the interview. "This was especially the case when they wanted to illustrate or give in-depth insights into narratives that had already been mentioned" (ibid.). In cases when photos were not used, the interviewer has to intervene and encourage to think of a concrete situation in relation to the content of a picture in order to stimulate further narratives. Like in qualitative interviews, interviewers have to tolerate silence for a certain period of time, while reception signals may be helpful to maintain a pleasant atmosphere. During the implementation of a visually stimulated interview, the researcher always has to be aware that results are achieved through a combination of picture and text. Commonly, visual methods are audio-recorded and fully transcribed afterwards, while the insertion of visual materials is marked in the transcript. For a proper reflection on audio interviews, see the section on qualitative interviews.

DOCUMENTATION, DEBRIEFING

Photos / videos taken by participants are documented and stored in a protected folder, while a clear assignment to interview persons is necessary. Moreover, photos are numbered consecutively, which allows the insertion to the analysis.

Like in qualitative interviews, visually stimulated interviews are documented by (1) note-taking by the interviewer and (2) audio-recordings. When taking notes, the interviewer has to be aware of affective notions stimulated by photos as well as the moments, when participants refer to the pictures.

A debriefing after the interview includes a critical reflection on the contents as well as the interview situation and can be supported by a template provided by WP leaders.

EXPERIENCES FROM THE FIELD

- Participatory photo / video talks were implemented in the MATILDE case study Carinthia (AUT), Harmanli (BG), North Karelia (FIN) and Scotland (UK).
- The tool was modified as photographic workshops were organised, where a locally recruited photographer trained migrants to take good pictures with their smartphones and provide skills to employ in the job market. A certain theme was set for workshops, i.e. 'My place', while a double sense of the Western Isles as 'my place' and 'my place' in the Western Isles' social and economic structure was addressed (case study Scotland, UK).
- The main challenge, however, was the difficulty in recruiting participants, which was related to the significant amount of time needed, i.e. four to five hours. In order to bypass this issue, we accompanied formal workshops with more informal meetings – in person and from remote – at which we explained the goal of photovoice, briefly introduced elements of photography techniques and asked migrants to contribute by sending pictures (case study Scotland, UK)

- The photos were not taken and selected by the interviewers, but by the participants and explained by them, in order to discuss underlying topic in the group. This made it possible to get insights about local discourses and narratives with a high level of participation (case study Carinthia, AUT).

4. DATA ANALYSIS

Author: Stefan Kordel

In the following, we present various modes for analysis for both qualitative (chapter 4.1) and quantitative data (chapter 4.2), while introducing existing and well-established tools for impact assessment afterwards.

When analysing empirical data according to a participatory research style, the aim is to actively involve various stakeholders and thus enable co-creation of knowledge, and consequently co-ownership of results and actions. The reflection about the stage of involvement has to be a crucial part of the process, while the ladder of participation, based on Arnstein (1969) and further developed by Straßburger and Rieger (2019, participation pyramid) serves as a useful tool (see also the stage model applied for MATILDE, D2.8 Stakeholder Involvement Plan, Gruber et al. 2020). Participatory analysis often can be achieved since data collection and interpretation coincide in many of the tools described above. In order to increase the level of participation, further measures can be implemented, e.g.:

- (1) setting up a research council for the whole research process, including a huge variety of (locally relevant) stakeholders, who accompanies the activities;
- (2) involve stakeholders in the immediate analysis, e.g. invite actors to revise code plans;
- (3) introduce validation loops for results, e.g. by means of workshops or in written form, depending on the target group;
- (4) communicate results to various groups in adequate language and thus stimulate further discussion in communities;

4.1 QUALITATIVE DATA

CODING

Author: David Spenger

Definition and application: Coding has become one of the most popular modes of analysis for qualitative data, while coding methods have become differentiated most recently and thus, a remarkable uncertainty about what is actually meant by coding exist (Bryman and Burgess 1994). Against this background, a broad understanding of coding is recommended as a starting point: “Coding is the process of analyzing qualitative text data by taking them apart to see what they yield before putting the data back together in a meaningful way” (Cresswell 2015, p. 156). To Cresswell’s account, we can add that coding is also used to analyse visual material or text-image material, like participatory maps (see section about visual analysis). Following this, codes are generalized forms of representation of interviewees’ statements that enable the identification of patterns in the data (Reuber and Pfaffenbach 2005).

Advantages: Coding helps to structure qualitative data and is a way of understanding, interpreting, conceptualizing and reformulating them. Therefore, coding provides the baseline of analysis and may be applicable to a variety of qualitative data. Depending on the type of coding, it can be used for large text corpora, but also for medium and small-sized text segments.

Disadvantages: As coding requires an intensive examination of the data material, it is time-consuming. Also, a detailed analysis of data may lead into an increasing confusion, which makes it difficult to disentangle the essentials of the material. Thus, a careful selection between various modes of coding has to be made according to the research questions.

Standardization and conduction of analysis: The coding procedure is closely linked to the research design and purpose and is oriented towards the research guiding assumptions as

well as the concrete research questions. Both can be seen as an aid to interpretation and support the general purpose of intersubjective verifiability (Mattissek et al. 2013). The selection of an appropriate coding system is crucial for the subsequent analysis and can be formed in three different manners: The coding process can be (1) deductive, i.e. strongly rule-governed and strictly aligned with the conceptual framework, (2) inductive, i.e. obtained directly from the text in an exploratory way, or (3) a combination of both.

- *Deductive* methods, such as qualitative content analysis (Mayring 2010, Mayring and Fenzl 2014), are characterized by the definition of categories a priori and the application to the text. Throughout the analysis, these categories are not changed and only those text passages are included in the analysis that can be classified into the corresponding categories. In this way, large text corpora can be processed in particular. Although this procedure is highly intersubjectively verifiable due to the high degree of structuring, the strict focus on the categories also entails a loss of complexity (Ramsenthaler 2013).
- *Inductive*, open coding procedures, which rather interpretively expand text passages and aim at the generation of new theoretical concepts (Reuber and Pfaffenbach 2005), are distinguished from closed codings. For this purpose, the paradigm of grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss 1967) has been established in the social sciences since the 1960s, which proposes a circular and comparative approach to coding and 'discovers' categories in an explorative manner and subsequently applies them to the text again. The category system is generated accordingly through engagement with the text. Codes have to be constantly compared with each other, described via memos and should be directly conceptualized (Chametzky 2016). This is especially necessary to reduce profusion of data and to get along with complexity (ibid.). Since this procedure is time-consuming, it is particularly suitable for smaller text corpora. The high degree of flexibility brings with it the disadvantage that it is difficult to define an end to the process and the researcher can quickly get lost in the details (Flick 1995).

- In research practice, *combinations* of the two evaluation techniques presented are well established. In this way, codebooks can be aligned from the theoretical-conceptual framework and subsequently compared and expanded with the text material. Thus, the code formation can be made more flexible and adapted to the interest of the findings. In order to ensure intercoder-reliability, a consensus about the coding process can be reached and recorded at the beginning, e.g. by the detailed description of codes.

Software support: When evaluating qualitative data, various software programs have become established in the past that simplify both coding and further analysis. For example, several codes can be assigned to a text passage and combined with each other, which allows the use of a lean codebook. To do so, analysis tools like 'query' can be used to help to 'filter' the text according to the code-combinations which are of interest. Additionally, the whole text can be subdivided into different sub-corpora, to facilitate a more focused analysis. Also, after application of codes, quantitative techniques like code-cooccurrences or code density can be used to support the interpretation of data. Moreover, software may be helpful to visualize relations between the different codes, e.g. in the form of a net diagram. In the case of a Grounded Theory-inspired approach to coding, there is also the possibility of coding in vivo. However, previous studies have pointed out the lack of finesse of software programs and advised against this type of encoding (Chametzky 2016).

THEMATIC ANALYSIS

Author: Tobias Weidinger

Definition and application: Thematic analysis is a method “for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (Braun and Clarke 2006: 79). A theme represents some level of ‘*patterned*’ response or meaning within the data set” (ibid. 82) that needs to be identified by the researcher in relation to the research question – either inductively or deductively, and either on a semantic or explicit level or at a latent or interpretative level (see below). The analysis can be used as a(n)

- essentialist or realist method, “which reports experiences, meanings and the reality of participants” (ibid. 81),
- constructionist method, “which examines the ways in which events, realities, meanings, experiences and so on are the effects of a range of discourses operating within society” (ibid. 81), or
- contextualist method, “which acknowledge the ways individuals make meaning of their experience, and in turn, the ways the broader social context impinges on those meaning, while retaining focus on the material and other limits of ‘reality’” (ibid. 81).

Advantages: The method is relatively easy to learn and, thus, especially interesting for less experienced researchers (Kiger and Varpio 2020). Thematic analysis offers flexibility in terms of determining themes and prevalence as well as the opportunity to treat a big set of data for analysis (Braun and Clarke 2006; Kiger and Varpio 2020). It can be used independently from the method of conduction and can also be applied for existing data. You can provide rich thematic descriptions of the entire data set or more detailed and nuanced accounts of particular themes or group of themes within the data, e.g. follow a semantic approach (Braun and Clarke 2006: 83).

Disadvantages: The focus of thematic analysis is on common or shared meanings, therefore it is less valuable for meanings or experiences of individuals or single data items

(Kiger and Varpio 2020). In addition, the flexibility mentioned as an advantage can also be a disadvantage. Differences between qualitative content analysis, (thematic) discourse analysis, grounded theory and thematic analysis are often unclear (for a comparison between qualitative content analysis and thematic analysis, see Vaismoradi and Snelgrove 2019). Accordingly, the theoretical and epistemological position of a thematic analysis needs to be made clear by the authors (Braun and Clarke 2006, Kiger and Varpio 2020).

Standardisation: Braun and Clarke (2006) differentiate the following approaches:

- Inductive or bottom-up (themes determined out of data = data driven, similar to grounded theory, research question evolving through the coding process) or deductive approach (preconceived themes based on theory or existing knowledge = analyst driven, given research question)
- Semantic-explicit (explicit content of data) or latent-interpretative approach (including ideas, assumptions, conceptualisations and ideologies underlying the data)

It is important to notice that the importance and centrality of themes is not reflected in their frequency of appearance within the data (Kiger and Varpio 2020).

Preparation and conduction of analysis:

Similar to other methods such as grounded theory or discourse analysis, the thematic analysis is divided into different phases, which are presented here following the suggestion of Braun and Clarke (2006: 87):

- **First phase: Getting familiar with data**

During the first phase, data such as journal entries, field notes or photographs and videos should be prepared for analysis, while interviews, focus groups or recorded observations need to be transcribed. Afterwards, the data are read and re-read and notes are being taken (Kiger and Varpio 2020).

- **Second phase: Generating initial codes**

In the second phase, interesting features of the data that are tied to more semantic or latent meanings are coded across the entire data – either manually or with assistance of a software – and data relevant to each code are gathered. Codes should not overlap and fit within a larger coding framework or manual that may either be inductive or deductive (Kiger and Varpio 2020).

- **Third phase: Searching for themes across data**

The third step includes narrowing down the number of codes and the grouping of codes into potential themes of broader significance. The identification of themes that provide significant links between data items and answer key aspects of research questions is an “active and interpretive process” (Kiger and Varpio 2020: 5) that happens by means of “analyzing, combining, comparing and even graphically mapping how codes relate to one another” (ibid.).

- **Fourth phase: Reviewing themes**

In the fourth phase, themes are revised in order to work in relation to the coded extracts and the entire data set. If necessary, themes are added, combined, split or discarded. To justify them, commonality and coherence of data within and distinction between themes is sought. Creating and refining a thematic map of the analysis, i.e. a map that shows how themes interrelate and how they represent the question of interest, may be helpful (Kiger and Varpio 2020).

- **Fifth phase: Defining and naming themes**

During the fifth phase, themes are defined and named in a clear, brief and adequately descriptive way. In addition, overlaps between themes and emergent sub-themes are identified (Kiger and Varpio 2020).

- **Sixth phase: Producing the report**

In the last phase, vivid, compelling data extracts that are able to illustrate key features of themes are chosen to be presented in the final report. Relating back to the research question and literature, the final analysis is written, whereby findings are described in a narrative way. Choices and assumptions underlying the analysis should be made transparent throughout the report. Therefore, it is recommended to take notes about the decision-making processes throughout all of the six phases.

DOCUMENTARY METHOD AND SEQUENCE ANALYSIS

Author: David Spenger

Definition and application: Sequence analysis is part of the documentary method, a procedure of data analysis borrowed from the sociology of knowledge according to Karl Mannheim and ethnomethodology (Bohnsack et al. 2013). The analytical procedures of the documentary method open up access not only to the reflexive but also to the action-guiding knowledge of the actors and thus to the practice of action (ibid.). The reconstruction of action practice aims at the habitualised and partly incorporated orientation knowledge underlying this practice, which structures this action relatively independently from the subjectively intended meaning (ibid.). Nevertheless, the empirical basis of actor knowledge is not abandoned. This distinguished the documentary method from objectivistic approaches which seek to unravel structures of action beyond the actor (ibid.). More precisely, the documentary method focuses not only on the explicit but also on the implicit knowledge of actors and asks about both 'what' and 'how' something is said or done. This makes it possible to tap into unspoken and, for example, milieu-specific tacit knowledge (ibid.). The documentary method has been adapted in various study areas, such as migration and intercultural research (e.g. Weiß and Mensah, 2011), social work (e.g. Jahr et al. 2016) or learning research (e.g. Nohl 2015). The sequence analysis is a central element of documentary method, as it builds the research practice of "the (guiding) difference between communicative or immanent meaning on the one hand and conjunctive or documentary meaning on the other" (Bohnsack and Nohl 2013: 325). Correspondingly, sequence analysis differentiates between formulating and reflecting interpretation of text segments.

Advantages: Documentary method and sequence analysis can be used for various data sources like group interviews, narrative interviews and participatory observation (Bohnsack et al. 2013). Further, it can be applied to triangulate different methods, to compare different scales or milieus and to produce new typologies. Sequence analysis does not remain at the superficial descriptive level of data analysis, but also produces new knowledge during the conduction of analysis.

Disadvantages: Sequence analysis can only be applied to text data and not to visual data. While the formulating interpretation, which addresses explicit knowledge, can be learnt relatively easy, can be conducted fast, with large text material and without the use of additional software, the reflecting interpretation is very time-consuming and may not be easy to apply for beginners. Also, the analysis of large text material may be exhaustive.

Conduction of analysis: Sequence analysis is divided into two parts; the formulating interpretation and the reflecting interpretation (cf. Bohnsack and Nohl 2013). First of all, the formulating interpretation seeks to unravel the thematic structure of the text material ('what'). Building on this, the reflecting interpretation focuses on 'how' the topic is dealt by the informants. In principle, sequence analysis is about dividing text material into sections of meaning and assigning headings to them. In the case of interview material, this can be done either directly in the transcript or in the transcript.

- In order to analyse the 'what', text material is divided into different segments and each segment is given a descriptive headline of what has been said.
- For better structuration, there are headlines of first order, which describe the topic at a general level of second order, which are then more concrete.
- Further, it is recommendable to highlight text segments which meaning differs from the neighbouring text sections. This can be done by comments, for instance.
- To avoid losing information, note-taking while going through the text can be helpful.
- To disentangle the 'how' of what has been said, sequence analysis has to be conducted in a reflective-comparative way. That means, as a second step of analysis, the researcher is looking for implicit regularities, which arise in the relation between expression and reaction.
- In order to do so, "the class of reactions is searched for which not only seem to make sense thematically, but which are also homologous or functionally equivalent to the empirically given reaction" (Bohnsack and Nohl 2013: 326). To achieve this, equivalent cases should also be contrasted with different cases.

VISUAL ANALYSIS

Author: Stefan Kordel

Definition and application: The analysis of visual data produced in the course of empirical methods sketched above draws on an assumption that is widely acknowledged in visual studies, i.e. that any visual data, such as a map, 'a picture or a photograph [have] no meaning in and of itself, it is the interpretation and explanation that is important' (Morrow 2001: 266). Thus, visual data are not an end product, but have to be analysed and made sense of, framing them verbally or visually (cf. Pauwels 2010). This can be achieved by different actors and at different stages of the research process, while the production and interpretation may coincide. The following table provides an overview about actors of visual data production and interpretation (cf Table 2).

Actor of production	Actor of interpretation	Paradigm / Method
Interviewer	Interviewer	Documentary paradigm
Interviewer	Participant	Constructivist paradigm, medium level of participation (<i>photo-elicitation</i>)
Participant	Participant	Constructivist paradigm, high level of participation (<i>reflexive photography</i>)

Table 2: Overview about actors of visual data production and interpretation

Especially visual data are often interpreted throughout the implementation of the method, i.e. the interview situation.

Advantages: Visual analysis, i.e., elaborations on the interaction of picture and text, helps to capture multiple perspectives on everyday lives, e.g. when identifying important places either in a map or by means of taking photographs. Visual data may stimulate narratives,

participants may reflect on variations of what is shown on the picture or enhance the image section. Moreover, it can unravel respondents' emotions and involvements.

Disadvantages: Visual analysis requires a complex examination and switching between different forms of data material and is thus time-consuming. Since technical competences might be a precondition, the participants' abilities have to be checked beforehand.

Standardisation: During a production process of visual data, e.g. mobility or social maps, a processual perspective can be taken and, capturing the chronology of drawing, allows researchers to identify the temporal sequence of participants' everyday practices. Taking photographs cannot be observed during the immediate action and the reflection about the process has to take place throughout the subsequent interviews or by means of a field diary. Recording a video of the drawing process may facilitate subsequent analysis, but also creates ethical concerns (Schnettler and Raab 2008). The analysis of the product can be processed in quantitative and qualitative ways. Foci may include the number and types of places and other objects on the map, and their size, position and distance from each other. Besides, qualities of artefacts can be analysed, e.g. by means of narratives (Lutz et al. 2003). In order to facilitate analysis, elements on the map need to be catalogued and audio files transcribed. Finally, a combination of the processual and product-oriented mode of analysis considers both the temporal-processual and spatial dimensions of a map (Weidinger et al. 2019, cf. Lutz et al. 2003). From a technical perspective, visual analysis can be combined with coding.

4.2 QUANTITATIVE TOOLS

Authors: Rahel M. Schomaker and Birgit Aigner-Walder

Definition and application: Quantitative research may be applied in Migration Impact Assessment (MIA) particularly whenever cross-entity and/or time-spanning analysis is needed. This analytical approach allows the researcher not only to carve out typical patterns of correlation of characteristics, but also to identify cause-consequence relations between different indicators. Nonetheless, it requires advanced econometric knowledge as well as high quality data to conduct such analyses. Thus, it is more suitable to be used by specialists, but not so much in the course of self-assessment.

In the existing literature, different quantitative tools are applied to analyse the impact of migrants (Aigner-Walder et al. 2021). As Third Country National (TCN) migration is a phenomenon very specific to the European Union, the lion share of the existing literature relies on data on general migration (or specific national or qualification groups). Nonetheless, as this nature of the data does not affect the models being applied, the models and techniques as applied in the existing literature can also be seen as suitable for assessing the impact of TCN migration.

Roughly, the quantitative literature can be separated in two groups, with the first group applying **theoretical models** only, while the second group being based on **econometric techniques** to empirically test for the outlined impact of migration on different indicators for economic growth and wellbeing, or specific indicators as e.g. unemployment rates.

Preparation and conduction of analysis: One factor of pivotal relevance in quantitative research is the data being used. Different types of models can be used for the analysis of the data, e.g. descriptive and interpretative statistical models of analysis, linear and non-linear regressions, as well as spatial econometric regressions. The choice of a suitable model not only depends on the specific research question, but is often limited by the data

available – many model types allow only for specific types of data, or have high requirements on how detailed data must be. Migration is often not well-covered by national and international statistical data bases, e.g. different groups of migrants are not differentiated between, or regional differentiation is not being made when it comes to the demographics of migration.

A general distinction can be made between models that apply panel data (different countries or regional entities, different years), cross-sectional data (different countries or regional entities for one period), or time line data (one country or regional entity for different years). Overall, there is no “best practice” for the selection of the analytical model, but it depends on the specific case and research focus.

For the construction of indicators for migration as the independent variable of interest, and different indicators for economic performance as the dependent variable, aggregated data as well as indices can be used. Some of the most common measures as used in the existing literature cover the economic, the fiscal and the socio-economic dimension of migration (Aigner-Walder et al. 2022).

As for the models applied, the most common ones are delineated as follows. All of them require the use of special software.

The basic approach would be the application of **Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)**, using one depending variable that is explained by one or more independent variables, with a linear or non-linear relation between the dependent and the independent variables, with **Ordinary Least Square (OLS)** being a special form. Nonetheless, due to the nature of the topics – migration often displays specific spatial effects – or also the nature of the data, a number of alternative approaches in dealing with spatial samples are discussed in the pertinent literature. At this point, it is important to note that the kind and type of model selected is pivotal for the quality of the outcomes.

Spatial regression models are typically models with a linear additive specification. In these models, the relationship of regional entities or areal units is specified exogenously using a

weight matrix that mimics the spatial structure and the spatial interaction pattern of the respective data set. While different sub-types and specifications can be used – depending on the quality and nature of the data available –, a general specification is the combination of a spatially autoregressive dependent variable among the set of explanatory variables and spatially autoregressive disturbances.

A **generalized moments estimation** approach can best be used for the type of spatial models that are generalized two-stage least squares (G2SLS). This can be valued as computationally simpler than maximum likelihood estimation, nonetheless, it is unlikely to be efficient relative to maximum likelihood.

Bayesian Methods allow for an approach that considers spatial heterogeneity and outliers that often arise in practice. In general, the application of Bayesian estimation methods to spatial regression models should result in estimates that are very close to those applying maximum likelihood methods. **Nonparametric Locally Linear Models (LWR)** or geographically weighted regressions (GWR) use subsamples of the available data that are distance-weighted jointly with ordinary least-squares to produce parameter estimates at various points in space.

The **Generalized Methods of Moments** is a method that constructs estimators relatively similar to maximum likelihood methods but using assumptions about specifics of the random variables instead of assumptions on the full distribution.

(Dynamic) computable general equilibrium models (CGE) constitute a specific class of economic models that use current economic data to estimate how an economy – measured in different indicators as the dependent variable – reacts to changes in the independent variables that can be policy, technology or other external factors. This kind of CGE models are also referred to as AGE (applied general equilibrium) models.

4.3 MIGRATION GOVERNANCE

IOM MIGRATION GOVERNANCE FRAMEWORK

Author: Tobias Weidinger

Definition and application: The Migration Governance Framework (MiGOF) was endorsed in 2015 by the IOM Member States and is the only internationally agreed definition of Sustainable Development Goal target 10.7 on implementing well managed migration policies. MiGOF is based on three principles and three objectives. The three principles are

- (1) the adherence to international standards and fulfilment of migrants' rights;
- (2) to formulate policy using evidence and 'whole-of-government-approach'; and
- (3) to engage with partners to address migration and related issues.

The three objectives, in addition, are

- (1) to advance the socioeconomic well-being of migrants and society;
- (2) to effectively address the mobility dimensions of crises; and
- (3) to ensure that migration takes place in a safe, orderly and dignified manner (IOM 2015).

Together with the UN Inquiry among Governments on Population and Development (UN DESA-PD), the IOM developed the methodology and measurements to operationalize the principles and objectives and provide a 'baseline assessment' (IOM 2019: xi) of current national migration governance structures. These considerations resulted in the publication of the so-called Migration Governance Indicators (MGI), which encompass more than 90 indicators grounded in the six dimensions of MiGOF (UN DESA and IOM 2017, IOM 2019).

Advantages: MGI is a "uniquely comprehensive tool (...) that can help countries establish a baseline and monitor progress towards the achievement of the SDGs (...)" (IOM 2019: 2). The database covers data from 49 countries and the 2015-2019 period.

Disadvantages: MGI does not focus on policy implementation and outcomes. Data also have limits in terms of comparability, e.g. due to different definitions of migrants (IOM 2019).

Standardisation: The Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU) conducted a desk review for each country, which is complemented by expert interviews. Together with the national governments, IOM reviewed the draft results matrix for each country and then publishes the results on the Global Migration Data Portal. To be able to compare MGI countries, IOM standardized data and conducted standardized data quality checks (IOM 2019).

Preparation and conduction of analysis:

Data for analysis can be accessed here:

<https://www.migrationdataportal.org/overviews/mgi#0>

MIPEX

Author: Tobias Weidinger

Definition and application: The Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) attempts to show how 56 countries, including all EU member states deal with their immigrants and how well immigrants are able to equally participate in society on the basis of 58 core indicators. The MIPEX is compiled on a regular basis and tracks the development of integration policies in Europe and beyond (Solano and Huddleston 2020). Its current fifth edition (MIPEX 2020) covers eight policy areas and the 2007-2019 period:

- Labour market mobility
- Family reunion
- Education
- Political participation
- Permanent residence
- Access to nationality
- Anti-discrimination
- Health

Through quantitative analyses, i.e. categorical principal component analysis, the researchers found three key dimensions that underlie all areas of country's integration policy (Solano and Huddleston 2020: 9):

- Basic rights (e.g. equal rights to work, training, health and non-discrimination),
- Equal opportunities (e.g. targeted support in education, health and political participation), and
- Secure future (e.g. family reunification, permanent residence and access to nationality).

Advantages: "MIPEX provides up-to-date, comprehensive research data and analysis on which to base policies, proposals for change and projects to achieve equality in their

country. The MIPEX aims to address this by providing a comprehensive tool which can be used to assess, compare and improve integration policy. The MIPEX includes 56 countries in order to provide a view of integration policies across a broad range of differing environments. The tool allows you to dig deep into the multiple factors that influence the integration of migrants into society and allows you to use the full MIPEX results to analyse and assess past and future changes in policy.” (Solano and Huddleston 2020: 5).

Disadvantages: Unfortunately, data and analysis is only available for the national level, which is related to the lack of data on lower levels (De Coninck et al. 2022). Recently, however, drawing on MIPEX and Eurostat data, researchers were able to investigate how integration outcomes of migrants differ throughout EU regions and showed how this is influenced by national-level-integration policies (De Coninck et al. 2022). They also highlighted that national policies do not completely fit to low-competitive and non-diverse mostly rural areas (ibid. 21).

Standardisation: Questionnaires, including the indicators for the years 2014-2019, are completed by national experts. The Migration Policy Group’s research team double-checks the answers based on publicly-available data and legal texts and conducts a final question-by-question consistency check (Solano and Huddleston 2020: 7). Afterwards, quantitative analyses including uni-, bi- and multivariate analyses were conducted.

Preparation and conduction of analysis:

Data for analysis can be accessed here: <https://www.mipex.eu/play/>

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ANNEX 1 - PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET AND CONSENT FORM

Dear participant,

[Name of partner acting as Data controller] is part of the research project MATILDE, coordinated by University of Eastern Finland based in Joensuu and Koopio, Finland.

MATILDE aims to assess the social and economic impacts of migration on local development and territorial cohesion, considering in particular European rural and mountain regions. The assessment is based on the hypothesis that foreign immigration is an important driver of social and economic development, affecting also the nexus between urban and rural/mountain areas.

We identified you as a key stakeholder who can provide valuable information and insights for the assessment of migration impacts in [INSERT COUNTRY/REGION/CITY]. In a [CHOOSE METHOD: structured/semi-structured interview/focus group] of approx. [INSERT DURATION], our researcher(s) [INSERT NAME(S)] would ask a set of questions and discuss themes that concern your experience on [SELECT RELEVANT TOPIC 1. social impact of migration; 2. economic impact of migration, 3. integration policies; 4. SPECIFY SUBFIELDS WHERE APPLICABLE/NECESSARY.]

MATILDE is part of the Open Research Data Pilot, which means that we are committed to make the data accessible and the research transparent. Hence, the project data that underpin scientific findings will be free to access, reuse, repurpose, and redistribute. This does, of course, exclude any personal data and data that may be withheld due to other confidentiality issues, as we will explain now. All personal data is subject to the applicable laws of your country and EU General Data Protection Regulation (Regulation No. 2016/679).

You will be able to decide about how your personal data and identifying information will be handled when you decide whether to give your consent to participate.

Personal data will be secured and protected against unauthorized processing, in order to protect you from any kind of disadvantage that may arise from cooperating with researchers. The security measures include **pseudonymization techniques**, meaning that identifying information will be replaced with a number code by the researcher, who will be the only one in the possession of that information.

MATILDE partners are aware of the potential occurrence of unintentional discovery of information during research activities involving human participants. This information may need to be communicated to the responsible national authorities, NGOs or other professional expert organizations in order to protect participants from harm.

Data Privacy Statement

In accordance with current data protection regulations, [Name of MATILDE partner acting as Data controller], hereby provides you (the Data Subject) with information about how your data is processed. All personal data is dealt with in compliance with EU Regulation No. 2016/679 (GDPR) and the national legislation.

Purpose and Legal Basis for the Data Processing

Any and all personal data that is in the possession of the Controller, or that may be requested by the Controller, is necessary for the following purposes:

- participation in this research study and for the scientific purposes of this project;
- improvement of the knowledge base for the assessment of the social and economic impacts of migration on local development and territorial cohesion in the “MATILDE” project;
- communication with the participants.

In addition, sensitive data/special categories of personal data within the meaning of Art. 9 GDPR may also be processed. Personal data and in particular special categories of personal data in accordance with Art. 9 GDPR will be processed with a high level of security. All protection measures set out in the data protection legislation and in the applicable legislation are implemented. In particular, your data will be processed in such a way that it can be identified only when necessary, protected and processed in accordance with the security measures provided. The legal basis for the processing of your personal data for the purposes indicated above is your consent to the processing of your personal data (art. 6, par. 1, lett. A).

Information on the Retention Period of Personal Data

Personal data will be stored no longer than for the time necessary to carry out the research project and no longer than seven years after the end of the project. At the end of this period, the data shall be deleted or made anonymous.

Voluntary Communication of Data

The provision of personal data is voluntary, but refusal could interfere with the correct performance of the purposes of the project, thus obstructing the assessment of the social and economic impacts of migration on local development and territorial cohesion in the "MATILDE" project.

Recipients of the Data Processed

The recipients of the data are the researchers of [Name of MATILDE partner acting as Data controller] in charge of data processing activities, authorized and instructed by means of a data processing agreement. No personal data may possibly also be communicated to other researchers that are part of the MATILDE project. The scientific results (e.g. publications of scientific papers) may be disseminated only in aggregated and pseudo-anonymized form only in such a manner that it is impossible to identify the individuals.

Transfer of Data

Your personal data will not be transferred to any country or international organization outside the European Union.

Presence of Automated Decision-Making Process

There are no automated decision-making processes that could produce an adverse legal effect on the data subject or have a similarly significant negative impact upon them.

Data Controller and Data Protection Officer (DPO)

Data Controller: [Name of MATILDE partner acting as Data controller]

Data Protection Officer: [Name of the DPO]

You can contact the DPO under the following e-mail address: [email of your DPO]

The Data Subject's Rights

At any time, the data subject has the right to request access to their personal data, and to correct or delete that data, or to limit its processing. In addition, the right to lodge a complaint with a supervisory authority. When the data processing is based on consent, the data subject has the right to withdraw that consent at any time. The data subject may also exercise all other rights pursuant to current data protection regulations (art. 15 et seq.

GDPR) by writing to the e-mail address: [email of DPO for MATILDE partner acting as Data controller]

In case of any further questions, concerns, comments, doubts or to withdraw, please contact:

TEAM LEADER: [Name], [Position], [Department], [Address], [Phone], [Email]

Consent Form for Research Participants

I have been informed about the purpose of the MATILDE research project, that aims to assess the impact of migration on local development in rural and mountain regions. I understand that the information obtained through this interview will be used and stored by [name of MATILDE partner acting as Data controller] in order to evaluating the social, economic and local level impact of migration in [SPECIFY REGION]. Based on this, I agree to the following (*Please tick the appropriate boxes*)

Privacy Consent to the processing of personal data including sensitive data according to art 9 GDPR

The Undersigned _____

DECLARES

to have read the Information about personal data handling and to be aware of this notice as drawn up pursuant to EU Reg. 2016/679 and national legislation and CONSENTS to the processing of his/her personal data, according to the information and in particular as specified in the tables below.

Signature

Place, Date

Use of the information I provide for this project only	Yes	No
I understand that my personal details will not be revealed to people other than the [INTERVIEWER/WORKSHOP FACILITATOR] and the local team leader.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I understand that my words may be quoted in pseudonymized in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I agree that my real name can be used for quotes in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have agreed that the researchers can contact me via email or telephone about the research (e.g. with research findings or points of clarification).	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Use of the information I provide beyond this project	Yes	No
I understand that the MATILDE project participates in the Open Research Data Pilot, which means that data can be archived and disseminated so that other researchers can reuse this information for research and learning purposes. This does not apply to personal and sensitive data, which in any case will not be released. Is this fine for you?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I agree for the non-anonymized audio recording of my [INTERVIEW/FOCUS GROUP] to be archived and disseminated for reuse.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I agree for the pseudonymized transcript of my [INTERVIEW/WORKSHOP] to be archived and disseminated for reuse.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I agree for any photographs or videos of me taken during interview to be archived and disseminated for reuse.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Name of Researcher

Signature

Place and Date

Name of Participant

Signature

Place and Date

Annex 2 – Data description tables

Work package 3				
Deliverable Description	Data Source	Method of Processing	Resulting Formats and Data Size	Quality Check
D3.1 10 country-based policy briefings on migration-related social policies	Multilevel policy content analysis 50 in-depth interviews on social policies (5 interviews per country with national/regional stakeholder in countries: AT, BG, DE, FI, IT, NO, SE, SP, UK, TR)	Literature review Qualitative analysis	Document with charts, tables, and maps	UEF
D3.2 10 statistical briefings on social impacts	Secondary data collection at national level for 10 countries (AT, BG, DE, FI, IT, NO, SE, SP, UK, TR)	Quantitative analysis	Document with charts, tables, and maps	
D3.3 10 country reports on social impacts	Qualitative primary data collected through 100 in-depth interviews - national and regional - policy makers, expert groups and stakeholders, public service providers, caregivers and practitioners in the field of migration (10 interviews per country in AT, BG, DE, FI, IT, NO, SE, SP, UK, TR) per country in AT, BG, DE, FI, IT, NO, SE, SP, UK, TR)	Qualitative (content / ethnographic) analysis	Document with charts, tables, and maps	
D3.4 Comparative report and social innovation practices	Qualitative primary data collected through 30 focus group at regional level (3 per country in AT, BG, DE, FI, IT, NO, SE, SP, UK, TR)	Qualitative analysis (content analysis)	Report	

Work Package 4				
DELIVERABLE DESCRIPTION	DATA SOURCE	METHOD OF PROCESSING	RESULTING FORMATS AND DATA SIZE	QUALITY CHECK
D4.1 10 economic policy briefings on policies and governance in the economic realm	Multilevel policy content analysis Qualitative primary data collected through 50 in-depth interviews on economic regulations (5 interviews per country with national/regional stakeholder in countries: AT, BG, DE, FI, IT, NO, SE, SP, UK, TR)	Qualitative analysis	Documents with charts and tables	UNIPR
D4.2 10 statistical briefings on economic impacts	Secondary data collection on economic impact of migration at national/regional level for 10 countries (AT, BG, DE, FI, IT, NO, SE, SP, UK, TR)	Quantitative analysis	Documents with charts and tables	
D4.3 10 country reports on economic impacts	Qualitative primary data collected through 100 in-depth interviews at national and regional level with entrepreneurs/employers, HR managers, workers, trade unions and TCNs (10 interviews per country in AT, BG, DE, FI, IT, NO, SE, SP, UK, TR)	Qualitative analysis	Documents with charts and tables	
D4.4 Comparative report on TCNs economic impact and entrepreneurship	30 focus group at regional level (3 per country in AT, BG, DE, FI, IT, NO, SE, SP, UK, TR)			

Work Package 5				
DELIVERABLE DESCRIPTION	DATA SOURCE	METHOD OF PROCESSING	RESULTING FORMATS AND DATA SIZE	QUALITY CHECK
D.5.2 13 quantitative briefing on the case studies	Quantitative data collected via municipal/provincial statistical offices			UEF
D.5.3 13 reports on action-research results in each case study D.5.4 Visual outputs from case studies D.5.5 Comparative report on TCNs in rural and mountain areas D.5.6 1 virtual catalogue of innovative integration practices	12 interviews and 4 focus groups per case study Participatory methods and techniques, following an Action research approach, s such as: Open Space Technology, participatory videos, world café, workshops, etc.			

Work Package 6				
DELIVERABLE DESCRIPTION	DATA SOURCE	METHOD OF PROCESSING	RESULTING FORMATS, DATA SIZE	QUALITY CHECK
D.6.1 Factsheet on the politics of integration and inclusion	Secondary data collected through literature and political strategies/ programs review on integration and inclusion policies (local-regional/national and European level)	Literature review; multilevel policy content analysis	Report	CUAS
D.6.2 Report on existing integration-political goals, strategies on a multi-level			Report	
D.6.3 At least 4 policy briefs for improved governance and policy arrangements (local/regional/national/EU)			Report	
D.6.4 Multi-dimensional policy recommendation matrix			Report	
D.6.5 Report of the thematic round tables with relevant policy makers and stakeholders	Qualitative data collected through 12 thematic roundtables (one for each research PP) to discuss draft policy recommendations	Elaboration of tools, validation (practice check) with selected stakeholders of the target groups	Report/policy briefs	
D.6.6 MATILDE toolbox for self-assessment for policy makers	Toolbox elaborated in WP2; literature research			

D.6.9 Collection of European best-practices on integration of TCNs	Literature review, repository of the European Commission, interviews conducted in WP3, 4, 5 and 6	Content analysis		
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ANNEX 3 – EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Author: Stefan Kordel

For fine-tuning the MATILDE toolbox and its transformation into a set of tools for self-evaluation for practitioners (WP6), a proper evaluation by researchers involved in the implementation of the toolbox was foreseen.

All phases, from preparation to implementation to reflection, were evaluated separately for each method applied in the local case study (WP5). Subsequent to the bi-/trilateral dialogues and modifications made by CSWG due to the groups involved, the peculiarities of the localities and the thematic orientation, each CSWG provided a brief description of the tool applied and why modifications were necessary (approx. 200-300 words). Besides, the partners briefly responded to the following questions (see table).

- 1) Was the tool applied suitable for the envisaged target groups? Why? Why not? Which obstacles in accessing and motivating specific groups to participate did you experience? Were there individuals who could not be included during the implementation (e.g. vulnerable groups, the elderly, youth, women)? What reasons can you report?
- 2) Was the tool appropriate for the specific local setting? Please reflect on the scale, which is accessible through the tool! Was there any local constellation, which resulted in challenges in the preparation or implementation phase?
- 3) Was the tool able to cover the envisaged topics? Is the tool more suitable for addressing general transformations or specific topics? Why? Were there any local discourses or narratives that could not be captured by the tool?
- 4) Finally, please provide realistic feedback on the implementation of the tool and its degree of participation and take into account the allocated resources.