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Citation: Clarke, Charlotte, Wilkinson, Heather, Watson, Julie, Wilcockson, Jane, Kinnaird, Lindsey and Williamson, Toby (2018) A Seat Around the Table: Participatory Data Analysis with People Living With Dementia. *Qualitative Health Research*, 28 (9). pp. 1421-1433. ISSN 1049-7323

Published by: SAGE

URL: <https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732318774768> <<https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732318774768>>

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A Seat Around the Table: Participatory Data Analysis with People Living With Dementia

Abstract

The involvement of ‘people with experience’ in research has developed considerably in the last decade. However, involvement as co-analysts at the point of data analysis and synthesis has received very little attention – in particular, there is very little work that involves people living with dementia as co-analysts. In this qualitative secondary data analysis project, we (1) analysed data through two theoretical lenses: Douglas’ cultural theory of risk and Tronto’s Ethic of Care, and (2) analysed data in workshops with people living with dementia. The design involved cycles of presenting, interpreting, representing and reinterpreting the data and findings between multiple stakeholders. We explore ways of involving people with experience as co-analysts and explore the role of reflexivity, multiple voicing, literary styling and performance in participatory data analysis.

Key Words Dementia, Co-analysis, Secondary Data Analysis, Participatory Research, Ethic of Care, Risk Theory

A Seat Around the Table: Participatory Data Analysis with People Living With Dementia

Background

Participatory research

Participatory research seeks to re-present otherwise silent and silenced voices to a range of public, policy and practitioner audiences and creates a shift from people being the object of research to a research partner (Abma et al 2009). It is seen as a way of democratizing the research process

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2
3 (Salmon 2007). However, these laudable aspirations present a challenge to conventional social
4
5 science research paradigms - challenges that unsettle the authority of the researcher and the
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7 authority of research. Bergold and Thomas (2012) describe participatory research as ‘a very
8
9 demanding process that evolves when two spheres of action—science and practice—meet,
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11 interact, and develop an understanding for each other’. It is an orientation to research (rather than
12
13 a specific set of research processes) that, argue Reason and Bradbury (2008), denote research as
14
15 participatory.
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19 We argue that, firstly, participatory methodologies challenge us to question whether the validity (or
20
21 confirmability) of research is a property of the teller or the receiver. Secondly, for researchers, it
22
23 demands that we suspend any search for a singular knowledge which is owned by ourselves, and
24
25 instead focus attention on: reflexivity – the juxtaposition of self and subject matter; multiple
26
27 voicing – the rejection of single, integrating conclusions; literary styling – the replacement of
28
29 traditional realist discourse in which language is the medium of communication (Sims-Schouten et
30
31 al 2007); and performance – expanding communities in dialogue and avoiding claims of a dominant
32
33 knowledge. These are issues that we explore in this article through the example of a project to
34
35 undertake secondary data analysis of a qualitative dataset in partnership with people living with
36
37 dementia (those diagnosed with dementia and their family care partners). Secondary data analysis
38
39 is beginning to be recognised as an opportunity to maximise the value of data, especially for
40
41 difficult to access groups, such as people with dementia (Yardley et al 2014).
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47 ***The involvement of people living with dementia in research***

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49 The last two decades have witnessed a major shift towards involving people with dementia in
50
51 research, where previously their views were discredited because of their cognitive impairment
52
53 (Wilkinson 2002, McKillop & Wilkinson 2004). This has extended to including people with dementia
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3 in research, not only as research subjects but as co-researchers (Frankham 2009, Tanner 2012,
4
5 Gove et al 2017). As well as being a way for people with dementia to embrace a positive dementia
6
7 identity, utilising their diagnosis in constructive ways and challenging negative social stereotypes
8
9 (Tanner 2012), it can enhance the relevance of research and its impact on the day to day lives of
10
11 people with dementia. Specifically, this may involve working with academics as equal partners,
12
13 from identifying the questions that need to be asked, collecting data, analysing data, writing
14
15 reports and knowledge exchange (Swarbrick et al 2016) and producing advice involving people with
16
17 dementia in research (Dementia Engagement and Empowerment Project, DEEP, 2013; Scottish
18
19 Dementia Working Group, SDWG, Research Sub-group 2014).

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23
24 People with dementia are experts in their own lives: they are ‘agents’ of knowledge in that they
25
26 have knowledge that comes from personal experience and are using a different form of knowledge
27
28 than that which is used by professionals or is derived from academic theory (Cottrell 2008). Gillard
29
30 et al (2012) describe co-research as a marriage of expertise by experience and expertise by
31
32 profession, and suggested that the presence of different voices in their research team which
33
34 included mental health service users:
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38
39 *‘did not oblige us to choose between alternative perspectives as more or less valid than each other,*
40
41 *or that we should understand them as separate, irreconcilable accounts. Rather, we found that*
42
43 *those different voices provided our research team with an opportunity to begin bridging the*
44
45 *apparent dichotomy of what was conventionally known and what was “radically” known. Our*
46
47 *university researchers lost their exclusive status as arbiters of good science. Instead, we asked*
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49 *ourselves how our respective contributions to the research process were socially situated, and what*
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51 *that meant for the knowledge that was produced. (Gillard et al 2012 p.1135)*
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3 None-the-less, reports of research that involve people living with dementia at the point of data
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5 analysis are extremely rare (one notable exception being Stevenson & Taylor 2017) and doing so in
6
7 a way that relinquishes the authority of the 'academic' researcher being even more challenging. In
8
9 undertaking co-analysis with people with learning difficulties, which involved reading transcripts
10
11 and content analysis, Tuffrey-Wijne and Butler (2009) reflected that the academic researcher still
12
13 had the task of integrating themes into theory and thus the power still lay with the academic
14
15 researchers.
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18

19 **The Inciting Dialogue and Disruption Study**

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21
22 To inform the development of empowering support for people living with dementia, we
23
24 interrogated an existing qualitative dataset, using an approach that set out to challenge
25
26 assumptions of current practice (and in so doing disrupt present understandings of practice).
27
28 'Healthbridge', the national evaluation of innovative and empowering services recommended by
29
30 the National Dementia Strategy for England (DH 2009) had generated a large volume of data from
31
32 people living with dementia (Clarke et al 2013). In total, 155 interviews were completed (lasting 45-
33
34 120 minutes) with 51 people with a diagnosis of dementia and 55 family care partners interviewed
35
36 on up to three occasions. The analysis that took place for Healthbridge focused on the role and
37
38 impact of the Dementia Adviser and Peer Support Network Services (Keyes et al. 2014; Clarke et al.
39
40 2014; Clarke et al 2016). The volume and depth of data made the dataset particularly suitable for
41
42 secondary data analysis (Corti & Bishop 2005). In comparison with datasets of interviews with
43
44 people with dementia and care partners identified in a search of ASSAI, Medline, PsychInfo and
45
46 Medline databases, the Healthbridge data set is one of the largest set of qualitative interviews with
47
48 people with dementia and carers - exceeding previous largest datasets (Boyle 2013 - 21 couples;
49
50 Johannessen et al 2013 - 20 people with dementia).
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5 One of the early dilemmas faced in implementing this participatory secondary data analysis study
6
7 concerned the positioning of the co-analysts as people with dementia – whether to be positioned
8
9 as co-workers or as research participants. The former position establishes a relationship of equals
10
11 in the endeavour of analysis; the latter emphasises the potential of a power differential with
12
13 academic researchers leading the research process and participants engaged more commonly as
14
15 providers of data. Previous studies aspiring to a participatory approach with disabled people have
16
17 found the structures within ethical approval boards and their conceptualisation of vulnerability
18
19 challenging (Gustafson & Brunger 2014). On the advice of NHS Research Ethics Committees in both
20
21 England and Scotland, the latter position took precedence, forcing those we aspired to position as
22
23 co-analysts who lived with dementia to be described as ‘research participants’ and to demonstrate
24
25 their ‘informed consent’ to participation. We regarded all of these ‘participants’ to be co-analysts
26
27 and no new data was created during the process of secondary data analysis – each person bringing
28
29 their own knowledge to analysis and to creating an understanding of the Healthbridge data. All
30
31 participant co-analysts consented to their participation on each occasion of a workshop, and at
32
33 each workshop we provided information sheets, talked through the information sheet and consent
34
35 form (checking that people understood each point) and the consent forms were signed by all
36
37 participants present at each workshop.

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45 In England, ethics approval was granted to involve people with and without capacity to consent to
46
47 participate (Social Care REC Ref: 15-IEC08-0027). In Scotland, the Adults with Incapacity Act
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49 precludes the involvement of people without capacity to consent if the research can be conducted
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51 with those who can consent, and ethics approval was granted by the University of Edinburgh to
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53 involve only those with capacity to consent.
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Aims and objectives

We aimed to inform the development of support for people living with dementia that they experienced as empowering.

To achieve this aim, our objectives were to:

1. Interrogate through secondary data analysis a large qualitative data-set of interviews with people living with dementia using two theoretical frameworks to inform the analytical process: Douglas' cultural theory of risk, and Tronto's ethic of care.
2. Collaborate with people living with dementia as co-analysts in the co-production (interpretation) of knowledge and re-presenting experiences within the data set.

In identifying the suitability of the dataset for secondary data analysis, we considered the five questions that Long-Sutthall et al (2010) suggest should be addressed prior to undertaking a reuse of data (ethics, ability to answer the questions, assessment of the primary dataset, symmetry between data collection and analysis, and the role of context in the data). The assumption in the literature is that other researchers' data is being used (Kelder 2005) or that methodological approaches are being compared (van den Berg 2005) so our familiarity with the data as its originators was advantageous (but an advantage denied to those people living with dementia who were co-analysts).

There are two key aspects to the work – application of theory in analysing the existing dataset, and participation with people living with dementia. Each incites dialogue and disruption and they intertwine with each other, enabling people living with dementia to be part of the process of

1
2
3 analysing the data (see Figure 1). The findings at each stage are presented only in sufficient detail
4
5 to allow an understanding of stage of the research.
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10 [Insert Figure 1 here]
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14 ***Profile of Co-analysts***

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16 The secondary data analysis was conducted in participation with 34 co-analysts who had experience
17
18 of living with dementia (either with a diagnosis of dementia or a family care partner). Everyone
19
20 lived in their own home or had moved to live with a relative and all co-analysts had capacity to
21
22 consent to participate. The co-analysts were recruited from four pre-existing groups, two in
23
24 England and two in Scotland, and therefore, on the whole, people were known to each other.
25
26 Recruitment was coordinated by the organisers of the pre-existing groups (the Alzheimer’s Society
27
28 in England and Alzheimer Scotland in Scotland). Each of the four groups met on four occasions at
29
30 monthly intervals for each group and on the whole the same people participated on each occasion
31
32 (with some being absent occasionally through ill-health or holidays) – see Table 1. Overall,
33
34 approximately 60% of participants were female, and care partners sometimes came alone or were
35
36 sometimes with the person they care for e.g. in Group 4 workshop 3, there were two couples (a
37
38 husband and his wife with dementia, and a wife and her husband with dementia), a woman with
39
40 dementia (who was unaccompanied and living with her adult son) and an unaccompanied bereaved
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42 care partner (whose parents had had dementia).
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51 [Insert Table 1 around here]
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55 ***Stages of the Participatory Analytical Process***

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3 *Key Aspect 1 Step 1 - Preparing and presenting the data ready for secondary data analysis*
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5 All the data analysed for the Healthbridge project was stored within the software NVivo 10 and
6
7 arranged to maximize the potential of the first research project. NVivo is a large electronic database
8
9 designed to store, manage and retrieve qualitative data in both simple and complex ways irrespective
10
11 of the size of the database. Storing data in NVivo software is advantageous as it ensures that it
12
13 remains accessible, electronic and in one place. However, developing a new project within the
14
15 original shell of a previous project and using different theories from the original research, presented
16
17 its own distinct issues and while there is literature available about secondary data analysis in general,
18
19 there is little to guide researchers undertaking a secondary data analysis within the original NVivo
20
21 database. Key issues included:
22
23
24

- 25
26 • Deciding how much original data and its particular organisation should be retained - all the
27
28 data was retained except for inapplicable content that could not inform or be relied upon for
29
30 the new project, e.g. some memos, empty theme nodes, redundant queries.
31
32
- 33 • Whether retaining clarity and distinctiveness between the two projects was necessary -
34
35 original 'working' themes were retained and new themes were positioned 'cheek by jowl' so
36
37 to avoid muddying the footprints of earlier work.
38
39
- 40 • Decisions concerning analysis within existing themes or starting afresh from the transcripts - a
41
42 new audit trail of our thinking and actions was started using the Memo tool, enabling us to
43
44 revisit our research movements.
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49 A coding framework was set up within NVivo 10 (desktop version) to capture key themes from both
50
51 Douglas' cultural theory of risk and Tronto's ethic of care. Care was taken to organise the NVivo
52
53 themes to facilitate team working as the desktop version of NVivo requires each researcher to work
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3 on individual copies of the database, and later merge them together. This enables the researchers to
4
5 work with updated analyses as all work was correctly stored and commentary shared while avoiding
6
7 confusing duplication or loss of findings when copies of the project were merged. This process of
8
9 merging and copying the database for further individual work took place 12 times throughout the
10
11 duration of the eighteen-month project.
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17 *Key Aspect 1 Step 2 - Interpreting the data through theoretical lenses*

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19 The secondary analysis used two theoretical frameworks to critique the experiences of people living
20
21 with dementia, as represented by qualitative data from interviews with people with dementia and
22
23 carers: 'risk and resilience' and 'ethic of care'. These theoretical perspectives created 'lenses' with
24
25 which to interrogate the qualitative interview dataset by creating a set of research questions, and
26
27 asking these of the data in a dialogical manner. Hammersley (2010) refers to data as a 'sign-vehicle'
28
29 (something that conveys a perceptible sign) and the theoretical perspectives we adopted enabled
30
31 us to identify and locate the meaning and effect of those signs (e.g. evidence of the meaning and
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33 effect of trust in relationships).
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42 Theoretical Lens 1 - Risk and Resilience

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44 Risk and resilience theory in relation to people living with dementia has been a central focus of
45
46 work of the authors (e.g. Clarke et al 2011; Bailey et al 2013). Risk theories are complex and lack
47
48 homogeneity (Althaus 2005), but they do offer a high level of explanatory power for the
49
50 interpersonal dynamics that were central to this analysis. Our approach to risk was dominated,
51
52 firstly, by sociological constructions in which the concept of risk is politicised through differing
53
54 cultural perspectives and regarded as a moral and ethical concept (Tansey & O'Riordan 1999) and
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3 secondly, by understanding risk management as central to professional care practice (e.g.
4
5 Alaszewski et al 1998).

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9
10 Specifically, the analysis applied the cultural theory of risk (seeking to understand how the social
11
12 organisation of communities influence the ways in which members of that community perceive and
13
14 respond to risk), using Douglas' classic group-grid analysis (Douglas & Wildavsky 1982). The 'grid'
15
16 refers to regulation and the extent to which members of that community are expected to adopt the
17
18 rules for personal conduct that the community espouse. The 'group' refers to cohesiveness and is
19
20 the extent to which individuals within a given community are bounded together and see
21
22 themselves as a coherent community.
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27
28 Research questions arising from risk and resilience theory included: What 'groups' and 'grids' are
29
30 evident and how do these change as dementia is experienced? What dynamics maintain or disrupt
31
32 former groups and grids? What new groups and grids emerge as dementia is experienced and how
33
34 are they characterised?
35
36

37
38
39 A section of the analytic framework was created to reflect the five broad themes and subthemes
40
41 indicative of the features of groups and peoples' movement between them. The main theme nodes
42
43 and a selection of subthemes are:
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- 46 • *Grid/Group Changes* - this node held data quotations referring to changes that occurred
47
48 while experiencing movement (or not) between groups, such as a premature end to
49
50 employment, seeking and receiving information leading to a diagnosis, or the lack of
51
52 interest other people may demonstrate towards those with difficulties.
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3 • *Grids or Criteria or Rules for Groups* - capturing characteristics of the groups that were
4 valued or not enjoyed by people living with dementia. These included the nature of
5 activities undertaken or those activities unavailable, the ethos of people who ran the groups
6 or the attributes of those who attended them, how the group made them feel and practical
7 elements of the group such as ease of access both in timing and geographical location, or
8 whether they could afford to go (travel costs).
9
- 10
11 • *Dynamic* - holding data illustrative of the event, thing or person that appeared to initiate the
12 shift from one group to another. This could include receiving a diagnosis, other people being
13 the instigator for change or not, the person with dementia's actions or their reluctance to
14 move.
15
- 16
17 • *Transition* - storing illustrative data of the events or happenings that were influential in
18 peoples' movement between groups or not. This included coming to terms with symptoms
19 and diagnosis, experiences of isolation and exclusion, discouraging service experiences and
20 non-dementia related aspects influencing transitions such as other diagnoses. Data coded at
21 Transition held quotations reflecting something of the nature of the movement between
22 change and dynamic and where appropriate vice versa.
23
- 24
25 • *Groups* - captured data referring to the social networks that people are involved in or
26 attached to or moving between. These included a range of dementia or ageing related
27 groups, hospital groups, and family or friendship groups.
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49 Theoretical Lens 2 - Ethic of Care

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51 We used an 'ethic of care' framework (Tronto 1993, Sevenhuijsen 2003) as a lens to understand
52 and explore interpersonal interaction within the data-set, in particular focusing on interactions
53 between people with dementia and those supporting them, including family carers and other
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3 significant people as well as within more formal service provision. It provided a framework for
4
5 considering the complexities of interpersonal relationships within the context of caring
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7 relationships. Tronto (1993) argues that all human beings have needs that others must help them
8
9 meet; human beings are interdependent beings and Tronto suggests that '*we need to rethink our*
10
11 *conceptions of human nature to shift from the dilemma of autonomy or dependency to a more*
12
13 *sophisticated sense of human interdependency*' (Tronto 1993 p.101).
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19 In this sense, care cannot be contained within the private sphere of the family but is a political as
20
21 well as a private issue (Barnes 2012). By drawing attention to the need all human beings have for
22
23 care, an Ethic of Care approach challenges the stigmatisation experienced by people who are
24
25 dependent on help from others to live well. Tronto (1993) identified four intertwined ethical
26
27 principles of care:
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30

- 31 • *Attentiveness* – to recognise and be attentive to others, rather than simply focussing on
32
33 ourselves. To be able to attend to others, our own needs must be adequately met. This
34
35 highlights the importance of considering care-givers' needs as well as care-receivers.
36
37 Attentiveness can be considered at a political level but also on the face-to-face level.
- 38 • *Responsibility* – to take, or accept responsibility for action. Again, this can be considered at a
39
40 political level but also at a face-to-face level.
- 41 • *Competence* – caring work should be competently performed. At an individual level and a
42
43 political level, attending to care needs and taking responsibility for them but failing to address
44
45 the need to deliver it competently, leads to the need for care not being met.
- 46 • *Responsiveness* – the position of care receivers and their responsiveness to the care given
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48 should be considered from their perspective. (Tronto 1993, Barnes & Brannelly 2008).
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3 A fifth principle, *'trust'*, was added by Sevenhuijsen (2003) who argues that trust is always
4
5 interwoven with power and responsibility in conditions of vulnerability, and that power should be
6
7 used in a positive and creative manner (Barnes & Brannelly 2008).
8
9

10 An *'ethic of care'* shifts the focus away from traditional perceptions of care as one way and
11
12 patronizing, acknowledging the complexities of relationships and positioning care as political and
13
14 moral, promoting citizenship in the context of interdependent relationships (Barnes 2012). Applied
15
16 to people with dementia, an ethic of care also balances the tension between independence, control
17
18 and choice and the need of many people accessing services for care. It values the participation of all
19
20 people involved, thus promoting citizenship in the context of care, acknowledging that some
21
22 people with dementia are unable to *'care'* for themselves, but that an ethic of care approach can
23
24 enable voices to be heard, leading to participation (Brannelly 2011).
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31 Research questions arising from the theory of the ethic of care included: How do accounts of
32
33 interactions between people with dementia, carers and other significant people portray
34
35 attentiveness, responsibility, competence, responsiveness and trust? What are the interpersonal
36
37 and societal dynamics described which promote a positive cycle of the ethic of care towards an
38
39 empowering relationship; or that produce a negative cycle of a disempowering relationship?
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45 We created a section of the coding framework to capture both positive examples of where the
46
47 ethic of care principles were in operation, and examples of where they were absent e.g. where
48
49 there was a negative response to the care given or where attention was not paid to a need.
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54 Early in the analysis, the interconnections between the ethics of care principles became apparent
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56 e.g. a negative response to the care provided by a support agency could be due to a lack of
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3 attention being paid to the needs of specific groups, such as people with early onset dementia or
4
5 people from minority ethnic communities. Also, the 'active' role played by people with dementia in
6
7 the care process quickly became apparent and that they were care-givers as well as care-receivers
8
9 with reciprocity between family members e.g. when a person with dementia recognises that their
10
11 family also has needs and tries not to put unreasonable expectations on them. The ethics of care
12
13 principles can be assigned to any member of the caring relationship, whether the person with
14
15 dementia, a professional or family carer, and responsibility is not assigned only to a care giver but
16
17 also a care receiver, which may require negotiation and a recognition that, for example, refusing
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19 care, for whatever reason, has a knock-on effect on other family members, impacting on their
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21 health and well-being.
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28 Connecting the Theoretical Perspectives

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30 As analysis progressed, we explored interconnections between ethic of care and cultural theory of
31
32 risk. For example, the ways in which a 'competent' dementia advisor, by paying attention to the
33
34 needs of a whole family affected by dementia and taking responsibility to address those needs,
35
36 might enable a person with dementia to join and have a sense of belonging in a new group. The
37
38 Ethic of Care theory helped to uncover some of the dynamics involved in moving groups, being
39
40 excluded and becoming included after a diagnosis of dementia.
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46 Within interviews, comments from people with dementia also highlighted limitations in the ethic of
47
48 care principles. For example, in one interview, a person with dementia spoke of how she found it
49
50 hard to know at memory cafes "who is 'like me' (i.e. has dementia) or who is a helper". At these
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52 points, cultural theory of risk may augment ethic of care theory in terms of understanding the
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54 experiences of people with dementia and their position in 'groups'. In desiring to ascertain "who is
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3 like me”, the participant could be searching for information indicative of the expectations of
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5 behaviour acceptable to the group. For some people living with dementia, these expectations or
6
7 criteria appear easily recognisable even if they are unspoken. For example, having found a new
8
9 group to join, participants used language that reflected that sense of recognition, feeling at home
10
11 with their new group because “they welcome you as if you’re one of them”. However, in another
12
13 example, a man describes his wife with dementia as “not being the woman he married” - within an
14
15 ethic of care perspective this could be seen as a lack of attention to the person who remains but a
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17 cultural theory of risk perspective allows us to recognise the view that she no longer conforms to
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19 the expectations (the grid criteria) that have up until now held them connected together in their
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21 relationship.
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28 Ethic of care may also augment risk theory in terms of understanding the relational nature of care
29
30 and risk: human beings are interdependent rather than independent. Negotiating risk can be an
31
32 emotionally fraught experience for people with dementia, families and communities. For example,
33
34 keeping people with dementia safe may help families cope and prevent a person with dementia
35
36 getting lost or physically harmed. Conversely, it maybe compromise the health and happiness of
37
38 the person with dementia and inflict silent harms (Clarke et al 2011). However, enabling a person
39
40 with dementia to take risks may negatively impact families, compromising their emotional and
41
42 mental health and threaten their ability to maintain their caring role. In an example from the
43
44 Healthbridge data, a daughter considered giving up her job, and thus putting her at risk of financial
45
46 hardship, in order to enable her mother to take risks and remain living alone. In grid / group terms,
47
48 the previous criteria (grid) of their family relationship was shifting, challenging the daughter’s
49
50 employment because of the mother’s changing health needs which risked the breakdown of their
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52 relationship. The principles of ethic of care may provide a framework for open communication and
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3 decision-making about risk whereby the goal is to reduce the risk of relationship breakdown by
4
5 balancing the needs of those in the relationship through paying attention, taking responsibility,
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7 attending to the response and maintaining trust of all parties. In this sense, an ethic of care
8
9 framework may enable the family group to shift in tandem, adjusting their 'criteria', and thus
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11 retaining their group cohesiveness, avoiding separation and the accompanying isolation of both.
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17 We used the modelling tool in NVivo 10 to analyse how each theory worked within individual cases
18
19 and also across a range of cases. Creating a model within NVivo generates a visual map of nodes
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21 and themes and enables the researcher to incorporate data into the model. Data visualisation can
22
23 reveal which themes are more prominent and the supportive data automatically embedded within
24
25 the model enables the researcher to question the underlying data. Models support the detailed
26
27 refining of analyses and allow this to be illustrated.
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37 *Key Aspect 2 Preparation Stage*

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39 The project partners, the Mental Health Foundation and Alzheimer Scotland, invited groups of
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41 people living with dementia that they worked with (in England and Scotland respectively) to
42
43 participate in a series of four workshops and, of those who expressed interest, selected two groups
44
45 in each country. A total of 34 people (with a diagnosis of dementia or as a care partner) took part in
46
47 workshops. Most were established groups and, on the whole, people already knew each other
48
49 within the group. The group sizes varied between two and 12. The workshops took place in the
50
51 group's normal meeting place and people were supported by the local staff, who were familiar to
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53 group's normal meeting place and people were supported by the local staff, who were familiar to
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55 them. Each workshop commenced with introductions and a discussion about the project's
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3 information sheet before signing consent forms. Each lasted for two hours including a refreshment
4
5 break to ensure that the time was paced appropriately for people who may have tired easily.
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10 *Key Aspect 2 Participation Stage 1 - Working with people with dementia as co-analysts*

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12 The research questions at this stage included: how do people with experience of dementia
13
14 understand and interpret the emerging findings from Key Aspect One from within their individual
15
16 experiences? How does their 'self' act in a reflexive way with the subject matter? And how do we,
17
18 as researchers, understand their role as 'receivers' in the confirmability of the analysis?
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24 One challenge was to find a way of representing the large original dataset to people participating in
25
26 the workshops in a way that would be accessible to them to allow for genuine contributions to
27
28 analysis – this had to go beyond validating our own ideas and also go beyond the individual
29
30 perspectives of the workshop participants. Examples of data from the dataset were selected to act
31
32 as 'triggers' for the discussion – these were frequently occurring experiences of people living with
33
34 dementia, and that were illustrative of both theories (see Table 2 for examples). The selected data
35
36 extracts were prepared for the workshops by removing non-verbal transcript indicators (e.g. '...' to
37
38 denote a pause in conversation) and extraneous verbalisations (e.g. 'hmm' and 'err') and each data
39
40 extract was printed in Ariel Size 22 font and in black writing on coloured paper to increase visual
41
42 distinctiveness. Data extracts were discussed at each of the first two workshops with each of the
43
44 four groups.
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51 [Insert Table 2 here]
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3 In the first two workshops the two theoretical lenses informed the selection of data extracts and,
4
5 on the whole, workshop participants related to these from the position of their own experiences,
6
7 frequently expressing a shared or dissimilar personal experience to that in the data extract. In order
8
9 to enable the workshop participants to engage with the data in a more conceptual way, in the third
10
11 workshop the two theoretical lenses were discussed. Conceptual thinking can be challenging for
12
13 people with dementia – indeed, loss of cognitive ability is characteristic of the diagnosis of
14
15 dementia (Sheehan 2012) - and we approached this by preparing picture and word cards of the five
16
17 ethics of care principles and used a storyboard approach to two data-generated vignettes of
18
19 people’s experiences of changing groups (see Figure 2 for an example). Creative approaches using
20
21 words and pictures have been identified as a key ingredient within user involvement in research
22
23 (Read & Maslin-Prothero 2010). The groups discussed in what ways the two theories were helpful
24
25 in explaining what was happening within these storyboard examples. Care partners easily adopted
26
27 this approach as did some people with dementia, while for others it was more difficult.
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35 [Insert Figure 2 here]
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39 *Key Aspect 1 Step 3 – Back to the Data!*

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41 After each workshop the academic researchers asked the question of themselves ‘what difference
42
43 does this make to our understanding of the original data and how we are using the theories?’ There
44
45 was an increased sensitisation to certain issues that had been discussed in workshops and also
46
47 awareness that workshop attendees often spoke about their dementia experiences and analysed
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49 the data in metaphorical-like language.
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56 *Key Aspect 2 Participation Stage 2 – Metaphors of Dementia* 57 58 59 60

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3 For the fourth and final workshop with each group, the metaphors that had been compiled from
4
5 the previous workshops (Table 3) were presented back to the workshop attendees, both as lists and
6
7 interwoven into further vignettes of two people (based on Healthbridge data). The aim was to
8
9 check our understanding of the metaphors by asking what the expressions meant for the co-
10
11 analysts; what, if anything they brought to mind in relation to their own experience of living with
12
13 dementia; and to consider whether it would be useful to create stories using these metaphors as an
14
15 output of the project and a means of sharing findings with policy makers and practitioners.
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21 [Insert Table 3]
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26 *Key Aspect 1 Step 4 – Blending Theory and Metaphor*

27

28 The metaphors became a means of blending or drawing together the different strands of the
29
30 analysis as they were used as heuristic devices to discover new things in the themes identified by
31
32 the theory of ethic of care and cultural theory of risk, acting as a bridge between the different
33
34 'voices'. For example, the ethic of care principles were re-coded using the metaphors and the
35
36 metaphor 'listening on' (meaning 'listen for the meaning even if the actual words used are
37
38 incorrect' and encapsulated in the broader theme of '*co-operative communication*') led to
39
40 identifying the theme of '*co-operative action*' as important. The metaphors derived from the
41
42 workshops increased theoretical sensitivity in further analysis. For example, 'listening on' highlighted
43
44 a particular style of support offered by a Dementia Advisor and revealed something about the
45
46 knowledge that was privileged in the interchange (in this case, the experiential knowledge of the care
47
48 partner rather than the practitioner knowledge of the Dementia Advisor). Similarly, 'co-operative
49
50 communication' suggests a revision of ways of communicating. The emphasis cultural theory of risk
51
52 places on the knowledge prioritised to manage decision-making and risky behaviour (Douglas, 1992)
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3 made this an illuminating piece of analysis. This is important too in relation to ethic of care theory in
4
5 which the notion of solidarity is seen as an important aspect of social justice. Hughes (2011) also
6
7 emphasises solidarity as a moral imperative for people with dementia, so they are not seen as
8
9 'other' and disengaged from society. Within cultural theory of risk, weaknesses in solidarity are
10
11 noted as a possible loss of independence, with Evans (2007, p.5) commenting that “the greater the
12
13 solidarity of a group, the weaker the personal liability of any member within it”. The link between
14
15 solidarity and co-operation led to the development of a third major theme, ‘*co-operative caring*’. In
16
17 these ways, metaphors drawn from the workshops with people living with dementia as co-analysts
18
19 were used to reinterpret the data and integrate it with theory in a novel way.
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25 The co-operative endeavor of living with dementia that this research highlights emphasizes the
26
27 importance of the relational context in enabling co-operative communication, co-operative action
28
29 and co-operative care. These broad themes were outcomes of the analysis and, critically, were
30
31 shaped by both the data analysis using the two theoretical lenses and by the discussions held in the
32
33 workshops with people living with dementia as co-analysts. In generating these themes, the
34
35 academic researchers had to ‘let go’ of the academic theories of ethic of care and cultural theory of
36
37 risk to a certain extent, shifting them to the background and foregrounding what emerged from the
38
39 metaphors.
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46 **Discussion - Voice and Authority in Participatory Data Analysis**

47 ***Designing A Seat Around the Table***

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51 Data analysis is arguably the most conceptually abstracted stage of a qualitative research study, in
52
53 which ‘voluminous data’ is turned ‘into understandable and insightful analysis’ (Liamputtong 2009).
54
55 It requires knowledge and skills that are not conventionally attributed to members of the public –
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3 they are certainly not conventionally attributed to people living with dementia for whom
4
5 stigmatising processes have led to a history of exclusion from decision making, presumed lack of
6
7 mental capacity and social marginalisation (Alzheimer Disease International 2012). They are, as
8
9 Cotterell (2008) describes, ‘marginal knowers’ (because they are so often regarded as marginal in
10
11 society) and are consequently best placed to speak of experiences of marginalisation and exclusion,
12
13 or indeed of inclusion (to ‘expose oppressive structures’, as described by Cotterell 2008). Indeed,
14
15 Nierse et al (2012) argue that people involved through their lived experiences ‘provide a richer
16
17 more metaphorical interpretation’ than conventional analysts. So involving people with dementia
18
19 as co-analysts demands a radically different approach to analysing data – one that respects the
20
21 knowledge base and skills that are held and regards them as valuable and contributors of value to
22
23 the overall process of analysis. It seeks to achieve what Gillard et al (2012) describe as ‘bridging the
24
25 apparent dichotomy of what was conventionally known and what was “radically” known’ (p.1135).
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33 Our purpose in working with people living with dementia was not to generate new data but to work
34
35 together to analyse existing data. We considered in what ways the workshop participants engaged
36
37 with the data extracts and identified three facets of engagement – here we use the word facet to
38
39 denote a non-hierarchical level of analysis as we do not wish to imply that any one facet is superior
40
41 to another:
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- 44 • Facet 1 - Describing personal experiences with no reference to the data extracts or theories. In
45
46 this facet, the discussion has proximity to personal experience and is distant from theory.
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- 49 • Facet 2 - Relating the data extracts and theories to personal experiences and providing insight
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51 through these first-hand lived experiences. In this facet, the discussion uses a mix of personal
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53 experience and theory to illuminate each other.
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3 • Facet 3 - Discussing the data extracts and theories without reference to personal experiences. In
4 this facet, the discussion has proximity to theory and the data extracts but is distant from
5 personal experience. This is also the facet that the academic researchers largely operated from.
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12 The majority of discussion in the first two workshops with each group was in facet 1 and 2. There
13 were a few examples of engagement in facet 3 in one of the groups who were 'ambassadors' for
14 people with dementia (for example, advocating for people with dementia at the town hall) and it
15 may be that they had more of an overview of issues facing people with dementia and familiarity
16 with presenting other people's views.
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25 However, co-analysis required a shift in how we, as researchers, 'ask' questions. Normally
26 researchers are trying to understand something of the participant's lived experience through asking
27 questions and probing to clarify or open up the conversation more. Using this same approach when
28 the purpose is co-analysis is less effective as it perpetuates engagement in facet 1. We found that
29 we had to 'disrupt' this usual approach and as we refined our way of approaching the workshops
30 (and as people became more accustomed to working together with us), engagement in facet 2
31 became more prevalent. And perhaps the stage of analysis through metaphors was a critical point
32 at which the co-analysts living with dementia were able, in their own words and expressions, to
33 highlight Cottrell's (2008) 'oppressive structures' that led them to feel, at times, 'dropped like a
34 stone' or want to 'hide under the table' or feel that there were 'bars on the windows'.
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51 We concur with Tuffrey-Wijine and Butler (2009), however, that 'the power still lay with the
52 academic researchers' in that we shaped the discussions through our management of the
53 workshops – selecting particular data extracts and vignettes for discussion and framing questions
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3 and discussion points in the workshops – as well as selecting the theories that informed our
4
5 analysis. Moreover, we controlled the final synthesis of the metaphors and the theoretical lenses to
6
7 determine the ‘final’ three themes of co-operative communication, co-operative action and co-
8
9 operative caring.
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14 Nierse et al (2012) draw a distinction between responsive methodologies and participative
15
16 methodologies, with the former emphasising ‘dialogue and relational empowerment’. Whilst our
17
18 study is best described as a move towards participatory research because of the level of control we,
19
20 as researchers, had over the overall study, it does also share features of responsive methodologies
21
22 in which we sought to provide a ‘space for the exchange of perspectives, opinions and experiences,
23
24 and for possible controversies, contradictions and ambiguities’ (Nierse et al 2012 p.245). Nor were
25
26 we seeking validation of our established understanding of the dataset, but sought to value the
27
28 diversity of perspective that the co-analysts brought to the workshops – but had to be open to our
29
30 own views being disrupted and lose the ‘exclusive status as arbiters of good science’ (Gillard et al
31
32 2012 p.1135) - and in doing so we ourselves were enabled by the co-analysts to find a new
33
34 understanding of the data.
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40 ***Beyond Analysis? – Cycles of Presentation, Interpretation and Representation***

41
42 The story of this project is one of multiple voices. In the preceding section, we have explored the
43
44 relationship of ourselves as academic researchers with the co-analysts, and the relationship of the
45
46 data, the theory and the experiences of people living with dementia. But there are many other
47
48 voices to be considered too and each forms a chain of sometimes singular sometimes aggregate
49
50 presentations, interpretations and representations. The starting point is beyond defining, but let us
51
52 here take the starting point as the 106 people living with dementia who individually shared
53
54 (presented to us) their singular experiences with researchers in the Healthbridge study – who
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3 interpreted those experiences as aggregated data and represented it as themes through
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5 publications – and who reinterpreted that aggregated data and presented it to 34 people living with
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7 dementia as co-analysts – who interpreted those data extracts within the context of their own
8
9 singular experiences – and represented those analyses back to the researchers – who represent this
10
11 as three themes of co-operative communication, co-operative action and co-operative caring. But
12
13 let us stop this cycle at any point and ask – whose story of dementia is this? Whose data and whose
14
15 analysis is this? Who has the authority to claim this as their story? Surely, this is not a story that
16
17 academic researchers can have any singular claim to – it is not theirs to own. It is not one in which
18
19 they can have any final authoritative voice. It is one in which they play a part and can enable (and
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21 be enabled by) those with experience to also have a part in presenting, interpreting and
22
23 representing their stor(ies).
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31 And so we come to the rejection of single, integrating conclusions and adopt the importance of
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33 ‘multiple voicing’. And with that we must challenge whether the ‘traditional realist discourse’ is the
34
35 right, or perhaps is the only, way to communicate such work. If such a discourse means academic
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37 publications then this moves the story into an academic environment, to be read by few other than
38
39 other academics. It moves the story away from those living with dementia. So we are challenged to
40
41 find other modes of discourse to keep the story and its cycles of presentation and interpretation
42
43 alive – to maintain the ‘ongoing moral dialogue’ described by Denzin and Lincoln (2003) and to
44
45 keep it in a ‘performative’ space. Dupuis et al (2016) suggest that the arts can create transformative
46
47 spaces which foster critical reflection and can be effective for addressing social justice by
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49 representing the complexities of lived experience in accessible and emotional ways, opening up
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51 new ways of seeing, and broadening understanding.
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3 The experiences and multiple findings of this project were shared with the artistic director of an
4 arts organization (Skimstone Arts) who, in turn, interpreted them and worked with the researchers
5 to generate a film (*Michael's Map*), which embodies the findings of the research and allows further
6 stages of presentation and interpretation of the research by the performers and viewers. This film
7 is freely available at <https://vimeo.com/channels/1148563/188113371>. In addition, a performance
8 piece has been developed which is touring the UK – *The Ties That Bind*. We are assessing the impact
9 that such plays and films may have on their audiences, but here simply invite you to view the film
10 yourself and play your own part in interpreting the messages from the research and to be part of
11 this ongoing dialogue.
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26 **Conclusion**

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28 Using a participatory research approach in analysing data has allowed us to re-present otherwise
29 silent and silenced voices to a range of public, policy and practitioner audiences. It has been
30 demanding of us, as researchers, to suspend any search for a singular knowledge that is owned by
31 ourselves, and instead focus attention on reflexivity, multiple voicing, literary styling and
32 performance. It has demanded of us that we relinquish our own sense of any concluding
33 authoritative voice. As such, the methodology of participatory secondary data analysis developed in
34 this research has been innovative and we hope provides a foundation for further methodological
35 development as well as informing future models of working with and caring alongside people
36 experiencing dementia.
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52 The core principles for involving people with dementia in research developed with the SDWG
53 Research Working Group (2014) highlights the importance of 'dementia time' which is totally at
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3 odds with the faster pace of 'academic time'. Maybe we need to ask 'What needs to be done
4
5 differently to truly work in partnership with people with dementia in research?' – what structures
6
7 within funding calls, proposals, data collection and analysis need to change and how do we as
8
9 researchers need to change? The guidance on co-production within disability research appears to
10
11 assume capacity and the issue of doing research *with* people with a disability, when their disability
12
13 is cognitive, requires much further consideration within ethics committees and legal frameworks to
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15 ensure that people with dementia are not excluded.
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Acknowledgements

We are indebted to the members of the Dementia Leadership Group, Alzheimer's Society Plymouth and the Service User Reference Forum (SURF), Liverpool, and to the Research Groups in Aberdeen and Inverness for giving of their time and insights so fulsomely to work with us as co-analysts living with dementia – and those in the Mental Health Foundation DEEP Network and Alzheimer Scotland who support them. The contribution of the 106 people living with dementia to the original interview data was, of course, critical.

The original Healthbridge study was supported by the Department of Health Policy Research Programme (grant number 025/0058), and the analysis reported here was supported by the Economic & Social Research Council Secondary Data Analysis Initiative (grant number ES/L01470X/1).

Our very warm thanks also to Dr. Sarah Keyes who was instrumental in designing the research, and to Claire Saaramets-Webster, the Artistic Director of Skimstone Arts.

The Author(s) declare(s) that there is no conflict of interest.

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Figure 1 – Two Key Aspects of the Research Design and Flow of Data Analysis

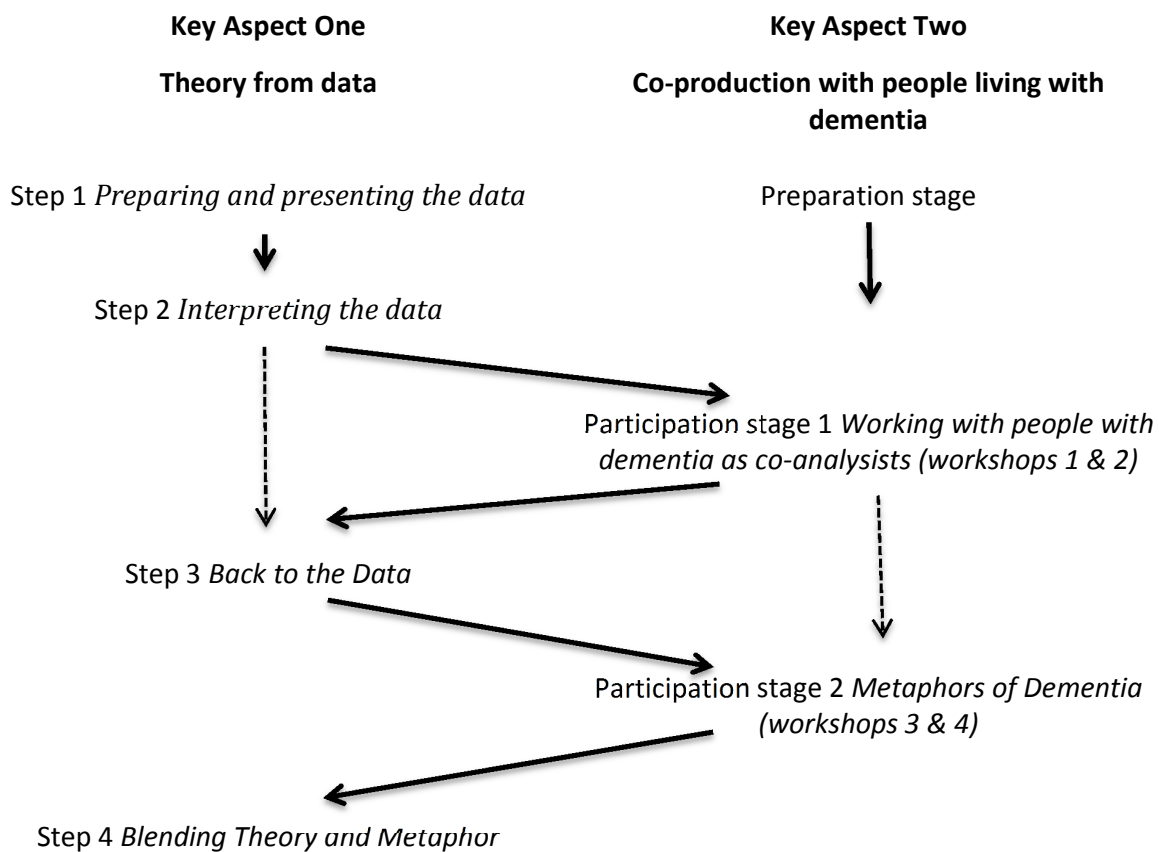


Table 1 – Co-analyst Participation in the Key Aspect 2 Workshops

Co-analyst Group	Workshop 1	Workshop 2	Workshop 3	Workshop 4
Group 1 (North-West England)	8 people with dementia 4 care partners	5 people with dementia 4 care partners	6 people with dementia 4 care partners	5 people with dementia 5 care partners
Group 2 (South-West England)	2 people with dementia	5 people with dementia	4 people with dementia	3 people with dementia
Group 3 (East Scotland)	1 person with dementia 1 care partner	2 people with dementia 2 care partners	2 people with dementia 1 care partners	3 people with dementia 2 care partners
Group 4 (North-East Scotland)	3 people with dementia 3 care partners	5 people with dementia 3 care partners	3 people with dementia 3 care partners	2 people with dementia 2 care partners

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24 **Table 2 – Examples of Data Quotes Used in Workshop 1 to Elicit Participant Analysis**
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26 *“When I meet up with people, it’s fantastic because we can all talk to each other. We’ve*
27 *all got memory problems, and we all help each other and we all listen and talk to each*
28 *other. And I do feel good when I’ve been to them.”*
29

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31 *“When I meet old friends, you can tell straight away they’re on a different wavelength to*
32 *you, and they’ll gradually move away because they know I’m not thinking right or saying*
33 *the right things. So I just keep away.”*
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37 *“I look forward to going out with John. We have the same sense of humour and we enjoy*
38 *each other’s company. He makes me feel we are on the same level. He makes me feel*
39 *normal. Without John I think I would have been a far lesser person. The way that I am*
40 *treated by John. I wouldn’t have survived. And, here I am”.*
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Table 3 – Metaphor-like Expressions Created by Co-analysts Who Live With Dementia During the Workshops

- | | |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ‘listening on’ • just give me a minute • 50/50 communication • talking eye to eye • if you are a bit jokey you can cover dementia up so people don’t notice • tell people “openly and without embarrassment” • trust - “you have to pick the people and hope you have done it right” • someone will tell you to put your clothes on – but have to be on your guard elsewhere in case you do or say something • (group has) grown up together • (group is) same as you feel at home • here everybody is everybody’s concern (but not ‘outside’) • we look at each other the same way here • experience a revelation moment • I go in with fear and hopefully come out happy • bars on the windows • (dementia) turns things around • the dementia box | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • feel outside • hide under the table • toxic mix (loneliness and dementia) • in a fuzz • dropped like a stone (by friends) • (friends) checked her out more • it would be nice if people tried (to understand) • (relationship) boundaries shift • reading the signs (in relationship) • I’m not her gaoler – it’s very scary • if they walk away it is a clue • mixing with the wrong people • social watershed • even if I fall over, I don’t want the help • stuff happens • no bandages on your head (not obvious you are ill) • you grow into it, it’s not like breaking a leg • (dementia) not to be shushed up • poetry not dementia • I just feel I’m me, I always will be • people have to admit it to themselves first |
|--|---|

Figure 2 – Example of Picture and Word Cards Preparing for the Workshops and Using a Storyboard Approach to Data-generated Vignettes of People’s Experiences of Changing Groups

