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**For a situational analytics:
An interpretative methodology for the study of situations in
computational settings**

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| Abstract: | <p>This paper introduces an interpretative approach to the analysis of situations in computational settings called situational analytics. I outline the methodological and theoretical underpinnings of this approach, which is still under development, and discuss its operationalization in a semi-automated study of a computationally-inflected social phenomenon, intelligent vehicle test videos on Youtube. Situational analytics extends a qualitative methodology for data analysis developed by Science and Technology Studies scholar Adele Clarke, <i>Situational Analysis</i> (2005), which deploys cartographic methods to visualise and analyse situations observed in ethnographic settings. Its contemporary relevance, I propose, derives from its ability to render tractable a methodological problem that arises in computational social science. As sociologists have shown, contemporary social life has not remained unaffected by the computational architectures in which it increasingly unfolds. However, computational social science tends to be defined as an observational science, and this obliges it to assume, on methodological grounds, that the computational architectures for data capture and analysis on which it relies do not fundamentally affect phenomena studied by these means. Situational Analytics offers a way to address this problematic, namely by making 'the situation' the unit of empiricist computational analysis. The paper discusses how this approach deviates from some of the analytic frameworks for situational analysis recently taken up in computational social science, and concludes by discussing how Clarke's situational analysis needs to be further elaborated to enable us to elucidate contemporary transformations of the situational fabric of social life with the aid of computational research methods.</p> |
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For a situational analytics:

An interpretative methodology for the study of situations in computational settings

1. Introduction

It has been argued that digital data and computational tools enable the extension of formal, automat-able approaches in data analysis to contextual phenomena. The newfound capacity of formal analysis to take ephemeral, tacit, ambient and latent aspects of social life into account, is often said to derive from the adoption of sophisticated computational methods such as machine learning, and their application to new types of social data made available by digital architectures in society (Cointet, 2018; Castelle, 2019). To give a popular example, digital listening services are assumed to be capable of situational analysis, able to pick a suitable song for ‘your ride home after work’ based on locative analysis of aggregate collective user choices,” thereby taking listening contexts into account, as Seaver mentions in his 2015 article “The Nice Thing About Context Is That Everyone Has It.” Computational scientists’ claim to knowing social contexts puts adherents of interpretative approaches in social enquiry in an uneasy position, as the capacity to grasp contextual phenomena - latency, situatedness, atmosphere, and so on - tends to be regarded as the distinguishing feature of the latter approaches, and what validates their contribution to knowledge. In this article, I review claims by proponents of computational social science to have rendered context amenable to formal analysis, and argue that we should not take this methodological narrative at face value. If we are to reclaim a rightful role for interpretative enquiry in a changing methodological landscape defined by computational innovation, we should neither denounce nor affirm the newfound analytical capacities of computational science, but instead engage in critical reconstruction of interpretative methodology : to be sure, computational social science’s claim to have rendered contextual phenomena amenable to systematic, formal analysis may be overblown, but if interpretative approaches in digital social research are to reclaim their distinctive capacity for contextual understanding, reconsideration of some long-held assumptions of our own will be required.

To really understand the limitations - and possibilities - of the computational analysis of social life, I believe we must be willing to accept a counter-intuitive diagnosis: computational social science's problem with context does *not* derive from a *shortage* of commitment to elucidating the situated, local and embodied character of social life in this field, but arises

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3 because their commitment to this analytic purpose is *too unwavering, too rigid, and too*
4 *narrowly defined*. The formal approach to data analysis required by automation leaves
5 computational researchers ill-equipped to perceive, let alone come to terms with, a crucial
6 transformation of our time: what counts as "context" appears to be undergoing transformation
7 in a digital society. New computational architectures, such as social media platforms, have
8 rendered social life reportable, interpretable, shareable and influenceable in potentially new
9 ways. And as a result of the expansion of these architectures across society, social activities
10 are becoming more formatted, thinly structured, and artificial (Aliamo & Kallinikos, 2018).
11 As I will discuss in what follows, the very same digital transformations that have made
12 available new types of social data, and enabled the application of new computational methods
13 in social research, are equally affecting the role of locatedness, embodiment, latency,
14 atmosphere, and so on in social life - in short, its contextual character.

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26 Computational social scientists are certainly not unaware of the methodological challenges
27 that digital data architectures pose to the quality and robustness of analyses that derive data
28 from them. In a recent introduction to the field, Salganik notes that "the digital systems that
29 record behavior are highly engineered to induce specific behaviours" (Salganik, 2019; p. 35).
30 However, he like other computational social scientists, defines the computational approach to
31 knowing society as an *observational science* (Salganik, 2019; see also Voigt et al, 2017;
32 Lazer et al, 2009). This obliges him and other computational social scientists to assume, *on*
33 *methodological grounds*, that societal architectures for data capture and analysis do not
34 fundamentally inflect or inform *the phenomena under study*, or at the very least, that such
35 effects are containable: digital architectures may 'distort' social phenomena that unfold
36 within them but cannot be assumed to positively inform their organisation. To be sure, the
37 idea that the apparatus of knowledge should not contaminate the phenomenon under study,
38 and to negatively define phenomena thus affected as 'experimental artefacts' (Rheinberger,
39 1997), is one generally held and respected across the sciences. However, in pursuing this
40 methodological tenet uncritically in the particular case of knowing society by digital means,
41 the effect is to significantly limit the ability of computational social science to engage
42 empirically, let alone normatively, with digital transformations of social life.

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The aim of this article, then, is to offer methodological reflections on how this challenge can
be rendered tractable in computational social research, and to clarify the crucial contribution
that interpretative methodology can make to elucidating contextual phenomena in a

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3 computational age. To do this, I draw on recent work in the sociology of science and
4 technology. Following Knorr-Cetina (2014), I propose that it is the *situational framing* of
5 social life that is fundamentally affected by digital transformations. Following Clarke (2005),
6 I propose this transformation can be addressed by interpretative approaches to social data
7 analysis, by adopting an empiricist, cartographic approach to computational enquiry. This
8 makes it possible to treat as a research-able question the complex challenge of whether and
9 how the dramaturgy of situations in contemporary social life is inflected by the computational
10 settings in which they unfold, a proposal I will illustrate through a discussion of a digital
11 social research project still under development, a semi-automated analysis of so-called “test
12 drive videos” on the online video platform Youtube, which report on the introduction of
13 intelligent vehicles into the social environment of the street.

24 **2. Computational social science: extending formal analysis to contextual phenomena?**

25 It has become de rigeur in social science to posit that the development of new forms of
26 computational data analysis enables new ways of knowing society (Lazer et al, 2009;
27 Ruppert, Law and Savage, 2013; Salganik, 2018; Author, 2017). While in the 2000s, debates
28 about the new computational social resesarch focused on the affordances of the Internet as a
29 resesarch environment (Hine, 2000; Miller and Slater, 2000; see also Author, 2000), and later
30 in that decaded, on industry-led developments in digital data analytics such as the rise of
31 geodemographics (Savage and Burrows, 2007; Ruppert et al, 2015), in recent years scholarly
32 attention has shifted to the capacities of advanced, "intelligent" computational methods (Elish
33 and boyd, 2018; Castelle, forthcoming). While still tethered to industry hype cycles, todays
34 debate about digital ways of knowing society has produced a distinctive methodological
35 claim, namely the idea that sophisticated new forms of computational analysis, such as
36 machine learning, natural language processing and computer vision have endowed
37 computational science with *the capacity to render contextual phenomena amendable to*
38 *formal analysis* (Bechman and Bowker, 2018; Cointet 2018; Zubiaga et al, 2017). Social
39 phenomena that were previously considered to require interpretative research of some kind -
40 such as ethnographic fieldwork or discourse analysis - can today, they suggest, be brought
41 within the remit of formal, automat-able data analysis.

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Many of today’s proponents of the new computational social science have backgrounds in the
sciences, and the current generation seems less inclined than their predecessors to produce
summary methodological statements, but it is not difficult to detect in publications in this

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3 area the above methodological proposition. In the area of textual analysis,¹ the French
4 scientists Cointet and Parasio claim that new, informatics and AI-enabled approaches can
5 today be used to elucidate sociological phenomena, as methods like Natural Language
6 Processing can be integrated into approaches that take into account "the context of the
7 production of textual inscriptions," thereby recovering their "social thickness" (Cointet et
8 Parasio (2017), p. 3). Tornberg and Tornberg (2016) propose that the statistical textual
9 analysis method of topic modelling can be used to study discourse, which they defined as
10 "communication in context", because ""it explicitly models polysemy (cf. DiMaggio, Nag,
11 and Blei, 2013), i.e. the notion that words can obtain multiple meanings depending on the
12 context they are used in. In fact, what topic modelling does can be summarized as tracing the
13 multiplicity of contexts of every word in the corpus." (p. 5). Dong Nguyen (2016), who
14 conducts linguistic analysis of social media data, makes a similar claim when she states that
15 social media platforms offer "(a) rich contextual data, such as social network information; (b)
16 the opportunity to study language use and human behavior in a multitude of social situations"
17 (Nguyen, 2016; p. 3).

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31 While these commitments to contextual understanding seem largely in line with those of
32 interpretative social enquiry, further probing reveals that the understandings of context
33 invoked in the methodological papers above are unconventional in a number of respects. The
34 types of contexts that computational social science claims to be able to render amendable to
35 formal, automated analysis have a different structure, than the one that interpretative social
36 researchers have long claimed is only accessible through qualitative methodologies such as
37 ethnography and discourse analysis. Take the project of Dong Nguyen (2016), which is to
38 "automatically infer social variables" - such as age and gender - "from text" (p. 25) in social
39 media analysis. This in her view requires taking the situational character of social media
40 interaction into account. As she puts it, in social media analysis attributes (age, gender) are
41 best treated as performative categories, because their enactment is context specific. Citing
42 Judith Butler, Nguyen explains that it is not just that young women have a different social
43 media style than, say, older men, discernment of these different styles requires taking the
44 communicative context into account (e.g. "speaking with friends", "flirting") [...], and
45 concludes that "using contextual information is the only way to improve predictive accuracy

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¹ I limit my discussion to social science applications of informatics-and AI-based approaches to *textual analysis*, mostly for pragmatic reasons: it is an area with which I am relatively familiar, and where I first encountered claims to contextual knowledge acquired by automated means.

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3 of gender classification based on 'text only'" (Nguyen, p. 35). However, in contrast to Judith
4 Butlers performative theory of gender, Nguyen's justification for taking context into account
5 is to identify co-relations (between gender and speech) – something which mostly leaves out
6 of account *the effects*, on the level of the situation – of the use of gender-specific speech.
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8 Indeed, Nguyen explicitly states that her aim is *not* to grasp the uniqueness of the situation,
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10 but to maximize the predictive capacity of social data analysis by generalizing from
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12 situational language use to demographic attributes.² In this version of contextual analysis,
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14 then, the research objective is to abstract generalizable
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16 features of human behaviour from situations (Kelleher and
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18 Tierney 2018) - an objective that is very different from the
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20 commitment of interpretative enquiry to understand situational
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22 dynamics as a social phenomenon in itself.
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26 This commitment to generalizability can be found in many
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28 computational analyses of contextual phenomena, and it leaves
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30 its mark in the very conceptualization of "context" in these
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32 studies. Take the study of stop-search encounters with the police by Voigt et al (2017),
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34 which uses statistical methods of textual analysis to study interactions during street
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36 encounters with police. Analysing verbal interactions captured by body cameras worn by
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38 police officers, they sought to determine whether there is racial bias in the ways police
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40 officers address citizens. What stands out in this study from my perspective is the focus on a
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42 highly ritualized situation, like "stop and search." Ritualized situations, such as encounters
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44 with the police, and, in a different way, the flirting situations analysed by Nguyen, are likely
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46 to have stable features, which repeat themselves across different instances, and can therefore
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48 be more easily inferred using quantitative methods. This focus on situations with repeat-able
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50 protocols can be contrasted to the interpretative framing of situations in sociology and
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52 anthropology, **where situations are considered valuable analytic foci precisely insofar as**
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54 **they present moments of disruption:** occasions in which interactional scripts break down,
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56 are pushed to their limit, or require repair or adjustment (Woolgar and Neyland, 2008). It is
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58 this latter understanding of why context matters that seems especially at risk of being

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60 ² Nguyen follows literature in socio-linguistics in setting as her objective the determination of stable and transferable features of social situations: "the project of describing the varieties of language focuses on the constant features of the situational circumstances of language events, that can be consistently related to varieties in the language texts." (Gregory & Carrol, 1978, p. 10)

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3 bracketed in the new computational social science: as computational social science seek to
4 produce generalizable accounts of social behaviour, it runs counter to the idea that social life
5 *as it is situationally produced* is not reducible to convention or rule-following, and can
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7 therefore not be grasped by rule-based descriptions of it. This is where interpretative enquiry
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9 is needed.
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13 **3. We have a situation: the methodological importance of 'break down' in interpretative** 14 **social enquiry**

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16 In interpretative traditions developed in sociology from the early 20th century onwards, the
17 analytic importance of situations has been established on very different grounds than in
18 recent computational social science. For the former, the analytic value of situations derives at
19 least in part from the resistance of social activity to stabilization and generalization that
20 becomes apparent here. This point was forcefully made by Erving Goffman, who is well-
21 known for undertaking fieldwork studies of everyday situations, and who chastised what he
22 called “correlational” analysis of situations for merely documenting “the geometric
23 intersection of actors making talk and actors bearing particular social attributes”, noting that
24 “I do not think this approach is always valid. Your social situation is not your country cousin”
25 (Goffmann, 1964, p. 134). Goffmann rejected the *generic* understandings of situations
26 produced by correlational analyses, insofar as they did not acknowledge the
27 **underdeterminacy** of situations, which, in his useful characterisation, are marked by the
28 difficulty of formulating a simple, single answer to the question “what is going on here?”
29 (Goffman, 1964). For Goffmann, an adequate interpretation of situations cannot be produced
30 from a distance, by relying on abstract or typical understandings. This is because the
31 definition of “what is going on here?” is at least partly an accomplishment of interaction
32 within the situation itself, and can therefore only be achieved, and documented, by observing
33 the situation “from the inside.”
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49 The idea that social life cannot be adequately understood through formal analysis was not
50 only made by symbolic interactionists, of which Goffmann was a key representative, but also
51 by ethnomethodologists, like Harold Garfinkel. Crucially, in the latter approach this idea was
52 extended to *mediated* situations unfolding beyond the face-to-face. Anne Rawls, in her 2008
53 introduction of Harold Garfinkel’s theory of information, criticizes efforts to model situations
54 for obscuring the **constitutive contingency** of social life, an open-endedness or uncertainty,
55 if you will, that can only be made manageable as part of the unfolding of social life across
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3 settings. As she put it, formal analysis is ill-adapted to the analytic objective of surfacing *the*
4 *constitutive process of the production of shareable interpretative frameworks* in social life.

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6 As she writes:

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9 formal analysis eliminates details of precisely those constitutive and non-
10 generalizable, [...] detailed aspects of social processes of understanding that are crucial
11 to information theory (p. 35). [...]. Information is situated. We must study those
12 constitutive orders that naturally develop to manage and order contingencies.
13 Abstract models do not help. What they do is obscure the contingencies that should
14 be the focus.”

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16 For Rawls, these contingent processes of mutual coordination that happen in situations also
17 extend to situations involving communications across settings. For this reason, a science that
18 disregards these processes of contingent attunement between actors do not just limit our
19 ability to understand what goes on face-to-face interactions, but in social life as such.

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21 In the symbolic interactionist and ethnomethodological traditions, situations are then valued
22 as sites for observing mutual coordination or attunement among actors as an inevitably
23 situated process: understanding of the situation can only emerge from the situation. Other
24 interpretative traditions in sociology, such as actor-network theory and pragmatist sociology,
25 value situations as occasions where shared understandings and assumptions are called into
26 question, and break down. For actor-network theory (Latour, 1987) and the sociology of
27 critical capacity (Boltanski and Thevenot, 2009), a situation is first and foremost marked by
28 the possibility of *dispute* about "what is going on here", situations arise **when it is no longer**
29 **possible to carry "in the habitual way," by relying on conventional, engrained and**
30 **repeated ways of doing** (Boltanski and Thevenot, 1999). A similar approach is
31 taken in American pragmatist sociology, where situations came
32 to be defined as “problematic, high-stake episodes that cast our prescribed roles and
33 trajectories into question” (Missche and White, 1988, p. 697).³

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³ These sociological understandings of situations in terms of disruption builds on the concept of the
"problematic situation" developed by the American pragmatist philosopher John Dewey, in order to draw
analytic attention to moments "when there is something the matter; when there is some trouble to be done away
with, some need, lack or privation to be made good, some conflict of tendencies to be resolved[.]" (Dewey, 1908
(1955), for a discussion see Author, 2012). For Dewey, it is by studying these type of moments marked by
problematicness, that we may understand how knowledge, politics, and morality work.

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3 This is not the place to provide a more detailed intellectual history of the conception of
4 situations in pragmatist sociology, but the main point to take away is that situations here
5 present relevant foci of social enquiry precisely *because* they are *not* routine, and do not
6 repeat themselves exactly. It is not only *because we cannot* assume an agreement about
7 'what is going on' – among the actors involved, nor among analysts - that sociologists should
8 pay careful attention to situations. Situations present moments in which *rule-following can*
9 *break down*, moments it is no longer possible to proceed on the basis of routines, as captured
10 by the expression "we have a situation" (Boltanski and Thevenot, 1999). It is this insight -
11 that social life cannot be conclusively defined in terms of "rule-following" - that led
12 pragmatist sociologists to posit that situations resist purely formal, rule-based forms of
13 analysis - and which becomes newly relevant today, in a context where computational social
14 science claims to be able to render social life amendable to formal analysis.

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17 To sum up, the claim that situations have been rendered amendable to formal scientific
18 analysis in social data science relies on a highly particular definition of the situation, in terms
19 of repeated and thus formalizable features and the patterned relations between them. Such a
20 formal approach to situations stands in sharp contrast to those advanced in interpretative
21 sociology and related traditions in philosophy, where situations have been characterized in
22 terms of underdeterminacy, constitutive contingency and problematicness. From the latter
23 perspectives, formal analysis by necessity leaves key aspects of situations out of account: it
24 fails to engage not only with the uncertainty of situations but with their *unresolved* character.
25 In a given situation, which interpretation of the situation will prevail and prove adequate is
26 *not just unknown but fundamentally in question*, the peculiar challenge of the situation being
27 that *the definition of the situation is at stake in the situation*, and is likely to be partly decided
28 by how it unfolds. For authors like Goffmann and Rawls, the analyst can only appreciate this
29 formative feature of situations by adopting a position *inside the situation*. From this
30 perspective, the claim that formal computational methodologies can be used to understand
31 social context involves a trick: it imposes a particular definition of context, which is
32 identifiable by detecting patterns of language use, and thus, can be characterized in terms of
33 transferable and generalizable features, which is at odds with the understanding of what
34 makes social life a contextual accomplishment in interpretative social enquiry, namely its
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3 situational character: social life as contingent, site-specific, and marked by rule breakdown.⁴
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5 The type of contexts that social data science claims to render amendable to formal analysis *is*
6 *a different type of context* from the one sociologists and anthropologists have claimed is only
7 accessible through interpretative methodologies. I now turn to the question: if we were to
8 take the above interpretative understanding of situations seriously, how then could
9 computational methodologies inform our understanding of them?
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14 **4. The situation is dead, long live the situation: the transformation of aboutness in a** 15 **digital society.** 16

17 Faced with confident claims by computational social scientists that they are able to analyse
18 social phenomena previously deemed to be inaccessible to formal analysis, like context, it is
19 tempting for interpretatively inclined social researchers to fall back on classic critiques of
20 scientific methodology, such as those developed by Goffmann and Rawls. But it is crucial
21 that we critically review taken-for-granted assumptions *on both sides* of the debate between
22 formalist and interpretationist approaches. There are two reasons for this. First, *the rise of*
23 *computational forms of social analysis are justly considered exciting because they open up*
24 *alternative directions for methodology development: they may enable changes in the relation*
25 *between interpretation and formalization in social research.* Secondly, the problems with
26 formal analysis in computational social science today are potentially different from the
27 problems previously identified by sociologists. For instance, Goffman and Rawl's criticisms
28 above concern **interpretative accuracy**: formal analysis is not capable of producing
29 adequate accounts of social life. However, today we are facing a somewhat different issue,
30 that of **analytic capacity** of computationally enabled social science: the reliance on formalist
31 methods risk to result in the bracketing of crucial dynamic in computationally-intensive
32 societies, namely the very transformation of situational logics in and of social life.
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47 Karin Knorr Cetina (2009; 2014) has made an important contribution to surfacing this
48 conundrum. She argues that in a digital society the very composition and nature of
49 “situations” is changing. Starting from the often-made observation that the importance of
50 face-to-face situations has diminished in technological, media-intensive societies (see also
51 Dorothy Smith, 1990; Marvick and boyd, 2010), Knorr-Cetina argues that this shift affects
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58 ⁴ This understanding has been primarily developed in ethnomethodology, actor-network theory and pragmatist
59 sociology. As Reviewer 1 helpfully reminded me, in Goffman's symbolic interactionism, too situations are
60 defined in terms of their repeated, regular character, as "recurrent forms of interaction"

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3 not just community bonds or sociality, but the *situational fabric* of social life: face-to-face
4 situations – which "are foundational for how we conceive of the emergence of sociality and
5 effects like trust" (Knorr-Cetina, 2014, p. 47) – are being gradually replaced by "synthetic
6 situations." The latter do not require "being there in person but allow for participants and
7 objects to be dispersed and still process things interactionally and collectively" (Knorr-
8 Cetina, 2014; p. 47). And: "a synthetic situation is a composite, an assembly of information
9 bits that may arise from many areas around the world and feature the most diverse and
10 fragmented content" (Knorr-Cetina, 2014; p. 49). To develop this argument, Knorr-Cetina
11 draws on field research on electronic trading, and she also discusses marital conflict via
12 Skype, but her aim is to offer a general diagnosis of digital societies, as marked by
13 interactional conditions *that put the status of situations itself at risk*. In digital societies,
14 "conditions that were once central and held to be universal may change" (Knorr-Cetina,
15 2014; p. 46). As an aside, it strikes us that Goffmann already pointed to this possibility,
16 when he wrote: that "Situations warrant an analysis in their own right, *at least in our*
17 *societies*" (Goffmann, 1964; p 134).⁵

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31 Knorr-Cetina argument then brings into view a fundamental, empirical transformation of
32 situations in computationally-intensive societies, which is likely to remain out of view as
33 long as computational analysis is focused on *routine* situations. The methodologically
34 ordained pre-occupation in social data science with repeated, regular, conventional,
35 generalizable situations risks to leave out of consideration key constitutive features of
36 situations in a digital society, in particular, the precarity and increased difficulty of
37 accomplishing a shared interpretation of what is going on here. As Knorr-Cetina puts it,
38 "situational integrity" is much harder to maintain in the mediatized setting of the synthetic
39 situation than in the face-to-face. In mediated situations, *the result is much more likely a*
40 *muddle* [italics ours]: a disorderly interactional arrangement struggling with problems of
41 differential access, orientation and perspective, and coordination" (p. 47). It is then not just
42 that a share-able interpretation of "what is going on here" is difficult to accomplish in
43 synthetic situations, its accomplish-ability is compromised, as is the possibility for share-able
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⁵ The complication before us, then, is that context refers to both a methodological construct and a feature of social reality: As the anthropologist Morita (2013) put it: "The problem of context consists of both the issues concerning the connections found in the field and the way the researcher contextualized the object of study" (p. 218) - neither context can be assumed as "given", ontologically or epistemically speaking (see also Asdal and Moser, 2012).

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3 interpretations of the situation to detectably break down.⁶ One of the possible results of these
4 broad and complex transformations is that a key feature of situations, namely account-ability⁷
5 between actors, comes under pressure. Precisely where the situation presents a muddle, actors
6 may be more inclined to opt for more generic and conventional forms of communication.
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8 Situations in mediated settings would then be *both* more disordered, and provoke more
9 generic forms of communication – *actively contributing* to the demise of situations as defined
10 by Missche and White (1988), in terms of problematicness, as “cast[ing] prescribed roles and
11 trajectories into question,” and offering occasions for actors to *account* for roles, trajectories
12 and relations.
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21 Knorr-Cetina also points to alternative methodological understanding of *what composes the*
22 *situation*. The notion of the synthetic situation highlights the constitutive role of
23 computational settings, like electronic trading platforms, and digital media architectures, such
24 as Skype, or the body camera's worn by the police officers in Voigt's study, in the
25 organisation of situations. From this perspective, computational media architectures and
26 devices do not just present a condition of possibility for sociality, and its analysis, they
27 participate in the very articulation of the situation qua situation. It is this that is only rarely
28 acknowledged in the naturalistic frameworks of computational social science, which treats
29 situations as “what is depicted” in the data, rather than considering how “depiction”, and the
30 interactive media architectures that support it, are in part constitutive of the situation, to use
31 the helpful distinction put forward by Nassauer and Legewie (2018, see below). In
32 computational social science, the formative influence of computational architectures on the
33 interactions and behaviours that it makes available for analysis tend to be coded in negative
34 terms, and defined as a form of “reactivity”, of which the influence on the analysis at hand
35 should be minimized and counter-acted (Salganik, 2018, p. 36). Similarly, when Voigt et al
36 (Voigt et al, 2017 (p. 21)) discuss the possible bias introduced by the presence of observers in
37 stop-and-search situations - which may or may not include the body camera's worn by police
38 offers (!) - they go on to show how this potential source of bias does *not* significantly affect
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53 ⁶ Even the basic question of *who* constitutes the active and potentially active participants is ambiguous in many
54 mediated settings. In most face-to-face situations the relevant participants are monitori-able by the interactants
55 themselves, but in mediated settings one's audience is not so easily defined. The notion of "context collapse"
56 put forward by Marwick & boyd (2010) points to something similar, although their notion pertains first and
57 foremost to online communications, not to situations as such.

58 ⁷ We use the -able to denote a potential for observation, and related empirical operations, rather than their
59 actuality. As sociologist like G.H Mead have long argued, the relevance of observation for social life is not
60 limited to the actual monitoring of social life by actual actors, but **as a possibility** may inflect social life most
decisively (see also Adkins and Lury (2012) special issue on *Measure and Value*).

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3 their study. In computational social scientific studies, briefly put, computational and media
4 infrastructures are defined as *ideally neutral frames*, which make possible observation and
5 measurement but should *not* leave their mark in the situation, or, when they do, present a
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7 *negative source* of bias.
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10 Knorr-Cetina's concept of the synthetic situation then allows us to pose the problem
11 with computational social science' treatment of situations as follows: the framing of situations
12 in terms of generalizable scripted behaviours may, in the long term, render unavailable for
13 empirical analysis key social phenomena of our time, namely the socio-technical composition
14 and transformation of situations, limiting social science's ability to inform wider
15 understandings of "what is going on" in the digital society. I am struck by the extent to which
16 computational social science focuses on stable, circumscribed situations ("flirting"; "stop and
17 search") - implicitly or explicitly defining social life in terms of stabilized rituals and
18 interactional forms. What about situations that do not exhibit this type of regularity? The
19 pursuit of generalizable knowledge and predictive capacity puts computational social science
20 at risk of excluding from analysis phenomena that look like mere contextual noise or artefacts
21 of machinic bias: the muddles we face when finding Twitter messages littered with too many
22 hashtags, a comment space full of advertising and spam. If we follow Knorr-Cetina's analysis
23 of synthetic situations, such muddles *may precisely be constitutive of the situations in which*
24 *actors find themselves in computational societies* . The "aboutness" (Gross, 2016) of
25 interaction, information and communication - their capacity to be "about" something, to find
26 a referent in social and cultural life, the determination that *something* is definitely going on
27 here - is *not* as a matter of course accomplished in mediated settings (see on this point also
28 Lindgren, 2020). A conventionalist definition of "situations", in terms of successfully
29 ritualized interaction, is likely to leave us - analysts, as well as actors - under-equipped to
30 understand what is going on in digital societies.
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47 Consideration of what counts as "a situation" in a digital society then brings into view the
48 following methodological challenge: *If in computationally-inflected settings in society,*
49 *infrastructures, media architectures and devices may play an active role in organising - or*
50 *dis-organising - situations, how then should we analyse situations with the aid of*
51 *computational methods?* From the methodological standpoint of "situational analysis" that I
52 am articulating here, Knorr Cetina's account also has a number of limitations. Her definition
53 of the "mediatized setting" is mostly limited to the digital front-end, being composed of what
54 she calls screen-based technologies. As such, it more or less disregards the infrastructural
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3 layer of computational architectures including that of communication and interaction formats
4 (publishing, sharing, friending) and algorithmic selection (rankings and ratings). However,
5 the latter seem precisely key to possible transformations of situations in today's
6 computational societies. As interpretative social researchers have recently argued, it is
7 precisely because of the relative invisibility of computational data architectures across society
8 that their socio-technical framing - or possibly, de-framing? - of social life is at risk of being
9 ignored (Ruppert et al, 2013; Author, 2017; Amoore 2018; Maguire and Winthereik,
10 forthcoming). If we are to develop an understanding of how the status and composition of
11 situations is undergoing transformation today, we should therefore extend our analysis of
12 situations to include this infrastructural layer.
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20 21 **5. Situational analysis: an empiricist approach in interpretative computational enquiry**

22 In the remainder of this paper, I would like to outline one possible way in which
23 interpretative traditions in social research can contribute to addressing the above
24 methodological challenge, namely, by making the situation a unit of **empiricist** analysis in
25 computational enquiry. In proposing this, I follow a specific qualitative approaches to data
26 analysis, namely Adele Clarke (2005) Situational Analysis (SA), which proposes a
27 *compositionist* methodology for the study of situations. The aim of data analysis for Clarke is
28 "to specify which entities – of varying scale and composition - make a difference in a
29 situation " (Clarke, 2005; p. 78). An empiricist approach, that is, does not presume to know
30 beforehand which entities are relevant to the situation, how they relate, what their status is
31 (human or non-human, technical or natural or conceptual), or even "what is going on here."
32 Instead, to determine *what entities are activated and deployed in the specification of the*
33 *situation at hand is the objective of situational analysis.*⁸ It seems to me that Clarke's
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48 ⁸ Actor-network theory, and ANT-inspired methodologies, including digital forms of controversy analysis and
49 issue mapping, make a similar, empiricist assumption. Here enquiry begins with these admittedly basic
50 questions: who are the actors? what are the issues? where is it happening? (Author, 2015). This form of analysis
51 relies on empirical, relational dynamics of networking, for the specification of relations of relevance between
52 entities, which in turn enables analysts to answer the basic ontological questions above. Situational analysis
53 also shares something else with the analysis of "issue formation": both posit a "something happening",
54 something the matter, in John Dewey's formulation: "some lack to be made good" (see Author, 2012). In other
55 words, this forms of analysis studies social life through the lense of dynamics of problematization. This indeed,
56 is why networking dynamics can be relied upon to specify relations of relevance between actors: there is
57 something to be resolved and actors are moving, and connecting, in the effort to make this happen. Situational
58 analysis adds something to controversy analysis, recognition of how the *settings* of social life inflect how it
59 unfolds: something is happening *here*. This makes situational analysis so valuable for the analysis of social life
60 in computational environments: it allows us to engage with the "problem of the setting" : how the where of
social life - its location - participates in its doing (and in issue formation).

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3 approach has much to offer for a computationally-enabled, interpretative analysis of situations
4 as they unfold in computationally inflected settings, for the following reasons.
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8 First, Clarke's situational analysis explicitly recognizes the participation of technical and
9 environmental entities in situations: In order to specify the heterogeneous composition of a
10 situation, SA proceeds by constructing so-called compositional maps, discursive data
11 visualisations populated by diverse elements including non-humans, technical entities,
12 discourse, issues, organisations, and so on. This interpretative cartographic method also
13 allows SA to recognize the dynamic nature of situations: "situational analysis favours
14 analytics over theory, because the composition of the situation is always changing." (SA, p.
15 28) This makes it possible for situational analysts to recognize the constructive and/or de-
16 structuring contributions of *different type* of entities - human and non-human - to the unfolding
17 of situations in computational settings, from a camera on the chest of a police man to in a
18 stop and search situation, to a like button on a Facebook page. Second, SA's aim is to surface
19 latent, problematic realities: it does not "wait for emergence from data (...) as we must
20 "actively detect silences in data" (p. 75). Situational analysis, that is, specifies entities that
21 compose the situation not in a purely descriptive mode, but defines this task as *articulation*
22 *work*, actively attending to what may be difficult to express. Third, Clarke's approach is able
23 to recognize the capacity of situations to surface account-ability requirements on the actors
24 implicated in them. With its commitment to specify "what makes a difference in situations,"
25 situational analysis makes it possible to operationalize situations as empirical occasions for
26 account-ability. Fourth, Situational Analysis offers an *iterative approach* to data analysis: the
27 construction of compositional maps and the specification of the situation is a qualifying
28 operation, with involves the progressive curation of data and map, of figuring out the
29 situation *and* determining what are its consequential elements, through a back-and-forth
30 between empirical materials, data, concepts and visualisation.
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48 As I will illustrate by discussing a pilot study below, Clarke's approach offers a possible way
49 of analysing situations as they unfold in computational settings with digital methods.
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51 However, doing so also brings to the fore an important limitation of the approach. Even if SA
52 does not define what composes the situation at the outset, it still seems to presume a *bounded*
53 *and recurrent situation*. Clarke's SA presumes a world in which situations are detect-able as
54 part of the process of data collection and analysis, without broaching the question of how
55 socio-technical infrastructures problematize this very possibility. To be sure, Clarke
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3 recognizes the importance of infrastructure, noting that "taken-for-granted, invisible non-
4 human actors like "electricity" are generally assumed [to be in place]" but that "specifying
5 such non-human actors is generally important" (Clarke et al. 2018, S. 19). But the approach
6 nevertheless rests firmly on the assumption that there are **fields** of social activity, which can
7 be transformed into ethnographic material, which then becomes the resource for
8 interpretative inquiry. The delineation of situations is itself not problematized on
9 infrastructural grounds, as part of the process of enquiry. However, situations as they unfold
10 in computational settings often do not unproblematically belong or contribute to clearly
11 defined fields of activity, and may present not-quite situations or semi-situations (what Karin
12 Knorr Cetina calls "muddles").⁹ In settings like these, not only the articulation of entities
13 relevant to the situation – such as content, genre, and users - but also the relative (un-
14)boundedness of situations or not-quite situations, is a possible effect of the digital media
15 infrastructures in which they unfold.

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17 Insofar as the object of situational analysis is not only informed, but also *problematized*, by
18 the computational settings in which they arise, it seems helpful to recognize the situations
19 here do not unfold in a field, but in a **semi-field**, to use the term proposed by anthropologist
20 by Ann Kelly (2012). Coined to characterize experimental huts, a kind of model home
21 designed for the study of malaria in model villages in East Africa, Kelly defines the semi-
22 field as "a stage upon which to observe [...] phenomena, bridg[ing] the distinct empirical
23 terrains and methodological registers of the laboratory and the field." As Kelly points out, the
24 semi-field "is located in the field, but it is not quite of the field": these artificial
25 environments are explicitly designed with the purpose to render monitor-able and analys-able
26 what happens in them. Just as experimental huts, computational environments like social
27 media platforms are sufficiently "like" other environments in society, insofar as they enable
28 social interaction, expression and organization, yet "they are controlled enough to facilitate
29 intervention and manipulation of these activities, provid[ing] the artificial conditions required
30 for the recording and analysis of these actions" (Derksen and Beaulieu, 2011; see also
31 Author, 2017, p. X). It is in comparison to this relative artificiality of digital social life as
32 studied in social media research, that it becomes clear how, by comparison, Clarke's
33 approach is marked by what could be called a residual naturalism. The idea that the
34 infrastructural environments in which social life happens can often be bracketed in the study

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60 ⁹ This term was suggested by Fabian Muniesa. pers. com.

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3 of social life, does not just mark the quantitative methodologies implemented in
4 computational social science: traces of this assumptions can equally be detected in
5 interpretative traditions in social research like Clarke's. This is understandable, in part as an
6 empirical consequence of studying situations in which its infrastructural conditions do not
7 constitute the problem at hand (for example, the availability of electricity not being the issue
8 on a hospital ward under study). If we are to develop an interpretative analysis of situations in
9 computational settings, the task at hand is then to develop a form of situational analysis that
10 allows us to recognize the participation of infrastructures, media and devices in the situation.
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19 **6. Situating intelligent vehicle testing in society: A semi-automated analysis of test** 20 **drives on Youtube**

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22 To illustrate how situational analysis may be operationalized - and developed - in
23 computational social research I will briefly discuss a pilot study undertaken with colleagues
24 in the Media of Cooperation Research Programme at the University of Siegen in 2017 and
25 2018. In this project, we turned to the online video platform Youtube to examine whether and
26 how videos featuring self-driving cars undertake situated evaluations of new technology in
27 environments in society, notably the street. In examining this, we built on recent work in
28 Science & Technology Studies and Human Computer Interaction which has proposed that the
29 appearance of 'intelligent' or smart vehicles in street environments presents an opportunity
30 for social learning about technology "in the wild" (Laurent and Tironi, 2015; Brown and
31 Laurier, 2017; Stigoe, 2018, Author, 2020). Thus, Brown and Laurier (2017) have analysed
32 Youtube videos featuring Tesla cars in Autopilot mode, showing how these video's situate,
33 contextualize and problematize intelligent technology by reporting on "real-life" experiences
34 of driving and encountering these new technologies in the street. Building on this work, our
35 project asked, can test drive video's featuring self-driving cars on Youtube be said to
36 instantiate a **situational mode of evaluation** of the introduction of intelligent vehicle
37 technology in environments in society? Do they render this event - the introduction of
38 intelligent technology into the social environment - available for interpretation from the
39 standpoint of the on-going happening of life in society, on the road?
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53 Our question was informed by the following concern: while user-led evaluations of
54 technology in the form of online video reviews have quickly gained currency in today's
55 cultural economy, it remains in question whether and how this form of technology testing in
56 everyday settings is capable of producing *evaluations* of new technology, and of ensuring the
57 accountability of innovation. We wanted to establish whether and how user-generated videos
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3 featuring self-driving cars rendered available for evaluation the type of situations that
4 according to the sociology of technology enable social learning about innovation to take
5 place: the testing situation, the moment in which the introduction of a new entity into social
6 life disrupts habitual ways of doing, and in that moment compels social actors to engage in
7 articulation work, specifying and evaluating features of technology, social life, and their
8 interrelations (Star, 1999; Boltanski and Thevenot, 1999; see also Latour, 2004). We asked:
9 do Youtube videos of intelligent vehicles in street environments surface such testing
10 situations, helping to render explicit the implications of self-driving vehicles for society?
11 That is also to say, in taking up methods of Youtube video analysis, we sought to determine
12 **whether** video reports of intelligent vehicles in the streets surfaced situations, and whether
13 they enabled the type of account-ability relations that according to sociologists like
14 Goffmann and Knorr-Cetina are facilitated by situations.

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24 In focusing on the popular Youtube genre of “tech review,” our study explicitly took
25 digital media architectures into account. We approached situations, or rather, the situational,
26 not as given in the data, but as entailing *a distinctive mode of publicity*, a mode of reporting
27 that deploys contingent and contextual occurrences and encounters in everyday environments
28 like the street or the home in order to narrate and/or investigate the introduction of new
29 technology into society.¹⁰ However, this is also to say that we framed the relevance of media
30 architectures from the standpoint of the situation that formed the object of our analysis: the
31 introduction of self-driving vehicles into social environments. Because of this, we defined the
32 significance of Youtube as a popular platform for technology review **not** primarily in terms
33 of user-generated content (Arthurs et al, 2017), but in terms of facilitating technology review
34 from situated standpoints in *mundane social environments*. This approach notably differs
35 from other sociological research that relies on digital video to conduct situational analysis,
36 such as the work by Nassauer and Legewie (2018) who define video data analysis as
37 “focuse[d] on situational dynamics and behaviors using video or other visual data to
38 understand how people act and interact, and which consequences situational dynamics have
39 for social outcomes” (Nassauer and Legewie (2018, p. 2). As Nassauer and Legewie put it,
40 they define situations in terms of what is depicted in video data (Nassauer and Legewie
41 (2018, p. 2), whereas our pilot study sought to establish whether and how Youtube, as a
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57 ¹⁰ As Hlajmar Bang Carlsen helpfully pointed out, the situation can be understood as a kind of meta- or infra-
58 frame, that must be able to withstand disagreement at a lower level. This makes situations curate-able,
59 something which becomes more relevant in computing-intensive societies, because the boundaries of synthetic
60 situations are not given, and neither is their composition.

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3 digital media architecture, enables situational modes of reporting and evaluating the arrival of
4 technology in society. That is, we are interested in the extend to which online publicity
5 platforms, like the Youtube media architecture, are *configured* in society (Pink, 2018) to
6 enable the development and deployment of new forms of evaluating technology, in this case
7 through practices of reporting test drives and sightings of self-driving cars.
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11 To investigate this, we combined two different approaches to online video analysis,
12 each of them adapting Clarke's situational analysis in a different way: 1) an interpretative
13 mapping of situational elements in a small corpus of online videos and 2) a semi-automated
14 textual analysis of a larger corpus of YouTube video descriptions collected via this platform's
15 API. Thus, to start with we conducted data sessions loosely structured on the in-depth
16 interpretation of video recordings that are the specialty of ethnomethodology, which on this
17 occasion we referred to colloquially as "deep watching," to mark its contrast from the larger-
18 scale textual analysis reserved for the second phase of our study. Working with an
19 interdisciplinary group of scholars with backgrounds in digital media studies, Science and
20 Technology Studies and sociology, we selected 15 online videos featuring driverless cars
21 which potentially matched our description above: reporting on the appearance of driverless
22 cars in the social environment in the situational mode.¹¹ We then watched and interpreted test
23 drive videos featuring self-driving cars en groupe over the course of a few days, with two
24 aims: a) to determine the relevant types of videos in our corpus, and b) to produce for each
25 video type an initial mapping of constituent elements. After watching each video, we grouped
26 the videos in three different categories: a) company demos (featuring on-the-road vehicle
27 demonstrations by automotive and tech companies); b) DIY testing (amateur videos of test
28 drives, featuring mostly Tesla vehicles in autopilot mode, recorded with dashboard cameras
29 or smart phones and narrated from a driver's perspective).¹² c) the "view from the street,"
30 which consisted of recordings of third-party sightings of self-driving test vehicles (Google,
31 Uber) in the street, by journalists and other external observers. Each of the video categories
32 was marked by different cinematographic styles, with company video's tending to be
33 professionally produced, while DIY testing and the "view of the street" following home
34 video and real-time reporting conventions.
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56 ¹¹ Our initial video selection was thus theory-led and not in any way representative of the available population
57 of self-driving video's on Youtube. It also means that the first, qualitative, part of our study, actually searched
58 for "testing situations" in the data, and only in the second part did we adopt the evaluative stance to establish
59 whether testing situations involving self-driving cars are reported with Youtube,

60 ¹² A initial list of videos featuring street tests of intelligent vehicles was drawn from a variety of sources -
collected news articles, colleagues' recommendations, the Youtube recommendation system.

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Next, we identified notable elements in the videos in each of the three categories, loosely following Clarke's first step of situational analysis, situational mapping (Clarke and Charmaz, p. 15),¹³ using sticky notes. Watching each video in silence, participants were asked to identify *heterogeneous entities featuring in the videos* which, in their view, could help to answer the question: which objects, actors, concepts and values are invoked in the videos to specify what is at stake in the introduction of autonomous vehicles into the street? Our provisional findings suggest that the demo videos produced by automotive companies made the most significant effort to narrate the social environments in which self-driving cars operated, featuring women (non-)drivers, diverse road users including cyclists, urban and road environments that were clearly named, and vehicle engineers discussing the unpredictability of the street environment. However, they did so not necessarily in a situational mode, since, as one participant put it, everything in the videos is so clearly scripted. DIY testing video's did remarkably little to report the environments through which the test drives were passing, focusing instead on vehicle performance and the driving experience (as one participant provocatively summed it up, "talking to self, in the fog"). By contrast, our situational map for "views from the street" recorded a number of situational elements ("clumps of people on sidewalk", "a police car observing transgression", "test ground fenced off," and the enigmatic "ruins of the automotive society", referring to a graffiti covered underpass where one of the sightings occurred), but also includes viewer interpretations indicating that the curation of a testing situation was not quite accomplished in these videos ("not much happens," "car not strange enough", "people don't notice the vehicle"). For purposes of illustration, Figure 1 presents a transcription of this last mapping.

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Figure 1: The "view from the street" situational map of online videos recording third-party sightings of intelligent vehicles, December 2017¹⁴

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Seeking to extend our analysis beyond the speculative interpretation of our small, theory-driven selection, we then took the next step of conducting a semi-automated textual analysis of a larger corpus of YouTube video descriptions collected via this platform's API. To this

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¹³ "Situational maps lay out all the major human, nonhuman, discursive, historical, symbolic, cultural, political, and other elements in the research situation of concern. What appears in a situational map is based on what is in the empirical situation of inquiry—the researcher's project." (Clarke and Charmaz, 2019, p. 15)

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¹⁴ Transcription of the situational maps produced in sticky notes. Colours indicate whether elements contribute positively (green) or negatively (red) to articulating the introduction of self-driving cars into the street as a testing situation. The X-axis moves from rich (-1) vs poor (+1) test environment, the Y-axis moves from radical innovation (top) to incremental innovation (bottom). See also footnote 26

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3 end, we constructed a larger corpus of Youtube videos of street tests of intelligent vehicles in
4 the following manner: from a custom-made Twitter data set, consisting of tweets containing
5 the terms driverless car, self-driving car, autonomous vehicle, and related terms between
6 15/10/2017 and 15/04/2018, we extracted all Youtube URLs (total 4052 video's).¹⁵ We then
7 queried the Youtube API to extract the video descriptions produced by the creators of these
8 Youtube videos. Based on a selection of the Top 500 most frequently tweeted videos, and
9 informed by the deep watching exercise, our study group proceeded to construct a lexicon of
10 relevant terms for the analysis of these self-descriptions, identifying terms that could help to
11 specify "what is going on here" (the situation) and could serve as indicators of the extent to
12 which the video situated intelligent vehicles in environments in society. In doing so, we
13 followed Gerlitz and Van der Vlist lexicon-based analysis of app video's on Youtube (see for
14 a discussion Dieter et al, 2019): in populating our lexicon with terms (see Figure 2), we then
15 constructed a model of the situation composed of heterogeneous entities extracted from our
16 data, through a back and forth between our interpretative maps, our top 500 URLs, and
17 constrained by the lexicon tool's technical limitations (for example, at this stage, we couldn't
18 identify phrases). The resulting lexicon, consisted of two types of categories: 1) genres
19 (news, demo, recording, humour, test) and 2) features (environment, business, technology,
20 accidents). For each category we identified index terms, the aggregated occurrence of which
21 in the video descriptions of our corpus would indicate the category obtained for the video at
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40 **Figure 2: The Lexicon: Intelligent vehicle test drives on Youtube, Siegen, 21-22 April** 41 **2018**

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44 Using an R script, we then applied the lexicon to the full corpus of video descriptions,¹⁶
45 allowing us to establish the extent to which the different video genres we had identified –
46 Demo, News, Promo, Test, Recording, .. - were populated by different types of entities
47 (features). We then hypothesized that these different entity types could be taken as indicators
48 of a situational mode: a strong presence of entities in the category road environment (zebra
49 crossing, traffic light, side walk) would indicate a comparatively speaking more situationally
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56 ¹⁵ The Twitter data set was collected using TCAT (Borra and Rieder, 2012). Query: intelligent vehicles. Date
57 range: 15/10/2017-15/04/2018. From this data set, we extracted 4027 Youtube URLs for subsequent analysis.

58 ¹⁶ This script was coded by James Tripp, and has since been developed into the data tool Le-CAT, see
59 https://warwick.ac.uk/fac/cross_fac/cim/tools
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grounded mode of reporting, then a large presence of entities in the category business (brand, invest, market). Through a correlational analysis (see Figure 3), we were then able to produce an overview of different types of entities featuring in the various genres of video's: media-specific terms (brand, promote) as well as actor types (pedestrian, cyclists, police), and environmental entities (traffic light; zebra crossing). Noting that video's in the category "test" have proportionally speaking a wider range of environmentally specific features as compared to video's in the category "demo", we tentatively attribute to the former genre of videos a greater capacity to locate intelligent technology testing in environments in society, and the potential to conduct an evaluation of technology in the situational mode.

Figure 3: Correlating Genre and Feature; Semi-automated lexicon analysis of 4052 driverless Youtube video's, Warwick/Siegen, April 2018

To be sure, this analysis leaves many questions unanswered, including that of whether and how test drive videos on Youtube enable the enactment of accountability relations, both within the dramaturgy of each video, and as media circulating in YouTube infrastructures and beyond. Neither does our lexicon analysis enable us to specify in sufficient detail how the media architecture of the Youtube platform leaves its mark on the "testing situations" in the videos under scrutiny, although it was clear to us that they do. In parsing Youtube video descriptions for our lexicon building exercise we encountered lots of material that pointed in this direction, from a Tesla test drive "channel" set up to enable monetization of Youtube content, to attention seeking content like a demo of how to put make-up on while driving in Autopilot mode. What we called above the "infrastructural layer" of online platforms equally left its mark on our analysis. For one, in turning to a Twitter data set to extract the larger set of Youtube URLs featuring driverless cars, we gave the latter social media platform a role in the delineation of the "testing situation" under scrutiny, the appearance of self-driving cars in street environments. This begs the questions: appearance in which street, where? At which level is "the situation" constituted, in our semi-automated online data analysis? While our lexicon analysis suggests that situational mapping as an interpretative method can be scaled up using automat-able, lexicon-based methods of data analysis, these methods at the same time introduce platform effects into our very delineation of the "situation" to be interpreted. However, to understand the participation of infrastrucutres in the situation under scrutiny, we would need to extend our situational mapping to include media-specific elements beyond the frame, like channels.

6. Conclusion: from situational analysis to situational analytics

This article has identified some formative features of an interpretative approach to situational analysis that I believe can make important contributions to computational social research, and equip it to address possible transformations of the situational fabric of digital societies. What are they? First, situational analysis explicitly recognizes the participation of non-human elements, like media architectures and genres, in situations. As such, it enables us to study situations as distributed accomplishments, which are produced through the coming together of heterogenous elements, including in situ occurrences (a car encounters a traffic sign on a road), media genres (the test drive) and infrastructural effects (tweeting Youtube URLs). Second, in situational analysis interpretative and computational methods can be combined to analyse situations marked by the *de-stabilization* of routines, such as the introduction of new technology into the social environment. By using computational methods of data analysis, we tend to restrict ourselves to formal analysis, focusing on the detection of repeatable patterns across settings. This was also the case, for instance, in our lexicon-based analysis. However, such a focus on the detection of regular patterns does **not** necessarily mean that we have to limit our analysis to ritualized, routine interactions. By adopting an empiricist approach like situational analysis, we can use computational methods to study less stable, disruptive, testing situations too.

However, the analysis presented here moves beyond situational analysis in at least one decisive way: it proposes a way to scale up the interpretative study of situations. Using methods of situational mapping, we can document *which entities of varying scales may make a difference to "the situation"*, and this can be done through a variety of means, from sticky notes to semi-automated lexicon-based analysis. However, in scaling up situational analysis in this manner, to practice what I call "situational analytics," we inevitably face different kinds of challenges from situational analysts working with ethnographic data: working with large, digital data sets derived from online platforms and other large-scale data infrastructures, our analysis becomes inflected by media and data infrastructures in society in distinctive ways: here, "what makes a difference" is irrevocably marked by infrastructural latencies, or what Amoore (2018) calls the subvisible –socio-technical architectures and socio-material conditions left implicit in digital interfaces. Which is also to say, the boundaries of situations, where they begin and end, is unlikely to be "given in the data." Instead, situational analytics requires the analyst to *actively curate* the situation under study, and establish clear relevance conditions.

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3 The above features mean that situational analytics as described here, is equipped to to
4 address possible transformations of the situational fabric of digital societies. It is able to
5 analyse semi-situations, in which “aboutness” – the capacity of a situation to have a coherent
6 referent – is not necessarily accomplished. To be sure, any analysis of social life must assume
7 that aboutness obtains, and it is needed to ensure the situational. But the situational analysis
8 put forward in this paper does *not* see it as its job to repair, or re-instate this aboutness, and
9 secure the natural qualities to the object of analysis by means of its analytic framework. The
10 analyst’s job is not to sustain naturalist definitions of social situations but to offer critical,
11 empirically informed evaluations of the capacity of computationally mediated settings to
12 surface situations in various ways. However, this also means that situational analysis must
13 expand its scope and examine **how** the distinctive features and capacities of situations –
14 demonstration, problematization, accountability – surface in environments in society. A
15 naturalistic definition of social situations inhibits precisely this: defining situations in terms
16 of rituals and protocols, it becomes very difficult, to examine empirically what constitutes –
17 or fails to constitute – a situation in computational environments in society.

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19 To make the case for an interpretative analysis of situations, then, is **not** to reject
20 automated and formal data analysis as a social research methodology. It is to challenge *the*
21 *tendency to naturalism* implicit in many contemporary instantiations of computational social
22 science methodology, as it is in other approaches. Coming to terms, methodologically
23 speaking, with the artifice – with the synthetic or compositional nature - of social phenomena
24 in a digital society requires letting go of naturalism in its many varieties. This project is what
25 I have in mind when calling for a move from situational analysis to situational analytics. We
26 must devise interpretative forms of analysis which are able to recognize that situations are not
27 "given" in society, but artificial, in question, and inflected by curatorial interventions on the
28 part of both social actors and analysts, as well as of the computational and media
29 architectures in which they unfold.

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