




A QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

A study of the role of time in food provision practices

As usual, when it's dinner time and I haven't done any groceries, there is not food at home or no one has inspiration to put anything together, what do we do? Should we order a pizza?



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Abstract

In order to live within the planetary boundaries while providing for everyone's basic needs, new economic systems are being built in response to the current social, economic, and environmental issues. These new economic systems research use more holistic approaches to acknowledge the economic, political and social impacts of new policies. For instance, it is asserted that working less hours will improve health and wellbeing by increasing time availability. This policy also addresses issues of overproduction and overconsumption within the Global North considering the time spent at work. Within this master thesis I investigate role of time in daily practices, using food provision practices as an example. This demonstrates the initial steps in gaining a better understanding the role of time, daily practices, and any potential connections to health and wellbeing. Using practice theory and in-depth interviews, this study finds that food provision practices need to be considered together in order to account for the importance of the role of time. This impacts on food provision practices as an organisational factor and as a resource to perform food practices. As a result, this study contributes to our understanding of food provision behaviours as a whole, rather than as discrete practices, and it frames how they can be investigated to further explore how people perceive health and wellbeing. Finally, this research provides new recommendations in how to improve working conditions related to time using more holistic approaches.

Key words: food provision practices, time, organisation of practices, practice theory, personal food system, working conditions

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List of abbreviations

FPP: Food provision practices

PT: Practice theory

COVID-19: Coronavirus found in China in December 2019, causing a global epidemic. Governments were compelled to impose limitations in public and private spaces to prevent the virus from spreading (for example, restricting social interaction at work).

Introduction

1. Context and research motivation

Ever-increasing socio-economic inequalities, the crossing of planetary boundaries and the decrease of biodiversity around the world are only some of the consequences of an unsustainable, unequal, and unjust economic system (Hickel, 2022). Moreover, the current form of capitalism is not only driving contemporary societies to an unliveable planet, but also paving a deadly path for humans and animals. Pointing to the first and main problem, scholars, experts and critical thinkers are actively exploring alternatives to capitalism, aiming to establish a fair and equitable economic system. They are researching, devising plans and formulating policies to steer clear of a dreadful end (D'Alisa et al., 2015; Hickel, 2022). Crucially, these policies are embracing a comprehensive perspective that goes beyond merely considering the economic aspects of a new economic system, also taking into account the social and environmental factors involved. Numerous studies have investigated how the levels of consumption and production within a society and economy have an impact on various dimensions, including social, economic and environmental issues. The findings consistently demonstrate that the current levels of production and consumption, driven by a consumption-oriented mindset, are fundamentally unsustainable (Krüger, 2020). Research has shown that reducing production is necessary to effectively distribute the remaining planetary resources (Schneider et al., 2010). Moreover, decreasing production levels would alleviate the demand for human resources, leading to a more equitable distribution of labour and a reduction in working hours (Oberholzer, 2023). These findings emphasise the need for a holistic approach that considers the interconnectedness of economic, social and environmental factors in shaping sustainable policies and practices.

Recent research has begun to explore the relationship between working hours, production levels, and their implications (Hanbury et al., 2023). However, the current body of research lacks sufficient data to provide definitive conclusions on how a reduction in working hours could effectively contribute to the establishment of more sustainable systems (Antal et al., 2021; Hanbury et al., 2023). Nonetheless, policies aimed at reducing working hours have significant impacts at the social level, particularly on the health and wellbeing of the population. The reduction of working hours has been found to positively influence unhealthy behaviours such as excessive drinking or smoking (Ahn, 2016). Furthermore, increased personal time has been shown to have substantial positive effects on wellbeing, health and happiness levels (Bó, 2022; Voglino

et al., 2022; Whillans et al., 2016). Research indicates that lack of time can have adverse impacts on daily practices and overall happiness (Klaver & Lambrechts, 2021; Southerton, 2003).

These facts have encouraged local and national governments to engage in time policies. For example, the municipality of Barcelona has created the “Pact of Time”, an initiative which promotes the implementation of time regulation in policies, and action in order to accomplish a more egalitarian and healthy organisation of time among the population. In this case, the “Pact of time” not only considers the time availability as an individual factor, but as a key organisational factor in society. Since its beginning, capitalism has established what is now defined as the economies of time; the organisation of economic and social activities based on the needs of production in factories (Rotenberg, 1981). Nowadays, in Western societies, it can be seen that schedules define days, individuals, practices and, in summary, societies themselves (Bolino et al., 2021; Southerton, 2003; Southerton et al., 2012). In order to study how time factors impact people’s lives, a broad perspective of time, considering social and economic–timings and individual time availability is needed, as seen in “Barcelona’s Pact of Time”. In light of these results, it is clear that using holistic approaches in the study of new economic alternatives of capitalism, time should be considered as a key factor for a more sustainable and significantly healthier future.

However, it is important to recognise that daily practices are not uniformly conducted, as they vary based on individual, social and cultural characteristics. For example, activities such as watching television or cleaning are approached differently by each individual. Nevertheless, there is a set of practices that are performed on a daily basis, with food practices being a prominent example. Food practices have been extensively studied in research as a means to analyse a broader array of practices. Pioneering work by Bourdieu in “Distinction” (1976) explored how different social groups exhibited distinct tastes based on their habitus and capital. Subsequent generations of researchers have continued to examine food practices to investigate inequalities among socio-economic groups (Fielding-Singh, 2017), health practices (Halkier & Holm, 2021; Martins et al., 2021), as well as the cultural and social aspects of food (Engler-Stringer, 2010; Mills et al., 2020; Van Kesteren & Evans, 2020). Within this field of study, the role of time and time availability has been extensively explored. Food practices serve as a valuable example to demonstrate how time can profoundly impact individuals' daily lives (Dyen et al., 2018). Studying the role of time in daily practices, particularly within the context of food, not only provides valuable insights but also highlights the importance of considering time factors in public health policies (Beshara et al., 2010; Dallacker et al., 2019; Jabs & Devine, 2006; Larson et al., 2009).

2. Objectives and research question

In this master's thesis, I aim to explore specifically the role of time as a factor in food provision practices (FPP). There are several aspects which receive special attention in this discussion. Firstly, gaining a better understanding of the relationship between the individual and time, both as an organisational factor and as a resource for food practices. Secondly, more than studying food practices by themselves, this research will look at the factors which shape food practices depending on the role of time in daily lives. Last but not least, in order to contribute to knowledge on how public policies can address the factor of time, this research will look at which social factors should be considered for policies of time reduction aiming at improving individuals life.

The main research question of this thesis is: "How does the role of time impact food practices?". Since this relationship can be studied using different perspectives and theories, the main research question has been divided into three research sub-questions so the main points of the relationship can be addressed. Firstly, it is important to know which time factors are crucial in organising food practices. For that, the first sub-question is: (1) *Which factors matter in the role of time in FPP?* Secondly, it is important to understand the factors which impact food practices themselves, and knowing how people organise them in their daily lives. The sub-question addressing this issue is: (2) *How do individuals fit food practices in their daily life?* Last but not least, this research is embedded in a broader topic studying more equitable and just economic systems. Therefore, looking at the hours at work is relevant to understand how policies of working time reduction can serve as a significant action to impact food practices. The third and last sub question is (3) *How can a change in the working conditions related to people's time affect FPP?* In order to examine this relationship, this study uses practice theory (PT) to put the practices as the main focus of the research. Moreover, due to the explorative character of the study, qualitative methods are used.

This master thesis is organised in the following parts. First of all, the literature review assesses the main work produced on the role of time in economies and in society and how these affect food practices. Moreover, it provides the theoretical background of practice theories which will be used in the research. Both of them are put in a conceptual framework which is used as the visual tool which guides the research. Secondly, the methodology section explains the qualitative approach, the analysis and the selection of the sampling. Thirdly, the results are explored. The text ends with the discussion of the results and the research, and the conclusions, exploring how future research can expand this topic and how the results can be used for policy and practice.

Theoretical framework

1. Literature review

Time economies and social timings

In capitalist countries, commodification of time has been deemed necessary in order to create functioning economies (Thompson, 1967). Capitalism uses time in order to organise and create profit (Booth, 1991), this way creating economies of time. This has been seen in post-war economies, when economies of time did not only affect factories and business, but also people's lives. Time remains the dominant and pivotal factor for organisation of temporal rhythms in such economies (Rotenberg, 1981). However, policies of flexibilisation of work and work life balance have expanded the boundaries of working time from a '9-to-5' schedule to a '24-hour society', where work and other activities are scattered throughout the day (Garhammer, 1995; Southerton, 2003). This is of particular relevance when considering the social aspect of time. For instance, in *An Essay of Time*, Norbert Elias formulated the idea of a social understanding of time from social regularities. Within this context, time is understood and experienced through temporal intervals of social activities, such as market days or time to eat (Elias, 2007; Southerton et al., 2012). Hence, the interconnectedness of economic time and social time is inevitable in peoples' lives. The combination of both aspects brought authors to the discussion of time from individual's perspectives, looking at how these affect the way individuals organise their day and their practices. For instance, Southerton studied extensively the role of social time in mealtimes across different societies, showing clearly the role of economic and social time in societal and personal schedules (Southerton, 2003, 2006; Southerton et al., 2012)

Social research has been studying the issues of social time from different perspectives. On the one hand, research has focused on the duration and distribution of activities and practices throughout the day using quantitative methodologies. Time-diaries surveys have been successfully deployed to better understand how time economies and social timings are embedded in people's lives by looking at the quantity of time available for work, leisure and other responsibilities (Sevilla et al., 2012). The time census data in the United states is rich enough to detect patterns in working hours across time. For instance, comparing working times between 1970 and 1997, Jacobs and Green (1998) found that the hours within a working week did not increase - however, more respondents felt over pressed with work. Meanwhile, leisure time has contributed to feelings of busyness, since wealthier economies and people allowed more consumption of activities (Jacobs & Green, 1998; Sevilla et al., 2012; Southerton, 2003; Sullivan

& Gershuny, 2018). Furthermore, time studies show a clear pattern of inequalities between socio-economic class, gender and age (Mattingly & Bianchi, 2003; Sevilla et al., 2012; Sullivan & Gershuny, 2018). When looking at the economic class, factors such as the organisation of the working week together with the wealth of an individual or household matter in order to explain the availability and distribution of time for leisure or other activities. Gendered differences of time availability are partly explained by factors such as the perception of other responsibilities and the dynamics within the household (Mattingly & Bianchi, 2003).

On the other hand, time diaries are not able to explore the perceptions of time across the population. Qualitative research methodologies have been useful in covering the gap left. Time scarcity, also referred to as time famine or time pressure, is the perception of not having enough time to do all we want or need in a day (Godbey et al., 1998). Economies of time, together with social time affect the perception of time availability leading to feelings of time scarcity or time pressure (Jabs & Devine, 2006). Perception of time availability has been decreasing (Devine et al., 2006), creating more perceptions of time scarcity or time stress across various groups of people. Research has found that feelings of hurriedness affect the perception of time availability, leading to more feelings of time pressure and time scarcity (Bava et al., 2008). Other researchers have studied the factors leading to a perception of time scarcity. For example, women's perceptions of time pressure are caused for long hours at either work or study, or other commitments, i.e., care for family members (Beshara et al., 2010; Van Der Heijden et al., 2021; Welch et al., 2009).

The study of time scarcity has been used in order to explain current issues around waste, consumption and health. Regarding health and consumption, it has been found that time scarcity has implications on the food intake of groups leading to problems of (child) obesity. Even though this relationship is influenced by many other socioeconomic and cultural factors, the role of time availability could be decisive in order to integrate healthier and more sustainable life-styles (Bó, 2022). For example, in a recent meta-analysis by Dallacker et al. (2019), researchers have found that meal duration was a significant factor in determining nutritional health of children. In the same way, other researchers have looked at how time availability and time scarcity can influence food practices (Jabs & Devine, 2006).

In light of these findings, both private and public companies have recognised the significance of time in relation to the health of their workers. Employers have implemented various strategies to mitigate time pressures. Voglinio et al. (2022) conducted a review examining the effects of working time reductions on workers' lives, drawing on case studies that explored the reduction of working hours and its impact on worker health. The strategies employed by companies varied,

ranging from reducing daily or weekly working hours to implementing programs that allocated time specifically for physical activity instead of work.

Another policy that has gained attention in recent years is remote working. As remote work has become more prevalent, especially in response to the Covid-19 pandemic, numerous studies have investigated its effects on individuals' lives. Crawford (2022) conducted a review of case studies on remote working and its impact on worker wellbeing. While the selected studies present conflicting results, the study concludes that remote working contributed to positive outcomes in terms of health and wellbeing while also reducing negative outcomes, such as stress at the workplace. Additionally, the author incorporated studies that examined the role of time. It was found that when time arrangements, such as schedule flexibility, were implemented, the significance of remote working in improving wellbeing or health outcomes diminished. This conclusion aligns with other literature reviews that emphasise the importance of schedule flexibility for worker wellbeing (Shifrin & Michel, 2022).

Food practices and time

Food provision practices

Food provision practices (FPP) range from the acquisition of food to food disposal. The focus of this research will be placed on the acquisition, cooking of food and eating of meals. Firstly, the acquisition of food is the set of activities which integrate, for example, going to the supermarket or purchasing grocery items (Bava et al., 2008). While the acquisition of food has been mainly studied from the consumption perspective, cooking has also gained much interest. Mills et al. (2020), by studying the perception of cooking comparing the UK and US population, found that the term 'cooking' integrated all kinds of practices of food preparation undertaken at home, regardless of the ingredients of food used. As a result, participants saw cooking as any activity varying from scratch cooking requiring certain skills and effort, to heating a pre-prepared pizza in the oven (Mills et al., 2020). These results align with the study carried out by Lavelle et al. (2016), who found that the perceptions of the degree of preparation needed to qualify as cooking varied considerably. The authors noticed that they ranged from a more traditional understanding (using raw ingredients entirely) to a more modern perception, for example, incorporating convenience food. Moreover, the study found that cooking from scratch was seen as a healthier practice which required more time and effort. Therefore, cooking is considered as the set of activities and processes needed in order to turn the food acquired into a meal. Finally, once the meal is prepared, eating is part of the meal consumption (Bava et al., 2008).

These practices require organisation and planification due to the other responsibilities, time restrictions and preferences (Jabs & Devine, 2006). Furst et al. (1996) brought together the different aspects which affect food practices, creating a conceptual model which explains how individuals make decisions about food. Food decision are the set of choices related to the acquisition, cooking of food and eating. The conceptual model begins by considering the life course of the individual, which encompasses various experiences and events that influence and shape the person's personal food system. Following this model, Connors et al. (2001) extended on the idea of the 'personal food system'. A personal food system represents the dynamics of processes constructed by the individual which are used to make food choices, from the acquisition to the disposal. As the authors described: "The personal food system includes food-related value negotiations, the sorting and juggling of food-specific values as well as strategies individuals use to find their way through their everyday food choices" (Connors et al., 2001, p. 190). The "value negotiations" are based on the main values a person considers in the food choice process. They are the taste, healthiness, cost, convenience, the role in managing relationships. They are weighted depending on the specific situation, leading to using several strategies in order to accommodate the values in the final food choice. In the model, food choice processes are recognised as adaptative, complex, dynamic and situational systems, which react to a set of life course events and influences, such as economic resources or time availability. As a result, individuals must incorporate strategies in order to organise, simplify and feel comfortable in their meals and food choices.

In addition, Connor et al. (2001) found that individuals categorise food to simplify the process of food selection. In their study, participants categorised food in different dimensions, for instance, depending on the convenience or the healthiness of the food. This categorization of food was based on personal ideals or values of the participants. Therefore, each participant had a unique term and definition for each category. The meanings and value of convenient food can change depending on the objective and the value associated (Brunner et al., 2010; Connors et al., 2001). For instance, convenience is identified as the food which can be both easy to find and purchase, prepare or eat in moments of time scarcity or time stress (Brunner et al., 2010; Martins et al., 2021; Scholliers, 2015; Warde, 1999). Related to that, processed food has been studied in the literature through considering cooking practices. Martins et al. (2021) found that families which cooked less would consume more processed food which was identified as convenience food, while families that engaged with domestic cooking practices would consume less ultra-processed food. Therefore, practices of cooking are related to the type of food acquired and eaten (Dyen et al., 2018).

The categorization of food was not only established in terms of their value or objective in the meal, but also depending on the taste of and the feeling derived from the food (Connors et al., 2001; Sato et al., 2016). Several studies have shown the importance of feelings after eating specific food (Vad Andersen & Hyldig, 2015). Moreover, qualitative research in taste and feelings have deepened our understanding of the feeling during the intake of food. For instance, in the study by Connors et al. (2001) participants mentioned the difference between eating by oneself and eating with family members; eating alone was referred to as easier to satisfy, while eating with family members is seen to be influenced by the food choice of everybody. This difference in the preferences of the food system is related to how families and people organise their meals, therefore demonstrating the importance of the relationship between meals, food and family time and preferences.

Taste and feelings are subjected to a set of preferences and restrictions individuals manage in their food system. Connor et al. (2001) identified time and time availability as a significant “value” for negotiation of food choices. Consequently, in line with these results, researchers focused on the role of time in FPP. Devine et al. (2006) defined food choice coping strategies as the set of behavioural mechanisms that people employ to manage stress and fatigue related to their food consumption. In their study, the authors found several coping strategies: (1) managing feelings of stress and fatigue, (2) reducing time and effort for food, (3) redefining meanings and reduce expectations, (4) setting priorities and trade-offs and (5) changing work and family conditions. With these strategies, participants were able to organise, balance and coordinate several activities within the household while maintaining a paid job, sometimes putting other preferences or responsibilities first. Alm and Olsen (2017) found similar strategies, however, they also added how these strategies lead to healthy or unhealthy food consumption patterns. Therefore, it is crucial to understand the role of time and together with personal and household situations.

Food provision practices in relation with time

As we have seen previously, time economies and social regularities define and set the times of the year, seasons and days. At the individual level, these timings sort and define certain moments when activities can happen. For example, people can only purchase food when the stores are open, or certain meals will need to be adapted depending on the schedule.

Varying in countries and cultures, social times define when, what, where and how to eat. These settings institutionalise eating behaviours (Rotenberg, 1981; Southerton et al., 2012). Many studies have provided examples which aid in gaining a better understanding of the way time economies shape FPP and meal times. As one of the first studies carried out, Rotenberg (1981) reviews the patterns, changes and restrictions created by industrialization in Vienna. In this early study, the author highlights several points. For one, the relationship between work and household has changed, creating more difficulties in accommodating meal times in the middle of the day. Additionally, the reduction of structured breaks during the day immobilises social eating and the shorter and uninterrupted workday is more stressful than longer (interrupted) periods of work. Altogether, the author concludes that meal patterns are not arbitrary and that organization of work is linked to meal times through the schedule of working household members (Rotenberg, 1981).

For this reason, looking at temporal dimensions of practices can be useful in order to analyse the different components of each practice (Southerton et al., 2012). There are 5 dimensions of time which can be used: *Duration*, referring to the quantity of time, minutes or hours, of each activity in a daily life, *tempo* refers to the speed of sequence of activities or tasks in a day, leading to the *sequence*, the order of the activities, the *synchronization* of different activities, and finally, the *periodicity* as the frequency and repetition of events. Therefore, a day is the field where practices are allocated and its organisation depends on the practices that have fixed positions within schedules. There are other practices which can be more flexible in one's schedule, however, the coordination with others, obligations or commitments can change the organization of the day or the timing of practices (Southerton et al., 2012). As Jobs and Devine (2006) explain, FPP require a certain time: the amount of time for food spent each day might vary substantially, depending on the activities needed or the group of people involved in them. Still, regardless the universality of FPP, food practices require time availability, organization and coordination.

The organization and coordination of FPP are crucial aspects in the daily life of individuals. Firstly, they need to reconcile the time spent in other activities, such as working or caring for others, with FPP (Liu et al., 2022; Storz et al., 2022). Secondly, they need to coordinate obligations, schedules and needs with other people of the household or other people's schedules. Organisation of meal preparation in households has been found to be impacted by the amount of hours worked by the household member (Southerton, 2006). Therefore, people and families built and use strategies to cope with the fixation of schedules or the availability of time. Coping time strategies show the way people organise their food practices, however, personal and household preferences and restrictions still play a role in the relationship between time and food

practices. As Connors noticed, participants differentiated food according to different values and beliefs, and from this categorization they made a decision focusing on the preferences or necessity of the moment. For example, in hungry moments, participants preferred quick and convenient food to cook over other healthy options. In other cases, preferences were chosen as a function of household preferences. As the authors point out: “This personal food system strategy involved jointly negotiating differences in the taste values among people sharing meals together in a household and illustrated how compromises are struck for the sake of harmony in people’s lives.” (Connors et al., 2001, p. 196). This decision shows how individuals and families have to make trade-offs in order to accommodate tastes and values in each meal. This trade-off process is another example of food practices decisions being subjected to specific restrictions, rather than being (fully) freely made (Bava et al., 2008).

Cultural and socio-economic intersectionalities

All in all, food practices are embedded in a set of constraints, factors and values which drive individuals to take decisions over what and how they eat (Van Kesteren & Evans, 2020). Focusing on the practices themselves helps to understand the role of other factors, such as the requirements, constraints or preferences to engage in certain practices. In a study done in Norway, the researchers found that barriers and constraints towards healthy and sustainable eating were time, competence, quality, limited selection, price and taste. These were conceptualised in two groups; food quality and food knowledge (Skuland, 2015). Drawing from Bourdieu’s theory of capital, the authors defined food quality barriers related to the scarcity of economic capital and food knowledge barriers as the scarcity of cultural capital. This differentiation of concepts makes it possible to identify cultural and economic differences between social groups. Therefore, considering economic and food-knowledge factors can shed light on how this pattern affects the relationship between time and food practices.

Sociodemographic factors, such as gender, migration background and level of education have an impact on food practices (Mills et al., 2020). In a study done by Fielding-Singh (2017), it was found that families’ material circumstances shape food’s symbolic value. These differences were of crucial importance to fully account for dietary differences across different SES groups. Fielding-Singh (2017, p. 442) explains that “socioeconomic status shapes the meanings that parents attach to food, and those meanings help shape how parents approach their adolescents’ diets”. The intersectionality of socioeconomic variables, such as income or education, together with sociodemographic variables, such as gender, age or migration background, are relevant in order to understand FPP.

The cultural context provides a framework for understanding and appreciating the diverse culinary traditions and practices found across different societies, emphasizing the importance of cultural knowledge and skills in food cooking. For instance, cultures that emphasise the importance of balance and moderation in nutrition may advocate for varied diets with an emphasis on portion control. These values guide FPP by influencing the selection of ingredients, cooking methods, and portion sizes (Lavelle et al., 2016). At the same time, cultural beliefs and values are intertwined with knowledge and skills for food cooking. They shape the acquisition and transmission of culinary knowledge, influence the development of specific cooking techniques, and guide FPP. Halkier and Holm (2021) found that there are a few elements which should be taken into account in order to understand current cooking skills. These are balancing rules and improvisation, handling planning and organizing flexibility, assembling meals from different sources and managing normative food issues. This schema relates to the way people organise not only the preparation of meals, but also the acquisition of food based on meticulous plans.

2. Theories

As reflected in the literature review, researchers mention *practice* as the activities in which participants relate to their own experiences about perception of time, eating or the relationship between both of them. In this section, these concepts will be further developed by drawing on practice theory (PT) and introducing concepts from Bourdieu's theory of *Distinction*.

Social and individual practices have been largely studied by social researchers and results provided a wide range of understandings and nuances. Pierre Bourdieu (1974) presented approach towards practices where by social structures gained a crucial role. In his framework presented in "Distinction", the author introduces how social structures impact on individuals by describing the importance of 'habitus'. By analysing how the French society eat and understand eating, the author defines habitus as the system of "principles which generate and organise practices and representations that can be objectively adapted to their outcomes without presupposing a conscious aiming at ends or an express mastery of the operations in order to attain them" (Bourdieu, 1977, p. 75). In other words, the habitus is the cognitive map which guides and evaluates people's options and choices (Robson & Sanders, 2009). This relationship between the predisposition of thinking and the actual practice as a final result is, at the same time, embodied in the set of social structures (Bourdieu, 1974). The definition of habitus combines the logic of individual practices with a consideration of how social structures impact in the way of doing and being, for example, how class and gender affect individual's habitus (Power,

1999; Robson & Sanders, 2009; Sato et al., 2016). This is due to the fact that dispositions in the habitus of a person are formed through socialization and experience, with class and other intersectionalities providing the social context within these processes (Robson & Sanders, 2009).

Many other authors have followed this conceptualization of habitus and integrated its definition in their research, through analysing people's practices related to eating, consumption or culture of food, using both qualitative and quantitative methods (Sato et al., 2016; Warde, 2005). Sato et al. (2016) reviewed and discussed several studies addressing habitus in the context of food and eating. Related to food choices and food provision, the authors found the importance of habitus in managing food provisioning practices. This provided an account of how different life styles emerge and individuals differentiate between themselves and other classes or groups.

Altogether, Bourdieu presented one of the first theories of practice, with different generations of researchers having built on it (Reckwitz, 2002; Warde, 2005). Consequently, a whole new field of research has emerged focusing on PT. Within this new field of research, there are different theories depending on the aspect of practices authors are focusing on. While Bourdieu was mainly focused on the 'praxis', a term to describe the whole human action, other authors such as Schatzki focused on the 'praktik', the routinised type of behaviour which consists of several elements, interconnected to each other (Warde, 2005). Schatzki recognised practices as a coordinated entity, referring to practice as temporally unfolding and spatially dispersed, for example voting or industrial practices. The author also defined practices as the performance of 'doings' and 'sayings', coordinated entities which are necessarily performed to exist (Warde, 2005).

The study of practices by Schatzki draws from the work of Heidegger and Wittgenstein and distances itself from Bourdieu. While Bourdieu focused his explanation of practices based on the habitus and the social structures which are integrated in the habitus, Schatzki completely avoided the consideration of socio-economic implications in his theory. He refers to the 'practical consciousness' as 'agency' allowing individuals to choose one action instead of another one (Schatzki, 2012). Even though the author recognises that there are a set of social rules or structures, these do not affect behaviour at the micro level, leaving the individual to decide the way they want to engage and rely on their habitual, skilled practical consciences to carry out the action.

Schatzki gives a critical importance to language and how practices are connected to language. In other words, doings and sayings organise practices when they express practical understandings, teleoaffective components and rules. The practical understandings are the knowing-how of carrying out actions through basic doings and sayings, 'rules' are the explicit instructions and teleoaffective structures and components are the set of combinations which are enjoined for a given practice, such as beliefs, wishes, hopes or expectations (Schatzki, 2012). In Schatzki's theory, material receives special attention. He defends the notion that activities which compose practices are bound up with material, for example, doings and sayings are carried out by embodied human beings. In a more practical way, practices very often include material entities that people use, hence, without those material arrangements practices would not even exist. This definition of practices by Schatzki sets the basis to understand FPP, since it presents a more adequate way of talking about human issues.

Overall, Bourdieu's theory of habitus has been utilised in contemporary research to examine the integration of social structures and social class into individuals' actions, decisions, and practices. Moreover, this theory facilitates the identification of disparities among social groups. However, this research primarily concentrates on studying practices at the societal level. Consequently, Schatzki's PT is more suitable as it enables an analysis of how individuals comprehend practices based on their personal experiences, actions, and expressions. It allows for an exploration of the various layers of social understandings, rules, and beliefs underlying practices. Nevertheless, it is crucial to acknowledge the significance of time economies and social timings in influencing how individuals engage in actions and expressions within the context of FPP. Thus, Bourdieu's practice theory can be employed to frame how macro-level forces impact social understanding and the perception of time.

In conclusion, this research brings together the key concepts brought forth by Bourdieu and Schatzki. Bourdieu's notion of habitus allows us to understand how time economies become embedded within individuals' personal understanding of time, how they structure their practices, and how they constrain their choices. By incorporating Schatzki's definition of practices, this research addresses the aspects of FPP alongside the understanding of time as a resource. Adopting a focus on practices rather than solely on individuals, employing qualitative methodologies, is expected to yield novel insights into the role of time in organising individuals' time management and food practices (Halkier & Holm, 2021; Southerton, 2006; Van Kesteren & Evans, 2020).

3. Conceptual framework

PT together with research and case studies allow us to understand the effects of time availability and FPP, and to consider the interaction with other socio-economic factors, together with household and personal dynamics. Therefore, the conceptual framework used to guide this research is the following:

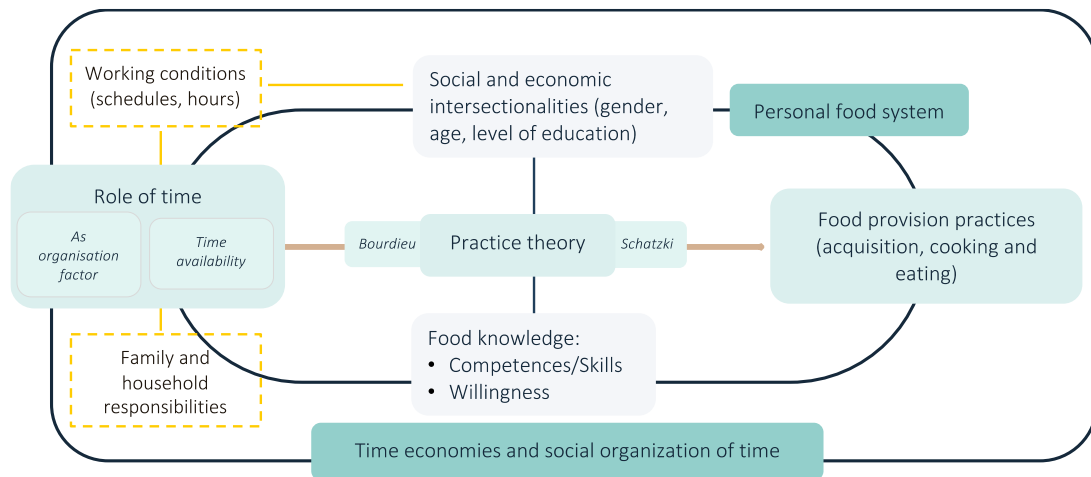


Figure 1: Conceptual framework

This conceptual framework is read from left to right and from the inner to the outer part of the circles. Firstly, the role of time, understood as an organisational factor related to time economies and as a resource (availability), influences how individuals engage in their FPP, specifically the acquisition and cooking, as well as meal consumption. Simultaneously, it is crucial to acknowledge how working conditions, such as schedules and the number of hours worked, along with other responsibilities outside of work, impact individuals' perception of time availability. This relationship will be examined by focusing on the practices themselves, drawing on the practice theories of Bourdieu and Schatzki. On one hand, Bourdieu's theory of habitus, which encompasses the structures ingrained within individuals, explores how time economies shape the role of time, consequently influencing their FPP. On the other hand, Schatzki's PT allows for an analysis of the practices in their own right, emphasising the know-how and rules involved. By examining the link between the perception of time and FPP through the application of PT, it becomes possible to integrate macro-level economic considerations into the individual-level analysis of practices.

Secondly, this relationship exists within a broader framework. On the first layer, the personal food system framework provides insights into the role of time availability within the decision-making processes related to food. In addition to incorporating the values individuals employ when making choices, it also takes into account the strategies they utilise. Consequently, by incorporating the food system perspective to investigate this relationship, a framework for analysing individuals' final practices is established. Furthermore, this framework is influenced by intersectionalities and the knowledge about food. The values, strategies, and ultimate food choices are shaped by an individual's socio-economic background and their level of interest in engaging in these practices. Together, this framework is situated within the context of capitalist societies characterised by limited time economies and well-defined social timings for certain practices.

Methodology

1. Research approach

This research follows the qualitative research cycle presented in the book 'Qualitative Research Methods' by Monique Hennik and Inge Hutter (Hennink et al., 2019). In their book, the authors present an innovative approach to undertaking qualitative research, by applying a set of cyclical phases and tools in each stage of the research alongside a combination of inductive and deductive reasoning throughout the process. In their approach, the authors discern three different stages of qualitative research. Their first stage is covered throughout the above sections through the defining the research questions alongside the literature review and implementation of a theoretical framework. The cyclical research approach to data collection explained by Hennik et al. allows for the researcher to go back to previous steps and base future decisions on the learnings acquired. This circularity during research is where a combination of inductive and deductive approaches are applied.

Research instrument: In depth interviews

Using qualitative research to study everyday processes and practices is an adequate tool in order to capture perspectives, values, experiences and perceptions (Halkier & Holm, 2021). Previous studies used in-depth interviews in order to carry out similar research (Alm & Olsen, 2017; Bava et al., 2008; Beshara et al., 2010; Devine et al., 2006; Vos et al., 2022; Welch et al., 2009; Whillans et al., 2016). In-depth interviews are one of the tools of qualitative research which allow the discussion of a certain topic by the interviewer and the interviewee. Moreover, the discussion is built following an interview guide of the interview, but this will be semi-structured. Semi-structured in-depth interviews are insightful since they allow the discussion of new topics which can emerge during the conversation.

There are several advantages in using interviews. Firstly, interviews allow the gaining of in-depth information about how individuals allocate time for food practices in their daily lives. A discussion surrounding their perceptions in daily lives can be done by having a conversation with participants, and thus, learning and obtaining more information. Secondly, interviews allow researchers to better understand the context of the person, appreciating the nuances of the participant's life which matter when talking about time and food practices. Finally, by using deductive and inductive approaches during the analysis, it would be possible to identify new codes and concepts mentioned by the participants.

Operationalisation

In order to conduct the interviews, it is crucial to develop an interview guide. This interview guide is structured in order to address the main topics of the research, while being flexible incorporate new topics of conversation which participants might arise. It is necessary to operationalise the main concepts. The operationalisation of the concepts helps translate the theoretical concepts to the questions which measure them. In the following the main concepts are summarised. Following that, examples of interview questions indicate the way the concepts are measured and approached. The examples of the interview questions are translated from Catalan (the language the interviews were conducted) to English:

Research question: How does the role of time impact FPP?			
Concepts		Definition	Examples
Time economy and social timing		Daily practices are embedded within time economies and social and personal timing of activities. Hence, these concepts are analysed through the responses of the participants by addressing the other concepts based on their daily life.	
Time	As organisation factor	This concept is studied by understanding how food practices are allocated in the day and which the main factors are.	"How would you like a working day to be organised so that you could have more time?"
	As a resource (time availability)	People's experiences in managing their time available are crucial in organising practices around the household, such as purchasing groceries and preparing food. During interviews, the availability of time is related to the time of working hours and discussion about the time left for other responsibilities and time for oneself.	"How do you think working conditions affect your time available?" "Have you noticed any changes in your perception of available time after the change in working hours in your daily life?"
Personal food system		The personal food system of the participants is the inner set of processes which allows them to make food choices. In this research, the association between time and FPP is embedded in the personal food system. Therefore, the participants' food system is revealed in their daily life experiences addressing FPP.	"In particular, have you noticed any changes in how you used to and still organise eating practices, such as shopping or meal cooking?"

FPP	Acquisition	Acquisition practices are the set of activities a person would do in order to purchase food. Acquisition of food is influenced by the amount of resources and time availability of the person.	<p>“What are your usual strategies for food shopping given your time?”</p> <p>“At times when you have less time, what are your usual strategies for keeping food at home?”</p>
	Cooking	Preparation practices are the set of activities a person would do in order to prepare and cook the food. Depending on the food purchased, preparation practices can take more or less time. This could also be influenced by the knowledge and skills of food preparation.	<p>“And now, apart from shopping for food, how do you organise yourself to prepare it?”</p> <p>“What are your usual strategies for not skipping meals, even if you have other things to do?”</p>
	Eating	How the participants organise their meals depending on the schedules at work, others household members’ schedules, etc.	<p>“Where do you normally have lunch?”</p>
Intersect- ionalities	Socioeconomic	The socioeconomic variables are the economic, cultural or social factors that emerge during the interview. At the same time, the food knowledge takes into consideration the interest or the motivation for food practices.	<p>“What other factors could limit or encourage the way you eat in your daily life?”</p> <p>“What would you say is your level of interest in food-related issues?”</p>
	Food knowledge	Both of them were addressed during the conversation using some questions as the ones shown in the next column, however, these were implicitly exposed during the interview talking about preferences and perceptions about the food system.	
Other responsibilities		Other responsibilities are the set of activities that the participant must carry out on a daily basis. In this research, other duties as children or taking care of elderly people were mentioned during the interviews. There was no question addressing other responsibilities, however, talking about the time on a daily basis, those duties emerged.	

Table 1: Operationalisation of concepts

2. Data collection: Sampling and participant recruitment

In this section further details about the data collection are provided. First of all, the population under study is deductively designed, in recurrence to the research objectives. Here, the recruitment of the participants is outlined, and finally, an introduction to the participants is provided.

Sampling

The objective of this research is to obtain new insights into the relationship between the role of time and FPP. This relationship has been explored on many occasions and in respect to several different population groups, in order to explore their perceptions, coping mechanisms and restrictions to allocate provision of food in daily or weekly schedules. Participants of these studies were selected based on specific research interests, such as people from low or high socioeconomic class (Djupegot et al., 2017; O'Neill et al., 2004; Van Der Heijden et al., 2021; Vos et al., 2022). However, little attention has been given to the role of different working schedules in relation to time and FPP (Voglino et al., 2022). In an attempt to study time availability together with working schedules, the population under study are people working less than 40 hours a week living in Catalunya (Spain) and feeling comfortable with the working hours (they determined voluntarily).

There are several reasons to choose participants who meet these specific criteria. Firstly, as it has been seen in the literature review, working schedules and the time economy impact on how people organise their meals and activities related to eating and food provision. In order to shed a new light onto the topic, this research only looks at people who, for different reasons, work less than 40 hours a week. Moreover, this subgroup of workers can provide new perspectives on whether the perception of time availability is affected by other factors apart from the amount of hours at work. Secondly, the fact that people must feel comfortable with the amount of hours worked is crucial, since it avoids the further complexity of individuals who would, if possible, work more hours (but are kept from doing so).

Moreover, in order to guarantee similarities between the participants in their workplace, only people working for the public administration were selected. This restriction was added since private companies could vary in terms of work conditions depending on the sector. Still, conditions within public administration might vary significantly depending on the profession and position of the person within the organisation. However, a certain level of similarity is provided

since it is the same organisation for the public workers. Moreover, this specific interest in state workers' perceptions also allows me to draw conclusions on how the public administration can add better life-work balance conditions for its employees. Finally, the population under study was limited to the Catalan population, since Catalan is my mother language, allowing me to understand the sayings, verbal and non-verbal expressions of the participants.

Recruitment process

In order to access the population under study, a combination of informal networks and snowball sampling was used. Firstly, informal social networks were used in order to recruit the first participants. This has been done in several ways. On the one hand, a flyer with the information of the study was spread to personal contacts who might know people pertaining to the study population. This first contact with participants was necessary in order to reach potential participants for the study since they are a broad group, but with specific characteristics. Additionally, this allowed me to find participants from a broad array of contexts. Once the first participants were recruited, snowball sampling methods were deployed. In this case, the first participants of the study were asked whether they knew other potential participants for the study. This second step in the sampling allowed me to reach the target number of participants, with the saturation point (See below) found at 12 participants.

These methods were used for several reasons. Being an individual in the geographical setting of the population research, I was able to use informal networks to access the population under study, allowing me to have a first contact with the participants through people I already knew. They helped to establish the first contact, introduce the project and me. The same reasoning is applied in using the snowball sampling, although in this case, the bridge between me and possible new participants has not been built by my pre-existing social network, but by people who I found in the first recruitment step (and who already took part in the study).

However, these recruitment methods bring also some limitations to the study. Firstly, using only the personal network in order to access the population under study adds a sampling bias, since it allows me to only consider a specific and localised group of possible participants. Being part of the region of Penedès, participants are concentrated in only one area of Catalunya and only through the snowballing process individuals from other areas were reached. However, using the snowballing process, only specific professions were contacted, and only people with similar professions were reached.

Participants

The interconnectedness between stages during the study (as foreseen by the data collection cycle) allows to use of concept of saturation as a guiding principle for assessing the adequacy of a purposive sample. Saturation refers to the point when the collection of new data does not add deeper understanding of the topic under study, for example, when topics are being repeated, making the process of data collection redundant (Hennink et al., 2019). In this research, data saturation was reached at 12 interviews.

The next table is a summary of the participants who took part in this research. The names of the participants were changed, protecting their anonymity:

ID	Name	Sex	Age	Profession	Childcare	Household composition	Working hours	Interview duration (min)
P1	Maria	F	60	Administration	No	Living alone	32	44
P2	Ivet	F	34	Teacher	Yes	Partner and children	17	37
P3	Marta	F	35	Teacher	Yes	Partner and children	20	38
P4	Carla	F	29	Teacher	No	Partner	25	39
P5	Judit	F	36	Social worker	Yes	Partner and children	30	45
P6	Martina	F	36	Teacher	Yes	Partner and children	30	46
P7	Pau	M	32	Tv producer	Yes	Partner and children	30	35
P8	Laia	F	28	Nurse	No	Partner	30	39
P9	Joan	M	34	Teacher	Yes	Partner and children	25	50
P10	Berta	F	25	Psychologist	No	Partner	30	45
P11	Biel	M	35	Teacher	No	Parents	17	51
P12	Àngela	F	63	Administration	No	Living alone	32	55

Table 2: Summary of the participants

Data collection

In-depth interviews provide a good fit for the population under study and the topic. However, due to lack of time and financial resources to travel to where the participants lived, the interviews were carried out using online video calls tools, such as Zoom and Google Meets, depending on the preferences of the participant. Online tools offered the possibility to recruit participants from different places, with different work schedules, and offered the ability to find a time in their daily life to do an interview (as it is a relatively efficient form of interview). I first explained how interviews were going to be carried out and the participants agreed on doing it using online tools. Moreover, cameras were on during the call, which provided the possibility to capture non-verbal clues and communication. Knowing how online technologies may degrade the quality of data and conversations with participants, I took many precautions to ensure that this would not damage the data. Firstly, participants were asked if utilizing video calls was an issue for them. They did not raise any objections. Secondly, the interview location and timing was the most convenient for them. Finally, I attempted to ensure that the conversation's fluency was right and acceptable.

3. Analysis: Procedures and reflections

The interviews were transcribed verbatim. Verbatim data transcription enabled me to capture the participants' own words and sayings which was important to understand cultural meanings. Once the transcription was done, the data was imported into Atlas.TI, a software specialised to carry out analysis of texts in qualitative research. It allows for the generation of different codes and the analysis of texts using the created codes.

At the beginning of the analysis, there was an issue I had to consider. Semi-structured interviews allowed for the creation of new data and information during the conversation of the participants. Hence, using deductive coding was not enough in order to capture the different codes previous research has used. This is why a combination of inductive and deductive coding was used. For this purpose, five interviews were selected and they were read carefully and a list of concepts was collected. The concepts were classified in a set of categories which served as the codes for the analysis of the interviews. The codes were created from the list of concepts and from the concepts used in previous research. Therefore, a combination of deductive and inductive approaches were used, which presented several advantages and benefits within the context of the study (see Appendix [A](#) and [B](#)). On the one hand, using a deductive approach helped guiding the first steps of the analysis. On the other hand, inductive approaches were useful in order to gain direct information from the participants without imposing preconceived categories and enabled me to capture new concepts and themes raised by participants. The result was a better

understanding of people's perceptions and opinions about the topic at hand (Thornberg, 2012). After this step, all the interviews were analysed.

Finally, in order to see how practices can be interrelated within each other and the role of time, FPP were not studied by themselves, but in combination with the time-related codes created. For instance, one of the code created was "Strategies". This code included 3 sub-codes: the strategies for the acquisition of food (Strategies – A), for cooking (Strategies – C) and eating (Strategies – E). In this way, it was possible to see how the different strategies change depending on the practice, but at the same time, are correlated with the others.

Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations need to apply to every step of the qualitative research project. There are several issues which should be guaranteed and provided, following the University of Groningen's ethical guidelines. Firstly, before taking part of the project, participants were informed about the research. Their rights during the research project were explained and permission for the was asked. The information was provided in a written text (consent form, [Appendix C](#)) together with the permission and their rights during their participation. The permission included the possibility of recording the interview and the storage of data until the this word was submitted. Their rights I the study included the option to provide no response to questions participants are uncomfortable answering, as well as authorisation to use the data for research purposes. Moreover, the participants were aware that their participation was entirely voluntary and they could decide the removal of the data at any stage of the research. Secondly, anonymity and confidentiality was guaranteed by removing any information which would expose their identity during the research, for instance, their real names or places they mention. Moreover, other issues of the private life of the individual were mentioned during the conversation which might not be relevant for the purpose of this research. When possible, these parts were not recorded. However, in order to keep the fluidity of the conversation, stopping the recording was not possible. In this case, this part of the recording was not transcribed, and hence, not analysed.

Other important aspects regarding ethical issues are beneficence and justice. On the one hand, my research topic and question are purely academic, trying to dig into the topic of time availability and food practices. Nonetheless, during the interviews, I tried to have a critical reflection with the participants about time availability and individual practices by having an honest discussion about the topic. On the other hand, I wanted the participants to know who I am, why their

participation is really valuable and why the topic of this research is important. Without participant's experiences and collaboration this research would not have been possible.

In practical terms, the data collected was stored in the Google Drive of the researchers' University account. This account is protected by several user identification measures which ensure the protection and security of the participants' information and interviews. After the submission (and grading) of the master thesis, all the data will be removed and eliminated. Only the anonymized transcripts were saved on the computer of the researcher in order to be imported to Atlas.TI.

Positionality and subjectivity

At the same time, it is crucial to think about the subjectivity and positionality in qualitative research. In this case, the researcher should be aware of the subject under investigation, the participants, research process and context. The discussion about the topic and the questions asked in the interview guides did not intend to touch sensitive topics about the participants, however, during the conversation, sensitive experiences and emotions could be exposed. In cases like this one, only experiences related to the topic were further asked, without making the participant feel uncomfortable and ensuring the question could be asked.

Secondly, the participants of the study came from the same country and cultural background as the researcher and have similar education levels. This might have avoided some issues of incommodity or intimidation by both parties. Moreover, this improves the understanding of perceptions and experiences since there might be similar cultural backgrounds and similar professional situations. At the same time, that might influence the outline of the interview and the discussion with the participants. On the one hand, the interview guide was approved by the thesis supervisor, guaranteeing a level of quality in the research. On the other hand, during the interview there was a balance between offering a certain freedom for the participants to talk about their experiences about the topic, while following the probes and questions of the interview guide.

Findings

In this section, the results of the analysis are presented. The goal of this research is to study how time impacts FPP, looking at time as a social and economic factor which organises people's life, while at the same time conceptualizing it as a resource to be able to carry out FPP. The findings are obtained using deductive and inductive approaches to formulate concepts translated into codes. The results are presented in the following order. First of all, a visual overview of the results is presented in order to shed light on the interconnections of food practices. Secondly, the results are described by showing how this interconnectedness of practices emerged in the conversations with the participants.

1. Full course meal model

Using semi-structured interviews and allowing for the participants to explain their perspectives about the topic was possible to conclude that FPP are a set of interrelated and interconnected practices. At the same time, when looking at the role of time, FPP depend on a number of factors and household and personal dynamics. Therefore, the study of FPP is not possible when looking at them independently, since it does not provide a clear picture of how practices are impacted by time. This is why the next representation tries to summarise how the participants of this study understood FPP considering the role of time in their life, offering an overview of the factors which played a role in these connections and how the practices relate to each other:

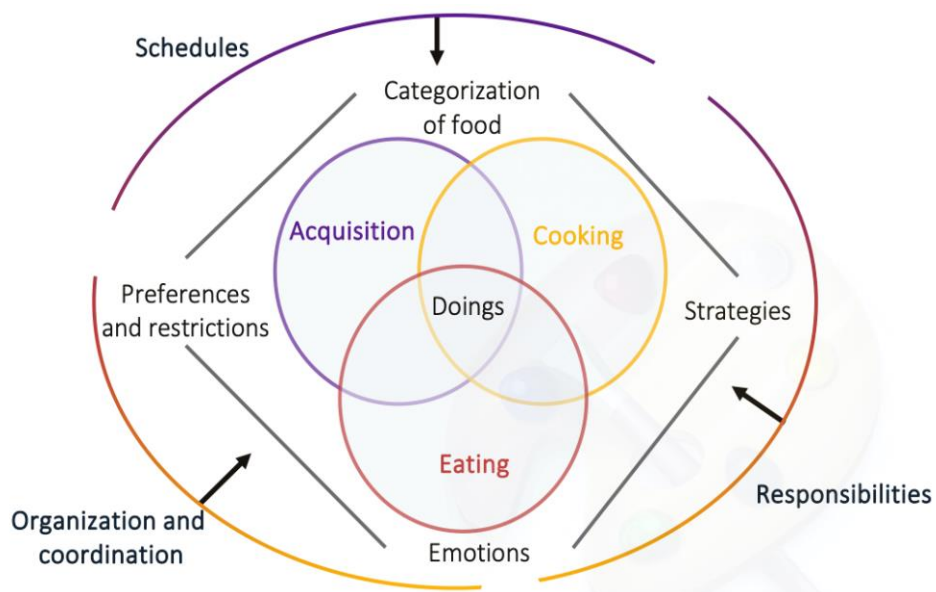


Figure 2: Full course meal model

The full course meal model can be defined as the interconnection of food practices, shaped by various factors. The model is represented by three overlapping circles in the middle, symbolizing the interconnectedness of the different practices, resulting in the set of food practices an individual engages in (Doings). This discovery emerged when individuals were asked, for instance, about food acquisition, and their responses were influenced by their preferences for cooking and eating throughout the week. Therefore, it is crucial to recognize that food acquisition practices are intertwined with cooking and eating practices.

Temporal factors play a deceptive role in how each practice shapes the others. In general, all the participants of the study described that they had little time for themselves. Participants generally perceived a scarcity of personal time, which they attributed to caring responsibilities and specific working conditions. These temporal factors are represented in the outer circle of the model: schedules, organization and coordination, and responsibilities. Simultaneously, time was also perceived as a valuable resource essential for carrying out the practices. Due to the participants' shared experience of limited time, they identified four pivotal factors linking how FPP are executed and their time availability. These factors are represented between the outer circle and the practices: food categorization, preferences, emotions, and strategies. Moreover, these set of factors also shape each other and their interconnectedness executes a pressure of how practices are finally performed.

In conclusion, the full course meal model illuminates the relationships between food practices, influenced by temporal factors, and highlights the importance of considering time in understanding the dynamics of these practices.

2. Interconnectedness of practices

The doings are defined as the final performances of FPP. Each of the three practices (acquisition, cooking and eating) were specifically carried out, but their performance was depending on the other practices.

First of all, the acquisition of food was organised based on weekly schedules and other responsibilities. Five of the participants indicated that they use their daily commuting journeys to stop at the supermarket for food. This was especially prominent for families and people who did not live in an urban area with supermarkets at their close proximity.

Second of all, regarding the preparation of food, the interest, motivation, skills and goal of the meal became crucial in the participant's ways of cooking. Firstly, the interest was an important factor in order to explain how the participants prepared their food. For example, Joan was considered the person responsible for the food in the household:

"Because I like it. I guess that's why I do it well. Somebody has to do it. It's not a sacrifice for me. I know that since I'm not great and I haven't had time to learn a lot myself, I don't know how to do things that are very elaborate, but I do like cooking. Yes, I quite enjoy myself in the kitchen making things" – Joan, 24/05/23

Apart from the interest, the importance that participants gave to the food was relevant. For example, Judit described the quality of the food they normally buy based on the importance of food in their lives, also referring to the family heritage:

"I must say that my partner and I like to eat a lot... for us food has a very high value. Also because, as I said, my family, my grandmother and my grandparents, have always given a lot of value to the food and have invested a lot in providing quality products" - Judit, 12/05/23

The interest for cooking and food was related to the self-ascribed level of skills of the participant. Participants who displayed an interest in learning more about food and who had a motivation towards learning more recipes and ideas, would find time to obtain more skills and practice. This was done occasionally in weekends or not working days, since the participants had more time to do them. However, for daily meals, participants with more motivation showed a wider range of menus or a higher level of organisation and planning of meals. Hence, interest, skills and motivation were crucial aspects for how the participants engaged in cooking, which at the same time affected the acquisition of food.

Finally, 5 participants mentioned the importance of having meals together with their children or partners, and saw the eating time as a social and quality-time with the family. When the participants were mothers or fathers, factors such as "all eating the same" or choosing meals specifically for their children became important factors in the practice of eating. However, for people living alone or with other responsibilities outside the household, eating was considered as a necessary activity. This aspect was commonly shared among the participants: cooking and eating for and with people, or alone.

3. Time as organisational factor

Time as an organisational factor had an impact in FPP through the schedules of people, the organisation and coordination and responsibilities. These three factors were essential to understand how time economies and social timings impacted in FPP and in which way.

Schedules

In general, all the participants reported that they perceived working schedules as a restriction and an important factor to organise their daily activities. Their schedules marked the timings for them throughout the day and they served as a base to organise their daily lives.

In relation to food practices, almost all the participants tailored their FPP to their working week and working conditions. For example, in talking about working from home and FPP, two participants claimed that working from home allowed them to organise their cooking practices in a way that could be more comfortable for them.

“I would like to be able to work from home. I could eat at a proper time in case I had not made lunch before or on the weekend, then I could do it... before [during the implementation of measures at the workplace due to COVID-19] we did two days at home and three at the office, then I could make alternative meals for the days I wasn't at home. For now, I will continue making tuppens so I can eat on the days I don't get home early” – Àngela, 24/05/23

We can see that working schedules also impacted the food being eaten, showing certain levels of preferences depending on the time of the day. Food preferences based on the day of the week or working hours were mentioned several times by different participants. This part will be further developed when talking about preferences in food provision practices. However, three participants mentioned that depending on the time of arrival at home for lunch, they would cook more or less, or even skip a meal if it was too late.

Other family members' schedules were also an important factor in explaining their or their household's FPP. On top of that, these are mixed with the level of responsibilities, for example, the care of other people. For example, Marta explained:

“Of course... think I get here, I'm going to pick up my daughter, and we come back. We get home at 17:30, we have to do a bit of work, we go shopping, we do the bath, and we have dinner at 19:45/20, because the kids can't wait longer... but of course I can't be in the kitchen for an hour. It's just not feasible, and besides, they won't let me” – Marta, 11/05/23

Through the interviews, it can be seen that participants found their own way to fit practices in their daily schedules. There were two elements still present beside their schedules. The organisation and coordination within other daily activities and with other household members were key elements in order to carry out and organise their practices. Moreover, the participants highlighted other responsibilities such as taking care of dependent family members or studying as time consuming activities and the need to organise them together with the food practices.

Coordination and organisation

The coordination and organisation of activities through the day was crucial in understanding how practices were planned, carried out and fitted during the day. However, in this case, there were differences between the people sharing their daily activities with other household members. Here, the participants rely on them for coordination with other family members. In this coordination, several factors are taken into account. For example, Carla mentioned that she and her partner organise their food acquisition based on their workplace; Carla needed the car every day to go to work and therefore she was responsible for getting the heavy groceries in bigger supermarkets, while her partner did other small groceries shopping at the city centre. Moreover, when it comes to cooking, they cooked each meal considering their specialities or what they like cooking more:

“Well, I have to take the car every day and I do the shopping for bigger things like pasta, cleaning things.... And he is responsible for the vegetables, fruit... things like that, that you can find in the centre of the [city], or in the supermarket, and we share it ” – Carla, 11/05/23

It was highlighted by several participants that a smooth coordination with partners made the planification of practices easier. As Martina pointed out:

“With the [partner] we talk... ‘let’s make a salad’ and that’s it, it’s easy to organise... if with the other partner you go the same way, the organisation is very easy... because we’re both the same...” - Martina, 11/05/23

Finally, it can be observed in the interviews that when the number of members in the family increases, coordination and organisation becomes more essential, but not more difficult. The participants exposed a wide range of doing strategies which were used to reconcile everybody’s preferences, or manage to fit the restrictions of time availability and schedules. At the same time, it was not only crucial to coordinate with other people, but also with other activities. This was highlighted by all the participants. For instance, Carla showed an example of how an afternoon can be filled up with activities and how these impact their FPP:

“Well of course, I get out of work, I change and go to work, often until 9pm, and then when I get home, we cook dinner... and I often try to adapt the dinner of the day I go to the gym, so it is not too elaborate, it should be some vegetables and a hamburger, but I don't spend so much time...” - Carla, 11/05/23

Responsibilities

Together with the daily schedules and the coordination with other activities and partners, it is important to consider other responsibilities in participants' daily life. In the sample, six out of twelve participants were parents of young children and three were studying and working at the same time. Parents had to organise their personal activities and consider the schedules and their children's needs on a daily basis.

The organisation and coordination of caring responsibilities was also mentioned. For instance, Ivet, who is the mother of two young children, told this story about how they organise their food practices together with their caring responsibilities:

“We do everything together, we go to the supermarket together, we try to find time to go together, but, I have Thursday and Friday morning free, if I see that something is missing then I go, but it's something we do quite a lot together. If not, sometimes [partner's name] goes alone as well. And taking the kids to school, maybe it's something that he does more than I do. The weeks that he works in the afternoon or doesn't work, in the mornings he almost always takes them. It depends” – Ivet, 11/05/23

There are references of how they liked doing the acquisition of food, and how they tried to find common timings in their agendas to carry out their practices the way they want. Moreover, it is important to note that the consideration of time availability is mentioned in the distribution of tasks between the parents.

4. Time as a resource

In this section, I provide a more in-depth reflection on key factors determining how the participants organise food practices. These factors link the time availability of a person as a resource to carry food provision practices. As it will be analysed in the following lines, each of the factors will be explored by several practices. This provides a holistic understanding of the practices by looking at the participants' experience. Moreover, more detail about the connections between practices and how they are shaped by these factors is provided.

Categorisation of food

As found in previous research, participants categorised food according to different values depending on the goal of the food. Giving a category to the food was helpful in order to organise other food practices. When talking about the acquisition of food these categories become important to organise their groceries list. For instance, half of the participants organised their acquisition of food differentiating according to the freshness of the food:

“Let's see... normally the shopping that is too big or the shopping that is not fresh produce I recognise that I shop online. I mean, milk, pasta... and everything that is meat, fish, fruit and vegetables I get them on weekdays and close to home...” - Laia, 18/05/23

Moreover, the categorisation of food was crucial for the organisation and planification of meals throughout the week. There were several categories the participants give to food . Depending on the meal, participants will tag the food as “quick” or “easy” to make. These categories were relevant when the participant did not have much time to cook the meal. These kinds of food were normally present for lunch time. In contrast to that, the food for dinners had different tags. Participants normally ate “light” food for dinner, while tried to have a bit of “variety” during the week.

All in all, the categorisation of food served as a way of organising the meals and their acquisition. Certain categories were given to food, such as being healthy or fresh, which was expressed as participants’ preference. At least half of the participants valued buying fresh food from producers they know or worked close by. One participant, moreover, highlighted the importance of buying sustainable food. This participant assigned importance to food and meals, and identified sustainable food as a way to bring quality and enjoyment to the meal.

This opinion goes hand in hand with the general idea participants had on processed food. Highly processed dishes were always considered not to be a priority and bad. However, vegetarian participants would recognise the need to buy certain processed products to cover their nutritional needs. Finally, processed food was sometimes considered avoidable, but sometimes served as a reward for tough days.

Preferences and restrictions

Preferences and restrictions are part of the food system for the household or the person. The combination of own preferences and household preferences shape their FPP. When it comes to the acquisition of food, for instance, there are several aspects to look at. There are the places

where the food is acquired or the food itself. For example, Maria expressed their preference of where and when to buy the food, and in this case, her preferences organised their acquisition of food:

*“I like to go to the market, and I know the stalls I trust. I like to go to [local shop] for meat and I like to go to the other [local shop] for fruit, and then I have good fruit from nearby” –
Maria, 09/05/23*

However, these preferences were identified as time consuming activities, since the acquisition of food in different places required more investment of time. This situation was recognised by 4 participants, who admitted that buying the food in different places was sometimes a burden, but they enjoyed the fact that the food was coming from selected places.

Preferences were also relevant when participants talked about how they eat their meals. As previously seen, eating is considered as a social time and more joyful when the meal is shared with family members. Therefore, some parents prepared food the children like in order to have a nice dinner for everybody. However, when participants ate alone, they would value other activities. For example, Judit had a 5-hour break in the middle of her working schedule, which she considered enough time available to have lunch and other activities. She explained:

*“I feel like having a quick lunch for several reasons. One because I feel like it and two because I want to go and have a nap, because at midday I'm so tired that I eat quick, and go to sleep”
- Judit, 12/05/23*

In this example, Judit would eat quite fast, so there is more time for resting or napping during her lunch break. Following the same line, Maria explained that she does not sit down to have lunch, but uses the lunch time to carry out other activities or responsibilities. Therefore, the combination of preferences and restrictions due to other needs or activities are also factors to be considered during the meals. In this case, it is not only about the amount of time available, but how the participants use that time to do other activities.

Strategies

Strategies mainly focused on the practice of acquisition and cooking, but they build on the preferences and the restrictions of the meals or the practice of eating.

There were several strategies mentioned for the acquisition food. As it has been seen in previous sections, the combination of commuting and doing the groceries was a normal strategy chosen by the participants. Also, coordination with other household members was essential. Both of

them were perceived as strategies to fit provision of food in their daily or weekly lives. Other strategies were used as meal planning. Four participants mentioned that they planned every meal of the month or the week and they organised their shopping list based on what they needed that week. For example, Marta explains:

“I made a timetable. I write the dinners for the four weeks of the month. So in this sense it’s all distributed in my opinion, it can be better or worse, but I have tried to distribute it a bit so that everything has vegetables, fish, meat. When we have to go to the supermarket, we look at the timetable and we buy what we need” – Marta, 11/05/23

Shopping lists were mentioned in almost all the conversations with the participants. This was a useful tool to coordinate the meals and the needs of the members of the household or the way people would go shopping. For example, based on the food which was needed (especially for fresh food), participants would go to certain places in order to buy that specific food. However, not all the time the list was physically done and shared within the household. Two participants recognised the interiorisation of routines and shopping lists routines, and they used every time they go to the supermarket. Therefore, two types of strategies can be observed. On the one hand, participants could decide on the acquisition of food based on the shopping list and plan their supermarkets or purchasing based on that. On the other hand, have a list of food or other material interiorised and plan a day to go to the supermarket and obtain what is needed then. However, other strategies were also used. For example, two participants who felt that they did not have a lot of time to do the weekly shopping and perceived it as a time consuming activity. They would buy food in bigger quantities and freeze what could be frozen.

Food acquisition strategies were highly related to cooking. Households and families organised their acquisition of food and they were depending on the planning of the meals. At the same time, the meal planification was related to the strategies people used to prepare and cook their food. For example, related to the cooking, participants would cut the vegetables in advance, and use the prepared vegetables at the moment of cooking.

However, the main strategies were focused on the cooking practices. There were three strategies participants engaged in. Firstly, the most common strategy used was cooking in quantity for several days. These meals were mainly soups or vegetable creams:

“What I do try to do is, for example, making a vegetable soup, which lasts for two days, then I have and I don’t have to cook again tomorrow. But this is the maximum in advance that we cook or, for example, there are days when you say ‘Today I’m at home all afternoon’,

even though I'm studying, and I start making broth. Then you leave it boiling for an hour or two and then you have enough to make two or three meals of broth" – Pau, 22/05/23

Soups were useful because they allowed the participants to do something else while the soup was being cooked on the hob. This shows a certain level of multitasking while preparing the soups. Hence, they were convenient because they could be made while doing other activities and because they could be eaten for several days and meals. Secondly, other practices used were batch cooking or cooking more to have food left for other meals. These strategies were mainly used by people who needed to organise meal boxes throughout the week.

These strategies were highly related to the schedules and the time taken up by other responsibilities. However, there were some differences between people preparing the food for themselves and people cooking within a bigger household. In the first case, people would do more batch cooking, organising meal boxes for several days. People within a bigger household would prepare more food for the meals of the day to have more for the next day meal or for next day meal boxes.

Emotions

Preferences and restrictions were highly related to how people feel about their food and meals. Having time for FPP was mentioned by all the participants. People optimized their time in order to purchase food or cook it. However, among the participants who valued time for eating, lack of time created certain discomfort. This discomfort was expressed since, in the case of eating, participants did not have other strategies to optimize the eating time. They wanted to enjoy it by its own rhythm.

Nonetheless, fillings towards food were expressed throughout the conversations, sometimes being related to the lack of time or to other factors. For example, Àngela explained that when she was living with her mother, she would engage in certain practices due to two reasons. Firstly, she considered she was more methodological since she had to purchase certain products which were the preference of her mother. Secondly, she had to plan better the shopping days since she needed more time to carry the groceries back home. The fact that they did not live together anymore made her lose some control in her actions:

"Before I was more methodical, because I went twice a week to two different places, because she [mother] liked specific things... and I had to go with the trolley... I couldn't carry everything... but now I carry a bottle of water and I can carry it in my arms, if I have to buy 3 cartons of milk, I put them in the bag. ... these are things that now I can buy on impulse..."

I am very... it's not that I am super organised, but that I am very methodical... it creates a bit of anxiety about how I am doing it now... I realise that it gives me a bit of anxiety that 'oh, now I buy this, oh now I buy the other thing'...." - Àngela , 24/05/23

Emotions were therefore also an issue when they were talking about cooking. Several scenarios were observed in this case. There were people who enjoyed cooking in order to have nice food during the meal. Moreover, cooking also depended on the practice of eating and how they value it. Almost all the participants valued eating with more people as a social moment. For instance, Joan mentioned the following:

"Cooking for only me...I don't know, it doesn't motivate me, I don't see the point" – Joan, 24/05/23

In the case of eating, there were several participants valuing different factors which brought different emotions. For example, some parents would balance the food they think is important the children eat and the children's' food preferences in order to have a nice family meal. In other cases, one of the participants recognised that food was very important for their meals, defining it as emotional food. Carla described it as:

"Many times it happens to me that I have an emotional meal, so if that day I have a bit of anxiety, I eat without thinking about what I'm eating... I eat just to eat. So this is a thing that I don't like very much because I like food a lot and I like to eat, conscious of what I'm eating, of how good it is..." - Carla, 11/05/23

5. Side dishes

During the interviews I found other factors which play a role in the food provision practices, but they are external to the individual or the practices themselves. These were external help and working conditions.

In relation to the external help, there were 4 participants who mentioned that they needed, wanted or had external help for their FPP. For example, the extended family was mentioned as providing support when it came to the practicalities of everyday life, such as having lunch at the parents' place or being provided with some food by family members. Other examples of external help was acquiring help from the internet or nutritionists. For example, people mention constancy as a significant behaviour in order to do the practice they want to do, and how. To

reach this goal, participants mention the help and advice from professionals in order to apply it in their daily practices.

Working conditions were crucial for FPP as well. Participants shared their experiences in how the week schedule could be organised to feel that they had more time. Moreover, these schedules also had an impact on how they organise FPP. There were several factors involved in this relationship. First of all, the organisational aspect was brought forth by the participants. Secondly, the schedules were also important. Parents managed their working week in function of the children's schedules. In other cases, participants referred to the working schedule and decide when would be the best to work in order to feel they had more time. Participants claimed that working in the mornings was the best moment for several reasons. Some recognised that it would allow them to have more time and make the most of the afternoons. Parents shared that having the same working schedule as the children at the school is beneficial for their daily activities and organisation.

“But in fact, I work the hours that the children are at school. And thanks to this I can eat with the children every day... otherwise I would have to leave them in the school and pick them up at 5 in the afternoon” – Marta, 11/05/23

Discussion

The literature review allowed for the creation of a conceptual model which was used link the various concepts related to time and FPP. Their consideration is crucial in order to understand the practices which are carried out by people. However, because of the circular approach and the combination of deductive and inductive methodologies (Hennink et al., 2019), it is possible now to re-organise and include new elements and connections in the conceptual framework. Considering the aspects raised in the interviews, a new conceptual framework can be drawn as:

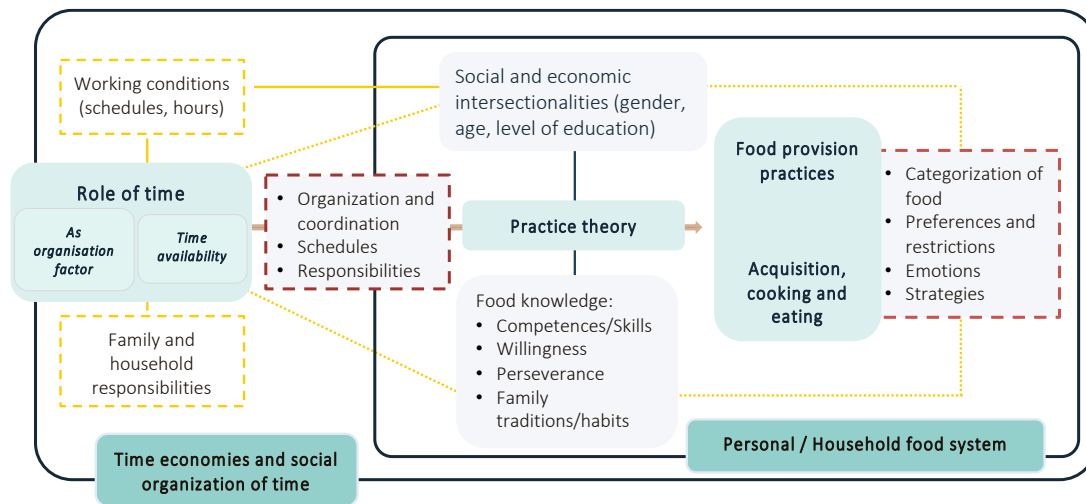


Figure 3: Reformulation of conceptual framework

1. Time as an organisational factor

In this research, economies of time and social timings of daily life become relevant through the role of the working hours and the responsibilities at home. The role of working hours has already been highlighted by literature studying economies of time. For instance, Rotenberg (1981) pointed out the importance of time as a factor of organisation for temporal rhythms. For example, participants fit their FPP around working schedules. Moreover, my findings also resonate with the work by Elias (2007) and Southerton (2003; 2006; 2012), since the participants mentioned certain practices done on specific days. For instance, the weekends were preferred to carry out specific FPP, such as “pizza day” on Friday’s night.

The role of working hours became relevant since there was a schedule attached to them. The position of this schedule during the day and week was one of the main factors in the organisation of practices, and the feeling of having more or less time. Moreover, both the personal schedules of the participants themselves and the schedules of other household members mattered. This

result aligns with research studying how flexible schedules or remote working affect wellbeing (Crawford, 2022; Shifrin & Michel, 2022). Participants mentioned that they needed schedules which aligned with other family members or that provided them with the feeling of having more time available. Remote working was also mentioned by different participants, as the possibility to combine organise one's time better and have more time for FPP. In summary, participants expressed the need to have more time for their daily practices, but different solutions were proposed, depending on the household and personal situation.

In addition to the working hours and schedules, household responsibilities were found to be a crucial factor in understanding the role of time (Jabs & Devine, 2006). Participants expressed that their responsibilities within the household, such as the responsibilities for FPP, were time consuming and needed to be scheduled during certain times in the day or week in order to be carried out. Therefore, personal and household working schedules together with specific responsibilities and obligations were key factors for the participants to feel a lack of time on a daily basis (Beshara et al., 2010; Devine et al., 2006; Jabs & Devine, 2006)

Following the aforementioned findings, there were three key factors which linked the role of time with FPP; schedules, responsibilities and organisation and coordination. Schedules provide the basis of how people organise their daily lives, as they are restricted by certain timings of the day. For example, local farmer markets might happen once a week and finding time to go require coordination with other responsibilities. Following this, being responsible for other family members or the need to be committed to other important aspects of a participant's life, such as personal projects or studies, is crucial for FPP. Organisation and coordination were essential to allocate the different activities during the day (Liu et al., 2022; Storz et al., 2022). Additionally, they were also needed in order to optimize their performance and be able to engage in other more desired practices, such as leisure (Alm & Olsen, 2017; Devine et al., 2006). These three factors are related to the five dimensions of time explained by Southerton (2006), where the duration, tempo, sequence, synchronisation and periodicity become relevant. These five factors helps us understand how FPP can be impacted by the role of time, which impact FPP throughout the schedules, coordination and responsibilities.

This goes in line with Bourdieu's theory of practice. The habitus refers to the socially constructed set of structures that shape an individual's available choices. In this context, the comprehension of schedules, responsibilities, and the necessity for organisation and coordination can be ingrained within an individual's habitus, as it links their personal understanding of time with a range of social understandings, all framed by a set of economic considerations. A similar

interpretation of habitus in relation to food choices was put forth by Bava (2008), who argued that time and economic constraints often limit individuals' freedom in making food decisions. Likewise, FPP and the corresponding choices are bound by the constraints and opportunities presented by the organisation of time economies. Simultaneously, the societal understanding of timings and time also influences food decisions. Both of these factors, embedded within an individual's habitus, have an impact on their personal food system.

In conclusion, time economies also impact the habitus of a person. They will shape the possible choices of a person based on the temporal organisation of their day, which at the same time includes the five dimensions of time.

2. The role of time as a resource

Food provision practices, specifically the processes of acquisition, cooking, and eating, are deeply embedded within an individual's personal food system (Connors et al., 2001). Connors (2021, p. 190) defines the personal food system as a collection of processes that enable individuals to make food choices. These processes are characterised by value negotiations related to food, including considerations such as health, taste, cost, convenience, and other relevant factors. These values, which are the criteria individuals weigh when making food choices, subsequently drive the adoption of specific strategies and ultimately influence food choices.

Similarly, this research identifies a set of factors that constitute the individual's food system in relation to time, and shape FPP. These factors include food categorisation, preferences and restrictions, emotions, and strategies. While these factors may not align precisely with Connors' definition of food-related values, they can be seen as the main tools and dynamics individuals employ to make food-related decisions considering the role of time. It is important to note that the availability of time as a resource for carrying out FPP, as well as the feeling of time scarcity, which exerts a significant influence on each of these factors. Time constraints impact the decision-making process across the food system.

The definitions of these factors were made using a deductive and inductive approach, allowing the incorporation of participants' experiences of how FPP are carried out. For instance, people described their meals depending on the time available to acquire a certain type of food. This shows that FPP are based on an interconnected set of choices. As a result, FPP should be analysed

together in people's food systems, while recognising the role of time and temporalities in their dynamics (Bava et al., 2008; Dyen et al., 2018; Jabs & Devine, 2006).

Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that the notion of a personal food system may not be applicable in situations where an individual lives in a household and shares food practices with others. In such cases, the concept of a personal food system expands to encompass the household food system, as the negotiation of values and strategies occurs not only at the individual level but within a group of people. This distinction was initially established by Furst et al. (1996), which Connors et al. (2001) did not integrate into their framework.

In this research, Schatzky's practice theory was employed to enhance the understanding of FPP. According to Schatzky's conceptualisation, practice comprises a network of interconnected elements, namely practical understandings, teleoaffective components, and rules. Firstly, the practical understandings, which encompass the know-how needed to engage in actions, were expressed through a series of activities identified by the participants as necessary for acquiring, preparing, and consuming food. For example, the participants talked about the several strategies to fit FPP in their daily life. At the end, these doings resulted being the final performances. Secondly, the set of rules encompassed the instructions and guidelines required for carrying out these food-related practices. In this particular case, the participants were situated within the broader framework of the food system, which played a role in shaping their food-related decision-making processes. At the same time, looking at food knowledge can serve as ground to better understand the rules behind FPP. This is because FPP were based on previous learnings of old experiences carrying FPP, for example, when individuals learnt more about their way they like to eat or they want to. Therefore, the process in food knowledge or the interest towards is a significant factor to analyse the set of rules which define the final performances. Lastly, the teleoaffective structures represented the collective values embedded within the individual's food system. For instance, these values were manifested through the adoption of diverse food categorisations.

Last but not least, the socio-economic intersectionality together with the knowledge and interest regarding food practices played an important, but still not totally explored influence in these practices. This issue will be further explored in the strengths and limitations, however, the food knowledge was considered a decisive aspect in order to engage in certain practices (Connors et al., 2001; Mills et al., 2020).

Conclusions

This research aimed to study how time affects FPP, paying special attention to the role of working hours, schedules and time as a resource to carry them out. Drawing on previous research and studies on time availability and FPP, the research question of this study was: “How does the role of time affect FPP?”. In order to connect the two main elements of this research, three sub-questions were defined: (1) Which factors matter in the role of time in FPP?, (2) How do individuals fit food practices in their daily life?, (3) How can change in working conditions related to people’s time affect FPP? Above all, this subject was explored using the theories built by Bourdieu and Schatzki.

This research has provided valuable insights into the role of time in FPP. The participants acknowledged the dual dimension of time. Firstly, the organisational aspect of time was perceived through its relationship with the broader economy and society. Participants recognised the significance of coordinating their own schedules with those of other family members in order to effectively manage their FPP. Thus, the organisation and coordination of schedules, along with other responsibilities, played a crucial role in navigating the impacts of economic and social timings. Secondly, time was perceived as a resource that needed to be allocated to carry out FPP. The availability of time was considered important for engaging in these practices. However, it was also noted that the feeling of time scarcity posed a restriction to effectively carry out food practices. The study revealed that the availability of time influenced four key factors of FPP.

Based on these findings, it can be concluded that time plays a significant role in shaping FPP. Its dual nature as both an organisational factor and a resource highlights the need to consider time in future policies concerning time economies. Understanding the interplay between time availability and FPP can promote the development of more effective policies and interventions to support individuals in managing these practices within the constraints of time.

1. Future research and policy

These findings have significant implications for future research and policy development. Firstly, this research demonstrates the value of approaching practices as the focal point of study, as it provides a deeper understanding of the factors that shape and influence them. While this study focused on FPP, the same approach can be applied to investigate specific healthy or sustainable practices. Furthermore, exploring the connections between practices can yield a more comprehensive and nuanced understanding of their interplay. Qualitative research remains a

powerful tool for gaining insight from individuals' experience. Such research could shed light on the social and economic inequalities that exist within the population, and their impact on daily practices. This expands our knowledge of how inequalities manifest in and affect various aspects of individuals' lives.

In particular, this research highlights the potential of public policies to influence FPP, especially in relation to time and working conditions. Desired schedules and workplace flexibility have a positive impact on how people organise their FPP, reducing the negative effect of time constraints and restrictions. This becomes relevant as public policies, such as the adoption of a four-day workweek, gain popularity among private companies and public institutions. However, it is important to note that simply increasing time availability through reduced working hours is not sufficient. More holistic public policies that promote workplace flexibility are needed to truly enhance individual FPP.

Overall, these findings offer new avenues for research, and underscore the potential of public policies to shape and improve FPP, with a particular emphasis on the role of time and working conditions. This research brought up the implication of time economies, but, by looking at the amount of time, also found that responsibilities within and outside the household impact FPP. Responsibilities within the household, such as caring for a dependent person are time-consuming. This is why it is not enough to believe that reducing working hours will create an impact on their daily practices, since other responsibilities are still attached to their daily lives. Since these are related to care, public policies addressing care systems are needed in order for family members to share care responsibilities.

Lastly, this research presents the opportunity to envision new economic models. The exploration of possibilities pertaining to new economic models is currently underway, with an emphasis on their practical implementation. As mentioned in the introduction, the reduction of working time holds the potential to provide individuals with increased time availability, thereby contributing to improved wellbeing and healthier lifestyles. However, this research highlights that time availability alone does not guarantee a direct impact on individuals' lives. Persistent factors such as caregiving responsibilities at home and rigid schedules remain deeply entrenched in societies.

2. Strengths and limitations

This research has some strengths and limitations. The topic of FPP used theories by Bourdieu and Schatzki as a basis. Firstly, the concept of habitus by Bourdieu allowed me to include social structures present in social classes, which define how practices are organised in societies. Bourdieu's theory of habitus has been criticised as a limitation to the importance of personal decision-making. However, considering the habitus allows one to understand the social disposition towards certain actions which are created by social constructions within classes. At the same time, these classes suffer differently from the consequences of time economies which can be connected to, once again, how the economic system affects society. Nonetheless, the definition of practices by Schatzki offers a way to further explore the practices. The combination of these two perspectives allowed for the recognition of the effect of time economies and social timings in the social classes of the individuals by Bourdieu and Schatzki.

Secondly, there are some limitations which must be mentioned. The socioeconomic intersectionalities and the food knowledge were not explored and studied specifically. Firstly, even though the sample was adequate to study the practices, it was not representative enough to explore the differences between social classes, migration backgrounds, gender or age. Secondly, just a shallow idea of how interest affects FPP was grasped. Its deeper understanding requires further theoretical approaches outside of the scope of this research. Moreover, as it has been studied in the literature, these two gradients have been combined with the perception of healthy FPP. Even though this research did not focus on the perception of healthiness, taking PT as an approach to analyse healthy FPP, while considering the social determinants of health, can provide a new perspective towards understanding this relationship.

Finally, more creative qualitative methodologies could have been insightful in order to study FPP. Although online interviews were useful to gather the data, other ways of interviewing could have been used to bring more perspectives into the discussion with the participants. For instance, having a face to face interview while engaging in a culinary practice could have been useful in order to bring more experiences in the conversation.

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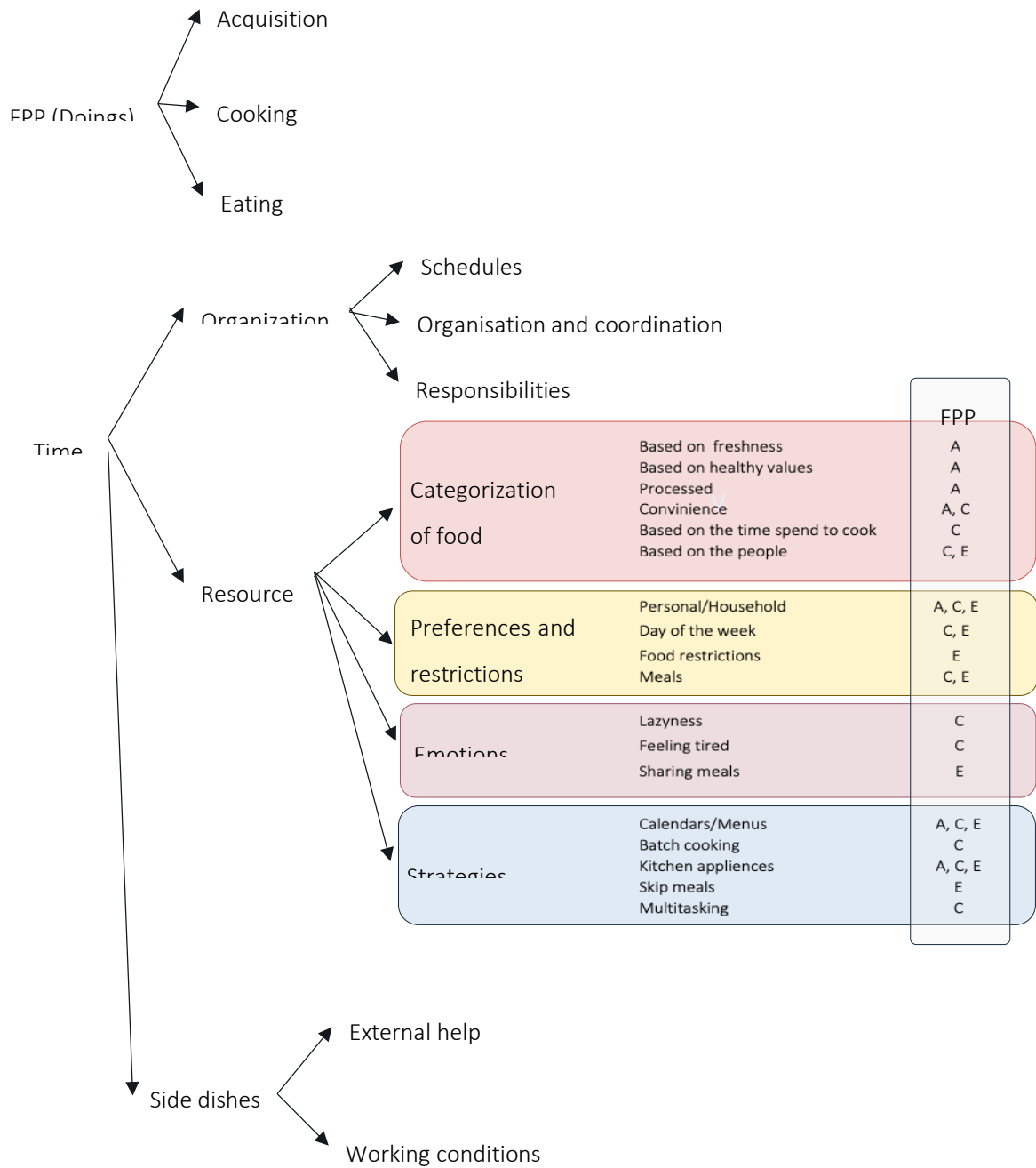
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Appendix

Appendix A: Code tree



Appendix B: Code book

Code book		
Code	Type	Definition
Doings		Performance, which can be in accordance with believes or intentions, but they are the final result of the combination of time pressure and the other factors
Acquisition	Deductive	The set of activities to purchase food: ranges from going to specific supermarket to ordering on the Internet
Cooking	Deductive	Set of activities to prepare the food
Eating	Deductive	Action of eating the food
Time: Organisation		Time as a organisational factor of daily practices and FPP
Schedules	Deductive	Idea general of how schedule divide, organise and shape practices across the day
Responsibilities	Inductive	Amount of tasks within the household (care) or within the life of the person (studying) which are time consuming are need to be done
Organisation and coordination	Deductive	Actions and tasks within the members of a household and with oneself which help to fit several activities within a day (working, care responsibilities, leisure)
Time: Resource		Time as a resource is the availability of time to carry out practices or activities within a day
Categorisation of food	Deductive	Tags or understandings associated to food which help to make choices about FPP or shape their performance
Preferences and restrictions	Deductive/Inductive	Set of factors which lead a preference towards an action more than other, or limit the possibility to certain actions
Emotion	Inductive	Feelings towards food and their enjoyment or need
Strategies	Deductive	Set of actions which help to cope with time pressure and the other factors
Side dishes		People, conditions or factors external of the individual which affect the FPP
External help	Inductive	Other members of the extended family which support the care activities or FPP
Working conditions	Deductive	Set of characteristics of the work place which define and impact how an individual can carry out FPP



Formulari de consentiment de participació

Estudi: Treball de Final de Master del Doble Master en Demografia Social impartit per la Universitat de Groningen i la Universitat Pompeu Fabra.

Tema de l'estudi: Estudi exploratori sobre la disponibilitat del temps i les pràctiques d'aprovisionament de menjar.

Investigadora de contacte: Júlia Tena Mensa

Email: jtenamensa@gmail.com

Descripció: L'objectiu d'aquest estudi és conèixer com a persones treballadores gestionen el seu aprovisionament de menjar posant una atenció a la disponibilitat de temps. Durant l'entrevista, se us preguntaran una sèrie de qüestions sobre les seves experiències diàries i estratègies habituals, juntament amb les seves raons i principals dificultats. Aquesta entrevista està dissenyada per durar entre 40 i 60 minuts.

Drets de la persona participant: Aquest estudi està adherit a les pràctiques del Comitè d'Ètica de la Facultat de Ciències Especial de la Universitat de Groningen (<https://www.rug.nl/research/ursi/organization/research-ethics-committee?lang=en>), pel que es seguiran les recomanacions en cada moment de l'estudi.

Amb això, els participants tenen el dret a:

- No respondre preguntes durant l'entrevista.
- Retirar la seva participació, juntament amb totes les seves dades, en qualsevol moment durant l'estudi.

A més a més, totes les dades proporcionades seran anonimitzades i totalment confidencials. Aquestes dades només seran accessibles per a la persona investigadora, i en cas necessari, per al principal supervisor d'aquest treball (Dr. Stephen Adaawen). Després de l'anàlisi de l'estudi, les dades seran eliminades permanentment.

Acord dels participants:

Sóc conscient que la meva participació en aquest estudi és voluntària. Si, per qualsevol motiu, en qualsevol moment, vull interrompre l'entrevista i la meva participació, ho puc fer sense haver de donar explicacions i sense cap conseqüència. Entenc la intenció i el propòsit d'aquesta entrevista i l'estudi. Considero que n'he estat informat/da i he tingut l'oportunitat de fer preguntes. Autoritzo l'ús de la informació per als fins d'aquest estudi.

Nom de la persona participant
participant

Signatura de la persona

Nom de la investigadora

Signatura de la investigadora

Data

Formulari de consentiment d'enregistrament de veu

Per mi serà molt útil gravar l'entrevista, per poder-la transcriure després. L'enregistrament podrien servir-me per citar idees interessants que subratllen els meus arguments a l'informe. L'objectiu de l'enregistrament és bàsicament la transcripció de l'entrevista i aquest no es compartirà amb cap persona a part de l'entrevistadora.

Està d'acord en la gravació de l'entrevista?

Sí ☐ No ☐

Nom de la participant

Signatura de la participant

Nom de la investigadora

Signatura de la investigadora

Data