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Tools and techniques for inputs, activities and short-term outcomes

This section describes tools and techniques you can use to collect information about inputs, activities and short-term outcomes. There are two parts:

1. Quantitative methods; and
2. Qualitative methods.

Introduction

For the Way of Life programme you will need to collect information for some of following indicators where they are relevant to your project:

- Input indicators: finance, volunteer staff;
- Activity indicators: participants, attendance and hours of delivery; and
- Short-term outcomes: programme completers, new participations, healthy friends and participant satisfaction

This section provides you with information about how to collect the data for each of these indicators. Different projects may collect this information in different ways. However, you will all need to complete a Monitoring Framework to identify how, and when you will collect this information.

All the tools and techniques discussed in this section are listed in Figure 1 which outlines quantitative methods of collecting information. Figure 2 outlines qualitative methods of data collection. These tables also show you the capacity your organisation will need to use a particular technique. Capacity means both staff resources and money. You can then decide which techniques are most suitable for your project. Some things are more time consuming and expensive to do than others. In general, like anything else, the more time, effort and expense you put into something the better the quality of data and the more robust it will be. Each tool or technique is also discussed in further detail later.

Figure 1 Tools, techniques and capacity for quantitative techniques

Quantitative techniques	
Tool	Capacity level
Records	
<i>Management information</i>	Medium
<i>Accounts</i>	High
<i>Staff/Volunteer information</i>	Low
<i>Timesheets</i>	Low
<i>Registration forms</i>	Low
<i>Consent forms</i>	Low
<i>Attendance register</i>	Low
<i>Tutor and mentor records</i>	Medium/High
Footfall counters	Low
Pedometers/Accelerometers	Medium/High
Surveys	
<i>Face-to-face questionnaires</i>	High
<i>Self administered questionnaires</i>	Medium/High
<i>Postal Questionnaires</i>	Medium/High

Figure 2 Tools, techniques and capacity for qualitative techniques

Qualitative techniques	
Tool	Capacity level
Rickter scale	Medium
Photographs	Low/Medium
Observation	High
Focus Groups	Medium/High
In-depth Interviews	High
Diaries	Medium/High
Narratives and stories	Medium
Drama	High

Part 1 - Quantitative techniques

Quantitative techniques collect data which can be counted and measured (that is, quantifiable) and can be analysed statistically. Quantitative techniques can also point to the reasons outcomes occur and how likely results characterise wider populations (generalisation). Quantitative techniques are repeatable, for example, you can run a survey several times. This means you can check whether your findings are correct or not or whether sample populations differ in any way.

Records

What are records?

Records consist of data captured in a systematic way. They include management information, accounts, volunteer records, time sheets and other sources of information. This information is needed to carry out effective project management. But don't discount this information as a useful source of data for monitoring and evaluation.

We have included accounts in this section as your project's financial accounts will be an information source for the Progress Indicator that measures financial input. Time sheets record staff and volunteers' work.

When to use records

Information from financial accounts and staff time sheets can be used for the Finance progress indicator. When you assess the impacts your project has had it will be important to know how much you spent to achieve those impacts.

Projects that use volunteers to deliver some of the activities have to use volunteer records and time sheets to provide data for the Progress Indicator on Volunteer staff. This will allow you to assess volunteers' contribution to the project's achievements.

Using records

In your project application you were asked about the amount of money you needed from BIG and how much funding you were expecting from other sources. This also included in-kind contributions such as use of materials and equipment. You were also asked in section 3.9 to work out how many hours each member of project staff will work every week, the salary for total hours worked and so on. Each staff member and volunteer should keep weekly or monthly time sheets, recording how they spent their time. This is simply standard, good practice.

In your accounts you will record financial inputs and in-kind contributions as you receive and use them. This is where the information for the Progress Indicator Finance will come from. You should also estimate a value for non-monetary contributions.

Recording information

A record system is integral to your project set-up. Draw up record sheets for tutors and mentors that are simple and clear, but allow space for extra information to be collected as well. Keep track of the financial and financial equivalent resources by breaking them down as shown in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3 Presentation of project funding

	BIG	Match funding
Capital		
Revenue		

Tutor and mentor records

These, where appropriate, may contain further information about your participants and may contain information about activities, experiences and targets.

Using information

The following are suggestions about handling and storing the information you derive from forms; many of these points are also more widely applicable as well.

- Link your records if possible, so all your data can be easily collated and accessed and used by staff and project workers where appropriate.
- Keep it simple – only collect the information you need. Enter data as soon as possible after you have collected it.
- Train staff and project workers so they can use your systems and access useful information. Staff and project workers who can see how the data they provide is used will be more committed to your project.
- Respond to any issues revealed by the data as soon as you can.
- Organise your records – paper and electronic filing systems should match; have enough space for your records; have procedures for filing and retrieval.
- Be aware of when the data protection act is applicable.

Footfall Counters

What are footfall counters?

Footfall counters enable you to count large numbers of people quickly. Many people use small, cheap devices to count the number of people coming into a building, or sitting in a park. You can buy these for less than £5.

Figure 5 Hand Tally counter



Footfall counters would be useful for counting attendance at Healthy Places events. There are other automatic counters that can link to gates, track cyclist, walker and generally allow you to collect data without being there all the time.

Pedometers and accelerometers

Pedometers and accelerometers are a cheap and straightforward way of measuring activity levels. Pedometers measure the number of steps the wearer makes. The number of steps taken is a rough measure of how active someone is. You can record the number of steps someone takes every day on a card or sometimes on a website. You can also use pedometers to encourage people to become more active.

Accelerometers are a more complex version of a pedometer and can be used to measure how active a child can be. Accelerometers measure the frequency of movement and how intense the movement is.

Surveys

What are surveys?

Surveys comprise information collected by questionnaires or structured interviews. Surveys gather quantitative, analysable data. Some surveys can be large but they often target just a section of the population. To make sure this section of the population is representative of the whole population you must select your respondents carefully. This is called sampling.

Sampling

The more people in your sample the more representative of your total population it will be and the more precise your results. However, the more people in a sample the more expensive in costs and time it is likely to be. So, you will have to decide on the appropriate size of your sample. You should also bear in mind that it is difficult to create the perfect sample.

One of the most frequently used approaches to sampling is the random approach – picking respondents at random. Picking people at random is more difficult than it sounds and you may have to compromise about your sample. The alternative approach would be to have quotas for the groups you want to survey (for example by age, gender, location or ethnicity). This will enable you to get a representative sample with a smaller overall number but needs greater organisation and targeting skills.

However you identify your sample population you must always be clear about why you chose a particular method to select your sample and the advantages and the problems associated with it.

Hall Aitken will give you more advice on how to identify the most suitable sample for your project.

Response rates

The response rate is the percentage of the total number of questionnaires or interviews that are usable or 'valid'. It shows how many people agreed to take part and how many did not.

Questionnaires

A questionnaire is a set of questions designed to collect information from an identified population, often about a particular topic, or a set of linked topics. When designing a questionnaire you should: maximise the number of people who answer the questionnaire; and ensure the information is of the highest possible quality.

Questionnaires are easy to standardise as every respondent is asked the same question in the same way. These kinds of surveys are not suitable for all populations as respondents need to be literate, sighted or able to use writing tools.

Postal questionnaires are an advantage where anonymity is important, especially if you are asking some sensitive questions. These kinds of questionnaires give people

time to think although you may need to send out reminders. They can also be easily binned so beware!

Face-to-face questionnaires and structured interviews

Face-to-face questionnaires are also known as structured interviews. They involve both an interviewer and a respondent. Usually the interviewer will both ask the questions and record the answers. Structured interviews are often used in surveys. These kinds of questionnaire can be difficult as the interviewer must ask each question in the same way in each interview. Most of the questions will be closed or semi-closed.

Self-administered questionnaires

These are questionnaires the respondent answers by him or herself without an interviewer present. Self-administered questions can be paper or web-based, or use e-mail.

Postal surveys

Postal questionnaires are sent to respondents by post. This means large numbers of people can be contacted; however the response rates can be low. And it can be difficult to ask complex questions or probe for further information using this approach.

Telephone surveys

Telephone surveys are often used in market research. The advantages include:

- They are cheaper than face-to-face interviews;
- They are efficient, especially if your population is spread over a wide geographical area; and
- You can use several interviewers and check on their work.

There are problems with telephone interviews – for example, personal contact can be important when collecting data and telephones may seem a little impersonal to some potential respondents who are put off from taking part.

E-mail and web surveys

Surveys using e-mail or the internet are becoming more popular and free web-based survey tools are readily available. They are cheap, quick and will often calculate some of the measures for you. However, you may find that you cannot track who has responded and response rates might be low. Hall Aitken can provide you with further information about e-mail and web surveys if you choose to use this method.

Closed and open-ended questions

Closed and open-ended questions are both commonly used in surveys and questionnaires. A closed question gives the respondent a set of responses and they must choose one or more. An open-ended question allows the respondent to write any answer they wish. Examples of both kinds of questions are shown in Figure 66.

The first two questions give you examples of closed questions. Question three is an example of an open question and a possible answer.

Figure 6 Closed and open questions

Q1. How many days a week do you eat five or more portions of fruit and vegetables?
Please tick one option.

Fewer than one

One to three

Three to five

Five or more

Q2. Do you smoke?

Please circle one answer yes /no

Q3. What do you think about the opportunities for sport/dance/exercise in your area?
Please write down everything that you can think of.

*Only one place to go to locally
No buses in the evening and only good if you like swimming or gym.
Doesn't do anything I would really want to do.*

Checking, cleaning, coding and data entry

You should always check the returned questionnaires to make sure that responses are clear – for example, it can sometimes be difficult to distinguish between a ‘6’ and a ‘0’ if they have been handwritten. Sometimes people may have written their answer in the wrong place – you may be able to go back to them to check their answers.

Coding is an essential step in recording the information you get from questionnaires so you can analyse it easily. Coding means giving each answer a numerical code. For example:

- ‘yes’ is normally given the code ‘1’;
- ‘no’ is usually coded as ‘2’;
- ‘male’ is normally coded as ‘1’; and
- ‘female’ coded as ‘2’.

You can assign codes to any answer. If you have many options to a particular question or expect many different answers use a two-digit code. For example, 01, 02, 03 ... 14, 15 ... Each answer code is entered into a database or a spreadsheet.

Once you have coded your questionnaire you must record the answers. This is called ‘data entry’. While this is quite simple, it has to be done methodologically and carefully. There are professional firms that can do this for you and you will have to discuss costs with them.

Scales in questionnaires and surveys

What are scales?

Scales provide both a question and responses attached to a series of graded values. There are different types of scales. In this section we discuss two types of scale – Likert scales and pictures scales.

Likert scales

Likert scales measure attitudes. They start with a statement and respondents are asked whether they agree or disagree with the statement and how strongly they agree or disagree. A Likert scale can have between four and ten points. Likert scales which have an even number of points force a respondent to make a decision about a statement. Likert scales with an odd number of points allow for a neutral response. Both examples are shown in Figure 77.

Figure 7 Likert scales

Odd number Likert Scale

Q1. It is easy to buy good quality fresh fruit and vegetables where I live.
Do you ..? Circle your answer

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree

Even number Likert Scale

Q1. It is easy to buy good quality fresh fruit and vegetables where I live.
Do you ..? Circle your answer

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Disagree a bit	Agree a bit	Agree	Strongly agree

How to use Likert scales

Likert scales produce quantitative data on attitudes and opinions and you can use statistical methods to analyse this data

When using Likert scales you must always use statements and not questions. But vary how you phrase the statement – include both positive and negative statements. **While Likert scales are fairly easy to form you must always pilot them.** Piloting will help you to identify which statements are most effective in gathering people's views or attitudes.

One example in Figure 77 used a positive statement: 'It is easy to buy good quality, fresh fruit and vegetables where I live.' A negative statement might say 'It is difficult to make up lunch boxes for my kids using fresh ingredients.'

You can also use Likert scales to measure satisfaction (satisfied/dissatisfied), importance (important/unimportant), frequency (always/never) and success (successful/unsuccessful).

Further information from:

<http://www.socialresearchmethods.net>

<http://en.wikipedia.org>

Picture scales

Picture scales use pictures instead of words and can be helpful when working with children. As for other scales you can attach a value to each response and then analyse the responses. Two examples are shown in Figure 8 and Figure 9.

Figure 8 Picture scale 1

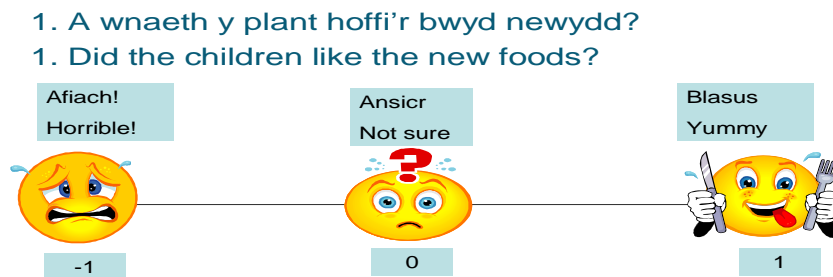
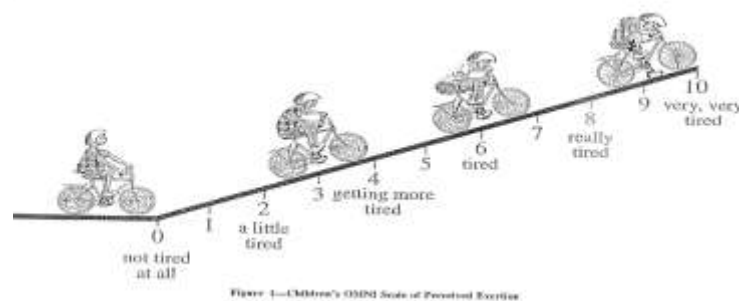


Figure 9 Picture scale 2

1. Oedd y gweithgareddau yn anodd i'r plant?
1. Did the kids find the activities hard?



Part 2 - Qualitative Techniques

Why use qualitative techniques?

Qualitative methods allow us to understand people's motivations for choosing an activity or behaviour. They can tell us, for example, about their knowledge, beliefs and concerns. Qualitative methods add detail, texture and richness to our understanding and give us a chance to understand a lot more about people's behaviour. Together with quantitative data, they can provide a more detailed picture about the success or failings of a project. For example, quantitative methods will tell you that some people do not turn up to events or activities. Qualitative methods will tell you about **why** they do not turn up.

There are problems in using qualitative techniques and you should be aware of them before you start collecting qualitative information. Some of these are discussed in more depth below.

Problem 1: Small, unrepresentative numbers

Qualitative data collection methods are time-consuming and expensive. This means you can generally only work with relatively few participants, and these participants might not be a true reflection of the population you are working with.

Solution:

Study your target population. If your target population is made up of 70% females and 30% males, 50% of whom are 10 or 11 years old and 50% of whom are 8 or 9 years old make sure that your sample population reflects this distribution.

Problem 2: Researcher bias

When a researcher picks people to work with there is often a temptation to pick people you know and who would be easier to work with. You know that they would be happy to help and you could ask them all the questions you need to. This is a common example of researcher bias. Although tempting, you should try to avoid any form of bias as this will affect the integrity of your research.

Solution:

Try to pick your sample population as randomly as you can. This can be as easy as writing names on paper and asking a colleague to pick them from a hat. Alternatively you can assign numbers to people and use a simple random number generator to select numbers.

Problem 3: Environment bias

The environment can influence respondents. For example, children can be influenced by their peers, or may not feel free to talk about their school behaviour if you are holding an interview in a classroom, even if there is no one else around.

Solution:

Be aware of the environment in which you are conducting your work. If you are asking about behaviour at school think about contacting children in a neutral location – perhaps in a community centre.

Rickter® Scale

What is the Rickter® Scale?

The Rickter® Scale is an assessment and evaluation tool. It measures the ‘distance travelled’ by beneficiaries, that is, their progress, in terms of soft outcomes such as confidence and self esteem, how they may have been able to overcome barriers, or dealt with other challenges.

Only accredited users can use the Rickter® Scale and the Way of Life Programme provide you with funds to train one person (an assessor) working for each project.

Advantages:

- Instantly engages participants;
- Helps to overcome communication barriers; and
- Fun to do!

Used for:

- Detailed consultations;
- Measuring soft outcomes; and
- Measure change over time.



Figure 10 Using sliding scales with participants

When to use the Rickter® Scale

You can use the Rickter® Scale for assessing satisfaction and to get information for the nutrition and physical activity indicators. It is one of several methods for measuring soft outcomes which cannot be measured directly or tangibly, including:

- Changes in confidence, attitude or motivation;
- Feelings – of well-being, safety or satisfaction; or
- Personal skills – these include problem solving, time management and social skills.

Depending on what users want to assess, different overlays are applied to the scale. By using the scale with participants when they start at the project and at key stages as they progress, project staff can numerically track changes in behaviour and attitudes.

Further information

Further information is available on the Rickter® Scale website:

<http://www.rickterscale.com/main.htm>.

Observation

What is observation?

Observation is a method for systematically watching and cataloguing behaviour and cataloguing them. One of its advantages is that it allows behaviour to be viewed directly, unlike in survey research.

Focus groups

What is a focus group?

A focus group is a social research method for collecting qualitative data. Broadly it involves, a group of people who have been asked to come together to discuss a specific topic or specific questions.

A focus group usually consists of six to ten people who are chosen to represent a wider group of people whose views you want to explore. However, for groups of children around five participants is enough. You need a moderator who runs the group but it is good to have a second person present who also takes notes or adds questions. Before the session draw up a topic guide which consists of the main questions you want the group to discuss.

When to use focus groups

You could use focus groups to identify what you could change or improve about your project. Focus groups may also be useful for exploring attitudes to and awareness of nutrition and physical activity.

Focus groups are a good tool for letting you understand, from the point of view of the participants, what a situation is like and what the different viewpoints are. But it is not possible to quantify focus group results or measure any expressed ideas or attitudes.

Focus groups are more suitable for older children and adults than for younger children.

Recording information

Both the focus group moderator and – if there is one – another person who helps with the session should take notes of the group discussions. The notes should also contain information about agreement (for example, nodding) and annoyance (for example, headshaking, foot-tapping) and so on.

In-depth Interviews

What are in-depth interviews?

In-depth interviews ask for details about behaviours, events, beliefs or experiences. These differ from structured interviews because they do not use a list of questions.

Instead, the interviewer may have a list of topics (a 'topic guide') they ask the respondent to talk about in their own time and in their own words.

The interviewer can use prompting questions such as 'could you tell me a bit more about this ...?' but does not offer any judgements or opinions. This work results in detailed information about one person.

When to use in-depth interviews

Use in-depth interviews when you want to discover more about why people hold particular beliefs, change behaviours or experience particular events. This kind of interview is important if you want to hear what the respondent has to say in their own words.

Recording information

In-depth interviews can be written up from notes taken during the interview or transcribed from a recording. You must always ask permission to record an interview. In-depth interviews tend not to be suitable for working with children.

Advantages

In-depth interviews:

- Allow respondents to feel relaxed and talk about what is important to them;
- Provide credibility; and
- Provide histories which other people can relate to.

Disadvantages

In-depth interviews:

- May be intrusive;
- May be altered by the relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee;
- Require skill to do and therefore interviewers need proper training;
- Require time and skills to interpret; and
- Require the evaluator to make judgement-free decisions about quotes

Diaries

What are diaries?

Diaries are individual, personal records of daily events, feelings, discussions, meetings and relationships. You might ask those taking part in your project to keep a food and activity diary such as the one shown in Figure 11.

Diaries require a certain level of literacy and ability to recall activity. They will not be suitable for everyone so you should be confident that all respondents will be able to cope with the demands of a diary.

Figure 11 Example of an activity diary

Monday						
Lunch break started at ...			How much were you moving around ..?			
What did you do in your lunch break?	What time did you start?	What time did you finish?	Not much (sitting/lying around)	Moving a bit (standing/walking around)	Moving around a lot (a bit out of breath)	Really rushing around (really out of breath)
The first thing I did was			○	○	○	○
Then I ...			○	○	○	○
Then I ...			○	○	○	○
Then I ...			○	○	○	○
Then I ...			○	○	○	○
The last thing I did before break finished was			○	○	○	○
Lunch break finished at ...						

Using diaries

To use activity and food diaries effectively you must:

- Get consent from participants and their parents;
- Provide information sheets;
- Provide assurances about confidentiality and anonymity;
- Provide chances to ask questions and provide details about filling in the diary – give examples of the different activity levels.
- Be clear about the time units you are using – are you looking for information in five minute blocks or 30-minute blocks?
- Provide assurances about the reasons for the diaries – make it clear that it is not a test or an exam;
- If you are asking respondents to fill in diaries during term-time make sure that teachers know about the diaries; and
- Make sure that diaries do not clash with tests or exams.

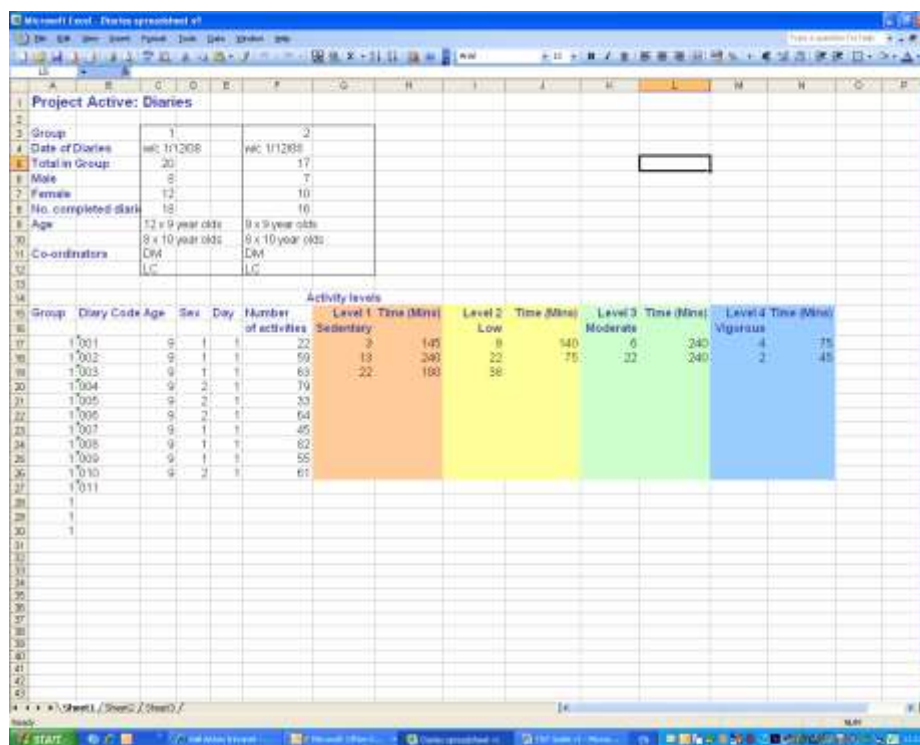
Other things to think about include:

- Reminders to fill in the diaries – could you use SMS text to their mobile phones for example?
- Presenting the diary attractively;
- A mid-collection meeting – to help with problems and provide support; and
- Incentives – these can be important for children.

Recording information from diaries

A good way to record the information from diaries is through a spreadsheet. Figure 12 gives you an example of such a spreadsheet. The more information in a diary the more complicated your spreadsheet will need to be. Using the information in the spreadsheet below you could calculate information about for example, the average number of activities each respondent takes part in each day; or the average number of minutes respondents spend at each activity level. In this example each activity is also described by intensity – sedentary, low, moderate and vigorous.

Figure 12 Example diary spreadsheet



Project Active: Diaries						Activity levels							
Group	Diary Code	Age	Sex	Day	Number of activities	Level 1: Sedentary	Level 2: Low	Level 3: Moderate	Level 4: Vigorous	Time (Mins)	Time (Mins)	Time (Mins)	Time (Mins)
17	1001	9	1	1	22	3	145	8	540	6	340	4	75
18	1002	9	1	1	59	18	340	22	75	32	340	2	45
19	1003	9	1	1	63	22	180	58					
20	1004	9	2	1	79								
21	1005	9	2	1	23								
22	1006	9	2	1	64								
23	1007	9	1	1	45								
24	1008	9	1	1	62								
25	1009	9	1	1	55								
26	1010	9	2	1	61								
27	1011												

Narratives and stories

Narrative and story methods are used to get a better understanding of how respondents make sense of their own lives. Narratives and stories do not have any set length and can be written down or told. Stories can help you to understand why someone does something. Narrative research has been helpful in, for example, understanding how patients have experienced illness and the care they receive. We have suggested that you use MSC to track changes that take place because of your project. But you can track all sorts of behaviour using narratives and stories.

Using narratives and stories

Narration includes field notes, interviews, diaries, autobiographies and stories. A good example of a research study using narrative might be a study of girls' society at 10 and 11 years old. The researchers might take notes, ask the girls to keep diaries, undertake interviews and do some observation. Then the researcher uses all this information to write a narrative or story of this society

Advantages

The advantages of narrative and story work include:

- Examining complex group behaviour;
- Illuminating relationships;
- Establishing context and environments; and
- Helping you to identify patterns of behaviour that participants are unaware of themselves.

Disadvantages

Disadvantages include:

- Problems with researcher bias;
- The study group may not be representative of the wider population; and
- They take time.

Analysing interviews, stories and other text

Many forms of qualitative data collection will result in written text such as reports. There are systematic ways of analysing text that will allow you to compare interviews and other forms of narrative evidence. Here we show you one method, called thematic analysis.

Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis means identifying patterns or themes. There are several steps:

Step 1: read all the interviews

It is important to be familiar with all the interviews so make sure that you have enough time to read each interview at least twice.

Step 2: identifying themes

A theme is an important idea or response that appears in your interview texts which tells you something about respondents' experiences or beliefs or behaviours. For example, your interviews might be looking at how children eat when with their families. Individual themes within the texts might be how children exercise choice over what they eat or the role models they use for eating.

Step 3: analysing the data set or themes

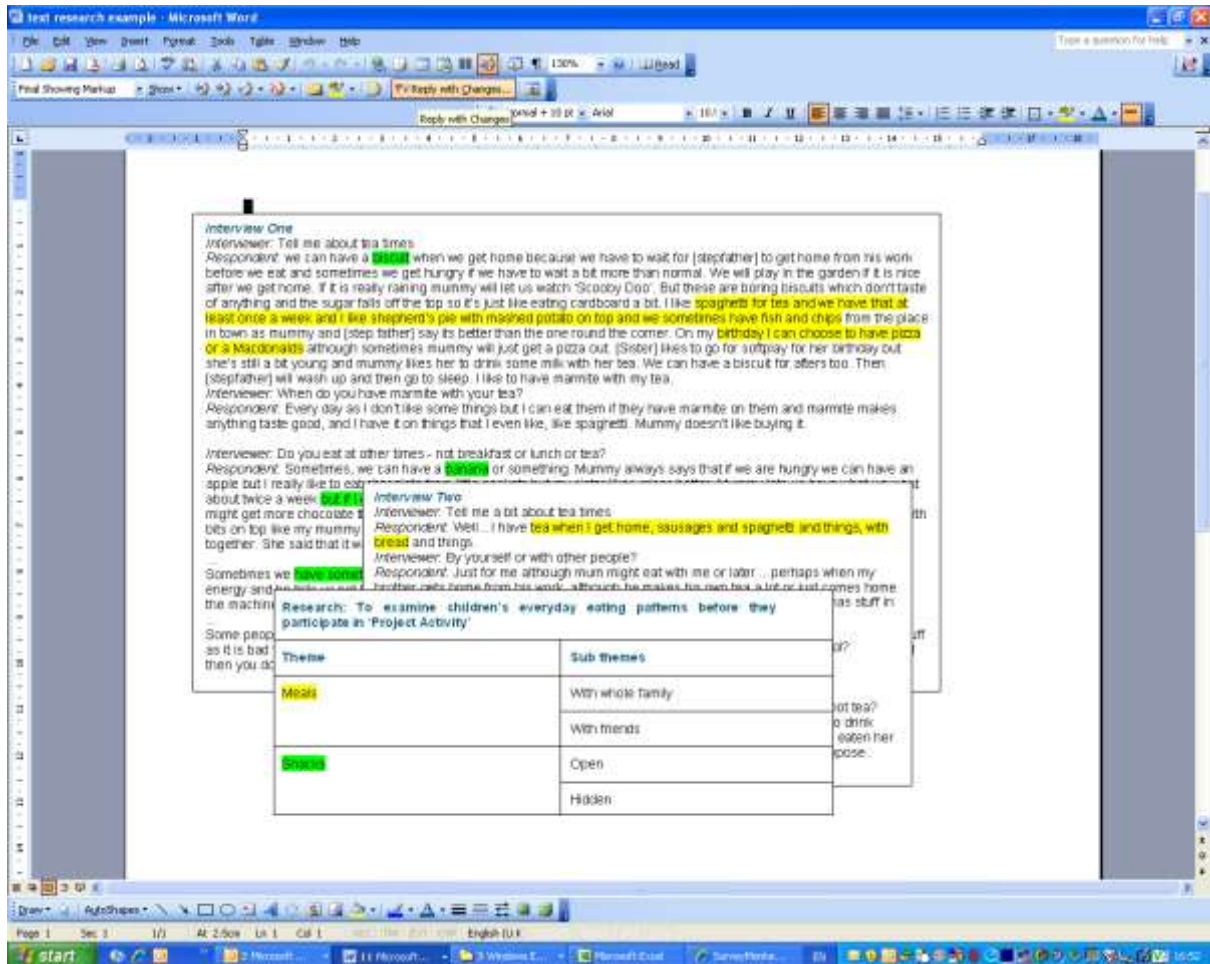
You can choose whether to analyse the whole data set, that is, all your interviews or one particular theme or group of themes. For example you might choose just to look at how children at different ages make choices about what they eat.

Step 4: organising your analysis

Often people use a coding frame to guide their analysis. A coding frame is a way of organising labels you put on to the text which allow you to break the text down into different themes or issues. Figure 13 shows you an example of a coding frame and two of the original texts. In this example the project worker is interested in the children's experiences of meals and snacks. The project worker has used colour

coding to highlight these two subjects. The project worker has, because of his or her reading of all the interviews, identified two sub-categories of interest for each topic. Firstly, meals have been divided into those taken with the whole family and meals taken with friends. Secondly, the project worker has broken the 'snacks' topic down into snacks eaten openly, with parents for example, and those eaten without the parents' knowledge. (However, you do not have to use a coding frame).

Figure 13 Example of a text analysis



Interview One
Interviewer: Tell me about tea times.
Respondent: We can have a **cuppa** when we get home because we have to wait for [stepfather] to get home from his work before we eat and sometimes we get hungry if we have to wait a bit more than normal. We will play in the garden if it is nice after we get home. If it is really raining mummy will let us watch 'Scooby Doo'. But these are boring biscuits which don't taste of anything and the sugar falls off the top so it's just like eating cardboard a bit. I like spaghetti for tea and we have that at least once a week, and I like shepherd's pie with mashed potato on top and we sometimes have fish and chips from the place in town as mummy and [step father] say it's better than the one round the corner. On my birthday I can choose to have pizza or a Macaroni although sometimes mummy will just get a pizza out. [Sister] likes to go for a outplay for her birthday but she's still a bit young and mummy likes her to drink some milk with her tea. We can have a biscuit for offers too. Then [stepfather] will wash up and then go to sleep. I like to have marmite with my tea.
Interviewer: When do you have marmite with your tea?
Respondent: Every day so I don't like some things but I can eat them if they have marmite on them and marmite makes anything taste good, and I have it on things that I even like, like spaghetti. Mummy doesn't like buying it.

Interviewer: Do you eat at other times - not breakfast or lunch or tea?
Respondent: Sometimes we can have a **cuppa** or something. Mummy always says that if we are hungry we can have an apple but I really like to eat about twice a week. **cuppa** might get more chocolate bits on top like my mummy together. She said that it was sometimes we **have a snack** together when she comes home from his work, although he makes his own tea a bit or just comes home with stuff in the machine. Some people eat it as it is bad then you do

Interview Two
Interviewer: Tell me a bit about tea times.
Respondent: Well... I have tea when I get home, sausages and spaghe~~t~~ and things with **bread** and things.
Interviewer: By yourself or with other people?
Respondent: Just for me although mum might eat with me or later... perhaps when my

Research: To examine children's everyday eating patterns before they participate in 'Project Activity'

Theme	Sub themes
Meals	With whole family
	With friends
Snacks	Open
	Hidden