2 Engaging with diary techniques

Introduction

In this chapter we discuss not just the use of solicited diary techniques in research but also the different ways of designing, collecting and using diary data and the different forms and purposes to which it can be attached. We distinguish between the use of simpler and more complex structured and unstructured (quantitative and qualitative) designs, explaining how and why researchers can use this method in different ways. In doing so, we consider the questions researchers need to pose before engaging with diary techniques and the contribution that these approaches can bring to the study of different questions, phenomena and social problems. We illustrate this through reviewing a sample of studies from health and social research that have taken different approaches to the design and implementation of diary method. Here, the chapter outlines the areas of everyday life and the nature of data that are typically collected from structured approaches, including, for example, sleep patterns, food intake and alcohol consumption. It also draws on a range of studies that take an unstructured approach, highlighting the different types of data that can be gathered using this approach to diary method. We include day-to-day accounts of particular experiences over time, such as campaigning, caregiving and living with disability. Practical issues, such as how diary method is combined with other research techniques such as interviews and visual methods, will also be discussed. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the use of audio and photo diaries in the context of sensory methodology.

Why use diary methods?

As noted in the introduction, solicited diaries form part of a research process in which selected informants actively participate in both recording and reflecting on their own actions, experiences and behaviours.

As such, they can prove useful for not only capturing the weight and meaning people attach to different events, issues and activities in their lives, but can create a record of their everyday actions and worlds. Solicited diary techniques have been used successfully with a wide range of participants including children, adolescents, disabled youth, people from ethnic minority groups, people with specific health-related problems, older people and people with dementia (see, e.g., Bartlett, 2012; Buchwald, 2009; Edinburgh, Garcia, & Saewyc, 2013; Gibson, 1995). The range of topics explored using diary techniques is similarly diverse and has been used to explore such topics as the relationship between body satisfaction and sexual experience (Zhaoyang & Cooper, 2013); influences on household demand for malaria treatment in resource-poor countries (Wiseman, Conteh, & Matovu, 2005); children's understanding of sustainable development (Walshe, 2013) and age differences in media multitasking (Voorveld & van der Goot, 2013), to name but a few. As these cases illustrate, diary studies are suitable for use with a wide range of participant groups including those that are often defined as 'vulnerable'. There is often an assumption – erroneously, as these studies infer – that such complex or time-consuming techniques are either inappropriate or will 'not work' for some groups of people. We discuss the issue of vulnerability in more detail in Chapter 5.

Whatever the topic or target group, the function of solicited diaries within a research project needs to be clarified at the outset, as the structure of the diary will vary accordingly (Nicholl, 2010). For instance, if the function of the diary is to gain an accurate record of how many times a participant engages in a particular activity over a specified time period, when and/or for how long, then a structured diary may be most appropriate. Here, the purpose of the diary is to gather numerical data that may then be analysed quantitatively. The strength of this type of approach to diary recording is that where accuracy is important, it can help to overcome problems of recall bias that can distort the recording of numerical data that are gathered at a single point in time – some time after the event occurs (as, for example, with a retrospective survey). This approach to diary keeping can also be used to facilitate the regular recording of validated measures of health and well-being over time. In the absence of any contextual data, the accuracy of structured diary recording can be supplemented by introducing visual elements to the diary. This approach is

one that has long been used in studies of diet and nutrition. For instance, some researchers use photographic evidence to provide a visual record of portion size that can otherwise be rendered inaccurate by subjective assessment when recording dietary intake (Lanigan, Wells, Lawson, & Lucas, 2001). Others design this kind of diary study in ways that allow for the gathering of some qualitative data recording to help contextualize or qualify the quantitative recording.

Where the purpose of the diary is to provide access to a more in-depth understanding of people's interpretations of their worlds, semi- or unstructured diary recording techniques may be more appropriate as they can provide a useful tool for developing realistic pictures and sensitive descriptions of an individual's everyday life (Milligan, Bingley, & Gatrell, 2005). The detail gained in this type of recording can often be lost in face-to-face responsive mode methods such as interviews and focus groups where the respondent forgets the detail, recounts it inaccurately or takes the view that certain activities, events or experiences are too mundane to be worth recounting to the researcher (Nicholl, 2010). Moreover, diary method allows for the collection of naturalistic data – that is, information gathered 'in the moment' and in a 'real environment', like a home or the outdoors, rather than a research clinic or laboratory.

The distance between the researcher and diarist in this approach – where the researcher is removed from the setting in which the diary is completed – can also enable the diarist to feel more empowered in terms of what they choose to write and how they choose to write it. The distance between researcher and researched can also result in diarists feeling less 'judged' by their responses or less pressured into giving what they feel (rightly or wrongly) is the 'right' answer. Meth (2003) pointed to further potential benefits of a qualitative approach to diary keeping; in her study of the experiences of violence amongst women in South Africa, not only did she demonstrate its potential for researching highly sensitive topics that may be more difficult to broach using face-to-face methods, but she pointed to their potential to provide a therapeutic or cathartic experience. As one of her respondents wrote, '*Writing the diary was a task I liked to do . . . . I also felt relieved. It was like a big luggage had been removed from my shoulders*' (p. 201). The potential benefits of diary keeping for the research participant will be explored in more detail in Chapter 5.

Whatever form of structure they take, Alaszewski (2006a) has pointed to four defining characteristics of the solicited diary as method that differentiates it from other methodological techniques:

1. They are defined by *regularity* – in that they are organized around a series of regular dated entries over a period of time.
2. They are *private* – that is, diaries are constructed by a specified identifiable individual who controls access to the diary during completion. While he or she may permit others to access the diary, failure to destroy the diary upon completion equates to tacit acceptance that others will access it (at least within the limitations of the informed consent given).
3. Diaries are *contemporaneous*, in that they are recorded at the same time or very close to the time when events or activities occur so do not suffer the limitations of recall bias in some other methods.
4. Diaries are a *time-structured record* that may be written (by hand or electronically), audio-recorded or visual – or a mix of any, or all, of these options. Entries consist of what the individual diarist considers to be relevant and important, including interactions, events, experiences, activities, thoughts and feelings.

These characteristics mean that as a research instrument, the solicited diary can provide a valuable tool for collecting detailed, chronologically structured, information about behaviour, events and other aspects of individuals' daily lives over a defined period of time.

In discussing the design of a structured diary-based study, it is helpful to consider the frequency of measurement points. The simplest diary designs require participants to make just one entry a day, often in the evening. More complicated designs require participants to make an entry several times a day. In both cases, researchers may choose to use interval-based sampling (at fixed times); event-based sampling (reporting when certain things occur, such as an asthma attack or episode of incontinence); or signal-based sampling (reporting when signalled by a text message or email, for example) (Rönkä, Malinen, Kinnunen, Tolvanen, & Lämsä, 2010). Below are some examples of how each of these strategies has been used within solicited diary studies. These examples highlight how the frequency of diary entries is an important decision to be made in diary design.

(a) **A combination of interval- and event-based sampling** was used in a diary study by Rönkä et al. (2010) to investigate family life. Over the course of one week, participants made a diary entry three times a day at fixed times (the interval) using mobile phone technology; entries were related to work and domestic stressors (the event).

(b) **Signal-based sampling** was used in the following studies to explore:

(i) pain in children aged eight years and over – here, participants responded to a text message (the signal) six times a day for around one week (Alfvén, 2010);

(ii) what people do on the web – here, participants were sent an email (the signal) five times a day over a period of three days for a total of fifteen reminders (Kim & Jean, 2009).

(iii) pubic hair removal – here, participants received a daily email reminder (the signal) to complete an online diary questionnaire about sexual activities that occurred alone or with a partner (Herbenick et al., 2013).

(c) **Event-based sampling** was used in an audio-diary study by Williamson, Leeming, Lyttle, & Johnson (2012) involving first-time mothers with breastfeeding difficulties. Participants were asked to make daily entries twice after a feeding session (the event).

From structured to unstructured approaches in solicited diary methods

While inevitably diaries are solicited with a certain agenda in mind, the precise form of the diary, and how data are recorded within it, will differ depending on the aim and purpose of the study it is contributing to. As we have previously noted, diaries can be used as a single source of data or as part of a multi-method research design that may incorporate elements ranging from structured to semi-structured and unstructured or a mix of methods. Its form and approach can thus range across a spectrum from the written structured diary recording through to the written unstructured and visual diary approaches and various combinations of these approaches in between. Each of these variations has an important, but distinct, role to play in the social researcher's toolbox.

Structured approaches to diary keeping

Structured diary keeping adopts a checklist or other fixed-response format that is designed to record and gather numerical data on how often a diarist undertakes a specific action or activity. The diarist is generally required to regularly 'log' items against a list of predefined actions or validated measures over a predefined period of time. This structured approach to solicited diary recording has been used for over ninety years but it has only been named as such by social scientists and health-related researchers since the 1970s (Waldron & Eyer, 1975).

Perhaps the earliest example of a structured approach to diary keeping was conducted in 1913 by the Fabian Women's Group, who sampled forty-two families living on a low income in a particular area of London (Reeves, 1913). Although the term 'diary' is not used in this historical account of an investigation into the relationship between family income, mother's nutrition and infant health, it is clear from the approach taken that that was the method used to collect data:

> It was found to be necessary, in order to secure the success of the investigation to inaugurate a system of accurate accounts. In no case were these accounts already in being, and it was therefore the task of the visitors to teach each woman in turn to keep a record of her expenditure for the week (Reeves, 1913, p. 11).

The women were asked to keep a record of all the money they received from their husbands, all the money they spent and the items they spent the money on, especially in respect of food. The author describes how some of the women were better at sums than writing words and so the visitor (researcher) faced some challenges ensuring the accuracy of data, including, for example, double-checking figures and accounts with the women. It is also noteworthy that eight of the women in the sample could not read or write and therefore asked their husbands or an eldest child to keep the record – thus, highlighting one of the limitations of the traditional pen-and-paper diary method: it relies on literacy skills.

In another early example of a structured approach to diary keeping, participants (all of whom lived in the same Austrian village) were asked to complete meal records for one week and time sheets for a single day outlining the way they spent their day (Jahoda, Lazarsfeld, & Zeisel, 1972). The research was about the effects of unemployment

on men and their families and researchers wanted to 'find procedures which would combine the use of numerical data with immersion into the situation' (p. 1). Meal records and time sheets were just two of the tools they used, as data were elicited using a range of methods, including participant observation and documentary analysis, but the information gained through these records allowed the researchers to draw conclusions about peoples' use of time when unemployed. *Marienthal: The sociography of an unemployed community* has become a classic study and paved the way for the development of time-use diaries as a field of methodological study and enquiry.

Indeed, a more recent example of using a structured approach to diary keeping is from the now well-established field of time-use research. The specially structured diaries used in time-use surveys are regarded as a particularly effective method for establishing how people live their lives (Gershuny, 2000). The method is considered so effective that it has been deployed in multinational longitudinal studies to compare how people in different countries use time. Using diaries in this way shows the potential of a structured approach for collecting data that could inform policymaking and decision-making at national and global levels.[1]

As well as time-diary techniques, work on emotional health and the impact of positive versus negative social exchanges typifies the rationale for, and use of, structured diary recording techniques within health research (Rook, 2010). This approach, Rook maintained, reduces respondent burden and ensures the capture of theoretically relevant data that can be analysed and replicated using statistical techniques. Following an initial interview, Rook's participants were asked to complete daily diaries composed of a set of fixed-response questions for a two-week period to assess the diarists' mood and any positive or negative social exchanges they may have experienced that day. The objective of the diary element of the study was to enable the researcher to assess the impact of social exchanges on the emotional well-being of her participants over time and to assess the potential predictive relationship of these exchanges to loneliness and social isolation. This structured approach to diary recording has been used to gather data on such diverse topics as instrumental activities of daily life amongst older people (Fricke & Unsworth, 2001), exercise adherence, marital interaction and relationship satisfaction (Feeney, 2002; Papp, Goeke-Morey, & Cummings, 2007); disabling and recurrent pain in children (Alfvén, 2010) and substance use and sexual risk-taking in

HIV-positive men (Boone, Cook, & Wilson, 2013). See below for a detailed overview of the structured approach taken in two of these studies.

Boone et al. (2013) used longitudinal diary method to examine the relationship between substance use and unprotected anal sex in a sample of 158 HIV-positive, mostly ethnic minority, men who have sex with men. Participants completed an internet-based structured weekly sex diary for six weeks. The men were asked to complete a survey each week on the same day, with a grace period of three days. The structured diary asked participants to provide details about their sexual behaviour and substance use in the past week (e.g. How many times have you used solvents in the past seven days? How many times have you engaged in sexual intercourse in the past seven days?).

Feeney (2002) used a structured approach to diary method to explore the link between spouse behaviour, marital satisfaction and emotional attachment. One hundred and ninety-three married couples were recruited to the project. Each participant was asked to complete a diary booklet containing two sets of records to be filled out on two consecutive days, one during the week and one during the weekend. Each record required the participant to note the number of hours spent in the presence of the spouse, to read through a checklist of ninety-five spouse behaviours and check all those that had occurred during the day and, finally, to rate the day on a Likert scale (1–9) relaying overall subjective satisfaction with the relationship.

A particular variant of the structured approach to diary method is the calendar or time-diary approach (Bellisle et al., 1999). Here the focus is on understanding behavioural mechanisms using time-space budgets across defined periods of time. Anastario and Schmalzbauer (2008) used time-space diaries in a study with Honduran migrants in the United States. Here, diarists were asked to record their activity – against a predefined set of categories – at thirty-minute intervals across a twenty-four-hour day for seven days. Data on the previous twenty-four-hour activity were collected by the researcher at exactly the same time each day in order to ensure a concrete point of reference with regard to the start and end time of the twenty-four-hour period, in order to ensure data accuracy and to

minimize any inaccuracy in recall. In conjunction with ethnographic data, the diaries helped to elucidate factors that may be contributing to gendered disparities in health outcomes related to mobility amongst these Honduran migrants.

Semi- and unstructured approaches to diary keeping

In-depth semi- and unstructured diary recording is designed to encourage the diarist to write a more detailed temporal narrative, often around a loosely structured set of themes devised by the researcher. This is designed to gain a deeper understanding of a person's actions, experiences, thoughts and emotion around a particular topic. Those diaries designed to facilitate semi- or unstructured responses often allow space for diarists to record their own priorities, and in some instances may include scope for visual data to support the written accounts. Qualitative approaches to diary recording can thus prove useful for capturing the meaning and weight respondents attach to different events and experiences in their lives (Milligan et al., 2005). This can then be used as data in itself and/or used as a prompt to explore key time-related or other issues in more depth in follow-on interviews, as in the study by Orban, Edberg, and Erlandsson (2012) described below.

Orban and colleagues were interested in how the patterns of occupation of working women (aged between thirty and fifty) in two-parent families changed over time and the causes that lay behind those changes. To do so, they used semi-structured solicited time-geographical diaries combined with stimulated recall interviews. Participants were asked to complete twenty-four-hour diaries over a typical weekday twice, with an interval of ten weeks in between each twenty-four-hour diary completion. The diary was used as a self-report instrument in which the participant was asked to make notes about all activities undertaken during the twenty-four-hour period. In order to capture the participants' own perspectives, the time-geographical diaries were open format; however, instructions for completion and headings were included to ensure the following were updated during the completion of the diary:

- What occupation was being performed
- Time of changing occupation

- Where the participant was
- Who the participant was with
- State of mind during the occupation.

Upon completion of the twenty-four-hour diary, participants were asked to rate on a five-point scale how well the day typified an average day in their lives.

The diary data were then coded and converted into graphs illustrating the sequencing of occupations performed over the time period, how it was performed, the places it was performed in and the social networks involved. The graphs were then used as visual aids in open interviews to encourage participants to reflect on what they had done, how, why and who was involved. The diary facilitated an understanding of the complexity of these working women's daily lives, how their daily lives are always in a state of change and how their occupational performance is influenced by their physical and social environments.

Most structured or semi-structured diaries draw on the written word – whether recorded as hand-written accounts or (increasingly) submitted electronically as the technology becomes more affordable and widely available. However, reliance on written diaries can prove exclusionary to those whose writing skills are impaired, for example, due to illiteracy, age, disability or sight impairment, disorder of written expression or where detailed written expression may be difficult when it is not the diarist's first language. It is here that oral, audio-recorded diaries can play a useful role. Indeed, Worth (2009) notes that on a practical level the ease of operation of the recorder can make it particularly suitable for those with physical functional limitations. For those with access to computing facilities, low cost or freely available apps now make it possible to audio record (or even record audio-visually) directly onto a computer or laptop that can then be downloaded by, or for, the researcher or encrypted and sent electronically. Monrouxe (2009) has further suggested that audio-recorded diaries may have an advantage over the written word in that it allows the researcher to capture those subtleties of tone not captured in a written account.

Using sensory and audiovisual approaches to diary recording

There is a growing interest within the qualitative research community in sensory methodologies – a relatively new approach in which the researcher seeks to capture and engage with every aspect of the human experience, not just that which is reducible to language.[2] With this approach, it is important to find ways of eliciting data about a person's whole embodied experience, as well as finding out what a person thinks or feels about something. Bates (2013) took a sensory approach in her video-diary study exploring health and illness; participants with various health conditions were interviewed and then asked to complete a video diary for one month to 'show and tell the researcher about their body and condition' (p. 30). The video footage complemented the interview data, enabling the researcher to gain a fuller picture of people's lives and embodied experiences of living with ill-health.

A sensory approach to diary recording draws on audiovisual techniques such as filming, photography and self-recorded audio materials: methods that facilitate understanding of embodied or social and identity practices in the making. Such techniques can strengthen a diary study because they make the body visible and audible and allow the researcher to gain a more intimate and dynamic understanding of a person's life that is not possible through an interview alone. The value and power of such an approach to health researchers has been summarized by Rich and Patashnick (2002, p. 249):

> Other forms of data cannot duplicate the audio-visual record of four minutes of a girl coughing, wheezing and gasping for breath as she is increasingly overwhelmed by an asthma exacerbation or the disappointment in the face of a young man with spina bifida as he explains that he will not be able to pursue his lifelong dream of going to a culinary institute because the training kitchens cannot accommodate his wheelchair.

Another research team, who used both interview and photo-diary methods to explore child labour in the UK, found that the images child participants took added a significant dimension to their understanding:

> Take the case of John, a 12-year-old boy living in an area of South Wales that had experienced massive de-industrialization over the previous 20 years. John had been a conscientious research participant, explaining diligently the detail of his work on the family sheep farm. From these accounts we knew the routines of his work, his developing animal husbandry skills and the pride he took in his growing dexterity with agricultural machinery. But it was only on seeing his photographs of tractors, a quad bike, workshops and farm buildings, fields and hillsides dotted with sheep some way off in the distance, that the scale of both the farm and John's endeavours became more fully apparent (Mizen, 2005, p. 130).

Others have emphasized how audiovisual data provides a unique window to people's embodied experiences. In the video-diary study by Bates (2013), for example, the video diaries 'created a space within which bodies could be seen, heard and felt' (p. 34). Similarly, in Gibson's study of disabled young men transitioning to adulthood, the researcher integrated audio and photo diaries with interviews to gain a 'mosaic of accounts and practices' (Gibson, 2002, p. 12). Researchers use sensory approaches, then, in a relatively unstructured way to complement textual diary data and to enrich understanding of the topic under investigation.

As well as enriching understanding, sensory and audiovisual approaches are particularly useful where literacy, capacity or memory recall may prove potential barriers to participation. Being able to film or photograph something enables individuals to express themselves in a freer way that is less reliant on language skills. This is perhaps why audiovisual methods have become increasingly popular in diary research involving young children (Buchwald, 2009; Edinburgh et al., 2013), people with physical disabilities (Gibson, 2002; Worth, 2009), learning disabilities (Aldridge, 2007) and adults with dementia (Bartlett, 2012). In particular, video-diary method is a well-established technique in children's research as it is considered useful for equalizing the power balance in the research encounter between child and adult researcher for addressing potential limitations of verbal expression amongst some children, as well as any potential limited concentration span (Buchwald, 2009). Sensory and audiovisual methods are, thus, useful for addressing potential exclusionary features of written diaries and help to develop equitable relations between the researcher and participants. We discuss this in more detail in Chapter 5.

Another methodological strength of sensory methods, and a reason why they differ from written diaries, is an epistemological one. Audio and visual techniques open up a whole new route to knowing the world – one which individuals are arguably already attuned with. As Latham (2003) contends, much of what individuals know, they learn tacitly and while this learning is not entirely subconscious it conforms to an internalized logic that is 'not ordered through the discursive' (p. 2005). In other words, non-discursive (visual) methods can prove invaluable for investigating this logic without expecting individuals to fully explain or articulate these practices through the written or spoken word. Rather, people can reveal their experiences, emotions, practices and identities through the recording of time-sequenced diary data by using either video or photographic recording. In sum, sensory methods are a useful design feature in diary studies, which can aid understanding and enable participation.

Mixed methods approaches

While diary techniques can be used as the sole and primary source of research data, as we have alluded to above, they can also be used as part of a mixed methods study. That is, they can be used as a precursor, an adjunct to or a follow-up to a survey, interview, observation or some other methodological technique. Latham (2003), for example, in his concern to articulate an understanding of the everyday inhabitation of public spaces and urban public culture as embodied practice drew on the diary-interview method (DIM) and diary-photograph, diary-interview method (DPDIM), pioneered by Zimmerman and Wieder in the 1970s. Here, the diarist acts as a proxy observer, whose 'observations' are then followed up in an in-depth interview with the researcher. In Latham's case, the diarist was additionally supplied with a camera and encouraged to include photographs of significant events, places and actions alongside the written narrative in a weekly diary. In this context, as with the Orban et al. (2012) study referred to earlier, the role of the diary becomes either that of a precursor and aide memoir to stimulate discussion in subsequent interviews or, significantly, that the subsequent interview can serve the purpose of testing the plausibility and robustness of the diary account. Latham (2003), however, suggests that as a methodological technique the diary can serve an additional purpose in that it:

> becomes a form of performance or reportage of the week and the interview a re-accounting, or re-performance. Thus rather than seeing the idiosyncrasies of individual diarists as a problem, the methodological focus shifts into plugging into (and enabling) respondents' existing narrative resources (p. 2002).

Gibson (2002) used a mix of qualitative methods, including audio diaries combined with visual photographic data supplemented by interviews to gain a deeper understanding of disabled young men's experiences of transitioning to adulthood. The researcher was keen to understand the intersectionality of gender, disability and life-stage identities. Using this combination of techniques enabled the researcher to capture identity practices, engage disabled male youth, encourage reflection and provide some independence in data generation in ways that facilitated their understanding of how disabled young men establish, maintain and reform their identities in everyday practices. The photo and diary opportunities they maintained provided participants with the time, space and impetus to reflect on and later share their transitioning experiences.

But mixed methods approaches to diary recording can also involve the development of diaries that are themselves designed to gather both structured and unstructured data over a defined period of time. As suggested earlier, this approach can be particularly useful where the accuracy of numerical recording of predefined items may be rendered more accurate through the addition of visual data, or where the integration of more in-depth semi- or unstructured data alongside structured diary recording enables the diarist to contextualize or qualify his or her structured responses. This, in turn, can aid the researcher in a more accurate interpretation of the structured responses.

Engaging with diary techniques – what are the questions to consider?

In this final section, we summarize some of the key questions to consider when designing and applying solicited diaries as a form of data collection. Ensuring solicited diary method is appropriate for addressing your research as either the sole method of data collection or part of a wider study design is an important decision, for while a well-designed solicited

diary can yield significant insights into an individuals' actions or experiences over time that may not be so accurately gained using other research techniques. By the same token, a badly designed and implemented diary study may involve considerable effort, but yield little useful information. Not only do you need to consider whether solicited diaries can yield insights that help to address the key aims and objectives of your study in ways that are more insightful than other forms of data collection, but you need to decide whether this technique is most useful as a stand-alone method, or as part of a mixed methods design.

You also need to think carefully about how long you need to gather the data for, whether particular times of the year, week, days are important to the study and whether the temporal narrative is a key element of your study. What are the risks in undertaking longitudinal solicited diary studies and how will you mitigate these risks? Related to this, it is important to consider whether you wish, or need, to collect data in a highly structured format at very specific time intervals. Alternatively, are you aiming to gather chronological data, but data that seek to understand experiences or events in the participants' own words? Drawing on and adapting the work of Nicholl (2010), we have developed a set of core questions that are important to consider before engaging with diary techniques in your research design.

Table 2.1 Fourteen questions to consider before engaging with diary techniques

1.	Is the tool appropriate for your research questions and aims?
2.	Will the diary be used on its own or as part of a mixed methods design?
3.	Is its purpose to inform or confirm other data?
4.	Are you using diary method to collect structured, semi- or unstructured data, or a mix of these forms of data?
5.	How will you analyse your data?
6.	Are participants aware of the time commitment and effort involved in completing the diary?
7.	Have you decided on content and structure and have you included this in your instructions?
8.	Are the instructions and terminology clear?
9.	Have you considered any specific requirements of the participant group you are targeting?
10.	Have you allowed time for developing and piloting your diary?

(Continued)

Table 2.1 Continued

11. How will you reinforce data recording and support participants throughout the data collection period (e.g. by regular personal or telephone contact)?
12. How will you address potential respondent fatigue?
13. How will you deal with attrition and partial completion of diaries?
14. Have you considered alternative formats to the written word?

Adapted from Nicholl (2010).