

WORKBOOK I:
ANALYZING QUANTITATIVE DATA

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OVERVIEW OF QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

You have collected your data; now you need to make sense of it. This section will help you do that by discussing various aspects of quantitative research analysis, such as coding open-ended data; organizing the information for analysis; frequency analysis; cross tabulations, assessing significant differences; and error rates.

Coding Open-Ended Data

There is no way to quantitatively analyze verbatim responses to open-ended questions—first, you must quantify it. The first step in this process is called *coding*. When coding, you need to reduce a wide variety of information into a more limited set of attributes with something in common. For example, if one respondent says they feel a problem facing their community is the poor economy, and another respondent mentions unemployment as a problem, it may be helpful to group these together as a common concern.

Developing Code Categories. Given the type of research you are conducting, it would be best for you to begin by reading through several of the verbatim responses. In this way, you will develop a general sense of the issues or topics that respondents have mentioned. While reading over the responses, take initial notes to assist you in developing codes. Assign a number to each initial code. You should keep your list of codes handy while reading verbatim responses, including the number and the description of the code. This is your *codebook*.

A codebook serves two essential functions:

- ▶ It is your guide during the coding process.
- ▶ It is your guide during analysis, when you need to remember what the codes represent. This is especially important, as most software you may use for statistical analysis will not allow all of this information (software favors abbreviations and numeric codes). Every codebook should also contain the full wording of the question asked, so that the analyst understands exactly what the respondent heard before responding.

After developing your list of initial codes, you must read through all of the verbatim responses given for a question. Remember that verbatim responses will usually contain more than one idea—you must decide on a maximum number of codes you will assign to each verbatim response. Usually, six is a standard and adequate maximum number of codes—rarely do respondents mention more than six ideas when answering a question.

Although the coding scheme should be tailored to meet the particular needs of your study, there is one general rule of thumb to keep in mind: if the data are coded in a way that retains the detail of people's responses, they can always be further combined for broad categories; however, if you initially code responses into broad categories, you can never analyze them in more detail. Therefore, it is generally more convenient to retain some detail when coding open-ended responses. This allows you greater flexibility when looking at the data.

So how do you decide what code to use for a verbatim response?

Let's look at an example: say the first open-ended response you read says, "There aren't any after-school activities at my school, and even if there were, they're usually too expensive. I don't even think I'd be interested anyway." There are three main ideas in this response: (1) there are no after-school activities available, (2) after-school activities are usually too expensive, and (3) the respondent is not generally interested in after-school activities. Each of these would be a code:

1. Lack of after-school activities
2. After-school activities too expensive
3. Lack of interest in after-school activities

Now you have converted your data into numerical codes. Remember that you can always add a new code to your list when necessary—when a respondent mentions a topic or concern that is not already represented in your list of codes, simply add a new code to represent that response.

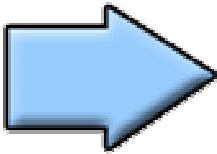
There are many options regarding how to code open-ended responses, and when choosing, you should consider how you are planning to conduct data entry. We recommend pre-coding or hand-coding verbatim responses before conducting data entry. The easiest way to hand-code verbatim responses is called *edge coding*: the margin of each page of a questionnaire or other data source is left blank. Codes are written in the appropriate spaces in the margin. These edge codes are then used for data entry.

You may also want to use hatchmarks in your codebook to note how many times a code has been used. This will assist you in combining code categories later, if desired—for example, if 100 people mention that they are not interested in after-school activities, and only five or six mention that they are not interested in after-school activities *regarding music*, you may want to combine these two codes into one code that encompasses both—*lack of interest in after-school activities*. Whenever you combine (or “collapse”) codes, remember to note all the subcodes that make up your final code.

It is likely that you will have more than one person coding your data. Therefore, it is important to refine your definitions of code categories and train your coders so they will be able to assign responses to the proper categories. You should explain the meaning of each code category, and give several examples of each category. To be sure that all coders have the same idea about where responses belong, you should code several cases, and then your coders should be asked to code those same cases. Compare your work with the other coders' work—all coders should have categorized the responses in the same way. This is called *inter-rater reliability*. If different people coded the same response differently, there is either a problem with your code categories or your communication of those categories. Even if you do have perfect agreement among all coders, you should still spot-check coding during the coding process.

Even if only one person is coding all of the data, you should still check that coder's reliability. Nobody is perfect, and a coder may not always reliably code responses in the same way. Always have someone else code at least a small portion of cases to see if that person assigns codes in the same way as the coder—this is called *intersubjectivity*.

POINTER



There are also some coding programs available on the market, usually used for qualitative analysis, that can help a researcher make sense of verbatim data. These include The Ethnograph; HyperQual; HyperResearch; HyperSoft; NUD*IST; Qualrus; QUALOG; Textbase Alpha; SONAR; and Atlas.ti. For more information on these and other programs, you can refer to this web site prepared by sociologists at the University of Surrey, England: <http://www.soc.surrey.ac.uk/sru>.

Organizing Your Data For Analysis

Before beginning your analysis, you should organize the information for your study. The best way to organize information is based on general topic. You may want to consider looking through your questionnaire and organizing the questions by topic. For each topic, you will create a list of questions that were asked about that general topic. Then, each of these topics can be analyzed by looking at the responses to the questions.

Here is a **sample organizational structure** for analysis of the prototype questionnaire available on the CD included with this guide:

1. CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS
2. DECISION-MAKING ABOUT OUT-OF-SCHOOL TIME ACTIVITIES
 - a. Primary Decision-Makers About OST Activities
 - b. Important Criteria in Selecting OST Activities
3. CURRENT PARTICIPATION IN AND SATISFACTION WITH OST ACTIVITIES
 - a. Current Participation in OST Activities
 - b. Satisfaction with OST Activities
4. BARRIERS TO PARTICIPATION IN OST ACTIVITIES
5. INTEREST IN SPECIFIC TYPES OF ORGANIZED ACTIVITIES
6. PREFERENCES FOR OST PROGRAM STRUCTURE
7. LIKELY ATTENDANCE OF OST PROGRAM
 - a. Likely Attendance of OST Activities and Parent Nights
 - b. Reactions to Program Prices
8. SOURCES OF INFORMATION ABOUT OST ACTIVITIES

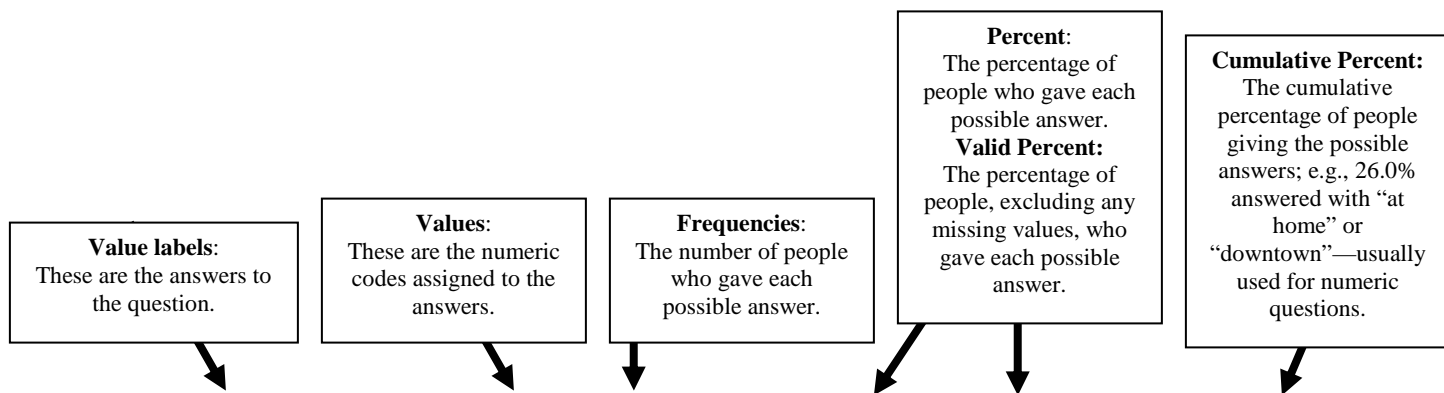
Frequency Analysis

The simplest form of quantitative analysis is **frequency analysis**, which presents the distribution of answers to a question—for example, if gender is asked, how many of the respondents answered that they are men and how many answered that they are women? You are reporting a frequency distribution when you report that 40% of respondents are men and 60% are women.

To illustrate, below is a sample question with frequency distribution data for that question. This question is from the prototype questionnaire available on the CD included with this guide.

15. Where does ABX[he-she] usually hang out when ABX[he-she] is not being supervised by an adult? [IF MORE THAN ONE PLACE, ASK WHERE HANGS OUT MOST OFTEN]

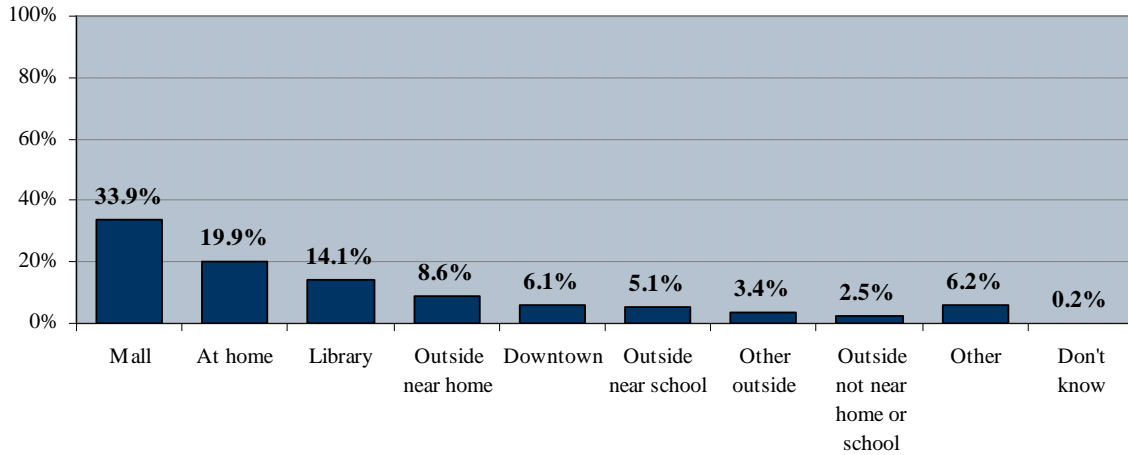
- 1 --At your home or someone else's home
- 2 --Downtown Providence
- 3 --Mall
- 4 --Library
- 5 --Outside, in the neighborhood near your child's school
- 6 --Outside, in the neighborhood near your home
- 7 --Outside, not near your home or child's school
- 8 --Don't know [DON'T READ]
- 9 --SPECIFY OTHER



Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
At home	1	15	19.9%	19.9%	19.9%
Downtown	2	5	6.1%	6.1%	26.0%
Mall	3	25	33.9%	33.9%	59.9%
Library	4	10	14.1%	14.1%	74.0%
Outside near school	5	4	5.1%	5.1%	79.1%
Outside near home	6	7	8.6%	8.6%	87.7%
Outside not near home or school	7	2	2.5%	2.5%	90.2%
Other outside	8	3	3.4%	3.4%	93.6%
Other	9	5	6.2%	6.2%	99.8%
Don't know	10	1	0.2%	0.2%	100.0%
TOTAL	----	77	100.0%	100.0%	-----

Sometimes it's **easiest to see a frequency distribution in a graph**. Below is the same data as in the table above, only this time in graph form. Visually illustrating the data this way can help a reader make sense of the findings. The graph clearly shows that most students spend time at the mall after school, though many also spend time at home or at the library.

Place Usually Hangs Out After School



What Communities Have Learned

Use graphs and language to help keep the analysis understandable. “We really tried to use graphics as much as we could. We’re still at the point where we’re trying to describe things as simply as possible. . . . We’re trying not to describe the complex analyses that we do in complex ways. We make an effort to use very simple English. . . . The big challenge is to say things in simple ways so that everybody understands it.”

--Bob Goerge, Chapin Hall Center for Children. Conducted a multi-phase research project, including self-administered surveys of high school students in Chicago, in-depth interviews with students, and an inventory of OST programs in Chicago. The objective of this research was to better understand participation in OST programs and other activities among Chicago youth, as well as the effects of established programs.

Crosstabulations

Crosstabulations, often called crosstabs or banners, are a way of presenting the data you've collected for assistance in analysis. Crosstabs are organized by rows and columns—you can choose the questions you would like to use as column variables, and then run all of the questions asked in your survey as row variables. Crosstabulations are effective at giving researchers an overview of the data.

When choosing your column variables, think about what you would like to find out. For example, you might wonder how boys differ from girls regarding after-school sports activities. To look at this, you would use the gender question as your column variable. Then you will be able to see the results of every question broken out by gender. For example, you could see how participation in after-school sports activities differs between boys and girls. Below is an example of crosstabulations—note that column variables include gender and grade.

Most statistical analysis software will offer the option of running crosstabulations. The software generally asks for the column variable and the row variable(s). When finished, the crosstab will generally look like this:

Participation in After-School Sports Activities is the row variable. Respondents answer “yes” or “no” (as indicated at left).

Gender and Grade are your column variables. Each is broken out into relevant categories—e.g., “boys” and “girls.”

		Participation in After-School Sports Activities					
			<u>GENDER</u>		<u>GRADE</u>		
	TOTAL	<u>Boys</u>	<u>Girls</u>	<u>6th</u>	<u>7th</u>	<u>8th</u>	
Total Answering: The total number of respondents giving this answer.	Total Answering	400	200	200	100	150	150
	Col Pct	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Row Pct	100.0	50.0	50.0	33.3	33.3	33.3
Column Percent: The percentage of respondents in this column giving this answer.	Yes	240	140	100	25	100	115
		60.0	70.0	50.0	25.0	70.0	76.6
		100.0	58.3	41.6	10.4	41.6	47.9
Row Percent: The percentage of respondents in this row giving this answer.	No	160	60	100	75	50	35
		40.0	30.0	50.0	75.0	30.0	23.4
		100.0	37.5	62.5	46.9	31.2	21.9

When looking at the crosstabs above, you'll note that it presents **information for column percents and row percents**. This is simple:

- The **column percent** is the percentage of respondents answering a certain way within that column—for example, **60.0%** of respondents said they are involved in after-school sports activities, and 40% said they are not. The numbers in each column should always add up to 100%.
- The **row percent** is the percentage of respondents answering a certain way within that row—for example, **58.3%** of those saying they are involved in after-school sports-activities are boys, and 41.6% are girls. The numbers in each row should always add up to 100%.

Significant Differences

As noted previously, you might wonder how some types of people differ from each other regarding some aspect of your study; for example, how boys differ from girls regarding after-school sports activities. You can use column and row variables in crosstabulations to look at the results of any question broken out by categories such as boys and girls, but how do you know whether the difference you perceive is statistically significant?

The only way to know if the differences between categories (e.g., boys and girls) is important is to run a statistical test that will tell you if the difference is *statistically significant*. Statistical significance is the measurement of likelihood that this difference would occur in the “real world,” and is not simply a function of sampling error or chance. If differences are not statistically significant, they should not be reported.

In marketing and organizational research, the level of significance is usually prescribed to be .05 or greater. This means that there is a 95% or greater chance that the difference is real. Sometimes marketing researchers will report a level of significance of .10 to .06 as well (90% to 94%), reporting this difference as “somewhat” significant.

There are **three basic statistical tests** commonly used to test for statistical significance: the difference of proportion test, Chi square, and the t-test. Which test you use is determined somewhat by how you are analyzing your data, the software you are using, and personal preference. Most computer software for data analysis will run at least one of these tests. We will briefly describe each of these three tests and how they work.

Difference of Proportion. Difference of proportion tests are commonly used in marketing research. These tests use the reported percentages and population sizes of a variable to compute whether a difference among subgroups is statistically significant. These tests, however, are less common in off-the-shelf software. You can visit our web site (www.marketstreetresearch.com) to run difference of proportion tests (a program for running this test has also been included on the CD of prototype materials included with this guide). Let us look again at crosstabulation data.

<u>Participation in After-School Sports Activities</u>						
	TOTAL	<u>GENDER</u>		<u>GRADE</u>		
		<u>Boys</u>	<u>Girls</u>	<u>6th</u>	<u>7th</u>	<u>8th</u>
Total						
Answering	400	200	200	100	150	150
Col Pct	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Row Pct	100.0	50.0	50.0	33.3	33.3	33.3
Yes	240	140	100	25	100	115
	60.0	70.0	50.0	25.0	70.0	76.6
	100.0	58.3	41.6	10.4	41.6	47.9
No	160	60	100	75	50	35
	40.0	30.0	50.0	75.0	30.0	23.4
	100.0	37.5	62.5	46.9	31.2	21.9

In this example, note that 70% of boys participate in after-school sports activities, while only 50% of girls participate in this type of activity. You may wonder whether this difference is statistically significant—using a difference of proportion test will tell you. In this instance, the difference between boys and girls is significant.

To give another example, if you look at grade level in the crosstabulations, you will note that 70.0% of 7th graders participate in after-school sports activities, and 76.6% of 8th graders participate in after-school sports activities. Running a difference of proportion test on this data, we see that this difference is not significant and therefore should not be reported.

Chi square. Chi square is usually available in most off-the-shelf software such as SPSS, and is useful in discovering if there is a significant relationship between two questions, such as *participation in after-school sports activities* and *gender*. To use the same example, if you run a Chi square, it will tell you whether gender is related to participation in after-school sports programs—if you note, as mentioned previously, that 70% of boys participate in after-school sports programs and 50% of girls participate in after-school sports programs, you may wonder if this difference is statistically significant. Running Chi square will tell you if it is. Chi square uses the reported frequencies of a variable to compute whether there is a significant relationship.

T-test. The t-test is perhaps the most common test of statistical significance in social research in general, and is available in most analysis software. The t-test uses means, or averages, to compute the statistical significance of a difference. If you are reporting means rather than frequencies and percentages, this test may be more suitable for your analysis. T-tests are only used to compare two subgroups, however—for example, a t-test would be helpful when looking at differences between boys and girls, but it would not be helpful in looking at differences among 6th, 7th, and 8th graders. In addition, t-tests should only be used with interval data, such as ratings questions, where means are appropriate.

Each of these statistical tests are fairly complex, and it is not necessary for you to understand them in detail—most statistical analysis software will actually do the math. What is most important is that you understand the purpose of these tests and how each generally works. When choosing which test to use, consider the brief information we've included here. In addition, if you're interested in more detail regarding quantitative analysis and resources, consider the following online resources:

<http://www.marketresearchworld.net/>

http://www.ithaca.edu/faculty/kgregson/quant_links.html

<http://www.uwec.edu/Sampsow/Links/Quantitative.htm>

How to Handle the “Don’t Know” Response

It’s generally considered useful to give respondents the option of saying “don’t know” to a question in an interview; however, this can sometimes pose a problem when analyzing the data. Sometimes, it may be more useful to look at data only among those who were able to answer the question. Most software will offer you the option of excluding the “don’t know” response from any question by defining it as a missing value.

Here is a simple way of *recalculating findings to exclude “don’t know” responses*. Take the percentage of respondents who replied “don’t know” (e.g., 25%) and subtract it from 100 (100%). This leaves you with the proportion of respondents who were able to answer the question (75%). Now simply divide whatever response you’re analyzing by 75% rather than 100%, and you get the percent who feel a certain way “of those who were able to answer the question.”

Example: Recalculating to Exclude a “Don’t Know” Response

You have decided to ask middle-school students what they feel is the most important issue facing them today: 42% say “peer pressure,” 20% say “school safety,” 13% say “amount of TV viewing,” and 25% say they “don’t know.” Let’s re-calculate the proportion of students who mentioned “peer pressure” to exclude those students who said “don’t know” from the population.

1. Subtract 25% from 100% -- this leaves you with 75%.
2. Divide 42% by 75% (0.75) -- this gives you 56%.

This means that *of those students who had an opinion*, 56% (over one-half) feel that peer pressure is the most important issue facing them today.

Error Rates

Findings from a survey are unlikely to equal the exact proportions of people in the “real world” who think or feel a certain way. This is because data for surveys are collected from a *sample* of the population being studied, not the entire population. Therefore, sample surveys involve a *margin of error*. An important factor in determining the margin of error is the size of the sample. Generally, the larger the sample, the more likely the findings are representative of the population as a whole. The table below indicates the sampling tolerances for sample sizes of between 50 and 2,000. These percentages are at the 95% confidence level.

For example, the margin of error for a sample of 500 from a large population is plus or minus 2.6 to 4.4 percentage points. The margin of error is based on the number of respondents answering the question, and the percentage of respondents answering a certain way. To find the appropriate cell in the margin of error chart, you would first locate the number of respondents in the left-hand column, and then the appropriate percentage at the top of the chart. In other words, if 90% of the 500 parents you survey report that the community needs more after-school sports programs, between 87.4% and 92.6% of all parents in your area should perceive a need for more after-school sports programs.

Margin of Error at the 95% Confidence Level

Sample Size	Percentages								
	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%
2000	1.3	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.8	1.3
1500	1.5	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.3	2.0	1.5
1000	1.9	2.5	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.5	1.9
900	2.0	2.6	3.0	3.2	3.3	3.2	3.0	2.6	2.0
750	2.1	2.8	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.3	2.8	2.1
700	2.2	3.0	3.4	3.6	3.7	3.6	3.4	3.0	2.2
650	2.3	3.1	3.5	3.7	3.8	3.7	3.5	3.1	2.3
600	2.4	3.2	3.7	3.9	4.0	3.9	3.7	3.2	2.4
550	2.5	3.3	3.8	4.1	4.2	4.1	3.8	3.3	2.5
500	2.6	3.5	4.0	4.3	4.4	4.3	4.0	3.5	2.6
450	2.7	3.7	4.2	4.5	4.6	4.5	4.2	3.7	2.7
400	2.9	3.9	4.5	4.8	4.9	4.8	4.5	3.9	2.9
350	3.1	4.2	4.8	5.1	5.2	5.1	4.8	4.2	3.1
300	3.4	4.5	5.2	5.5	5.7	5.5	5.2	4.5	3.4
250	3.8	5.0	5.7	6.1	6.3	6.1	5.7	5.0	3.8
200	4.2	5.5	6.4	6.8	6.9	6.8	6.4	5.5	4.2
150	4.8	6.4	7.3	7.8	8.0	7.8	7.3	6.4	4.8
100	5.9	7.8	9.0	9.6	9.8	9.6	9.0	7.8	5.9
75	6.8	9.0	10.4	11.1	11.3	11.1	10.4	9.0	6.8
50	8.3	11.1	12.7	13.6	13.9	13.6	12.7	11.1	8.3

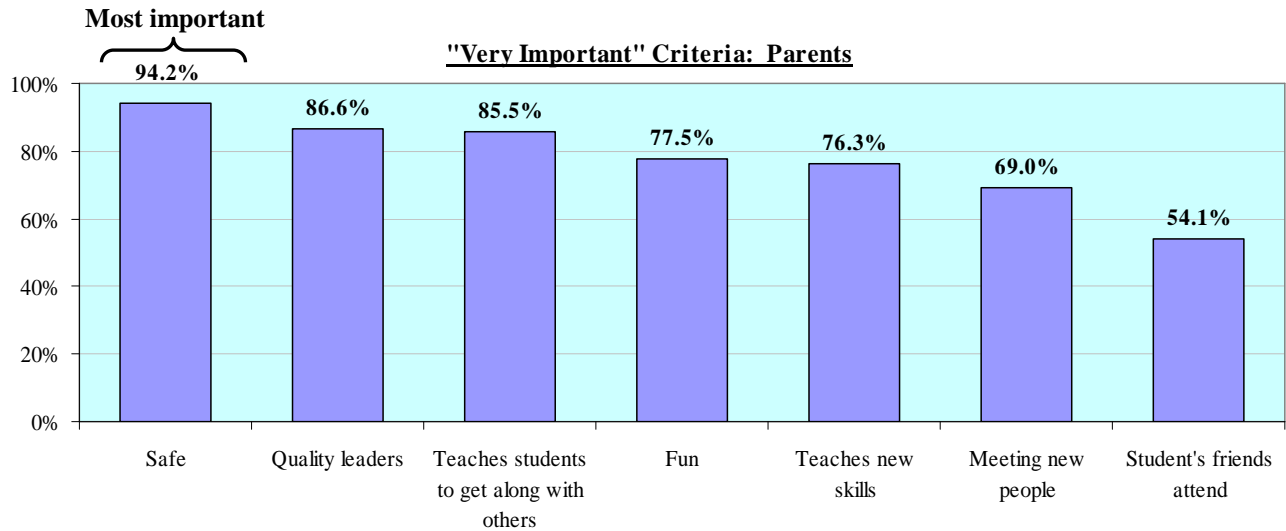
Sample Data Analysis

What follows is a sample of data analysis using data from the prototype questionnaire presented in this manual:

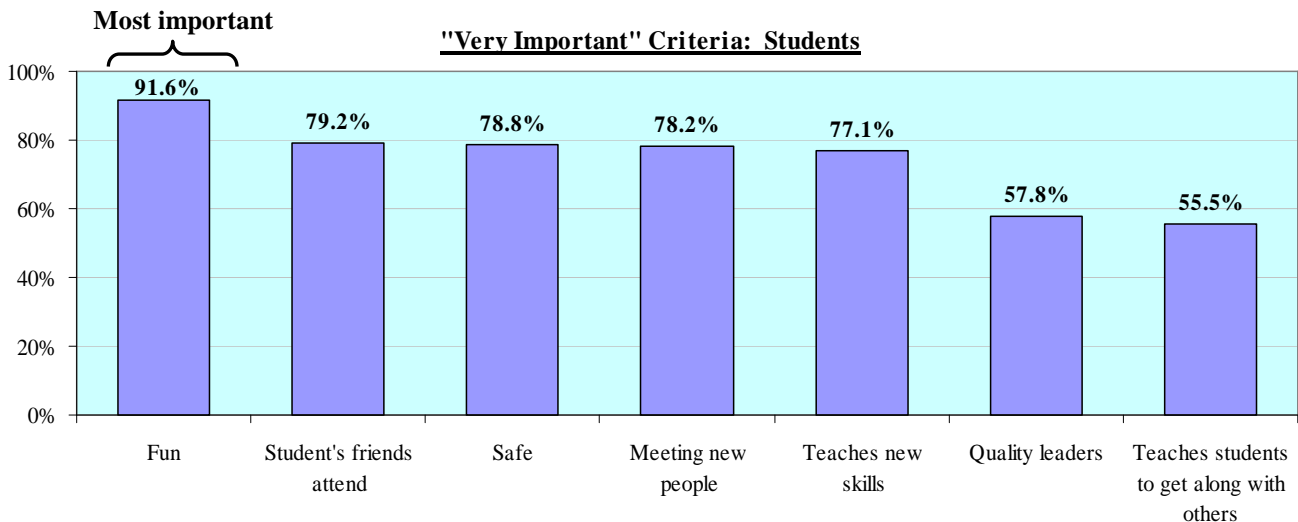
Important Criteria in Selecting OST Activities

We asked all parents and students what **criteria are important to them in selecting after-school activities**. They were asked to rate the importance of seven specific criteria, including that the activity: (1) teaches the student new skills; (2) is fun; (3) makes the student feel safe; (4) is led by adults who can relate to the student and make him or her feel excited about the activities; (5) teaches the student how to get along with others; (6) is also attended by some of the student's friends; and (7) lets the student meet new people.

Overall, **all of these criteria are considered very important by a majority of respondents**. Among parents, **safety** is significantly more important than any other criterion (94.2% very important).

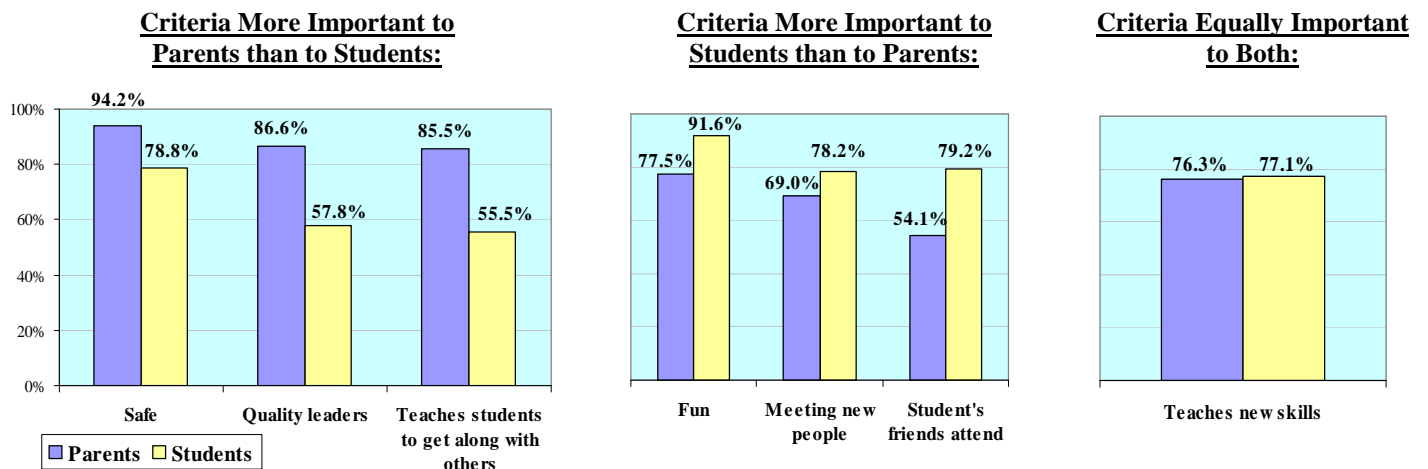


Among students, **having fun** is significantly more important than any other criterion (91.6% very important).



Importance of Criteria Among Parents and Students: The extent to which certain criteria are perceived as being *very important* differs significantly between parents and students. **Parents are significantly more likely than students to cite safety, motivating activity leaders, and learning to get along with others** as being *very important*, although it should be noted that students also find these issues highly important, and a majority of students place emphasis on safety. **Students place more emphasis than parents on social elements and having fun:** they are significantly more likely than parents to say that it is *very important* that the activity is fun (91.6% vs. 77.5% parents), that their friends also attend the activity (79.2% vs. 54.1%), and that it is *very important* that they are able to meet new people (78.2% vs. 69.0%)—please refer to Table 1 to see the data upon which this analysis is based.

Parents and students are equally likely to consider **learning new skills** *very important* (76.3% parents and 77.1% students). The charts below illustrate these differences between the criteria parents and students consider *very important*.



Importance of Criteria By Grade: Findings are generally consistent across the three grades included in this research. The exception is **safety**, which is considered significantly more important for sixth graders (95.3% *very important*) than it is for seventh graders (87.0%) or eighth graders (77.4%). For these differences, it is the parents of seventh and eighth graders who consider safety especially important, rather than the students themselves (see Table 1).

Importance of Criteria By Gender: Findings are generally consistent among male and female students and their parents. One exception is **having fun**, which is considered significantly more important for female students (89.5% *very important*) than it is for male students (80.1%). In addition, safety is considered somewhat more important for female students than for male students (90.2% female vs. 83.1% male). As with students and parents overall, female students place more importance on having fun, while their parents place more importance on safety (see Table 1).

Importance of Criteria Among Ethnic Groups: Findings are generally consistent among ethnic groups, with two exceptions. **Having fun** is considered significantly less important for Asian students (70.1% *very important* vs. 84.6% total), and **meeting new people** is considered

significantly less important for white students (58.6% vs. 73.6% total). While the number of parents of Asian students is too small to allow a statistical analysis of their responses, the findings indicate it is Asian parents, rather than students, who place less importance on having fun. There are no significant differences between white students and their parents in terms of the perceived importance of meeting new people (see Table 1).

TABLE 1

DECISION-MAKING ABOUT OST ACTIVITIES: TOTAL

	GRAND TOTAL	STUDENT TOTAL	PARENT TOTAL	GRADE			GENDER		ETHNICITY				
				Sixth	Seventh	Eighth	Male	Female	African-American	Hispanic	White	Asian	Mixed/Other
(Q22) Decision maker for OST activities	N=400	N=200	N=200	N=134	N=132	N=135	N=209	N=191	N=90	N=211	N=51	N=28	N=21
Parent	30.6%	28.9%	32.3%	34.5%	35.0%	22.4%	28.9%	32.5%	29.6%	34.0%	17.9%	30.6%	31.0%
Student	18.1%	28.5%	7.8%	15.9%	14.2%	24.2%	19.4%	16.8%	17.2%	16.5%	15.0%	21.5%	42.5%
Both parent and student	50.9%	42.5%	59.3%	49.5%	50.4%	52.8%	51.5%	50.3%	52.7%	49.0%	67.0%	48.0%	26.6%
Don't know	0.4%	0.0%	0.7%	0.0%	0.3%	0.7%	0.2%	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Importance of the following in choosing an OST activity:													
(Q35) That it teaches new skills	N=400	N=200	N=200	N=134	N=132	N=135	N=209	N=191	N=90	N=211	N=51	N=28	N=21
Very important	76.7%	77.1%	76.3%	81.7%	75.6%	72.9%	74.7%	78.9%	70.5%	80.1%	72.3%	75.5%	81.5%
Somewhat important	17.0%	18.8%	15.1%	15.0%	16.7%	19.1%	17.5%	16.4%	15.9%	15.9%	23.2%	16.2%	17.8%
Not important	6.3%	4.1%	8.6%	3.3%	7.7%	8.0%	7.8%	4.7%	13.6%	4.0%	4.6%	8.3%	0.7%
Don't know	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
(Q36) That the activity is fun	N=400	N=200	N=200	N=134	N=132	N=135	N=209	N=191	N=90	N=211	N=51	N=28	N=21
Very important	84.6%	91.6%	77.5%	85.2%	85.9%	82.6%	80.1%	89.5%	80.3%	87.5%	88.7%	70.1%	82.3%
Somewhat important	13.4%	7.8%	19.0%	12.9%	12.1%	15.1%	16.6%	9.9%	15.2%	11.1%	11.3%	25.3%	17.7%
Not important	1.7%	0.6%	2.9%	0.9%	2.0%	2.3%	3.3%	0.0%	4.5%	1.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Don't know	0.3%	0.0%	0.6%	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.6%	0.0%
(Q37) That it provides an environment that feels safe	N=400	N=200	N=200	N=134	N=132	N=135	N=209	N=191	N=90	N=211	N=51	N=28	N=21
Very important	86.5%	78.8%	94.2%	95.3%	87.0%	77.4%	83.1%	90.2%	85.5%	86.9%	93.6%	75.8%	84.3%
Somewhat important	10.6%	18.8%	2.4%	4.7%	9.0%	18.0%	11.3%	9.8%	6.3%	11.1%	6.4%	24.2%	15.7%
Not important	2.1%	2.4%	1.8%	0.0%	4.0%	2.3%	4.0%	0.0%	4.7%	2.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Don't know	0.8%	0.0%	1.6%	0.0%	0.0%	2.3%	1.5%	0.0%	3.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
(Q38) That the adults who lead the activity can relate to students and make them feel excited about the activity	N=400	N=200	N=200	N=134	N=132	N=135	N=209	N=191	N=90	N=211	N=51	N=28	N=21
Very important	72.2%	57.8%	86.6%	76.1%	74.4%	66.2%	68.8%	76.0%	73.8%	73.7%	63.3%	68.2%	77.3%
Somewhat important	20.8%	33.6%	8.0%	17.0%	23.1%	22.2%	23.9%	17.3%	13.2%	21.0%	28.7%	27.2%	22.7%
Not important	6.2%	8.6%	3.9%	5.9%	1.1%	11.6%	7.3%	5.0%	11.5%	5.0%	8.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Don't know	0.8%	0.0%	1.6%	0.9%	1.4%	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%	1.4%	0.3%	0.0%	4.6%	0.0%

TABLE 1 (continued)

	GRAND TOTAL	STUDENT TOTAL	PARENT TOTAL	GRADE			GENDER		ETHNICITY				
				Sixth	Seventh	Eighth	Male	Female	African-American	Hispanic	White	Asian	Mixed/Other
Importance of the following in choosing an OST activity:													
(Q39) That it teaches how to get along with others	N=400	N=200	N=200	N=134	N=132	N=135	N=209	N=191	N=90	N=211	N=51	N=28	N=21
Very important	70.5%	55.5%	85.5%	76.5%	70.5%	64.5%	69.3%	71.8%	70.1%	71.3%	63.6%	65.2%	88.3%
Somewhat important	21.3%	33.0%	9.6%	14.0%	23.0%	26.9%	23.9%	18.4%	18.3%	22.0%	24.9%	26.8%	11.4%
Not important	8.1%	11.5%	4.7%	9.5%	6.1%	8.6%	6.8%	9.5%	11.6%	6.5%	11.6%	8.1%	0.3%
Don't know	0.1%	0.0%	0.3%	0.0%	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%	0.0%	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
(Q40) That some friends also attend	N=400	N=200	N=200	N=134	N=132	N=135	N=209	N=191	N=90	N=211	N=51	N=28	N=21
Very important	66.7%	79.2%	54.1%	64.6%	65.1%	70.2%	63.6%	70.1%	65.2%	67.8%	61.4%	62.9%	79.0%
Somewhat important	23.5%	16.7%	30.3%	28.6%	22.6%	19.3%	23.6%	23.4%	15.1%	25.0%	31.1%	27.9%	20.4%
Not important	9.2%	3.8%	14.7%	6.8%	11.7%	9.2%	12.4%	5.7%	19.7%	6.0%	7.5%	9.1%	0.6%
Don't know	0.6%	0.3%	0.9%	0.0%	0.6%	1.2%	0.4%	0.9%	0.0%	1.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
(Q41) That it provides the chance to meet new people	N=400	N=200	N=200	N=134	N=132	N=135	N=209	N=191	N=90	N=211	N=51	N=28	N=21
Very important	73.6%	78.2%	69.0%	73.1%	71.5%	76.1%	71.6%	75.8%	70.0%	76.7%	58.6%	78.8%	86.8%
Somewhat important	22.4%	20.2%	24.6%	26.1%	25.8%	15.4%	24.3%	20.3%	17.1%	21.9%	39.8%	21.2%	9.8%
Not important	3.8%	1.6%	5.9%	0.7%	2.1%	8.5%	3.7%	3.9%	12.9%	1.0%	1.6%	0.0%	3.2%
Don't know	0.2%	0.0%	0.4%	0.0%	0.6%	0.0%	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%