

DOING FIELDWORK IN AREAS OF INTERNATIONAL INTERVENTION

A Guide to Research in Violent and
Closed Contexts

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Doing fieldwork in areas of international intervention into violent and closed contexts

Berit Bliesemann de Guevara and Morten Bøås

This is a book about fieldwork. It is not yet another volume about research methods, the pros and cons of qualitative versus quantitative research, or the virtues of mixed-methods approaches. There are plenty of these guidebooks and all of them contain useful information, but they generally also turn a blind eye to the messy *practice* of fieldwork, which is different from reading about field-based methods and research designs. This book is about *experiences of doing fieldwork*. A gender-balanced group of authors at different stages of their careers, working in central and southeast Asia, the Middle East, central, west, and south Africa, the Caucasus and southeast Europe—some of them nationals of the countries under study—raise questions about and reflect on how they did fieldwork in areas of international intervention into violent conflict and/or illiberal states. These experiences are neither the sanitized versions of the messy reality of fieldwork, which we find in the majority of methods sections of research monographs and articles;¹ nor are they the hero or adventurer stories some of us tell each other at conferences over a drink (we both plead guilty to have done this on occasion). Rather, this book assembles the frank, (self-)critical accounts of field researchers who have taken the courage to publicly reflect upon some of their mistakes and to name the dilemmas of fieldwork in violent and closed contexts—dilemmas that we can prepare to face, but that we cannot resolve (for a similar approach, see Kušić and Zahora, 2020; Rivas and Browne, 2019).

1 The authors in this book write from a first-person perspective
2 focusing on personal reflections of their practices, performances and
3 positionalities in the field. Their contributions address questions cur-
4 rently discussed in related literatures—such as the question of how
5 positionality and intersectionality affect the research process (for
6 example, Caretta and Jokinen, 2017; Dempsey, 2017; Kappler and
7 Lemay-Hébert, 2019; Thapar-Björkert and Henry, 2004)—however,
8 they do so not from the comfort of (meta-)theoretical positions but
9 from their own hard-earned experiences in the field. Authors also
10 touch upon the research approaches they have taken (for example,
11 positivist or interpretivist research; cf. Schwartz-Shea and Yanow, 2012)
12 and the methods used—which cover a wide range from interviews
13 with intervention elites, focus groups with sex workers, and surveys
14 among refugees to participatory observation among political activist,
15 and drawing workshops with violence-affected communities—and
16 highlight the advantages and difficulties of these methods in the violent
17 or illiberal contexts discussed. Their main focus, however, is on the
18 more generable difficulties and dilemmas that any fieldwork in vio-
19 lent or closed contexts presents to the researcher and that seem to cut
20 across the very different epistemological and methodological stances
21 represented by the authors.²

22 Why do we see the need for such a book? The main reason is that this
23 is the type of book we would have loved to read when we embarked
24 on our first attempts at doing fieldwork in areas of armed conflict,
25 military deployment and peacebuilding interventions, and it is the
26 type of book we would like to discuss with our students and the PhD
27 researchers supervised by us before they do so. While every field and
28 fieldwork are certainly unique, many of the dilemmas, ethical pitfalls
29 and mismatches between pre-fieldwork plans and fieldwork reality are
30 remarkably similar. The only book available to us when we embarked
31 on our careers as fieldwork-based researchers in violence-affected
32 contexts was Nordstrom and Robben's (1996) *Fieldwork under Fire*.
33 While this book is still a great read, which we recommend without
34 hesitation, much has changed since it was written—changes that affect
35 not only how we understand the world we live in, but also how we
36 do fieldwork. Most importantly, while there is a higher number of
37 researchers conducting fieldwork now than there was perhaps ever
38 before, fieldwork today tends to be much shorter, is conducted by
39 researchers from other disciplines than those classically involved in
40 fieldwork, and the choice of the field and time spent in the field are
41 more impacted upon by an increase in risk aversion at most universities
42 of the Global North. We return to these issues in more detail below.

1 To be sure, we do not think that any text can replace the hard lessons,
2 let alone the rollercoaster of emotions (Hedström, 2018; Rivas and
3 Browne, 2019), all researchers will have to endure in the field, yet
4 we also think that not every academic in this line of research needs
5 to repeat the same mistakes. Letting students and colleagues know
6 that others have struggled with the same issues and learning about
7 how other researchers have tried to deal with them, will, we hope,
8 be helpful to our professional community. As the authors of *Designing*
9 *Social Inquiry* in qualitative research have cautioned us, '[Researchers]
10 mistakenly believe that other social scientists find close, immediate
11 fits between data and research. This perception is due to the fact that
12 investigators often take down the scaffolding after putting up their
13 intellectual buildings, leaving little trace of the agony and uncertainty
14 of construction' (King, Keohane and Verba, 1994, pp. 12–13). This
15 book puts the 'scaffolding', 'agony' and 'uncertainty of construction'
16 of fieldwork-based research centre-stage.

17 Many of the experiences discussed speak to a broader community of
18 researchers or are similar to questions discussed in other publications,
19 yet authors in this book also highlight the particular challenges and
20 dilemmas arising from research in a specific area of study: *fieldwork in*
21 *areas of international intervention*, broadly conceived, *characterized by past*
22 *or present violent conflict and/or illiberal stateness* (for example, Bekmurzaev,
23 Lottholz and Meyer, 2018; Glasius *et al.*, 2018; Sriram *et al.*, 2009).
24 Intervention research in war and post-war societies, including in
25 authoritarian states, emerged as an important interdisciplinary field of
26 study in the 1990s, accompanying liberal interventionism's rise and
27 its critique. It has since not only grown but also attracted researchers
28 from a wide range of social-scientific and arts-and-humanities discip-
29 lines. Fieldwork has become a central modus of conducting research
30 in this field and is no longer the prerogative of social anthropology, the
31 discipline most actively training its scholars for field-based research in
32 countries of the Global South. And while certainly a lot has improved
33 over the last 15 years or so, fieldwork-based methods training in theory-
34 loaded disciplines such as International Relations is only slowly catching
35 up with the fact that more and more of its researchers are conducting
36 fieldwork-based empirical research on interventions. Fieldwork prac-
37 tice therefore often remains a 'muddling through' rather than a con-
38 scious engagement with the field, and much of what is being called
39 fieldwork tends towards shorter (if not fleeting) visits, most of which
40 would not qualify in any way as 'ethnography', despite an inflationary
41 use of this term (see further, Millar, 2017; Schatz, 2009; Vrasti, 2008).
42 Yet, even the classical anthropological fieldwork with its emphasis on

1 long-term immersion in one location has clearly become ‘red-listed’
2 for some time.

3 There are several reasons for this. One has to do with the increased
4 risk aversion of many universities to fieldwork (Strazzari and Peter,
5 2016), which we discuss in more detail below and in Part II of this
6 book. Yet, the old ways of doing fieldwork are also changing because
7 the world has changed. As global social anthropology has long
8 acknowledged, researchers on fieldwork are no longer disappearing
9 into off-the-beaten-track villages with little or no connectivity to the
10 rest of the world (for example, Gupta and Ferguson, 1997). Rather,
11 most of the research subjects are just as connected as the researchers.
12 This, together with the fact that the sources of intervention politics
13 are based in different locations, implemented by a range of different
14 actors, and originating and taking effect at different scales of politics
15 at the same time, makes the question of where ‘the field’ is actually
16 located particularly pertinent.

17 Is ‘the field’ of intervention studies in Northern capitals and head-
18 quarters of international organizations, or their Southern areas of
19 deployment (cf. Bliesemann de Guevara, 2012)? What characterizes
20 these locations of intervention, that are supposedly ‘peacekept’ or
21 ‘post-conflict’ but where peacekeepers and civilian staff live in highly
22 guarded compounds that effectively separate them from most mean-
23 ingful interactions with the populations they have come to serve
24 (Duffield, 2010; Fisher, 2017; Heathershaw and Lambach, 2008;
25 Smirl, 2015)? How does this ‘field’ look different when it is not liberal
26 interveners, but illiberal states managing the conflict (Heathershaw
27 and Owen, 2019)? Is the field located among the local communities
28 in conflict zones, among specific socio-professional groups such as
29 political activists, soldiers, humanitarian aid workers, sex workers or,
30 indeed, academics-as-interveners, or at the interplay between ‘natives’
31 and ‘outsiders’ (for example, Autesserre, 2014; Goetze, 2017; Lai, in
32 this volume)? Is it on the Internet or in the media as virtual ideological
33 battlefields (Bliesemann de Guevara and Kostić, 2017)? Or perhaps all
34 of the above simultaneously?

35 The answer to the question of where the field in intervention studies
36 is will partially depend on the specific focus or puzzle a researcher
37 chooses to address, but it is also clear that locating ‘the field’ only in
38 certain locations of the Global South or among the most obvious
39 participant groups is not enough to understand the interventionist
40 part of international politics (for example, McNeill, in this volume;
41 Richmond, Kappler and Bjørkdahl, 2015), and this realization also
42 shapes, or ought to shape, fieldwork on international interventions in

1 violent or closed contexts. This said, it seems that the most pressing
 2 challenges still arise from fieldwork located in the actual geographical
 3 locations in which interventions politics is implemented, as it is here
 4 where researchers are most directly subjected to the effects of violent
 5 or repressive politics on their research. It should not come as a surprise
 6 then that most authors in this book concentrate on this type of field.
 7

8 **Dilemmas of fieldwork-based intervention research** 9 **in violent and closed contexts** 10

11 In the following we carve out those areas of questions, challenges and
 12 dilemmas arising from fieldwork-based research in areas of international
 13 intervention, which we think are particularly pertinent and which are
 14 developed further in the contributions to this book. There are four
 15 broad types of challenges and dilemmas that we consider particularly
 16 pertinent and universal beyond the context-specificity of each indi-
 17 vidual research: control and confusion, security and risk, distance and
 18 closeness, and sex and sensitivity. While they are not exclusive to the
 19 field of intervention research, we argue that the dilemmas discussed,
 20 and the research ethics interwoven with them (cf. Brewer, 2016;
 21 Cronin-Furman and Lake, 2018, Fujii, 2012; Helbardt *et al.*, 2010),
 22 take on specific forms in the particular contexts of interventions into
 23 violent conflicts and/or illiberal states.
 24

25 *Control, confusion and failure in the research process* 26

27 The first set of dilemmas arises from the tension between the ideal of
 28 control in and over fieldwork and the actual confusion in the research
 29 process, a tension that most fieldwork-based researchers will have
 30 grappled with at one point or another. ‘Control’ is the normal por-
 31 trayal of the research process by the apt field researcher. With a few
 32 noticeable exceptions, we find (meta-)narratives of control in most
 33 guidebooks on field research and fieldwork-based methods and in the
 34 grant proposals researchers write to convince funders to finance their
 35 research. No wonder then that many first-time researchers experi-
 36 ence confusion, if not outright feelings of personal failure, when the
 37 expectations and (self-)narratives of control over the research process
 38 meet the messy reality of fieldwork-based research (Kušić and Zahora,
 39 2020; Perera, 2017a). While this reality check does not only concern
 40 research in violent and closed contexts, it is in these contexts with
 41 their tense social dynamics that the perception and reality of loss of
 42 control over the research process can be particularly profound—and

1 potentially dangerous for the researcher and those they interact with
2 in different roles as assistants, informants, participants or wider com-
3 munities in which research takes place.

4 Interviews are an illustrative example of the effects that a violent or
5 illiberal context can have on how we access informants or interviewees
6 and secure their consent or how we determine the form the interview
7 will take. Also what is shared in an interview is influenced in particular
8 ways by such contexts (paradigmatic: Fujii, 2010, on meta-data in
9 interviews about war and mass violence). The most common form of
10 intervention research interview is certainly the elite or expert interview,
11 which is usually seen as fairly unproblematic as it does not involve vul-
12 nerable participants and is mostly done in a ‘safe location’ such as the
13 intervened country’s capital (although power relations at play in elite
14 interviews are also recognised: see Boucher, 2017). Yet, as Roland
15 Kostić shows (Chapter 2), interviewing intervention elites brings about
16 its own series of challenges and dilemmas. Through his discussion of
17 interview-based research with international intervention elites in Bosnia
18 and Herzegovina, Kostić shows how long-term engagement with this
19 field, shared family and career backgrounds with his interlocutors, and
20 his shifting roles as researcher and policy expert have been crucial for
21 opening the door to these elite networks in a way that has allowed for
22 behind-the-scenes insights and information far beyond a formal expert
23 interview situation. However, he also reflects on how this privileged
24 access posed central dilemmas: in order to keep the access, he had to
25 decide how to deal with invitations to contribute to the policy process
26 as expert and to constantly balance which information to include in
27 his writings and which to ignore. Long-term research access to elites is
28 thus not a one-way street, and the researcher can quickly find him- or
29 herself in a position where the line between being a critical scholar and
30 a member of a policy network becomes increasingly blurred.

31 Often, elite interviews go to plan but—perhaps due to a lack of
32 privileged back-stage access as the one described above—they may
33 not generate anywhere near the kind of insights that the researcher
34 had expected based on a previous analysis of available documents. This
35 rather common experience may put the whole research design into
36 question and, consequently, the researcher into momentary crisis, as
37 in the case of Casey McNeill’s research on the US Africa Command
38 (AFRICOM) (Chapter 3). Her chapter reminds us of the mismatches
39 that often exist between the intervention’s official narrative of its pur-
40 pose and the actual priorities and practices encountered in interviews
41 at the headquarters, and cautions us that intervention research
42 based on published material such as the intervening organization’s

1 self-descriptions, documents and evaluations can be utterly misleading
2 in understanding how staff do their day-to-day work and make sense of
3 it. McNeill's chapter offers useful strategies of how to overcome such
4 challenges with the help of interpretivist methodologies.

5 Among non-elite research participants in violent and/or illiberal
6 contexts, already the mere use of the word 'interview' may scare
7 cautious research participants away, as Markus Göransson reports
8 from Tajikistan (Chapter 4). He recounts how he went into the field,
9 equipped with literature-based knowledge on how to conduct oral
10 history interviews and secure the informed consent of interlocutors,
11 only to find that doing formal interviews would make his research
12 among Tajik veterans of the Afghan–Soviet war largely impossible.
13 Rather, Göransson's data gathering took place ad hoc, in informal,
14 private and often group settings, requiring flexibility and creativity
15 on his behalf and a willingness to relinquish control of the process to
16 some extent. While the author does not delve deeper into the history
17 of interviewing and how it is culturally and politically charged in some
18 contexts, critical security studies scholars have pointed out the deep
19 affinities between states' disciplining techniques and scientific research
20 method (for example, Aradau and Huysmans, 2014; Borneman and
21 Masco, 2015). That researcher behaviour may have different, potentially
22 damaging, consequences in illiberal/repressive contexts than it does
23 in liberal states, is also argued by Jesse Driscoll (Chapter 10), whose
24 contribution we discuss in more detail below.

25 Violent contexts equally represent specific challenges and threats
26 to researchers and their collaborators and brokers, as highlighted by
27 Morten Bøås (Chapter 5). Bøås offers a self-critical reflection on his
28 research with local associates in the highly insecure context of the Sahel.
29 Specifically, he unpacks how researchers from the Global North may
30 wittingly or unwittingly incentivize associates to adopt risky strategies.
31 At the centre of his reflections are questions of friendship and respect
32 in research with assistants from the intervened country, and how both
33 are shaped by the unequal power relationships involved in such North–
34 South collaborations due to the money and career opportunities the
35 Northern researcher brings to the table (cf. also the contributions in
36 Eriksson Baaz and Utas, 2019). Bøås's reflections are insightful not least
37 because he describes the mixed bag of emotions experienced during
38 fieldwork in this highly dangerous setting where researchers have more
39 recently become the explicit target of some armed groups. It is only
40 in hindsight that Bøås is able to make sense of the wider political and
41 security situations at play and of his own passive and active roles in
42 shaping the unpleasant fieldwork encounters described.

1 All these are just examples of the issues discussed in Part I of the
2 book, but what they illustrate is how even the most prepared or
3 experienced researchers have struggled with the idea of control over
4 the fieldwork-based research process in a closed or violent context,
5 and how this has affected the fieldwork plans, the data generated and
6 the people involved. The examples also show that there is no way
7 to prevent researchers in areas of intervention from having to take
8 decisions on the go, no matter how prepared they enter ‘the field’,
9 and the authors discuss how they have dealt with these challenges, for
10 better or (in some cases) for worse.

11 The debate of control and confusion in fieldwork-based research
12 discussed in Part I of this book also links to a broader emergent debate
13 on researcher failure (see specifically, Kušić and Zahora, 2020). As
14 experiences reported throughout this book suggest, perceptions of
15 ‘failure’ in research are not the exception but the rule. In general,
16 however, failure—once the basis of positivist research in the form of
17 Popper’s falsification that leads to progress in science—seems to have
18 been pushed into the shadows of private conversations among friends
19 or close colleagues. The propensity to acknowledge (or not) failures in
20 the research process has less to do with the general approach a researcher
21 is taking, although qualitative-interpretivist approaches may be more
22 prone to embrace ‘failures’ as those moments of surprise or ‘creative
23 ruptures’ that spark research in the first place (Kurowska and Bliesemann
24 de Guevara, 2020). Rather, the silencing of failures and dilemmas in
25 research is a bigger problem that has to do with research as a career and
26 academia as a competitive marketplace, in which individuals compete
27 for positions, promotions and research funding. Normalizing supposed
28 ‘failure’ in academia would go a long way in addressing some of the
29 dilemmas around control and confusion in fieldwork—as it would
30 reveal that what is deemed failure is actually the effect of a sanitized
31 and formalized understanding of what social-scientific research entails.

32 33 *Dilemmas of security and risk*

34
35 The tense social dynamics of violent or repressive contexts do not only
36 affect the access to or course of interviews, but also what observations
37 and findings can be written about and how. Indeed, in both contexts
38 there may be very good reasons for a researcher to relinquish con-
39 trol and not publish specific information, as this may put at risk not
40 only the researcher’s future access (a bearable cost), but more import-
41 antly the safety of local collaborators and their families, who cannot
42 leave the country when things go from bad to worse (Bekmurzaev,

1 Lottholz and Meyer, 2018; see also, Vanderstaay, 2005; on the general
2 necessity to decolonize research relationships, see Adedi Dunia *et al.*,
3 2019). As Bøås's contribution suggests, when it comes to research with
4 local brokers or collaborators, the financial and career opportunities
5 represented by the Northern researcher may indeed cause things to
6 spin out of control, if they incentivize a collaborator to take more
7 risks in a violent or highly state-monitored situation than they would
8 normally do.

9 The second set of challenges and dilemmas of fieldwork-based
10 research in violent and closed contexts unpacked in this book revolves
11 around such questions of security and risk. Much of the research
12 discussed in this book takes place in areas that are classified as posing
13 a heightened risk to researchers, their collaborators and research
14 participants, either because of active armed violence in the area of
15 fieldwork, or because the research may put them at risk of repressive
16 measures by the security agencies of the state in which the research
17 takes place. Sometimes it is both at the same time. There is a certain
18 tendency among conflict and intervention researchers to down-
19 play these risks, based on experiences of successful—in the sense
20 of uneventful—research (again, we probably have to plead guilty of
21 having done so on occasion), and it may well be that most research
22 taking place in the contexts discussed in this book remains untainted
23 by violence or state repression. We would like to caution against too
24 sweepingly brushing security concerns away, however: researchers may
25 be specifically targeted by some armed groups (through kidnappings
26 or killings), and researchers' very presence in the field may represent
27 grave dangers to those they work or simply interact with. The chapters
28 in Part II of this book contribute to discussions of the dilemmas of
29 balancing restrictive ethics and risk assessments of ever more cautious
30 universities with real risks and meaningful research in areas of inter-
31 national intervention (cf. also Bøås *et al.*, 2006; Kovats-Bernat, 2006).

32 Francesco Strazzari and Alessandra Russo lay the groundwork for
33 this discussion by reflecting on more recent developments in the
34 research ethics and risk assessment procedures of universities, research
35 institutions and funding bodies in the Global North (Chapter 6).
36 Drawing on their own research experiences as well as their involvement
37 in projects addressing these institutional developments, the authors
38 argue that there are two main tendencies negatively affecting research
39 in violent and closed contexts: the securitization of ethics and risks
40 and their bureaucratization and judicialization. Their argument is that
41 these two combined processes do not necessarily make research safer, as
42 they are too rigid and uniform to be context-specifically meaningful,

1 but that they do restrict or prevent forms of much needed independent
2 knowledge production on intervention politics in violent and/or illib-
3 eral settings (cf. also Bhattacharya, 2014).

4 Following directly on from this, John Heathershaw and Parviz
5 Mullojonov illustrate the slippery slope that research in violent and
6 closed contexts can be despite complying with the tight institutional
7 ethics and risk assessment procedures of a UK university (Chapter 7).
8 Employing the case of the detention of a Tajik researcher by Tajik
9 security agencies, they discuss the limits of the procedural approach
10 to research ethics and security currently employed by many univer-
11 sities in the Global North. Unpacking dilemmas such as researcher
12 and research participant safety, on the one hand, and the questions
13 of whether research should be conducted at all, on the other, or the
14 dilemma of trade-offs between access and impartiality, they argue that
15 conscious vocational engagement with the field can help make better
16 choices, but that ultimately no approach—neither procedural nor
17 vocational—can fully overcome the interlinked dilemmas explored.

18 What context-specific safety protocols and procedures of research
19 in a highly violent context could look like is discussed by Boukary
20 Sangaré and Jaimie Bleck (Chapter 8). The authors draw on their
21 experience of conducting research in Central and Northern Mali
22 across the lines of North–South collaboration (see also Bleck, Dendere
23 and Sangaré, 2018), to discuss strategies of fieldwork in areas of armed
24 conflict where the state has almost disappeared. They recommend
25 close collaboration between foreign and local researchers and show
26 that safety in high-risk contexts is dependent on up-to-date infor-
27 mation from local networks that is continuously fed into the security
28 assessment. They also caution that risk assessments will always have to
29 consider the long-term effects of research, as violent situations can be
30 highly volatile, making what was safe yesterday potentially dangerous
31 tomorrow, for example if the power balance between armed factions
32 in the research area changes.

33 Judith Verweijen (Chapter 9) further tackles the challenges of
34 security in violent research contexts by offering in-depth insights into
35 how she assessed security risks when she researched micro-dynamics
36 of conflict in the eastern part of the Democratic Republic of the
37 Congo (DRC). The chapter goes into detail regarding practical forms
38 of preparing for potential harm and how to avoid it, such as analyzing
39 patterns of kidnappings or imaging an ambush and practising how
40 to behave in such a situation. While acknowledging that security
41 risks can never be eliminated, Verweijen's chapter also shows that
42

1 the combination of good security analysis and realistic preparations
2 can help to minimize risk even in a highly violent context such as
3 eastern DRC.

4 While many risk assessments at universities in the Global North
5 revolve around the Northern researcher and their associates and
6 participants, the wider and longer-term consequences of researcher
7 behaviour in the field are less well considered or understood. Jesse
8 Driscoll (Chapter 10) illuminates this question in the context of research
9 in illiberal states. Employing a game-theoretical model drawing on
10 extensive fieldwork experiences in Central Asia and the south Caucasus,
11 he shows the stakes involved in the game for two types of players: a
12 bureaucrat in the security sector of the state where the research is
13 taking place and a researcher who wants to publish critical aspects of
14 the politics of the state in question. By taking the reader through a set
15 of situations in which the two players take different options of either
16 escalating or ignoring the engagement with sensitive political issues,
17 the chapter highlights the potential dangers of academic work that
18 interprets the role of the researcher in an oppressive context also as
19 that of a social and political activist.

20 The contributions to Part II of the book show that security and risk
21 issues are real, and that in worst-case scenarios they can get researchers
22 killed, like in the case of the Cambridge PhD student Giulio Regeni
23 briefly discussed by Russo and Strazzari (Chapter 6) or detained by
24 authoritarian states, as in the case of Alexander Sodiqov, discussed
25 in detail by John Heathershaw and Parviz Mullojonov (Chapter 7).
26 Questions of security and risk in intervention research should thus
27 not be taken lightly, and ‘non-events’ not mistaken for general safety
28 and lack of risk. However, what the authors also suggest is that the
29 securitized, bureaucratized and judicialized measures to minimize
30 risk and maximize ethical research are not fully suited to meet the
31 challenges and dilemmas of fieldwork-based research in violent and
32 closed contexts. Importantly, functioning security assessments are not
33 based on static pre-fieldwork assessments, but on ongoing relationship-
34 building and information-gathering on the ground, that is, among
35 local communities and with the help of trusted local partners. Travel
36 advice by European or US ministries of foreign affairs, on which much
37 of universities’ risk assessment is based, by contrast, appears to be less
38 useful when it comes to tailored security assessments. The answer to
39 security and detention risks cannot be to refrain from any research
40 in ‘difficult’ geographical areas or on ‘sensitive’ political topics, as this
41 would leave blank spaces on our social-scientific research maps. Rather,
42

1 security and risk assessments are crucial, but need to be contextualized,
2 embedded and constantly updated to be meaningful.

3
4 *Dilemmas around distance and closeness*

5
6 The presence of international organizations and actors, both military
7 and civilian, affects the extent to which the dilemmas of fieldwork-
8 based intervention research play out in the research process or can be
9 addressed by the researcher. This dynamic is an integral element of
10 what we call the challenges and dilemmas of distance and closeness,
11 which arise in different forms that are discussed in the contribution
12 to Part III of this book.

13 These challenges refer, first, to the negotiations of identity and
14 positionality that take place during fieldwork. Gender, culture, edu-
15 cational and professional backgrounds, and so on, can be factors
16 contributing to closeness as well as distance between researcher and
17 researched, and the boundaries can shift not only from one field to
18 another, but also from one situation to another in the same field.
19 Maria-Louise Clausen reflects on questions of distance and closeness
20 during fieldwork in Yemen’s capital Sana’a (Chapter 11). Drawing on
21 Schwedler’s (2006) idea of a ‘third gender’, she discusses the balancing
22 of security concerns with being a white female researcher in a highly
23 conservative Islamic context. Clausen’s experience is that what appear
24 to be binary categories, such as the male–female gender bias expected
25 to shape conservative society, may be more nuanced at the interplay
26 of gender and nationality. Where different elements of the researcher’s
27 and her interlocutor’s identity intersect, her positionality as ‘insider’ or
28 ‘outsider’ may be less clear-cut than assumed, with similar educational
29 careers and other markers of cosmopolitanism sometimes creating more
30 commonalities across national borders than within them. Performances
31 of identity are important in these negotiations of positionality, but
32 their possibility space is also to some extent shaped by the context of
33 the international intervention: no matter how independent outside
34 researchers actually are from international organizations and agencies
35 operating in the country, they will to some extent always be seen as
36 somehow part of the intervention—shaping research relationships
37 beyond their control.

38 Some forms of distance between researcher and researched are created
39 by academic research itself, which can be seen as a form of interven-
40 tion, as Daniela Lai argues for the case of Bosnia and Herzegovina
41 (Chapter 12). Research-as-intervention has consequences for what
42 can be researched and how since, just like political and military

1 intervention, the intervention by academia shapes the very field it sets
2 out to research. Lai discusses on the one hand how the over-research
3 certain areas of Bosnian society are experiencing due to academic
4 biases leads to distancing. A second form of distancing concerns those
5 communities, groups and topics that are sidelined by intervention
6 research, either because they are not the focus of the military and
7 political interventions—a consequence of many scholars' unfortunate
8 propensity to adopt the agendas of their field of study—or because
9 they do not align with academic trends and conjunctures. Thus, even
10 in the seemingly most over-researched post-/conflict societies there
11 are people, places and problems that are curiously absent and distant
12 from fieldwork-based research.

13 Distances between researcher and research participants are also created
14 through physical access restrictions to the field, which may arise either
15 from the dangers of an active conflict—which shaped Mateja Peter's
16 research in Darfur, Sudan (Chapter 13)—or from travel restrictions
17 for foreigners put in place by the host country of the research—as in
18 the case of a project on conflict-affected communities in Myanmar
19 discussed by Katarina Kušić (Chapter 14). The physical distance from
20 the field is overcome in these examples in two different ways: in the
21 first case through embedded research with the UN mission in Darfur,
22 in the second case through working with Burmese research associates to
23 implement the fieldwork-based components in foreign travel-restricted
24 areas. In the case of Darfur discussed by Peter, embedded research as
25 a strategy to overcome the physical distance to the field paradoxically
26 creates such a close relationship with one particular actor (here: an
27 armed actor) that this restricts what can be researched at the same time
28 as it enables the research in the first place. The result is often 'good
29 enough' research, which is better than no research at all, but far from
30 the ideal of independent fieldwork. In the second case, the research
31 'by proxy' in Myanmar discussed by Kušić, the help of local associates
32 is able to overcome the physical distance created by a controlling state
33 and has advantages in terms of cultural closeness between researchers
34 and researched; yet at the same time the fact that the commissioning
35 researchers are not present during the fieldwork severely curbs their
36 ability to follow up on interesting observations in the process and limits
37 what they can safely infer from the generated data—in addition to the
38 potential danger of putting local associates at risk.

39 With the tendency towards more restrictive ethics and risk assessment
40 procedures at universities and research institutions in the Global
41 North, and a general reluctance among Northern funders to directly
42 support researchers in the Global South, it is to be feared that these

1 ‘good-enough’, ‘remote’ and ‘proxy’ forms of research will only become
 2 more prevalent in future, raising questions about our academic know-
 3 ledge and the expert advice to intervening agencies based on it (cf.
 4 Duffield, 2014; Perera, 2017b). The only antidote to this is at least that
 5 we are aware of the pitfalls that such strategies contain.
 6

7 *Sensitivities of research with vulnerable or marginalized participants*
 8

9 The last type of practical challenges and ethical dilemmas in interven-
 10 tion research discussed in this book revolves around fieldwork with
 11 marginalized or vulnerable participants. There are several groups in
 12 intervened societies that qualify as marginalized or vulnerable, due
 13 to violence, poverty or other risky and precarious circumstances
 14 shaping their daily lives. Of the many types of research with vulnerable
 15 participants in areas of intervention, Part IV of this book concentrates
 16 on two issues in particular: research on sexual and gender-based vio-
 17 lence and on violently displaced persons and refugees. Research with
 18 marginalized or vulnerable participants warrants a specific sensitivity
 19 that accounts for human suffering, while refraining from infantilizing
 20 ‘victims’ by ignoring their agency, or drawing generalizing conclusions
 21 about ‘perpetrators’ by missing out on nuances and counterexamples
 22 (for example, Boeston and Henry, 2018; Eriksson Baaz, Gray and
 23 Stern, 2018).

24 Research on wartime and intervention-related sexual violence has
 25 become an important subfield of conflict and intervention studies. In
 26 this book, it is addressed from three perspectives. Kathleen Jennings
 27 discusses the practicalities and ethics of research among sex workers as
 28 part of wider peacekeeping economies (Chapter 15). Reflecting on her
 29 research among sex workers in Liberia and the DRC, she observes a
 30 worrying proliferation of research with ‘victim-survivors’ of wartime
 31 sexual violence, and calls on researchers’ ethical obligation to interrogate
 32 themselves and their motives when deciding to interview members of
 33 vulnerable groups. Jennings also critically examines the ways and limits
 34 of empathic research among vulnerable subjects and addresses prac-
 35 tical questions of access to and compensation for research participants.

36 Angela Muvumba Sellström (Chapter 16) reflects on three ethical
 37 dilemmas of conducting research on ‘non-cases’ of wartime sexual
 38 violence, that is, among armed groups that have regulated sex in war-
 39 time conduct. First, a focus on the non-use of sex as a weapon of war
 40 may exculpate these groups also from other human rights violations
 41 they may have committed. Second, while these groups have regulated
 42 sexual conduct, there may still be some sexual violence survivors who

1 are unwittingly silenced by such a research focus. Third, as the regula-
2 tion of sexual conduct may be based on male leadership of the armed
3 group rather than female sexual autonomy, such regulations may foster
4 entrenched gender inequalities in society.

5 Henri Myrntinen (Chapter 17) discusses the problems of conducting
6 research on the perpetrators of sexual exploitation and abuse in peace-
7 keeping missions, arising from regulatory and definitional grey areas
8 and the difficulties of triangulating data on these sensitive topics. He
9 relates that while stories abound, much of the information is shared in
10 the form of innuendo, rumours and stereotyping urban legends, which
11 are hard to verify and follow their own logic. The chapter discusses
12 how this research situation can be navigated and what can be known
13 and written. In the last contribution to this part, Ingunn Bjørkhaug
14 also reflects on a research that raised problems of rumours and unveri-
15 fiable stories, albeit in a different context. Her fieldwork took place
16 among refugees in a camp in Uganda, where studying sexual violence
17 and exploitation was not the aim of the study, but where these topics
18 surged continuously without solicitation in interviews and focus
19 groups in what she later understood to be a competition for resettle-
20 ment prospects (Chapter 18). Bjørkhaug reflects on how research
21 participants' agency to engage in strategic storytelling influenced the
22 collection of data, what it revealed about the larger context of life in
23 the refugee camp, and how she dealt with the permanent exposure to
24 stories of human suffering.

25 There are several themes that arise from these different chapters that
26 researchers need to think through in fieldwork with marginalized or
27 vulnerable groups. One is the power of bureaucratic processes and cat-
28 egories. In Myrntinen's contribution, rigid definitions and theorizations
29 of sexual exploitation and abuse in peacekeeping missions leave many
30 areas of transactional body politics unaccounted for and create unequal
31 regulations for different types of interveners. For example, while
32 soldiers' sexual conduct may be sanctioned, civilian interveners' con-
33 duct may not, and it is seldom the most severe cases of sexual violence
34 that are actually investigated and prosecuted. The power of adminis-
35 trative categories and procedures is also clear in Bjørkhaug's chapter,
36 where the criteria and interview process for refugee resettlement into
37 third countries shaped to large extents the narratives of the research
38 participants in view of a rumour that her research may be part of this
39 process. In both cases, the power of categorizations does not just impact
40 on research subjects' lives; it impacts directly on the research itself, on
41 how the researcher is perceived, which data can be generated, and
42 what possible conclusions can be drawn from the fieldwork material.

1 As Bjørkhaug elaborates in detail, the dilemma is that this context is
2 largely beyond the researchers influence, while shaping the fieldwork
3 to a large extent.

4 Categories' power often stems from the privileges they allow or
5 deny access to—there is something at stake in struggles over cat-
6 egories, and this affects research. Money can have similar effects, as
7 Jennings discusses (in Chapter 15; see also Bøås, Chapter 5; Molony
8 and Hammett, 2007; Vanderstaay, 2015). While paying participants in
9 cash or kind for their time is a common practice and can be handled in
10 ethical ways, the availability of research money can nonetheless create
11 a research economy for gatekeepers, brokers and research participants.
12 Jennings also discusses how the researcher can find out about and act
13 upon such participation for money in the process of interviewing,
14 but without putting the vulnerable research participants on the spot,
15 thereby acknowledging the socioeconomic opportunity structures the
16 very research creates.

17 This links with a third area of challenges in research with marginal
18 or vulnerable groups and on topics of sexual and gender-based vio-
19 lence, namely how to maintain a critical and nuanced view on topics
20 that may be highly distressing and how to avoid marginalizing some
21 groups or individuals further. Muvumba Sellström's research explicitly
22 brings such nuance into the study of wartime sexual violence through
23 a research focus on armed groups that have regulated sexual conduct.
24 Her chapter also discusses how such counterexamples bear a similar
25 danger of missing out on nuances as the mainstream literature does,
26 for example by marginalizing some cases of rape or condoning pater-
27 nalistic attitudes. Myrntinen's chapter similarly reminds us how diffi-
28 cult it may be to remain open and maintain nuance in research when
29 faced with the perpetrators of acts (short of criminal ones) that the
30 researcher normatively rejects—how to show empathy with research
31 participants who are openly misogynist, racist or sexist? Another major
32 challenge of research among marginalized and vulnerable participants
33 is to balance empathy with all research subjects and ethical fieldwork
34 practice with the researcher's critical and normative research aims (see
35 all chapters in this part).

36 In the conclusions to this book, we—the editors—return to some
37 additional themes that arise from the chapters and that we think con-
38 stitute ten points all academics planning fieldwork-based research on
39 international intervention in violent or closed contexts should consider
40 before they leave for whatever field they deem central to their research.
41 We have consciously refrained from formulating 'lessons learned'. If
42 there is one central lesson to this book, it is that there are no easy or

1 universal answers to the questions raised by the authors. Rather, what
 2 we need is a flexible practice around central areas of concern, which
 3 avoids the mistakes made by others, while paying attention to the vola-
 4 tility, context-specificity and long-term and wider effects of research
 5 in violent or illiberal contexts. This discussion has to be continuous,
 6 and it has only just started.

8 Notes

9 ¹ Feminist scholarship is certainly a welcome exception here, as it recognizes and
 10 centrally writes into its texts the partly understood and unfamiliar, rather than
 11 glossing it over; however, embracing messiness as productive opportunity is not
 12 easy while actually doing the fieldwork. For a useful overview of feminist meth-
 13 odologies for the study of war, see Wibben (2016).

14 ² For first-person accounts of experiences with specific methods in peace and con-
 15 flict research, see MacGinty, Vogel and Brett (2020).

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PART I

Control and confusion

1
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6
7 There is an idea inherent in a lot of advice on and critique of
8 fieldwork-based research in areas of violent conflict and international
9 intervention that the (Northern/outside) researcher is generally in
10 control of the research process. Contributions to this first part of the
11 book raise serious questions about this idea. Four authors reflect on
12 misunderstandings in the research process and the confusions that
13 have arisen during their specific researches. They discuss the effects
14 such confusions have had on them as researchers, including a range
15 of emotions such as frustration, anger, bewilderment and self-doubt,
16 which are seldom discussed in academic outputs. They also address
17 what effects misunderstandings and confusions had on others, especially
18 research assistants and research participants or informants, but also the
19 wider communities in which they have carried out their research (most
20 seriously, for example, putting them in danger). From a recognition
21 that the researcher is not always in control of the research, the authors
22 develop strategies of how to mitigate the risks for themselves and others
23 emanating from questions of control and confusion. Examples in this
24 part are taken from fieldwork interactions with international inter-
25 vention elites in Bosnia and Herzegovina; interpretivist research on
26 the US Africa Command (AFRICOM) in Germany, Mali and Niger;
27 oral history research with Soviet–Afghan War veterans in Tajikistan;
28 and reflections relating to research relationships between a Northern
29 conflict researcher and his Malian research partners in areas of high
30 insecurity in the African Sahel zone.
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