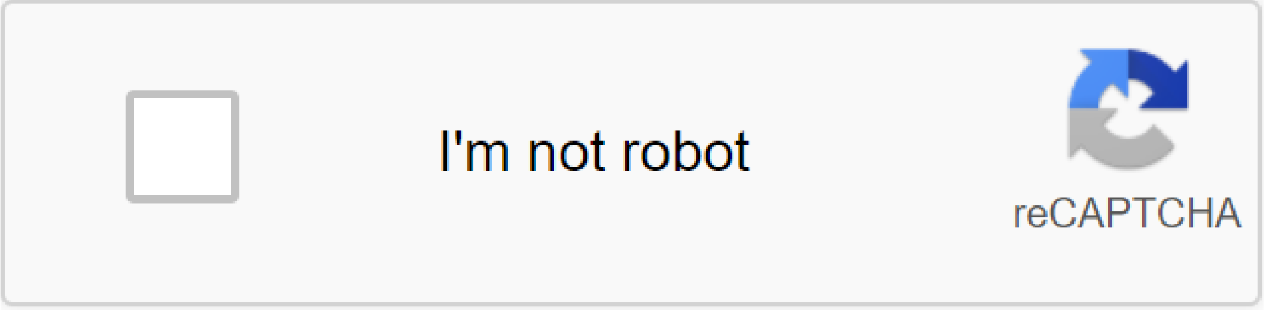
Group discussion on social media pdf



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Volume 9, Issue 1 Copyright Line for this article was amended on January 22, 2018 after the original online edition of Focus Group is often used as a qualitative approach to gain a deep understanding of social issues. This method is aimed at obtaining data from a specially selected group of persons, rather than from a statistically representative sample of a larger population. Although the use of this method in conservation studies has been extensive, there is no critical assessment of the use of this method. In addition, there are no readily available guidelines for conservation researchers. Here we reviewed the applications of the focus group discussion in biodiversity and conservation studies between 1996 and April 2017. Let's start with a brief explanation of the technique for users for the first time. We then discuss in detail the empirical application of this method in conservation based on a structured literature review (using Scopus). As a result of the audit, 170 articles were published, most of which (67%, n No. 114) were published between 2011 and 2017. Rarely has the method been used as an independent method. The number of participants in the focus group (where it was reported) ranged from 3 to 21 participants at a median of 10 participants. In one study, seven (medium) focus group meetings were held. Discussion sessions of the focus group lasted 90 (medium) minutes. The review included four main themes: understanding people's views on conservation (32%), followed by an assessment of conservation and livelihood practices (21%), and the study of the problems and impacts of resource management activities (19%). most of the studies were conducted in Africa (n No. 76), followed by Asia (n No. 44) and Europe (n No. 30). More than half of the studies (n No. 101) did not report the size of the sample or the size of the group (n No. 93), while 54 studies did not mention the number of focus group discussion sessions when presenting the results. about the reasons for choosing the method. We have introduced guidelines to improve accountability and the future application of the conservation method. The preservation of social science has come at an age (Bennett et al., 2017). From the ejection and on the sidelines of the discourse about conservation, the importance of understanding human perspectives is now the focus in conservation decisions (Bennett et al., 2017; Hadka, Khujala, Wolfslander, Waczyk, 2013; Palonemi et al., 2012). In the repertoire of tools that conservation biologists can use, focus discussion groups are a widely used method. Focus Group Discussion is a method by which a group of individuals to discuss a specific topic, whose purpose is to draw on the complex personal experience, beliefs, representations and relationships of participants through moderate interaction (Cornwall s Jewkes, 1995; Hayward, Simpson, Wood, 2004; Israel, Schultz, Parker, Becker, 1998; Kitzinger, 1994; Morgan, 1996). Focus group discussion is widely used in conservation studies as opposed to some other relatively lesser-known methods, such as The Nominal Group Technique (Huge and Mukherjee, in training) and methodology (Zabala and Mukherjee, 2017). The popularity of the method is closely related to the growth of participatory research, especially with active experimentation with focus groups in academic social sciences in the 1980s (Morgan, 2002). This method has become a quality approach to data collection and a strategy for overcoming research and local knowledge (Cornwall s Jewkes, 1995). Focus Group Discussion is perceived as a cost-effective and promising alternative in participatory research (Morgan, 1996), offering a platform for different paradigms or worldviews (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Orr, 1992). Sociologists and psychologists have been using this method since the 1940s (e.g. Merton and Kendall, 1946; Merton, Fiske and Kendall 1956). However, its popularity and application has grown across a wide range of disciplines, including education (Flores and Alonso, 1995), communications and media studies (Lunt and Livingston, 1996), sociology (Morgan, 1996), feminist research (Wilkinson, 1998, 1999), health research (Wilkinson, 1998) and marketing studies (Morgan, Kruger, King, 1998; Shibillo and Berger 1979). Focus group discussion is sometimes seen as synonymous with interviews, especially semi-structured one-to-one and group interviews (Parker and Tritter, 2006). The similarity between these methods is associated with a tendency to disclose people's perceptions and values (e.g. Hargreaves, 1967; Lacey, 1970; Mac an Ghaill, 1994; Sewell, 1997; Skeggs, 1997). Consequently, there are cases where authors confused and conflated these two distinctive methods (Parker and Tritter, 2006). However, the available data on the role of the researcher and the relationship with the participants point to a fundamental difference between the two methods (Smithson, 2000). Interviews include a one-to-one, qualitative and in-depth discussion where the researcher accepts the role of the researcher. This means that the researcher asks questions, controls the dynamics of the discussion or engages in a dialogue with a specific person at the same time. In contrast, during a focus group discussion, researchers assume the role of mediator or moderator. In this environment, the researcher facilitates or moderates a group discussion between the participants rather than between the researcher and the participants. Unlike the interview, thus, the researcher plays a peripheral rather than central-scenario role in the focus group discussion (Bloor, Frankland, Thomas, s Robson, 2001; Hohenthal, Ovid, Minoya, Pellicka, 2015; Johnson, 1996; Kitzinger, 1994). The link between people's perception and their socio-cultural position is crucial for decision-making regarding natural resources, as most people receive their ideas, mental structures and interpretations from their immediate surroundings and develop them from empirical knowledge (Berkes, 2004). Given the increasing participation of conservation research over the past few decades (Bennett et al., 2017), it is essential to think about the scope and powers of discussion of focus groups as a methodological tool. At present, relatively little or all of the critical discussion on the substance and disadvantages of the focus group discussion compared to other similar qualitative methods. It was therefore difficult to determine when and in what context a focus-group discussion would be most appropriate. There are no best practices in the conservation literature. In addition, there are no comprehensive reviews of the use of focus panel discussions in conservation, as we know. Here we assess the strength and weaknesses of the focus group discussion method based on a review of its conservation applications over the past two decades. First, we will briefly explain the procedure for this method, and then provide an overview of the various forms of focus group discussion. Based on a critical analysis of the relevant literature, we discuss the merits and potential pitfalls of this method. Finally, we provide guidelines for reporting future methods and proposals to address key psychological biases that may affect group interactions. Focus Group Discussion consists of four main stages, as shown in Figure 1. These include (1) research development, data collection (2), (3) analysis and (4) performance presentation (Morgan et al., 1998). The Process Process's focus group stepflow chart begins by defining the primary goal and identifying key research goals. Based on the objectives of the study, a list of issues (schedule or scenario) has been prepared as a guide for each focus group discussion session. This is followed by the search for ethical authorization. After that, the identification of participants is perhaps the most important step, as this method is largely based on group dynamics and synergistic relationships between participants for data generation (Green, Draper, s Dowler, 2003; Kitzinger, 1994; Thomas, Macmillan, McCall, Hale, and Bond, 1995). The composition of the group will depend on the main purpose of the study. According to Kruger and Casey (2000), self-disclosure Usually natural and comfortable. However, for some, it's this trust and effort. The willingness to participate fully in the group discussion plays an important role in the collection of useful data and can be more easily achieved within a homogeneous group (Krueger, 1994). Consequently, Kruger (1994) suggests that participants should have similarities, such as gender, age range, ethnicity and social background. However, homogeneity is disputed by some researchers, as unfamiliar participants can give honest and spontaneous views and can overcome pre-existing relationships and leadership models in the group (Thomas et al., 1995). In addition, available evidence suggests that mixed gender groups tend to improve the quality of discussions and their results (Freitas, Oliveira, Jenkins, s Popjoy, 1998). The recruiting follows the identification of the participant. Recruitment can be costly, difficult and still a source of contentious dispute (Krueger and Casey, 2000). While approaches to recruiting participants were challenged, the main consideration should be the impact on the discussion. Researchers can use a variety of techniques to recruit suitable participants, including questionnaires for recruitment and phone, or door-to-door agitation. In addition, participants can be recruited by providing incentives or through local networks and contacts (Krueger, 1994). However, the use of local contacts has been criticized for its reliance on the availability, readiness and availability of local contacts and the loss of control and guidance from the researcher in the recruitment process. This can lead to a convenient sample by selecting participants based on their availability (Krueger, 1994), which easily leads to voluntary bias (1960; 1963). Sampling is widely recommended because a focus group discussion depends on the ability and ability of participants to provide relevant information (Morgan, 1988). Another important consideration is the number of respondents to be invited for discussion. Although it is generally accepted that six to eight participants (Krueger and Casey, 2000) were sufficient, some studies reported only four and fifteen participants (e.g. Fern, 1982; Mendes de Almeida, 1980). One potential drawback in the focus group discussion was the lack of assurance that all recruits would be present at the discussion. To overcome this, Rabiee (2004) recommends that researchers re-recruit by 10-25%. Therefore, ten participants are considered large enough to get different perspectives and small enough not to become messy or fragmented (Krueger, 1994). With more than 12 members, the group becomes difficult to manage and can break up into two or even three small groups, each with its own independent discussions. Given the small number of panellists and the overall design as a one-off meeting, it is not possible to exhaustively exhaustively the topic was simply by discussing one group. Therefore, some authors recommended that there should be at least three to four group meetings on simple research topics (Burrows and Kendall, 1997). The principle of theoretical saturation, where focus group discussion sessions are held until a clear pattern emerges and subsequent groups produce no new information (Krueger, 1994), has been applied to studies covering larger areas of study, broader interest groups and complex topics. Some cases of group re-meetings for subsequent meetings have been reported, but this may be difficult due to changes in both people and circumstances (Bloor et al., 2001). The next step is to identify a convenient place to discuss. Researchers should take into account participants' comfort, access to the venue and the level of distraction (Smith, 1972). In addition, they should be in a normal and familiar environment with sufficient space for different activities as part of a focus group discussion such as sample study, activity ranking and exercise. There should also be enough seats that allow participants with a clear idea of each other and the facilitator (s) (Sampson, 1972). A group of qualified mediators and assistants (Burrows and Kendall, 1997; Kruger, 1994) is required to discuss the focus group. The facilitator plays a central role in the discussion not only by managing existing relationships, but also by creating a calm and comfortable environment for unfamiliar participants. Similarly, the role of assistant includes monitoring non-verbal interactions and the impact of group dynamics and documenting the overall content of the discussion, thus supplementing the data (Kitzinger, 1994, 1995). Nonverbal data is based on behavior and actions that were taken during the discussion in the group of respondents before focusing, during and after the focus group discussion. Nonverbal data provide thicker descriptions and interpretations compared to only verbal data (Fonteyn, Vettese, Lancaster, Bauer-Wu, 2008). Gorden (1980) presents four sources of non-verbal communication based on participants' behaviors reflected in body movements and postures (kinesics); The use of interpersonal space to communicate with relationships (proxims); temporary speech markers such as gaps, silences and oscillations (chronomics); and variations in volume, pitch and voice quality (paralinguistic). Key methods of data collection during the focus group discussion include audio and tape recording, notes and monitoring of participants (Stewart, Shamdasani, s Rook, 2007). However, each of these methods has different advantages and disadvantages, and researchers should consider context-related issues (Krueger 1998; Stuart and Shamdasani, 1990). Regardless of the number of focus group meetings, it is important to consider length of meetings. Participants are likely to suffer from fatigue when the debate is longer. The rule is about 1-2 hours, based on the complexity of the topic, under investigation, the number of questions and the number of participants. This may be different when the group consists of younger participants such as schoolchildren (Gibson, 2012; Heary and Hennessy, 2002). This is because children tend to have shorter attention spans and will start to lose focus and interest in the topic faster than adults. Focus group discussion usually provides both qualitative and observational data, where analysis can be demanding. According to Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007, 2008), qualitative analysis techniques that can be used to analyze focus group data included grounded theory analysis (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser, 1978, 1992; Glaser and Strauss, 1967, Strauss, 1987), content analysis (Morgan, 1988) and discourse analysis (Potter s Wether, 1987). Morgan (1988) recommends the use of content and ethnographic analytical techniques to analyze data from the focus group discussion, as this enables the researcher to obtain both qualitative and quantitative information through three coding elements, resulting in mixed analysis of the content (Morgan, 1988). Three codings refer to two steps related to the analysis of content that yields quantitative results, and one step, including ethnographic analysis, which gives qualitative results. The data is coding in two stages. The first step is initial coding, which involves creating multiple category codes without limiting the number of codes (Charmaz, 2006). At this stage, the researcher lists emerging ideas, charts relationships, and identifies keywords often used by respondents as indicators of important topics. The second phase involves targeted coding, where the researcher eliminates, combines, or subdivides the coding categories defined in the first phase. You should pay attention to the repetitive ideas and broader themes that connect the codes (Charmaz, 2006; Kruger, 1994; Richie and Spencer, 1994). This process can provide quantitative results to compare focus groups, group dynamics, individual participants or participants' statements (Carey s Smith, 1994; Morgan, 1995). Content analysis allows data to be systematically encoded by grouping information to detect patterns that cannot be detected simply by listening to records or reading transcripts (Robson, 1993; Yin, 1989). Ethnographic analysis, on the other hand, is strictly qualitative, relying primarily on direct quotations from the group discussion. Consequently, this process is not systematic and relies on the researcher's ability to label material on topics, discourses or citations while maintaining integrity and accounting Focus Group context. However, ethnographic analysis allows you to interpret in detail the everyday social processes of communication, conversation and actions taking place in a focus group, which can be useful in some cases (Krippendorff, 2012). After analysing all the data, the researcher needs to combine the results into an agreed report for distribution. Key audience decisions should be made to adapt the report to the needs of the target audience. The report can be presented in a narrative or in pointwise format. The report should provide information on participants, such as gender, age and level of education, as well as key quotes from participants, to highlight points. The findings should be passed on to the study participants as part of a process called member verification, respondent verification, or validation of participants to verify the results, thereby improving the validity of the report or study (Birt et al., 2016; Lincoln and Lip, 1985). Although the vetting of members gives the focus group discussion participants the opportunity to test the accuracy and resonance of their experiences (Doyle, 2007), the process has been criticized on the basis of epistemological and methodological problems outlined by Sandelovsky (1993), Mors (1994) and Angeen (2000). The literature identified five types of focus group discussion, and two more, with increased access and diversity of online platforms. A key feature of one focus group is an interactive discussion of the topic by meeting all participants and a group of facilitators as one group in one place. This is the most common and classic type of focus group discussion (Morgan, 1996). It is widely used by both researchers and practitioners in various disciplines (e.g. Lunt and Livingston, 1996; Morgan, 1996; Wilkinson, 1998). This format involves the use of two groups in which one group actively discusses the topic, while the other is watching the first group (Morgan, 1996; Morgan et al., 1998). Typically, this type of focus group is held behind glass to one side. The observation team and the moderator can observe and note the interaction and discussion of the first group without being noticed. Hearing what the other group thinks (or watching their interaction) often leads the second group to different conclusions than they would have been to (Morgan, 1988). Includes two moderators working together, each performing different roles within the same focus group (Krueger and Casey, 2000). The separation of roles ensures a smooth development of the session and ensures that all topics will be covered. These are two moderators who purposefully take sides on an issue or topic under investigation (Krueger and Casey, 2000). Proponents believe that the introduction of opposing views on the debate moderators are critical to achieving more in-depth disclosure of data and information (Kamberelis and Dimitriadis, 2005). In this type of focus group discussion, researchers recruit some of the participants to take on the temporary role of moderators (Kamberelis and Dimitriadis, 2005). It is believed that one of the participants in the discussion influences the dynamics of the group, influencing the responses of participants, thereby increasing the chances of different and more honest answers. Researchers tend to face a situation where there is a small potential pool of participants and difficult to achieve, but the design of the study requires that this topic be discussed in a group. Under these conditions, researchers can convene only a small group of two to five participants (Kamberelis and Dimitriadis, 2005). Such groups are usually composed of persons with a high level of knowledge (Hague, 2002). Online focus groups are not a different type of focus group discussion per se, but are the result of the introduction of the Internet as an adaptation of traditional methods. It is used in an online environment using conference calls, chat rooms or other online tools (Kamberelis and Dimitriadis, 2005). Online focus groups boast an aura of dynamism, modernity and competitiveness that goes beyond the classic challenges of face-to-face focus group discussion (Edmunds, 1999). However, these discussion platforms are only available to participants who have access to the Internet and are subject to technical problems such as poor or loss of connectivity and inability to capture nonverbal data (Dubrovsky, Kiesler, s Sethna, 1991). Our main goal was to understand how focus group discussion has been used as a methodological tool in conservation over the past 20 years. Using a step-by-step, structured approach, we reviewed literature on the use of this method in research on biodiversity, ecology and conservation. We used the Focus Group Discussion and conserv combination, OR ecology, OR biodivers, where I designate a wild card to find alternative word endings, in a search query in the Scopus database ( ), from 1996 to 2016 (access to April 20, 2016). A follow-up search using the term Focus Group with other terms was launched on April 21, 2017 in the same database. The search returned 438 peer-reviewed articles, excluding reviews. We screened titles and abstracts to identify only those that are relevant to conservation, biodiversity and ecology. Studies that focus on soil conservation or water resources and are not directly related to biodiversity conservation have been rejected. As a result, 196 peer-reviewed papers were published. We have received all relevant documents and reviewed the full text to check if they used focus group discussion as a method to respond to Question. All studies in which this method was simply mentioned in the introduction or conclusion section have been excluded. We have developed a protocol (Appendix S1, Supporting Information) to extract data from the final research list. We conducted iterations of coding to create the key themes of conservation and biodiversity covered in the studies described by Charmaz (2006). First, we looked at all the issues and objectives under study to identify the main causes of the study and the resource under study (e.g., to examine the factors responsible for deforestation) and compiled a list that included the next phase of the analysis. We looked at the list to identify theme attributes (such as understanding perspectives) and attributes descriptions (such as causes of deforestation). Finally, we used the concept of display, or visual display, illustrating the relationship between categories and between categories (Miles and Huberman, 1994) to combine the attributes of the theme into the main themes without losing individuality, trivializing some concepts in relation to others, or losing details (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Our final coding categories included understanding people's views on conservation, assessing conservation and livelihood practices, examining the challenges and implications of resource management activities, and documenting the value of indigenous knowledge systems. We identified 170 papers (now referenced studies as figures corresponding to annex S2) that are relevant to biodiversity conservation and used focus group discussion as a method, either as an independent method or in combination with other methods between 1996 and 2016. Studies reported that the focus group discussion had created a forum for the discovery of the unexpected, as it allowed for negotiations and evaluation of research problems and conclusions between different stakeholders, including non-sedentary households. It also helped to capture empirical differences in people with similar backgrounds, thus creating new perspectives. In addition, focus groups often address issues of interest to participants rather than researchers. However, one study found that the discussion was biased in that all participants could not actively participate in the discussions because of the intimidation or influence of dominant or aggressive participants (179). Focus group discussions were held in 65 countries from six continents (Figure 2). Most of the studies were conducted in Africa (n No. 76, covering 19 countries), followed by Asia (n No. 44, covering 17 countries), Europe (n No. 30 covering 17 countries), North and South America (n No. 18, covering 10 countries) and the Oceania region (n 2, covering 2 countries). Most studies (67%, n No. 114) were published between 2016 (Figure 3). A map showing the countries in which the focus group discussion was applied. Research Research were global in their scope were excluded. In the case of several countries covered in the study, all countries observed a change in the number of published environmental and environmental studies using focus group discussions between 1996 and 2015, the reported sample size of participants in each study ranged from 6 to 240 with an average of 52 participants (Figure 4). These studies conducted an average of 7 focus panel discussion sessions, and there were no iterative focus groups in any study. The number of participants in the focus group ranged from 2 to 21 with an average of 10 participants. More than half of the studies (n No. 101) did not report the size of the sample, while 55% (n No. 93) did not report the size of the group, and 32% (n No. 54) did not mention the number of focus group discussion sessions when presenting the results (Figure 4). Variable focus group discussions and participant stratification. A'e boxes show the reported data for each particular variable, where the average number of participants (a, b), group (c) and number of minutes (d) is a bold number. Box e depicts the average male-female ratio per Focus Group discussion session, ranging from 60 to 240 minutes with a median of 90 minutes per session (Figure 4). However, the majority (84%, No. 143) did not report the duration. Few studies of 15% (n No. 25) stratified participants by gender with an average ratio of 55:45 for men and women, respectively (Figure 4), while 14 studies stratified participants by age. The studies reviewed used two types of approaches to focus group discussion. Most studies used a face-to-face approach (n No. 168), while one study used an online approach and another used a combination of a face-to-face and online approach. There was no justification for the focus group discussion in one form or another. However, the face-to-face approach seems to provide an opportunity for a detailed examination of participants' points of view and justification for their views. In addition, most studies have been conducted in rural communities in developing countries with limited Internet access infrastructure. Most studies (n No. 144) used focus group discussions along with other methods such as interviews (n No. 117), surveys (n No. 82), experiments of choice (n No. 6) and Delphi technique (n No. 1). In only 26 studies, this method was used as an independent method. Some studies offered incentives to potential team members (e.g., 209) while others relied on local contacts, such as community leaders or key gatekeepers, to stimulate recruitment (e.g. 61; 116). Out of the review came out main themes (app S3). The most common theme related to understanding people's views on conservation (32%, n No. 54), followed by the assessment of conservation and livelihood practices (21%, (21%, examining the problems and implications of resource management activities (19%, n No. 33) and documenting the value of indigenous knowledge systems (16%, n No. 28). Conservation, conservation and research, participation in environmental programmes and user profiling (12%, n No. 20) were also addressed. A contextual study of these topics is below. In some studies, there was a overlap between the themes. Environmental solutions are based on evidence (both scientific and empirical). The focus group discussion was used to examine the implications of conservation management activities. These include the use of fire in pasture management, natural enterprises, joint forest management systems, REDD and payment for ecosystem services (108; 71; 30; 50; 46). Discussion in the focus group contributed to the study of socio-cultural impacts and gender restrictions and roles in conservation (54; 66; 85; 24; 4; 1). It has been useful in studying the effects of climate change and adapting to climate change (96). The impact of policy changes on general pool resources, agriculture and rural development and participatory land-use planning (200; 199; 58; 25) were also examined. In the process of data collection, focus group discussion was based on people's experience and perception to obtain anecdotal data. Understanding people's perceptions is central to establishing how and why people respond to conservation issues in a certain way. Up to 23% of the studies sought to understand the prospects. The focus group discussion was mainly used to explore the understanding, interpretation and legitimization of biodiversity management initiatives and support levels for initiatives such as deer management, coastal resource management, national parks discussion and park relations (242; 184; 177; 86; 29). They provided information on their views on the impacts of climate change and the environment, deforestation and land degradation, as well as on natural-based production systems such as oil sands production, ecotourism and forestry (238; 187; 164; 97; 40; 29). Focus group discussions were also used to understand the construction, concepts and interpretation of nature. The studies examined the use of metaphors and mental structures to achieve environmental goals and understanding biodiversity issues by different groups (222; 211; 178; 57). In addition, the focus group presented information on differences in natural structures by age and location, for example between young and elderly people living in rural and urban areas (240). Indigenous knowledge systems are a system of knowledge developed by the community compared to conventional scientific (Ajibade, 2003). Focus Group Discussion Was Used to Gain Indigenous Knowledge on a number of issues. These include the cultural, medicinal and nutritional use of various wild plants, medicinal plants, insects and birds (166; 148; 118; 119; 72; 73; 67; 61; 92; 34). It has also been used to study the contribution of indigenous knowledge to agriculture and adaptation to climate change, such as rice cultivation (Oryza glaberrima) in Ghana, dairy farming in Ethiopia and the collection and sale of herbs in Nigeria (193; 171; 136). Focus groups have played an important role in the convergence of traditional knowledge and traditional scientific knowledge, particularly in the management and conservation of fisheries (26). Focus group discussions were used to assess the effectiveness of biodiversity monitoring systems to improve natural resource management (158) and biodiversity conservation strategies to improve the quality of forest and marine ecosystems (179; 33; 43; 9). In addition, ecosystem services and bearish services were evaluated for trade-offs and local preferences (95; 81), the quality of natural resources such as water and forests (81; 48), and the characteristics and mapping of ecosystem services (93; 32). In addition, focus group discussions were used to assess various livelihood activities, such as hunting, agriculture, natural resource extraction and consumption (234; 208; 113). In addition to the main thematic areas mentioned above, focus group discussions have been periodically used in different contexts. These include environmental conflicts (116; 103) and the use of tools such as geographic information systems, agro-environmental measures, immersive theatre visualization and scenario planning in decision-making (101; 114; 90; 20). In addition, focus groups were used to assess people's participation in environmental community organizations, forest conservation and protected areas (230; 192; 27; 10). Others include the development of an adaptive sustainable and livelihood framework for farmers (89), the environmental value of the medicinal plant trade (91), the juxtaposition of commercially viable butterflies from the forestry and agroforestry interface (70) and the profiling of legal and illegal users of natural resources around key conservation areas (19). Our comprehensive review has shown that focus group discussion has been widely used in conservation research over the past two decades. The versatility and ease of use of this method indicate that it is used in different contexts and in combination with other methods. However, this method is also subject to negligent or misuse, potential manipulation of participants' data and exploitation of participants, when researchers tend to believe that group consent is individual consent and Barbour, 1999). Therefore, researchers need to clearly understand where it is appropriate or not to deploy the technique. Recruitment of participants and is a key stage in the focus group discussion. However, we noted that most of the documents reviewed did not include sampling and recruitment procedures. The inability of half of the studies to report group size can have far-reaching implications for evaluating the validity of the results. Most of the studies reviewed did not stratify or specify whether they had stratified their participants. For the few who did, they considered gender only as the main factor (e.g. 169). While the studies claimed that the participants were community members, decision makers and stakeholders, it was not clear how the groups were identified, vetted and recruited, as well as the relationship between sampling and representativeness (e.g. 89). This lack of accountability, according to Andrew and Jonathan (2006) and Luna, Brewer, Januchowski-Hartley, Adams, and Blackman (2016), is a key flaw in the ability of focus group techniques to create powerful findings that show something about social processes rather than just reporting discussion of individual circumstances. A large number of studies have been conducted in Africa and Asia. Natural resources are central to the livelihoods of rural populations on both these continents and the norm, and norms and customs form everyday forms of resource use (Bisong, 2001). Throughout the review, we have noted that villagers have been consulted on human-wildlife conflict, protected areas management, widespread forest protection and exploitation of natural resources. Local communities are inextricably linked to their cultural resources and social perceptions (Austin, Smart, Yearley, Irvine, s White, 2010). Therefore, the need to evaluate such perceptions, find common ground and resolve the conflict is of paramount importance for conservation decisions (Redpath et al., 2004). In addition, an increasing focus on indigenous knowledge of resources means that residents are likely to be key to ensuring the continued management and relevance of environmental research (Austin et al., 2010). Discussion of the focus group was widely attractive as a research tool, as evidenced by this review. While the use of focus panel discussion as a research method has been dominant in other disciplines such as sociology and psychology, its use has recently grown in the preservation of social science research (Bennett et al., 2017; Khadka et al., 2013; Palo meath, et al., 2012). During this review, we noted that conservation researchers did not adequately report methodological choices from planning to data analysis. This is a cause for concern because it creates a false that the focus group discussion method is not a strict method of data collection. The most compelling reason to use focus group discussion is the need to create a discussion or discussion on the topic of research that requires collective views and values that for these views (including their experiences and beliefs) (e.g., Asmamo, Mohammed, Lulsege, 2011; Buis, Fisher, Rink, Young, 2010; Harisha and Padmavati, 2013; Mfune, 2013; Vibek, 2011). In addition, researchers can use focus group discussion to study a topic, obtain information or stories for use in later stages of the study, such as storytelling testing (Sander, Stolz, Hamm, 2013) and questionnaire development (Kelboro stellmacher, 2015). Other studies have used focus group discussion to refine and expand findings, such as motivations for different resource usage regimes (Harrison, Baker, Twinamatsiko, and Milner-Gulland, 2015; Manwa and Manwa, 2014), qualify or challenge data collected through other methods, such as ranking results through interviews (Harrison et al., 2015; Sander, et al., 2013) and to provide feedback from study participants (Morgan et al., 1998). However, the use of a focus group discussion method is not recommended when there is a risk of raising the expectations of participants who cannot be met or where strategic group biases are expected (Harrison et al., 2015). Since focus group discussion depends on participants' dynamics, it is necessary to avoid cases where participants are concerned about each other or where social stigma may arise due to disclosure (Harrison et al., 2015). In such situations, participants are not free to discuss their feelings and opinions or hesitate to participate in a topic of interest to the researcher. Focus group discussion provides depth and understanding, but cannot produce useful numerical results, so should not be used where statistics are required (Bloor et al., 2001; Morgan et al., 1998). According to Krueger (1994) and Morgan et al. (1998), discussion of the focus group as a qualitative method of research is relatively easier to conduct, as all target participants and researcher are easily accessible in one place at the same time. Geographical proximity is an important factor for resource-constrained researchers in developing countries. This method has been popular with researchers working on strict deadlines, and requires a quick and resource-intensive way to gather information about complex relationships (199). In under-resourced settings, the focus group discussion method minimizes space travel and uses a large amount of data for a limited period of time compared to the equivalent number of interviews. However, this installation may also be a disadvantage, as the team is not conducted in a natural atmosphere or where the researcher is not close to the study site. In most of the studies reviewed, participants met in one place and were pre-prepared to discuss the topic, rather than meeting with them at normal locations or It's This. can lead to the perception of participants' expectations and biases, including strategic group biases (e.g. 19). The value of focus group discussions can be seen in the study of communities with high mobility and, consequently, difficulties in sampling and organizing meetings in specific locations. This is usually the case with non-moving households, especially in grazing areas (e.g. 200). In cases involving such communities or research subjects, researchers are confronted with uncertain and unpredictable patterns of movement and therefore participant participation. The study of such communities requires additional training and resources that may not be available to research students. It is therefore important to think critically about the nature and profession of the research subjects long before we come up with the opportunity to use the focus group discussion. One of the key requirements for a successful focus group discussion is a qualified and well-trained team coordinator and team members. We noted that none of the studies mentioned the degree of involvement or involvement of intermediaries. This is a cause for concern, as promotion is central to objective data collection. Our experience of recent fieldwork highlights the difficulties associated with having an incomplete data collection team. For example, only one or two study members can ask questions, record discussion, and nonverbal data. We therefore encourage future users to pay sufficient attention to the recruitment of an experienced group of facilitators in planning the use of this method and to include additional costs in the research project (see guidance on the skills of the facilitator). Our review shows that researchers often intended to explore topics of interest to them and worked with participants to study, present, negotiate and evaluate research problems and conclusions (e.g. CD4). Although this is a normal structure of a research project, especially those based on the a priori hypothesis, the value of discussion of the focus group for such studies is diminishing. In most cases, the range of topics that participants feel comfortable discussing may not be what the researcher intends to explore. In addition, some topics may be more difficult to discuss among some categories of participants than others (e.g. 18). Our experience with this method shows that limiting participants to the topic of interest of researchers limits creativity and encourages conformity and strategic biases. The study's objectives may also determine the extent to which a researcher can allow participants to address issues that are perceived to be particularly relevant to them rather than those chosen by the researcher (e.g. 211). Discussion is a flexible method and adapts at any stage of the study. Compared to more traditional methods such as interviews and surveys, discussion focus groups provides an opportunity to explore issues that are not well studied or where there are few preliminary studies on the topic (e.g. 239). This is because the focus group discussion is based on group dynamics to explore issues in context, depth and detail, freely, without imposing a conceptual framework compared to structured individual interviews (e.g. CD31; 240; CD5; Our experience in the field shows that this dynamic and the process of sharing and comparing understanding and opinion means that a focus group discussion can provide more information than the equivalent number of individual interviews. Researchers can benefit enormously from the group context because it provides an insight into social relationships, and the information obtained reflects the social and overlapping nature of knowledge better than summing up individual narratives based on interviews and surveys. However, focus group members are sometimes reluctant to engage in sensitive topics in discussions compared to individual interviews or surveys (18). Researchers should be aware of this limitation when planning and developing group discussion issues. In such circumstances, focus group discussion can be used in alongside other methods in the context of a mixed-use approach. Triangulating results with two or more different methods, in addition can provide an opportunity to draw conclusions from such a focus group. Provide a clear justification for selecting a focus group discussion: the researcher should be able to provide an adequate justification for choosing the focus group discussion method as best suited to answer their questions about the phenomenon (Berry and Kincheloe, 2004, p. 4). A clear rationale should give readers confidence that the selection of data sources, analysis and interpretation are reliable and valid and that the quality of research is not compromised (Wilson, 2009, p. 81). Focusing on facilitators' skills: Focus group discussion relies on facilitators or moderators to guide the discussion group (Berg, 1989; Morgan, 1996). According to Morgan et al. (1998) and Litosseliti (2004), the facilitator must have a set of skills and techniques to provide a comprehensive solution to the problems that are being discussed. Here is a proposed set of skills: the ability to build relationships by creating a warm, supportive and comfortable environment to promote open and honest dialogue between different groups and individuals. b Have good and active listening skills to help interact with the respondent by paraphrasing or summing up your responses and using gestures to encourage conversation. c Have good observational skills, pay attention to the body language or behavior of participants and recognize group dynamics. d Have good conversations, skills and knowledge on the subject discussions, including some basic information on the subject, to help in probing different responses for a more in-depth discussion, but should demonstrate some degree of naivety to encourage participants' responses. flexibility to adapt to the flow of discussion, remain open to changes in the discussion manual, adapt to the requests of participants during the group and adjust physical behavior and activity throughout the room. f The ability to remain impartial while participating while maintaining verbal and nonverbal objectivity. g Should have a sense of humor to keep the discussion relaxed, encourage information sharing and maintain human connection. Methods and results of the report based on Figure 1: The Review showed that one of the main gaps in most studies is inadequate reporting or inadequate reporting on key attributes of the method. We therefore recommend that future studies explicitly mention methodological solutions based on the guidelines presented in the flow chart (Figure 1). Beware of biases that affect group discussions: Unlike interviews or methodology that are managed individually, focus group discussion is a group method. It is subject to the biases that are commonly found in any set-up group. These include the effect of domination (the dominant individual form of discussion), the halo effect (perceived group member status influences discussion), group thinking (group members tend to think the same way to maintain group cohesion) among a number of others (Mukherjee et al., 2015). The facilitator (and/or assistant) should be closely monitored to detect and eliminate such biases during the data collection phase. Provide a clear path between data, coding, and subsequent data analysis: The survey found that 144 of the 170 studies used focus group discussion along with other methods in the same study. In most of these studies, it was extremely difficult to determine which component of the results and conclusions was derived only from the focus group discussion. Providing this information can allow the reader to clearly make a connection between the research question asked and the subsequent analysis. Focus group discussion can be used as part of a set of methods in multidisciplinary research design, as a primary research method in its own right, or as a form of action-based action research to empower participants and promote social change (Wilkinson, 1998, 1999). Our review showed that a range of issues, ranging from community participation in natural resource management and mitigation of human-wildlife conflicts and indigenous environmental knowledge systems. The available evidence indicates a rapid increase in the use of focus group discussion in biodiversity studies. Biodiversity. in such biodiversity-rich developing countries as Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania and Nepal, growth rates are higher. While focus group discussion can be a cost-effective and quick approach to data collection, they require proper planning and organization (Burgess, 1984; Goss and Leinbach, 1996; Kitzinger, 1995; Mackintosh, 1993; Powell, Single, Lloyd, 1996). The current review may be useful for scientists and practitioners seeking to apply focus group discussion in their research and conservation practices. Tom Finch thanked for his comments on the project. The N.T.O. was funded by the Cambridge Overseas Trusts, the Wildlife Conservation Society, the Wildlife Conservation Network and the Vide Foundation. NM was funded by a grant from NERC (NE/R006946/1), the Wiener Anspach Foundation and the Scriven Post Doctoral Fellowship. C.V. was supported by the Australian Research Council of the Centre of Excellence in Environmental Solutions (CE11001000104) and future scholarship programs (FT100100413) and funded by the Australian Government. N.M. developed a protocol and held a literary screening. T.O.N. and C.J.D. conducted a review. T.O.N., K.V. and N.M. interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript. All authors read and edited the manuscript. The manuscript does not contain primary data. Information about the studies reviewed can be found in applications. Ajibade, L.T. (2003). Methodology for collecting and assessing farmers' knowledge of indigenous environment in developing countries. Indilinga African Journal of Indigenous Knowledge Systems, 2, 99- 105. Andrew,., Jonathan, T. (2006). Focus Group Method and Methodology: Current Practice and Recent Debates. International Journal of Research and Method in Education, 29, 23-37. M. J. 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