

Tourism and Hospitality Management

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# **CRUNCH YOUR LUNCH**

Surveying Gothenburg Residents' Lunch Habits

Frida Börjesson, Tibor Csanaky and Magdalena Vinni

Graduate Business School  
School of Economics and Commercial Law  
Göteborg University  
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## ABSTRACT

In most Western societies lunch is a natural moment squeezed into our daily lives in order to recharge our batteries; a moment when we get a chance to relax and socialise with colleagues, friends, or by ourselves. From a hospitality perspective, even though eating lunch out is decreasing, it is still the most popular time for such occasions. In Sweden 5, 5 million of lunch meals are served every day; from those 2, 5 million in private restaurants, work site cafés and fast food restaurants.

To describe today's Swedish lunch phenomenon it is essential to investigate eating habits from two aspects: *the customary food ideologies* and long-established nutritional practices and *the change-inducing effects of underlying demographic, socio-economic and cultural trends*. The challenge was to describe and explain the interplay between these two forces and to monitor its outcome.

In order to meet this, the study looked at how peoples' lunch behaviours, attitudes and preferences during the lunch hour are influenced by eight socio-economic variables: gender, age, education, income, occupation, work load, lifestyle (sport) and ethnic background. Further on, the research was broken down into three more specific blocks along which it investigated (1) social and cultural aspects of food selection, (2) food choice and (3) patterns of eating out. To collect the essential information, 344 Gothenburg citizens were surveyed through a standardised questionnaire format. The study could reveal quantified significant relationships among the identified dependent variables and socio-economic variables. As a result, a comprehensive description of the "lunch-eating-out-process" was prepared, that encompassed three separate models describing the reasons for eating out, the selection of lunch place and the selection of lunch meal. Since the models were prepared to mirror socio-economic variables, they are useful tools for the industry to satisfy diverse customer needs, increase marketing efficiency and provide higher value on the plate.

Keywords: lunch, lunch habits, food choice, eating out, Gothenburg citizens

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Frida Börjesson, Tibor Csanaky and Magdalena Vinni

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

*We start this chapter by giving a general case introduction, which will be followed by a more extensive problem discussion where areas of interest to this study will be discussed. Thereafter the problem is clearly defined and the research questions and the purpose of the study will be addressed. Finally we present the reader with the limitations and the organization of this study.*

“Why we eat what we eat and what it means we do...  
Intellectually lively and stylistically colorful.”

*Colman Andrews*

### 1.1 Background

How do we spend the given time of our lives? At first, this question may sound unanswerable; however from a statistical perspective the answer is not that difficult. Surveys conducted in countries like the USA, UK, Australia, New Zealand and Japan showed that eating/drinking, working, sleeping and watching TV were the main activities that all humans did. These items accounted for more than half of our daily activities (National Statistics Government UK 2004, Australian Bureau of Statistics 2004, Statistic Bureau Japan 2004, and Statistics New Zealand 2004). However, among the aforementioned examples only sleeping and eating/drinking are biologically essential ones. An average person today spends 7,3 per cent of his or her life with eating and drinking. If we match this figure with the projected life expectancy calculated by The Swedish Statistic Central office (2004), we can suggest that an average Swedish citizen spends almost 51.000 hours (2122 days or 5,8 years) involved with nourishment.

Nevertheless it is well known that the disposable time of our daily eating is not spent on one “bite”. Since all human beings eat periodically, the spare time given for eating is divided among different occasions. Most of us associate these occasions with *meals*. The question “what is a meal?” is likely to elicit a range of responses, depending on who is asked (Meiselman, 2000). According to Douglas and Nicod, (1974, cited in Mäkelä *et al*, 1999) food eaten as part of a structured event is *a meal* that is connected to the rules of combination and sequence. Generally the broad concept of meals includes three major eating occasions on a daily basis: breakfast, lunch and dinner. Among them lunch is the most commonly eaten daily meal. The market research carried out by The Swedish Lunch Association (Lunchfrämjandet, 2004), regarding the Swedes’ lunch habits indicated that almost 86 percent of subjects eat lunch every day. Lunch is a part of a balanced diet for a lot of Swedes. The food intake for lunch is very important and it seems like a lot of people in Sweden care about what they eat.

While lunch is more prestigious than breakfast as it denotes a meal, it is less substantial and less ceremonious than dinner and is usually taken in the early afternoon. Historically, in Sweden, there are two types of lunches: the lunch consisting of bread and the lunch consisting of leftovers. Tellström (2003) has made an attempt to track the history of lunch. He found that the word *lunch* is an American one that was used in the 1820’s for the first time. It is believed to originate from the Spanish word *lonja* meaning a piece of bread or a piece of ham. The word lunch was brought into the Swedish language in the 1850’s from U.S and by the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century the modern word lunch was frequently used.

The importance of having a meal in the middle of the day started at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. It was during the industrial revolution, when cities grew bigger and with the arrival of the kerosene lighting and the advent of electricity, days became longer. Thus people worked longer and needed a meal in the middle of the day. From that time lunch became associated with rest, a time of the day when people ate and had a break from work, and by 1915 the word “lunch break” evolved.

Traditionally, lunch was fast food; it should be fast to make or to get so that one has time to do other things during the lunch hour or time to go back to work/school. In the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century women were home and usually prepared the lunch for their husbands. However, when women started to work in the 50’s, 60’s and 70’s, and had more economic freedom, they weren’t able to cook anymore – this was the beginning of the lunch restaurant’s era in Sweden. People started to eat out more even though some continued to bring food from home. From the middle of the 1970’s bringing food from home decreased since employers gave the employees subsidized lunch prices and coupons (Tellström, 2003).

Lunch today is the “unusual” meal during one’s day (Tellström, 2003). However, it is not eaten with the family or with people a person lives with. Lunch is the meal eaten in a public environment, together with colleagues and friends at work/school. Warde and Martens (2000) reported that even though the levels of eating in the workplace may have been falling in recent years, the size remains very considerable, accounting for the fact that more meals are still eaten out in the middle of the day than in the evening. Some people eat more than once a day at work and about one third of eating events in the workplace canteen are main meals. The middle of the day is the most popular time for such occasions.

Regarding today's lunch consumption the Swedish National Food Administration (2003) suggested that 5,5 million meals are served in Sweden every day; 2.5 million of those are served in private restaurants, work site cafeterias and at fast food restaurants. The rest of the meals were prepared and offered in the public sector, i.e. at schools, health sector and in the military. The same source quoted above noted that as with the average spending on lunch, the number of people eating out has also increased between 1990 and 1999. Westman and Skans' (2001) study, conducted in Sweden June 2001, showed that lunch eating at restaurants is a common and social thing to do in Sweden.

Beside the inevitable importance to introduce the reader to the topic of lunch, the purpose of this chapter was two folded. Firstly, it tried to point out that although lunch serves an essential and basic human necessity, as a product it has developed much further and specific features have been incorporated. This kind of "specialty" was perfectly expressed by Andersson and Mossberg (2004) suggesting that the consumption process could be explained from two points: one "by a need for seeking stimulation to overcome a *negative hedonic tone* i.e. to relive hunger, thirst, etc". The other one is "only to serve the purpose of an increased well-being i.e. to increase the *positive hedonic tone*" (Andersson and Mossberg, 2004). Secondly, it aimed to stress the importance of lunch within the hospitality and catering industry. The references presented above undoubtedly highlighted that it is a more substantial market than any other eating occasions.

Deriving from the above defined insights, therefore, we found it both challenging and interesting to investigate this kind of special and complex phenomenon, hence contributing to better understanding and better serving of consumer needs within this industry.

## 1.2 Problem discussion

It is claimed that modern life has produced new patterns of eating (Mäkelä *et al*, 1999). From the point of view of the late twentieth century, it is easy to imagine all the activities which might take us away from home, and which might require us to find something to eat. We can consume anything ranging from a snack to a full meal, and it can be eaten with friends or family in their homes. However, even if we did not have any social contacts, we could still eat. In most situations in our society we have access to a wide range of food provided by shops, take-aways, fast-food and restaurants. All these commercial outlets are identified by Gabriel (1988, cited in Beardsworth and Kiel, 1997) as a twentieth-century 'revolution' in our eating habits. One important question is who uses different places and how often they go. Sociologists believe (see Mennell *et al* 1992, Beardsworth and Kiel 1997, Finkelstein 1989, Warde and Martens 2000) that social and cultural characteristics systematically distributed across the population, constrain or encourage people to eat out.

Eating out has both practical and symbolic significance. People eat out sometimes of necessity, sometimes purely for pleasure. Recent official data and market research reports in the UK (National Food Survey, 1997, cited in Warde and Martens, 2000) indicated that *social group differences* like age, gender, income, religion, class and household composition, both influence the frequency of eating out and in respect to which venues were frequented. When people eat out they are part of the product itself. The search for attribute preferences normally concludes that the quality of food and the variety on the menu are salient, whereas attributes such as atmosphere and environment are found to be influential (Bitner *et al*, 1990). In other words, it is the holistic and the intangible that really matters.

Beside the intangible and highly diversified expectations, businesses operating in the catering and hospitality industry also face fierce competition among suppliers. The market economy in general has undergone a considerable change: the buyers become advertisers, while sellers become respondents (Schultz, 1996). In other words, the purchase has knowledge of the marketplace and product availability. Therefore, the need for accurate and up to date information is essential for all operating businesses wanting to succeed. Operators must understand this and involve their customers in the development process. This bottom-up perspective offers a perfect opportunity to be flexible and correspond to newly emerging trends and challenges.

Since all businesses aim to meet customized needs they are trying to develop effective marketing strategies that successfully determine distinct consumer preferences. These insights nicely point out how important is it for the industry to turn to the customers and collect information directly from them. By obtaining an accurate and up to date information base, operators can understand how to better serve customer needs, and thereby have ultimate success.

How to carry out an investigation of this kind, approach and understand changes or trends and finally succeed? Beardsworth and Kiel (1997) identified two opposing sets of forces which influence food habits. On one hand is the effect of customary food ideologies and long-established nutritional practices which can induce almost taken-for-granted obedience and on the other hand there are the *change-inducing effects of underlying demographic, socio-economic and cultural trends*. The challenge is to describe and explain the interplay between these two forces and to monitor its outcome.

### **1.3 The aims of the research: introducing the research question**

To meet the above presented challenge and contribute to the better understanding of the lunch phenomenon in Sweden we addressed some specific research questions. In concordance with the insight of Beardsworth and Kiel (1997) the core of their research is embedded in the effects of underlying demographic, socio-economic factors. Additionally, in order to provide a comprehensive picture for the relevant market, we aimed to cover the following three major topics: general lunch eating patterns, food choice and eating out. Regarding these major issues the following three specific research questions were defined as focal points of the study:

- 1. What specific lunch eating patterns describe Swedes in terms of socio-economic factors?*
- 2. How do socio-economic factors affect Swedish lunch customers' food choice?*
- 3. What kind of impact do socio-economic variables have on the Swedish lunch eating out patterns?*

In order to answer the above proposed questions the following more detailed investigation fields were pointed out:

- How important is lunch for the different type of customers?
- How many times do people eat lunch on a weekly basis?
- To what extent do lunch customers choose lunch places and dishes?
- How often do lunch customers eat out and what are the reasons for doing that?
- What is the demographic, social and lifestyle profile of lunch customers eating out?
- What are the favorite lunch meals of different Swedish lunch customers?



#### **1.4 The purpose of the study**

With this study we try to describe the Swedish lunch customer market. As a result the primary goals of the research are to:

- identify and collect specific attitudinal, behavioral, motivational and general demographic information on Swedish lunch customers,
- explain the factors that determine food choices among Swedish lunch customers,
- investigate the Swedish lunch customers' eating out patterns.

By finding the answers to these questions we hope to obtain a solid grasp on the essence of Swedish lunch customer behaviors and expectations and through the application of the additional research questions to be able to expand the picture and more comprehensively describe the Swedish lunch phenomenon.

#### **1.5 Potential managerial benefits**

Given the scope and nature of this research project, the thesis findings could provide the business management informational insights into addressing the questions of the study. It would also provide other beneficial current marketing strategies on the Swedish lunch market. More specifically:

1. better understanding of what type of different Swedish lunch customers exist and the extent of their lunch service usage, thereby increasing the positioning of lunch service on the Swedish market and better serve of existing needs;
2. identifying specific problems that could serve as indicators for evaluating and modifying current marketing/management strategies, policies and tactics;
3. identifying specific insights concerning the promotion mix and distribution of lunch as a product in Sweden;

4. identifying the needs of the Swedish lunch market in order to provide and deliver the right promises;
5. establish the base of a well functioning customer relationship marketing strategy and build commitment among lunch customers;
6. establish the fundamental aspects of a reliable and loyal customer base;
7. contribute to better allocation of the investments in this segment of the hospitality industry.

### **1.6 Limitations of the study**

The reader should keep in mind that this study is only concerned with the eating out patterns of Swedish lunch customers (i.e. the demand side), and does not examine the supply side. Due to economic and practical reasons, the primary data from Swedish citizens were solely acquired in the city of Gothenburg, hence the fact that it describes the Swedish nation cannot be assumed. Here we note that since more than 70 per cent of the Swedish population lives in urbanized areas, we decided to use the term “Swedish”. However the sample itself refers to Gothenburg. Still regarding the sample we would like to note that no sampling was made from the age category of 0-10. This decision of ours will be explained further on the study. Additionally considering our limitations we choose not to focus on biological and nutritional factors which influence food habits, but only on demographic and socio-economic ones.

## **1.7 Organization of this study**

Chapter 1 began with an introduction to our study. The background of our investigation was discussed and the chapter included a problem discussion, the goal of our research, the research questions and potential managerial benefits. Also, the limitations of our study were presented.

Chapter 2 presents a review of theories and studies of social and cultural aspects of food choice models and eating out patterns. The methodology of our thesis will be explained in chapter 3, which consists of three major blocks. First, it introduces the reader to the chosen research design. Secondly, it discusses the data collection and sampling methods. Finally, it describes the developed instrument that allowed the authors to collect the essential primary data. Chapter 4 contains the results of our survey, in terms of the average lunch customer regarding frequency of eating lunch, duration and cost of lunch, what people eat and drink for lunch in Gothenburg and where and with whom people eat lunch with. The chapter ends with a discussion regarding the factors that influence the lunch dish selection. In chapter 5 we will analyze the results and this, similarly to the whole study, will be broken down into three blocks. Firstly it investigates basic eating patterns; secondly, the reader will be introduced to a more comprehensive model that describes the lunch meal selection. Finally it will analyze the reasons for eating out and the process of lunch place selection. We end the study with conclusions and recommendations presented in Chapter 6.

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

*The themes of our theoretical framework are built around three major themes: the dimension of social and cultural differentiations on food habits, food choices theories, and the eating out patterns. The chapter begins by a discussion on social and cultural aspects of food habits and the factors which work together to determine food choice. This will be followed by a presentation of food choice theories and models. Furthermore we will take a closer look at the phenomenon of eating out and its contemporary patterns. Finally some results of previous studies on lunch habits will be reviewed.*

### 2.1 Sociology on the menu

A *menu* according Beardsworth and Kiel (1997) is a set of principles which guide the selection of aliments from the available totality. They pointed out that in any given society, we can observe a degree of *menu differentiation*. Different categories of individuals within the population (defined in terms of gender, age, class, caste, etc.) will make characteristically different choices from the aliments made available within a given menu. These differentiations become increasingly possible in modern and modernizing societies. In these societies, individuals will find it practical to construct their own personal diets by making more or less conscious choices between alternative menus, possibly adjusting their menu choices to suit their mood, economic circumstances or the setting in which the eating event is taking place. These menu principles can take a multiplicity of forms. Beardsworth and Kiel (1997) give some examples which serve to illustrate the possibilities:

- *Traditional menus*: These menus are formed based on food choice and combination from customary practice. Such customary practices are built up over many generations and the prescriptions and prohibitions of traditional menus have a taken-for-granted nature for those socialized into their acceptance.

- *Rational menus*: Involve selection criteria which are designed explicitly to achieve some specified goals, such as losing weight, gaining weight, avoiding particular diseases or promoting good health.
- *Convenience menus*: The goal with these menus is the minimization of the time and effort required for acquiring, preparing and presenting food.
- *Economy menus*: With these menus the prime consideration is to keep food costs within a strict budget.
- *Hedonistic menus*: Based on the goal of maximizing gustatory pleasure.
- *Moral menus*: Where the predominant food selection criteria are in contrast with hedonistic menus, derived from ethical considerations, related to political, ecological, or animal rights issues.

Beardsworth and Kiel (1997) described this situation as *menu pluralism*, which means a situation in which many alternative schemes to structure food choice and eating patterns are on offer. Within a setting of menu pluralism, each person's dietary choices become even more important devices for establishing a sense of personal identity and for expressing personal individuality. Fischler (1988) pointed out that food is central to *individual identity*. He argued that the symbolic potential of food is central to our sense of identity. The process of eating is not only incorporating nutrients into the body, but is also a thought process in terms of beliefs and collective representations. For Fischler, the German aphorism "you are what you eat" has both biological and symbolic dimensions.

## **2.2 Food and social differentiation**

Considering sociologists' seek to analyze and understand the underlying dimensions of social differentiation by class, gender, age and ethnicity, it became obvious that food can, and frequently does, play a crucial role in symbolizing and demonstrating social distinctions.

### *2.2.1 Class*

Of great relevance and interest for our study are the cultural, economic and ideological differences between social class groupings in relation to food, and the ways in which these differences produce characteristic patterns of food preference and facilitate or constrain food choice. Beardsworth and Kiel (1997) pointed out on one hand that specific foods become associated with a high class location, with high status or with socially superior aesthetics tastes. On the other hand, other foods may symbolize a low social class position, low status or the condition of poverty.

Clearly, food choices and eating patterns are influenced by broader social class inequalities. For example, Bourdieu (1984, cited in Beardsworth and Kiel, 1997) studied the differences generated by social class in contemporary France, saw that the tastes in food of high-status individuals, like professionals and senior executives, tended towards "the light, the refined and the delicate" while the popular, working-class tastes tend toward the "heavy, the fat and the coarse" (Beardsworth and Kiel, 1997: 87). Bourdieu found that the middle and upper classes, largely freed from economic constraints on food consumption, actually paid increasing attention to slimness and refined eating. Middle-class groups (i.e. teachers, which are according to him rich in 'cultural capital' if not in economic capital) are seen as maintaining distinctiveness by cultivating tastes for exotic and foreign foods.

In contrast, members of the working class put a greater emphasis on indulging, spend a higher proportion of their income on food, and consume larger quantities of bread, and fat- rich foods like pork, milk and cheese. Bourdieu saw these differences in dietary preference as related to differences in each class's perception of the body and of the effects of food on the body. The working-class consider the strength of the male body important, and therefore put emphasis on cheap and nutritious food to build and fuel the body, while the professional classes' put emphasis on tasty, health-promoting, light and non-fattening food (Bourdieu, 1984, cited in Beardsworth and Kiel, 1997).

Another study on social differentiations was conducted by Roos *et al* (2001) among Finish males, carpenters and engineers. The research showed that carpenters tended to favor meat whereas engineers had a more positive attitude to vegetables. Both groups described cooking as optional or exceptional. The carpenters seemed to more actively embrace masculinity and reject what is feminine than the engineers who have reformulated their definition of masculinity to encompass concerns with health. This study suggested that both masculinity and occupational class played an important role in male food-related practices and preferences. Ekström (1991), however, reported no class differences in vegetable consumption in Swedish families, but a greater likelihood that the middle classes had alcohol at meals.

A different take on these issues came from the research carried out by Calnan and Cant (1990). Their study indicated that there are a number of underlying similarities between middle-class and working-class families with respect to food and eating. For example, the study showed that the two groups appeared to have similar shopping patterns and, in both classes, women were primarily responsible for food shopping and cooking. However, some significant differences between the two groups were also found.

One of these differences was regarding factors which influenced food choice. It was shown that working-class women were more price conscious and put a greater emphasis on cost as a factor affecting food choice than did the middle-class respondents, who tended to stress food quality as the main selection criterion. Another interesting finding was that working-class women were more concerned with weight loss, dieting and calories than the middle-class ones.

However, Calnan and Cant's study (1990) showed that the proportion of income spent on food, the financial management of food expenditure, attitudes on healthy eating options and the nature of decision-making are all apparently sensitive to variations in social class. The study strongly suggested that in urban communities in contemporary developed societies, class continues to exert an important influence upon patterns of eating and upon nutritional beliefs and practices. What is more, as Beardsworth and Kiel (1997) suggested, these distinctions are reproduced from generation to generation and the processes of nutritional socialization shape the individual's exposure to and experience of the dishes, food items and food ideologies characteristic of his or her location in the wider social order.

Nevertheless, Beardsworth and Kiel (1997) pointed out that differences in eating patterns related to social class are not static, they change over time. According to them, these changes are driven by cultural processes (i.e. when higher social groupings develop new tastes and preferences in order to maintain their distinctiveness from the class below them) but also by fundamental political and economic changes.



### 2.2.2 Gender and age

Other interesting subjects of discussion, when talking about social differentiations are the gender and age. There is no doubt that in many cultures, including modern Western ones, some food can carry a distinctively masculine or feminine charge. Beardsworth and Kiel (1997) believe that this gender charge is centered upon conceptions of strength, with “strong” foods symbolizing masculinity and the needs of men, and “weak” foods seen as appropriate for feminine needs. For instance, Chapman (1990, cited in Mennell *et al*, 1992) reported a marked distinction between the food and drink typically consumed by men and women in a Brittany fishing village. Pork, sausages and fat, with white bread, are considered characteristically masculine, while women, in comparison, had cake made of white flour and butter. Meat avoidance generally is reported to be more common nowadays among women than men, with half of all British women claiming to be eating less meat (Fiddes, 1991, cited in Mennell *et al*, 1992).

Beardsworth and Kiel (1997) also discussed age-related food symbolism, where strong, adult foods are often seen unsuitable for young children. At the opposite end of the age scale, a similar process may occur, with some foods being seen as especially appropriate for the elderly. Mennell *et al* (1992) pointed out, that children’s eating habits are unexceptionable topics for investigation and that it is widely assumed that habits, behavior and preferences acquired in childhood shape those of adulthood –creating patterns that are resistant to change. A study was conducted by Prättälä (1989) on teenagers’ food consumption patterns in Finland. Adolescents were found to be confronted with a duality: the “real food” of their parents -the nutritional advice and the “junk food”, which they found far more appealing. Prättälä showed that teenagers managed this duality according to social context: at home or with teachers they eat “real” foods, but in company with friends and colleagues they choose “junk food”.

### 2.2.3 Ethnicity

The role of food and food preparation in symbolizing ethnic differences is significant. Regarding humans; the type, the amount and the frequency of food intake are often dictated by the particular culture. Based on a review of studies regarding the phenomenon of immigrant cuisines, Mennell *et al* (1992) remarked that immigrants and ethnic minorities tried to maintain their own cooking and eating habits as long as possible. Beardsworth and Kiel (1997) pointed out that particular foods and food combinations; in particular cultures can be associated with festivity and celebration, with religious observance and ritual, and with the rites of passage which mark essential status transitions in the life cycle. Food items may also develop associations with health, moral righteousness and spiritual purity. The reverse can also be found in specific cultural and historical contexts, when particular food items may carry negative meanings associated with the dangers of diseases, immorality or ritual pollution (Beardsworth and Kiel, 1997). These differentiations create a kind of sensitivity to what might be considered “good” or “bad” by persons from varying cultures.

### 2.3 Food choice models

The enormous numbers of influences that affect all peoples’ eating preferences have become a focal point of one scientific research field. Studies related to food preferences and selection patterns are gaining more importance because of their multidimensional scope and application (Shepherd, 2001). This kind of interest can be partly illustrated through the development of various food-choice models. Within this body of literature the reader will be introduced to some of these models that we believe provide useful and detailed insight into how food selection works as a process.

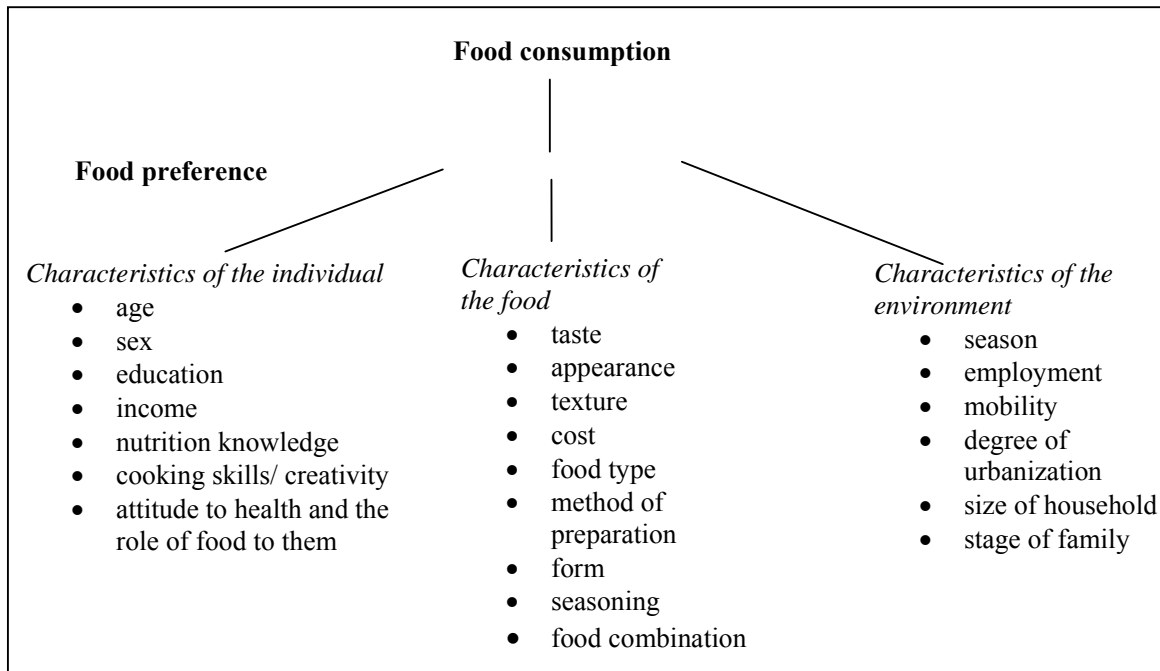
All food choice models can be viewed as a generalization or classification of the previously presented multidimensionality of factors influencing eating habits and preferences. Hunt (1971) described classification as a *schemata* that attempts to take the universe of elements and divide them into homogenous groups on the basis of categorical variable. Hafer (1987) added that the classification is useful to make the marketer understand systematically the consumers' needs and their motivation for making purchases. For us this means that we can more clearly see the diverse mix of factors determining food habits and find relations and connections between them.

Among the researchers investigating food selection as a scientific research field, Lewin (1943, 1945 cited in Furst *et al*, 1996) was the pioneer who proposed that several specific frames of references are involved in food choice: taste, health, social status and cost. Later, Yudkin (1956, cited in Hamilton *et al*, 2000) was the first to list the influencing factors as physical, social and psychological. However, these authors neglected to prepare models. Later on, other researchers developed many such visual tools.

### 2.3.1 Early models from the 1980's

After the pioneering work of Lewin and Yudkin, the early 1980's seemed to be the breakthrough period regarding food choice models. Randall and Sanjur (1981), Khan (1981) and Kronl and Lau (1982) created models that efficiently categorized influences in relation to the *individual*, the *food* and the *environment* (Hamilton *et al*, 2000). The Randall and Sanjur (1981) model kept this aforementioned "tripartial" segmentation form and offered a simple and generalized model on food choice (see Figure 2.1).

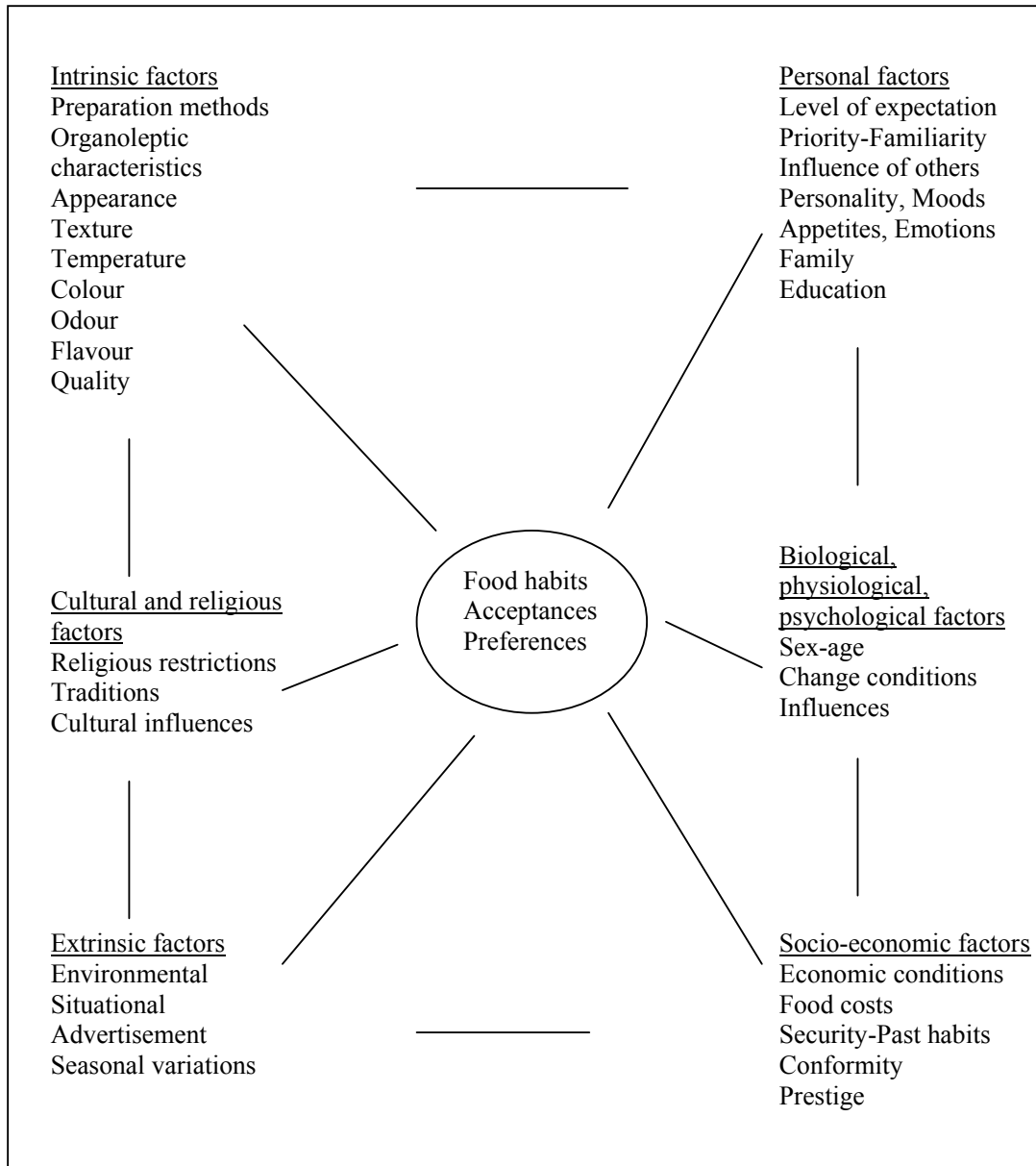
The model pointed out that individual features determine food preference and combine with the other two aspects they impact, and finally determine food consumption. Since the model does not give space for interactions among the major blocks, it can be seen as kind of rigid.



**Figure 2.1** Factors influencing food preferences

Source: Randall and Sanjur, 1981.

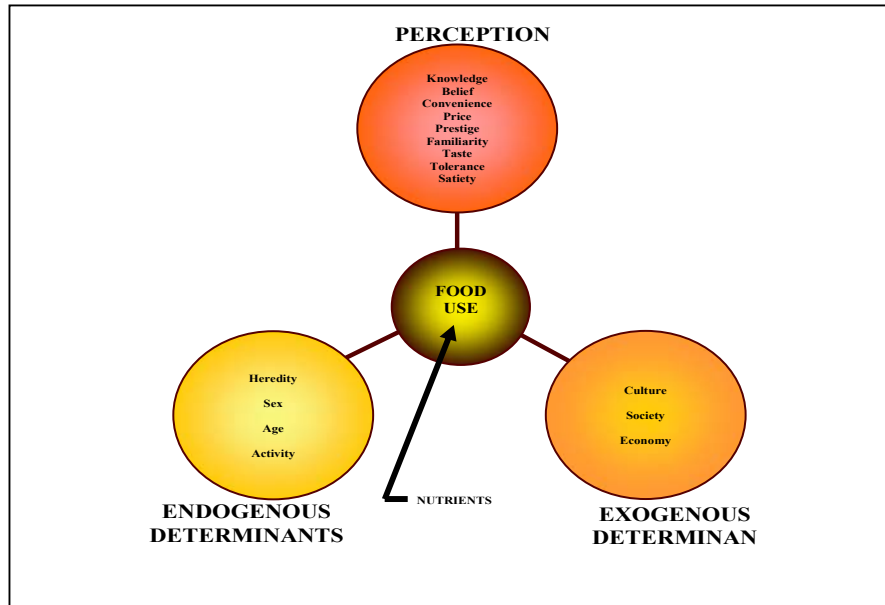
Within the same year Khan (1981) prepared a model that incorporated six subgroups of food choice. In Khan's perspective food choice refers to a set of conscious or unconscious decisions made by a person at the point of purchase, at the point of consumption or any point in between (Herne, 1995). The model basically consists of the following six factors: (1) *Personal factors*, (2) *Socio-economic*, (3) *Biological, physiological and psychological*, (4) *Cultural, religious and regional*, (5) *Extrinsic*, (6) *Intrinsic* (see Figure 2.2).



**Figure 2.2** Factors influencing food preferences  
*Source: Khan, 1981.*

Apart from the above introduced models Krondl and Lau (1982) approached food selection from a different perspective. According to them the overall process of food selection can be visualized as a barrier between food availability and the decision to choose among foods. Further on, a set of food perceptions related to social, cultural, physiological and psychological

experiences were delineated as the barrier components (Kronl and Lau, 1982), (see Figure 2.3).

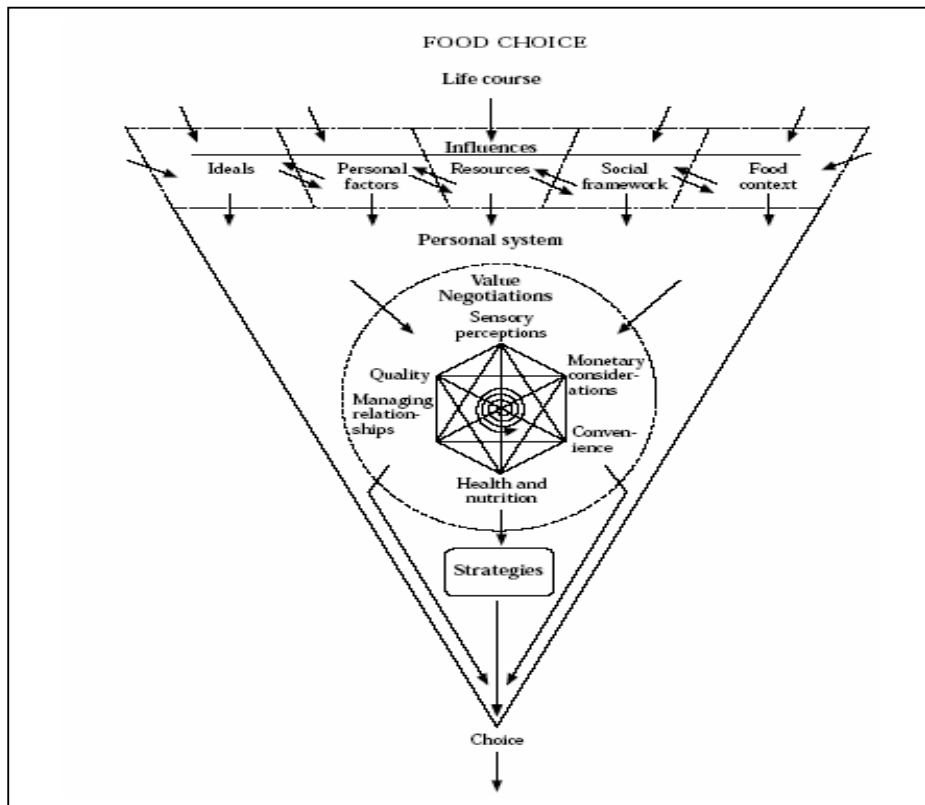


**Figure 2.3** Cultural anthropology framework for food selection study

Source: Kronl and Lau, 1982.

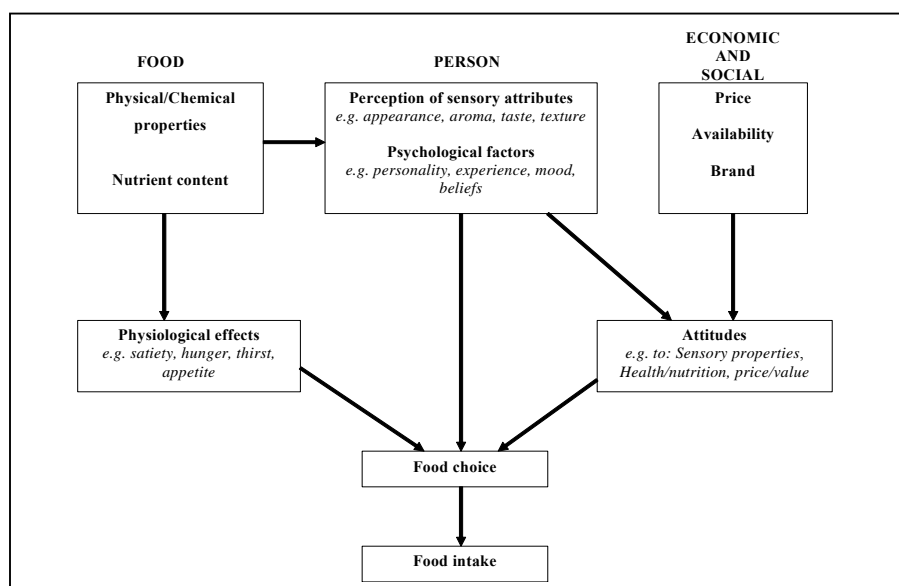
### 2.3.2 Recent models

More recently, Furst *et al* (1996) prepared a model based on qualitative methods and analysis (see Figure 2.4). The factors involved in food choice were grouped into three major clusters: (1) *life course*, (2) *influences* and (3) *personal system*. They suggested that the relationship of these components to each other generate the process or pathway, indicated by arrows leading to the point of choice (Furst *et al*, 1996:251). The model also outlines the general nature of all food choice process, namely that certain influences may be more salient than others for particular people. Furst *et al* (1996) argued that the model seek to portray broadly people's conceptualizations underlying their food choices. It helps to understand what is most important in people's minds regarding different food choice.



**Figure 2.4** A conceptual model of components in the food choice process  
*Source: Furst et al, 1996.*

Recently Shepherd (2001) argued that individual factors behind food choice are multidimensional and are affected by food, person and economic and social status (see Figure 2.5). The model points out that beside nutritional aspects that are indeed motivational factors, factors like culture, religion, price, brand, previous experience and personality are also important parts of this process, just as the factual knowledge about the food is.



**Figure 2.5** Factors affecting food choice and intake

Source: Shepherd, 2001.

Although the models presented having received criticism, they provide a useful starting point for identifying and quantifying numerous food selection factors and their interrelations. Food choice as a process not only incorporates “decisions based on conscious reflection, but also those ones that are automatic, habitual and subconscious” (Furst *et al*, 1996:247). Kronl and Lau (1982) argued that through the ages, various environmental factors, such as the discovery of fire, the shift from rural to urban life or increased mobility of people and improved communication have influenced food use. Therefore, food choices have inevitably been altered in response to these ongoing environmental changes. Considering today's turbulent and innovative environment, we propose that food choice models and their application are a useful tool of tracking and analyzing new emerging trends and changes in today's eating patterns and preferences. To conclude, we highlight the fact that all models present a clear food selection process that is part of a complex behavior system shaped by many factors.



## 2.4 Eating out

Eating out is a concept with which people are familiar and one they use in their everyday talk. Concepts like restaurants, café, fast-foods are used constantly. Even so, as Warde and Martens (2000) pointed out, it is hard to find a generic term for places to eat out. According to them, people know what eating out is, although they have no strong pattern for it. This may be because there are many alternative varieties of experience. Therefore, it is important to clarify what is meant by *eating out*, how and why did opportunities for eating away from home emerge, become established and what do we know of how such opportunities are used, perceived and experienced by consumers?

### 2.4.1 Definition – what is eating out?

Warde and Martens (2000) suggested that a simple definition of *eating out* is the taking of food in some location other than one's own place of residence. In that sense there are many eating out events; eating in the street, as well as a sandwich in the office would count, while returning home with a take away pizza would not. Wood (1992) pointed out the fact that the term *eating out* can be misleading when meals served in cafes and take-aways are consumed on a take-away basis and may well be eaten at home. He also brought attention to the fact that dining out as an auxiliary activity (i.e. when shopping) has a different symbolic significance from that of dining out as a leisure activity in itself. Warde and Martens (2000) conducted a study where all interviewees were asked what they understood by the term *eating out*. The shared understanding of eating out was that eating out occurs infrequently, in commercial places, where one goes specially to eat a meal.

Cullen (1994) talked about the distinction between social eating and convenience eating. While social eating may be seen as an end in itself convenience eating consist of meals and snacks that enable more time and

effort to be spent in other activities (Cullen, 1994:7). Further on he considered that there are two different kinds of social functions: the formal social, as indicated by dressing up, and the informal social, as indicated by eating not connected with any specific activity but without dressing up. Cullen associated the formal social eating with the older age group and the informal social eating with the younger age group. The younger tend to have relatively low culinary skills or they find it inconvenient (financially or time wise) to prepare meals at home. As a conclusion he pointed out that the distinction between social and convenience eating is vague and it is more useful to consider eating out as an “activity-related event”. This will allow the analysis of eating behavior in relation to different types of activity, something that the catering industry itself recognizes, and its implication is that most eating out will fall into the category of “convenience eating”, while what the customer wants and how he or she behaves vary with the particular activity.

#### *2.4.2 The beginnings of commercial provision of eating facilities*

The expansion of eating out has occurred alongside increasing specialisation of the establishments providing prepared foods. The interesting enquiries are: why did a food market arise and how did the era of eating out begin? According to Beardsworth and Kiel (1997), the beginnings of eating out on a commercial basis could be seen when individuals and groups were no longer tied to their local regions, when people were free to travel throughout large geographical areas or to be away from their homes for a long time. The Romans for instance, had a highly developed system for selling food and drink on a commercial basis in the cities. In China, the earliest records show that there were inns providing food and accommodation for travellers, often officials on business as well as stands for those who worked away from home in larger towns and cities.

The records show that in many societies there were food sellers of every sort, who set up on the occasions of markets and fairs wherever a large number of people gathered. With the breakdown of feudalism and the development of cities, many more were free to travel either locally or over large distances. Consequently, inns and lodging houses increased in number and size as demand rose (Beardsworth and Kiel, 1997).

According to Mennell (1985) prior to the French revolution, aristocratic French households maintained elaborate cooking establishments, but when the revolution reduced the number of private households offering employment, many chefs and cooks found employment in restaurant kitchens or opened their own eating establishment. Aron (1975, cited in Beardsworth and Kiel, 1997) argued that those new restaurants gave the middle and upper class insights into the quality and style of aristocratic dining and that this led to the development of a range of restaurants to suit all levels of expenditure. As a result, it is believed that public restaurants are in part a result of the French revolution.

However, Mennell *et al* (1992) argued that there is only a grain of truth in that, according to them, eating places have nothing to do with the French revolution. Eating places opened to the public existed in Paris before the revolution and it is argued that several famous restaurants were opened in the 1780's –which meant that a market for eating out was developing in elite and privileged circles in France as well as in England. Mennell (1985) stated that the first restaurant opened in 1782 in Paris and it was named *La Grande Taverne de Londres*. This restaurant is said to be the first one where the guests were actually sitting down at individual tables and ordered from menus. The word restaurant now denotes eating places in English, French, Dutch, Danish, Norwegian, Romanian and many other languages with some variations. For example, the Swedish word for restaurant is *restaurang*.

Regarding the beginnings of eating facilities in Sweden, The National Encyclopaedia, (1994) recorded that the first time when people ate something outside of their home in Sweden was during the middle ages at taverns, bars, and inns in Stockholm. The small amount of food served as a compliment to beer and wine. Places with an actual food menu emerged in the 17<sup>th</sup> century, even though they are not said to be the first actual restaurants. The first modern restaurants arrived to Stockholm in the middle of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Two of them were Hasselbacken (opened in Stockholm in 1853) and Berns Salonger (opened in 1863).

#### *2.4.3 Contemporary patterns of eating out*

Eating out on a large scale is an interesting phenomenon of our changing society. McCarthy and Strauss' (1992, cited in Beardsworth and Kiel, 1997) survey 'Tastes of America 1992' showed that after a drop in 1990, the amount spent per week on eating out continued to increase. For example, 98 per cent of those surveyed had eaten out during the month before and 70 per cent were reported as eating at "full service" restaurants to celebrate a special occasion. Another interesting finding was that healthy eating, such as ordering salads, was often counteracted by also ordering French fries, although the evidence indicates an increase in orders for grilled rather than fried chicken.

Finkelstein (1989) offered an analysis of dining out as "a sociology of modern manners". The focus was on the *ordinary*. Dining out, she argued is very popular and it has been estimated that by the end of the twentieth century two-thirds of all meals in the US will be purchased and consumed outside the home.

An overview of eating out patterns in the UK is provided by Payne and Payne (1993, cited in Beardsworth and Kiel, 1997). They showed that in 1990 the average number of meals taken outside the home totaled 195 per person, of

which 100 were consumed at lunch time. People with higher incomes, and Londoners, were most likely to eat out. Pubs, hotels and fish and chip shops showed a broad-based popularity; other 'English' restaurants, Indian restaurants, French restaurants and roadside diners showed a strong male bias; ethnic restaurants were preferred by those in the younger age groups, while pizza houses, French restaurants and vegetarian restaurants displayed a strong high-class tendency. They also predict that ethnic food will become more popular, with more ethnic restaurants being opened.

In Sweden studies identified that most of the Swedish population eats breakfast, lunch and dinner on a regular basis and it's known that people eat lunch out more often compared to dinner. The Swedish National Food Administration (2003) stated that men eat out more often than women: 30% of men eat lunch out at least three times a week and only 22% of women ate out at least three times a week. Middle aged people were found to eat out more often than younger and older adults and it was more common to eat out in cities compared to smaller towns and villages. People with a higher income ate out more often than people with a lower income (Swedish National Food Administration, 2003).

#### *2.4.4 Analyses of contemporary eating out - Social divisions*

As we already saw in the section 2.2, there is a considerable body of commentaries in which it is suggested that significant social differences such as gender, class, age or ethnicity, exist in the types and quantity of foods eaten. However, these aforementioned studies all appear to relate to domestic and/ or everyday eating patterns. This raises the question of whether similar social patterns are evident when people eat out?

Available data show that there are significant differences between household types and patterns of eating out. Westman and Skans (2001) argued that highly educated people and men ate out more often than women and less educated people. Cullen (1985) suggested that eating out occurs across all income levels, but higher income households, spend proportionately more than lower income households, other things being equal. However, single people and single parent households also eat out more than others; and families with fewer children eat out more. These patterns confirm that eating out is also affected by factors besides income, such as household structure.

According to Wood (1992) food tastes are distinctly gendered and are continuous from eating in to eating out. For example, women in contrast to men, regardless of whether they eat in or out, are generally “weight conscious”. He furthermore suggested that women may experience marginalization because of their limited economic access, or because of assumptions about her limited access. The hospitality supplier assumes – rightly or wrongly- that the man in the customer group has control over the economic resources of the group, and consequently treats him with more regard than her, resulting in the fact that women get poorer treatment than man (Wood, 1992).

Another study on the gender character of eating out was conducted by Martens (1997). This study showed that while gender evidently structures the eating out experience, its influence is not as strong as Wood suggested. Differences in food tastes between eating in and eating out appear significant for men as well for women. By contrast, gender differences in eating out food tastes were slight. Furthermore the study showed that the decision making processes around eating out are also gendered, but that their significance varies with the company composition of the occasion.

Gender differences appear in Olsen, Warde and Martens' (2000) study as well, though in a discreet way. Women were significantly less likely than men to have eaten out at work, at fish and chip restaurants, and in motorway service areas. Furthermore, there was a gender difference in the degree to which respondents stated whether they would like to eat out more often, where women tended to agree more strongly than men. Low levels of household income were also associated with wanting to eat out more often. The role of age was found highly significant as well. There was a general tendency for people to eat out less as they get older. Age effects probably reflect both generational and life-course factors. Olsen *et al* (2000) proposed that it is very likely that young people who have developed a taste for fast foods and pizza will continue to eat such items in later years, even while they add new tastes to their *culinary repertoires*. This result confirmed the continuing social significance of eating out. While in principle anyone with sufficient funds can visit any venue, they found pronounced socially patterned forms of preference and aversion.

#### 2.4.5 Attitudes towards eating out

How and why do people choose a certain food place when they eat out? There are many factors prevalent in Western eating environments. Mischitelli (2000) argued that factors such as that quality of service, food quality, a good cook and the menu are essential and a matter of course. He pointed out that a restaurant's atmosphere, warmth and comfort, is important for people's decision regarding the choice of which food place to go to. Furthermore he argued that cleanliness in the dining area, the entry ways, and the restrooms is a big word-of-mouth consideration. Westman and Skans (2001) pointed out the same factors as Mischitelli, regarding choosing a lunch place: They found that the *social atmosphere* was critical when people made their choice regarding

where to eat. It was also important for many to eat with colleagues they enjoy eating with.

The *geographical location* was vital, and it was a real advantage if the restaurant was close to the work place or school. The *prices* at the restaurant and *the variation* of dishes served were also important. The *atmosphere* also mattered when it came to choosing a lunch place. The atmosphere should be relaxed and harmonic so that people can enjoy the food and the lunch hour itself. Also, the *staff and the service* of the place needed to be of high quality. The choice of a choosing a lunch restaurant was also often a matter of how service minded the staff was.

Marshall and Bell (2002) examined the role of meal occasion and location on food choice. Location appeared to be more influential in driving food choices for lunch, compared with other eating occasions. This suggested that foods selected as appropriate for lunch were more highly dependent on where lunch was eaten; further suggesting that lunch may be a more “portable” meal than dinner. While in theory dinner, lunch and snacks could take place in any location, the study findings suggested that they are associated with specific types of locations as well as certain types of foods.

Payne and Payne (1993, cited in Beardsworth and Kiel, 1997) showed that the main reasons for choosing a restaurant were, in descending order of importance: quality of food, value for money, range of menu, attentiveness of service, overall atmosphere, the welcoming of families, availability of parking and convenience of location. The first two factors were considerably more important than any other. Furthermore they suggested that two significant factors - convenience and health - will also continue to be influential, with convenience expressed in terms of the growth in home delivery and the health



influence reflected in an increased offering of salads, low fat food, vegetarian meals and fresh and healthy ingredients.

Food is not only good to eat; it is also good to share. Eating together is an opportunity to build relationships between individuals as well as fuelling their bodies. Commensality is eating with other people, and commensally eating patterns reflect the social relationships with the individuals. Mennell *et al* (1992) believed that “sharing food is held to signify *togetherness*, an equivalence among a group that defines and reaffirms insiders as socially similar” (1992:115). Davidoff (1976, cited in Sobal and Nelson, 2003) noted that “who partakes of the meal, when and where, helps to create boundaries of the household, of friendship patterns and of kinship gradations”. These eating patterns vary between and help to define the boundaries of class, ethnic, religious, age and sexual groups. The bond created by eating and drinking together operates in a wide range of social contexts. According to Sobal and Nelson (2003) the family is the most fundamental commensally unit, although others include work groups on lunch breaks, friends eating together at a restaurant, neighbours sharing a beverage as they chat over a fence and other types of eating patterns.

## **2.5 History of Swedish cuisine**

In order to understand today’s eating habits of a typical Swede and understand their ideologies and reasons behind food choice, it is interesting to review some particulars of Swedish food culture and history about eating habits in Sweden. For example Maxwell (1995), recorded that local produce has always formed the basis of Swedish cuisine. He portrayed Swedish cuisine as complicated, varied and in harmony with nature. According to Sandberg (1995) the daily diet in Sweden used to be monotonous. Husmanskost (old fashioned home cooking) was simple and consisted mostly of porridge and gruel, combs and black

pudding, cabbage soup, and dried fish. This food constituted the basis of Swedish home cooking because most supplies had to be stored for a long time and fresh food was rarely served. In those days it was not common to visit stores from which to shop every day's food. It wasn't until the middle of the 1800's that Swedes were allowed to open country stores.

It is known that Swedish cookery has been influenced by other countries. According to Maxwell (1995) there has always been some immigration into Sweden. Then as now immigrants brought their food traditions along. Many immigrants tried to prepare their traditional dishes. Englund (1995) pointed out that Swedish traditional cooking was developed regionally, using local raw materials, at a time when few if any imported products were available. As a result, Swedish cuisine has been formed over many generations, adopting and absorbing outside influences on its way, so that it now includes a rich variety of dishes. According to Sandberg (1995), one is able to trace the influence of French cuisine already in 1756 when Cajsa Warg's cooking book "A guide to Housekeeping for Young Women" was published. But even though Swedish food has become more international, featuring both Italian pasta as well as oriental dishes using a wok, many of the traditional Swedish dishes are still with us. Modern Swedish cooking today is a blend of influences from many different parts of the world, of tastes acquired by Swedes on their travels and new food brought by immigrants. Further, Englund (1995) argued that traditional Swedish cooking, the food that "mamma" used to make, is becoming gourmet cuisine.

## **2.6 Previous studies regarding lunch habits in the Nordic countries**

Studies show that lunch habits vary between different countries. Even in Nordic countries, lunch habits differ. These differences were shown in the Mäkelä *et al* (1999) study on *Nordic Meals*. Here it was shown that hot meals

have a very different position in Finland and Sweden than in Denmark and Norway, particularly concerning the main midday meal. Also Swedes and Finns reported to have eaten hot meals far more often than Danes and Norwegians. For Norwegian and Danish people sandwiches were the most common thing to eat for lunch and for Swedish and Finish people it was the given second alternative after a warm lunch.

Tellström (2003) argued that that for Nordic people a meal usually consists of only one dish for lunch and dinner. He further stated that in Norway, there is a clear connection between higher educated people and what they eat. Higher educated people eat a cold lunch more often than less educated people. According to Tellström, approximately one fourth of people working in the Nordic region ate at the cafeteria at work. It was more common to eat lunch at a café or at a lunch restaurant in Sweden compared to other Nordic countries. He pointed out that Nordic people often ate lunch with colleagues and he stated that colleagues hardly ever had other meals together. Danish people most often ate at home with their family, Norwegian people most often ate in front of the TV, Finish people ate quickly and Swedish people usually preferred to eat lunch with colleagues.

Recent studies showed that lunch is an important part of every day food intake for many Swedes. Swedish people often associate good food with taste and in general they considered that a good meal was food that was well-cooked and homemade. It was also important that the meal was eaten in a relaxed harmonic atmosphere (Westman and Skans, 2001).

A study on lunch behaviors and attitudes among Swedes, carried out by Ström (2003) showed that people in Sweden generally were satisfied with the lunch hour and it was shown that men were more satisfied than women. The same

study confirmed that there were small differences between working women's and men's length of lunch with an average length of 36 minutes. Most used half of the lunch break to get from and back to the workplace.

Ström (2003) further found that there was definitely a relationship between satisfaction and the length of lunch. She argued that there was a connection between the length of the lunch hour and the number of people sharing the meal. A person who often ate alone did not take as long a lunch hour as the ones eating with others. She also explained that people who usually had a longer lunch break were more satisfied than people who had a shorter break. The most common place to have lunch was at the work cafeteria –the lunch room. The second common place was at restaurants close to work or school. It was found that there was a difference between men and women. Men preferred to eat at lunch restaurants or preferred to go back home to eat. Women preferred to eat at in the lunch room at work or university.

According to Bain and Cornwallis (2003) restaurants in Sweden usually offer a *daily special* (Dagens Rätt), usually available from 11.30 to 2 pm on workdays and a lot of people chose this meal because it was convenient to do so. It offers great value and it normally includes a drink, salad, dressing, bread and butter and coffee. Ström (2003) found that peoples' favourite dishes were Swedish husmanskost (Swedish traditional cooked food). Meatballs (köttbullar) and pea soup with pancakes (ärtsoppa med pannkakor) were the two most popular dishes. Italian food such as pasta was the second most popular choice. Next on the list were Chinese, Thai, Japanese and Greek. There was a big difference in the age groups when people mentioned their favourite foods. Ström's study showed that older people preferred Swedish husmanskost while people under 30 were more positive and open minded about international food such as Italian.

People who usually ate at typical lunch restaurants mentioned that Thai food was the number one choice.

Westman and Skans (2001) stated that eight out of ten people ate salad, bread, butter and dressing on the side. The ones that chose to have something on the side were mostly people who ate on a regular basis and people who did not care so much about the healthiness of the food. Salad on the side was the most popular complement for lunch. People who usually had bread as a complement for lunch had it because it seemed to be freshly baked, tasty and a filled you up.

Westman and Skans (2001) found that the price level is important when choosing a lunch place but had a minor role in the decision making process of choosing the dish. A result of this could be that people already knew and were aware of the price levels of the meals before they went to that restaurant. According to Westman and Skans (2001) a person always expects ones hunger to be satisfied when ordering a certain dish. The choice was often dependent on what the person had the day before, what the person was planning to eat later on that day and what he /she eats on a regular basis. The preparation methods used and the health aspects also mattered a lot when people chose a dish.

Westman and Skans (2001) explained that a common alternative instead of eating at a lunch restaurant was to bring food from home and warm it up at work or at school. Some Swedes did this because they believed that it was cheaper to bring food from home, while others did not like warming up food from home at all. Another common alternative was to buy to-go food. People consider this as a time saver but also as a less healthy food choice.

Another relevant study to mention is the one conducted by The Swedish Lunch Association regarding lunch behaviors among working people in Sweden in 2004. The survey came up with five different groups of “lunch eaters” in Sweden and they argue that one can see big social differences between the different lunch types: *The food box person* (*matlådan*- the one who brings food from home and eats at work), *The long luncher* (*lunch njutaren*), *The ant* (*arbetsmyran* – people working full time, taking shorter lunch breaks and eating subvention lunches), *The Home Eater* (*hemma lunchätaren*) and *The desk eater* (*skrivbordsätaren*).

According to Jan Borg (2004), the project manager for the Swedish Lunch association, *The Food Box* group was the least satisfied with the lunch hour compared to *The Long Luncher*. He stated that more and more people had a shorter lunch break today in order to come home from work earlier and do other things. Most people in Sweden were aware that a lunch break is good for them, but even so, the development is that people in Sweden take shorter and shorter lunch breaks.

## **2.7 Summary**

As the review of literature related to the purpose of this study is rather comprehensive, we will summarised it in order to make it more clearly to the reader what topics are most relevant and necessary for the understanding, interpreting and analysis of the empirical data.

In the beginning of the chapter we introduced the definition of *a menu* as a set of principles which guide the selection of aliments from what is available. We noticed that, within a setting of menu pluralism, each person’s dietary choices become even more important devices for establishing a sense of personal identity and for expressing personal individuality.

In the second part it was explained and exemplified how the socio-economical factors, such as class, gender, age and ethnicity can and do influence food choices. As a conclusion we can argue that food can be used to express social differentiation, and that the food options and choices of specific categories or groups reflect the inequalities inherent in such differentiation.

Researchers tried to outline all the factors that affect peoples' food choices in different models. The most representative models of this scientific field of research were presented in part three. The models provide a useful tool to identify the food selection factors and their interrelations, and they can be viewed as a general picture that comprehensively describe all humans decision making processes regarding food selection.

In the fourth part, *Eating out*, we could see that the commercialization of eating out was a consequence of the breakdown of traditional social relationships, particularly those of feudalism, and the growth of towns and cities. The great diversity of contemporary opportunities for eating out and the economic resources and socioeconomic position continue to exert a powerful influence upon patterns of eating out.

The last part of our literature review contains results of previous studies which record many particularities on lunch habits in the Nordic countries. These are presented in order to have a foundation for comparison when analysing our results.

### **3. METHODOLOGY**

*Within this chapter the chosen research method will be presented and described. The importance of methodology is two fold. On one hand it determines and describes the applied research method, while on the other it allows other researchers the opportunity to reproduce the experiment and thereby check the results. This chapter will consist of three major blocks. Firstly, it will introduce the reader to the chosen research design. Secondly it will discuss the data collection and sampling methods. Finally, it will describe the developed instrument that allowed us to collect to essential primary data.*

#### **3.1 Determine and evaluate the research design**

The research design serves as a master plan of the methods and procedures that should be used to collect and analyze the data needed (Hair *et al*, 2003). Saunders *et al* (2000) asserted that a study's purpose and objectives determine the applicable research design. Although every research problem is unique, most research objectives can be reached by using one of the three types of research designs: exploratory, descriptive and causal (Kinnear and Taylor, 1996). Considering the aim of this study a descriptive approach is most likely to work. Hence we will use a set of scientific methods and procedures to collect row data and create data structures that describe the existing characteristics of a defined target population or market structure.

Related to the determination of the adequate research design, the next issue focuses on how to collect the necessary data. Larsson (1993) stated that researchers tended to favor one of the two major methods when it comes to gathering data: quantitative and qualitative. It is well known that quantitative analysis consist of a few variables across a large sample size, while qualitative methods have a so-called multiaspect supported by one or a few cases of in-depth studies.



Burrell and Morgan (1979) described this debate as the argument between having few issues in many observations versus many issues in few cases. It is simply the lack of resources that limits the researcher and leads to the final sacrifice thereby not aiming for the many issues in many cases instance. Which one to choose? Finally, we have found ourselves in a “junction of crossroads”.

“Many researchers have acknowledged and accepted the notion that descriptive research designs are for the most part quantitative in nature” (Hair *et al*, 2003:255). Moreover, since we aimed to investigate Swedish lunch preferences along different socio-economic dimensions and to come up with a general pattern, our way of approach was pre-determined. Hair *et al* (2003) pointed out that compared to qualitative studies the advantages of quantitative studies can be seen in the fact that through the application of a large sample size researchers are allowed to generalize, distinguish small differences and to tap into factors and relationships that are not directly measurable ones.

Since all of these factors were in parallel with our study goals, we were leaning towards a quantitative research. Additionally, due to our resources such as time, financial assets and our language abilities, the possibility of conducting a qualitative study was even more distant. Finally Larsson (1993) had totally diminished all of our skepticism by asserting that in terms of quantitative studies the lack of resources to conduct a sufficient number of rich case studies can be overcome by the application of former relevant case studies. Since we have taken an in-depth look into previous studies carried out within this field of research, and moreover we have incorporated some of these results into our research approach; we finally decided on executing a quantitative study.

### **3.2 Data Sources**

Saunders (2000) suggested that descriptive research designs should rely on both primary and secondary data. Regarding our study, the secondary data was gathered from libraries, companies, universities, other experts and researchers and from the World Wide Web (www).

In contrast to the above, the essential primary data was not on hand. Hair *et al* (2003) noted that descriptive designs more frequently used primary data collection procedures that emphasize asking respondents a set of standardized, structured questions. This kind of data collection method is most commonly acknowledged with survey research methods. Therefore people (as a possible source of information) within the relevant geographical area had to be surveyed in order to collect the relevant information and extract the desired data.

#### *3.2.1 Determine the sample size and sample plan*

One distinguishing factors of survey methods is the dominant need to collect raw data from a relatively large sample size. For researches of this nature Kinnear and Taylor (1996) recommended involving hundreds of respondents. Considering our available time, financial assets and the average time of filling out a questionnaire (approximately 12 minutes) backed by the previously presented insight, we decided that a sample size of 300 respondents to be a reasonable and achievable one. It would allow us to conduct valuable research.

The proper selection of the sample allows the researcher to gather information from a small group and make judgments on a larger scale. Since eating habits and patterns seemed to be diverse and differ in the target population, we chose a probability sampling technique as our preferred means of research. This meant that each sampling unit had a non-zero probability of being selected in the sample.

More specifically it was a stratified sampling technique that we have decided on. Stratified sampling technique is used when the target population is believed to have a non-normal distribution for one or more of its distinguishing characteristics (Hair *et al*, 2003). This kind of method also provides researchers a good opportunity to represent the identified subgroups in the sample according to their weight within the overall population. In our case **age** and **gender** were finally defined as the strata of our sample.

After the revision of the Statistical Year Book of Gothenburg (Statistisk Årsbok Göteborg, 2003) we identified the following age layers:

- **0-9:** no sampling will be made, since we believe this age group does not have a mature eating habit pattern and their ability to choose food is limited
- **10-19:** primary and high school students
- **20-29:** university students, young couples and career starters
- **30-49:** middle aged people and traditional families with kids
- **50-65:** the mature population (two member families)
- **66 -:** retired people and the elderly

With regards to gender, the distribution among males and females in Gothenburg were found to be 50-50% (Statistisk Årsbok Göteborg, 2003). Because, within the age groups at a desired sample size of 300, slight differences like one or two respondents were tracked, we have decided to extract a sample of 50-50% regarding gender from all relevant age clusters.

Calculating on the basis of sample size of 300 respondents the following distribution was projected:

**Table 3.1** Projected stratified sample

	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>
10-19	19	18	37
20-29	29	29	58
30-49	49	49	98
50-65	28	28	56
66 -	25	26	51
<b>Total</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>300</b>

Here we would like to note that within the age and gender strata another type of sampling technique was applied. Since the aim of the study was to investigate the lunch eating patterns in general it meant that the average “Gothenburger” had to be surveyed. In other words we had to face the challenge of providing all people an equal opportunity to be included in the sample. Simple random sampling technique ensures that each sampling unit making up the defined target population (in our case the strata) has a known, equal, nonzero chance of being selected into the sample.

To sum up, we have used a “two staged” stratified random sampling technique. Firstly, we sampled the total population through the application of a stratified sampling technique; secondly within the strata a simple random sampling method was applied.

### **3.3 The measurement instrument**

The next issue regarding the research design was related to the measurement instrument preparation. With respect to the previously presented insights, we had to decide on the appropriate tool for extracting the desired primary data.

#### *3.3.1 Determine the instrument type*

The question/answer protocol process tends to be a proposed tool for researchers aiming to collect quantitative primary data from a large group of people (Hair *et al*, 2003). There are lots of different methods encompassed within this process. It is mainly the sample size, the resources and the limitations that determine the final choice.

Considering all these aspects the questionnaire format seemed to be the most suitable one for our research. Additionally, Bryman's (1984) noted that through the application of questionnaire items, concepts could be operationalized and objectivity is maintained by the distance between observers and observed. For us this meant that a questionnaire format would improve the generalizing ability, reliability and validity of our research. Thus we chose questionnaires as useful tools for executing our proposed research.

#### *3.3.2 Instrument construct*

Although, the implementation of survey questionnaires is fairly easy, the development of an appropriate instrument can be very difficult. The success in collecting raw data and the crucial part of this survey method lies in correctly designing and administering the instrument (Hair *et al*, 2003). In order to overcome these challenges the authors suggested a so called "flowerpot approach". The idea behind it was to prepare a specific framework for integrating sets of question/scale measurements into a logical, smooth-flowing questionnaire (Hair *et al*, 2003).

With regards to this concept we have identified the three major “pots” listed below and grouped specific questions around them.

#### ACTUAL LUNCH EATING PATTERN [Q1-11]

This block aimed to map out the present eating patterns through asking questions related to the last lunch the respondent had. The collected information would answer the following questions:

- *How many times do Swedish people eat lunch on a weekly basis?*
- *How much money and time do they spend on lunch?*
- *What do they eat for lunch?*
- *From where do they get their lunch?*
- *Where and with whom they have lunch?*

We believe that besides the inevitable importance of collecting data on the actual lunch meal consumption pattern, questions of this kind also provided a good opportunity for the respondents to tune themselves into the “lunch topic”.

#### EATING OUT PREFERENCES [Q12-27]

Within this “pot” of questions we aimed to collect information on eating out preferences. The underlying idea was to discover the process of eating out. We wanted to know what kind of triggers push lunch customers to eat out; since they decided to eat out using what factors do they choose the lunch place; and finally if they were in place, how did they decide on and select the preferred lunch dish. From the literature review we understood that people have different perceptions of what is eating out. In order to obtain accurate data we considered eating out as the food is prepared and consumed outside the domestic sphere.

In connection with the first step, Ang and Schubert (2000) identified some of the forces that positively influence individuals on deciding to eat out. Although their study was conducted among children we believe that most of the main

variables are applicable to our study as well. Hence, Q13 aims to investigate the importance of reasons while people go out and eat is mainly based on Ang and Schubert's (2000) variables and is partially complemented with some of our concepts.

The question related [Q16] to the place selection was based on three larger clusters that as we believe comprehensively describe eating out: items related to the meal, to the place and to the provided service. Food/meal related items were good ingredients, portion size, price and healthy food. Convenience of location, good reputation, appearance, cleanliness and ambience were the place-related variables. In respect to the provided service, we incorporated factors such as speed of service, friendly personnel and a crafted/talented chef.

In order to complete the process, respondents were asked to evaluate the food choice variables that affect their lunch meal selection. The models presented in the literature review form part of an evolution process they partially overlap each other. Among them Khan's (1981) model is viewed as synthesis of the presented ones (Herne, 1995 and Shepherd, 2001). Moreover, in our point of view it was the more sophisticated, flexible and permeable one using various interrelated variables that were applicable for our study. The heart of the model lies in the following statement: "a person selects food rather than nutrients for his/her diet" (Khan, 1981:129), meaning that meal/food selection goes further than satisfying ones appetite and refueling energy.

This reflects the complexity and diversity of food selection regarding all the individuals. It was also our way of approach and primary aim to study. Considering all these insights the relevant question [Q20] was based on the dimensions identified by Khan (1981).

In order to measure the relative importance of each factor a Likert scale was introduced. This kind of scale is an ordinal format that asks respondents to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with a series of mental belief statements about a given object (Hair *et al*, 2003). In our case respondents faced a six-point ordinal varying from “extremely important” to “not at all important”. This kind of measurement scale raised many doubts regarding its appropriateness of application that will be discussed further on.

Besides the eating out process, Q15 made an attempt to simplify and summarize all lunches as a product. We believe all lunch experiences are two folded. On the one hand lunch is composed of a pure food component, while on the other hand it shares a “social” component. In order to determine how these components are represented in the consumers “utility basket” we have introduced a semantic (bipolar ordinal) scale. Respondents were asked to evaluate the importance and compare the two “basic components”. The scale is special in its nature since it allows all respondents an infinite number of choices by offering the opportunity to place a tick on any point of 10 cm long scale (note: the two ends of the scale represent the basic components). Further on distances from both ends will be measured and compared in order to extract the relevant data.

Within this block are some other general questions that we believe are closely related to eating out.

- *How many times do they eat out lunch on a weekly basis*
- *The importance of lunch*
- *Lunch costs in their financial budget*
- *Willingness to eat out more*



Finally, we investigated the favorite lunch dish in Gothenburg. Respondents were asked to choose from an imaginary menu and select a complete lunch meal. The menu was composed of basic food categories such as a main courses (e.g. soup, meat, poultry, pasta etc.), garnish, desert and fruits. Moreover, all people had the opportunity to indicate both the preparation and spicing (cuisine style) method of their chosen dish. In order to be more exact the last question explicitly surveyed the favorite lunch meal in respect with seasonal influences.

#### RESPONDENTS' ATTRIBUTES

To fulfill the first aim of our study and identify the relationship and impact of different socio-economic variables on lunch habits a separate block was incorporated. Tynan and Drayton (1987) asserted that through the application of these variables researchers are able to identify and delineate “sets of buyers”. For us this meant that through the application of this technique we could divide the diverse Swedish lunch market and its demand into relatively homogenous groups that could be identified by some common characteristics. Further on Tynan and Drayton (1987) added that these characteristics were also relevant in explaining and predicting the responses of consumers that may be useful in understanding their behavior and help the industry to better serve their needs.

In regard with socio-economic variables we used a demographic scheme backed by one psychographic aspect:

- Demographic: sex, age, education, income occupation, type of work (workload), ethnicity (origin)
- Psychographic: lifestyle (number of hours spent on sports on a weekly basis)

### **3.4 Survey execution**

Firstly the questionnaire construct went under numerous pre-tests where 15 people were asked to fill out the prototype and make recommendations on it. Later on some of their suggestions were incorporated and the construct became more sophisticated. As a result the questionnaire obtained its final format (see Appendix 1) and was launched on the 20<sup>th</sup> of September. As it was already pinpointed, in terms of sampling, the aim of the study was to investigate the lunch eating preferences of the average “Gothenburger”. Thus a random sampling technique had to be used in order to extract the desired sample size. People were approached on the streets, at their workplaces, on public transport, in stores/boutiques, at schools, restaurants/cafes and canteens, grocery stores and even in their homes.

Although the questionnaires were constructed to be self-administered, in some cases (e.g. for old people, at shop interviews where survey booths were set up, telephone interviews) the questionnaires were filled out by the interviewers. All questionnaires were collected during September and October, 2004. On the 3<sup>rd</sup> of November 2004 the collection of questionnaires was completed. In the end, 344 (N) respondents participated in the research and responded to our questions. As it was mentioned before we aimed to extract a stratified sample regarding age and gender.

The distribution of our final sample along the two dimensions in focus was as the following:

**Table 3.2** Extracted/projected stratified sample

	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>
<b>10-19</b>	<b>18</b> (21)	<b>21</b> (21)	<b>38</b> (42)
<b>20-29</b>	<b>41</b> (33,5)	<b>44</b> (33,5)	<b>85</b> (67)
<b>30-49</b>	<b>60</b> (56)	<b>51</b> (56)	<b>111</b> (112)
<b>50-65</b>	<b>29</b> (32,5)	<b>32</b> (32,5)	<b>61</b> (65)
<b>66-</b>	<b>24</b> (29,5)	<b>22</b> (29,5)	<b>46</b> (59)
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>172</b> (172)	<b>170</b> (172)	<b>342</b> (344)

As you may have noted the total number of respondent according to the table is only 342 compared to the overall 344. The reason behind is that respondents No.112 and No.336 did not fill out the relevant boxes. The brackets behind the actual number of collected answers indicate the allocated number of respondents according to our stratified calculations. The table indicates that there is a slight over representation of the young (age group 20-29) that exceeds the projected sample number with 18 respondents. Deriving from this, the older and younger generations are slightly underrepresented. The reason behind this may due to the researchers' age since respondents in the same age group were more likely to be approachable and to participate in the study. This inequality is going to be further on discussed when it comes to tracking possible sampling errors.

### **3.5 Coding and preparing the database**

During the data collection, simultaneously the coding process of the questionnaires was launched. An Excel database was created where all the collected information/data was recorded. The bulk of the questions was close-ended ones and allowed respondents one possible answer. Questions of this kind were introduced in a one variable – one value format (under one column).

Other types of questions such as multiple choice and open-ended ones introduced two challenges that had to be overcome during the coding phase. Concerning multiple choice questions two different methods were used. Regarding reasons for eating out (Q13) and place selection variables (Q16) all possible answers were coded as a separate variable with a value of 0 or 1. Zero implicitly meant that it was not chosen while number one stood for the action of being selected. The other technique was used to rank different lunch dishes on the imaginary menu (Q 21). Since the task that all respondents faced was to rank their three favorite lunch courses, three variables were introduced (naturally in terms of the garnish only two), coded as No. 1, No. 2 and No. 3 lunch variables.

Regarding open-ended questions like Q5, Q24 and Q27 firstly we decided to code them exactly in the same way as they were present in the questionnaire, hence string variables were introduced. Further on after closing the collection phase all answers were reviewed and distinct categories were determined and coded as close-ended ones (this process will be further on discussed in the Chapter 5). Although Q25 was also an open-ended one since all respondents choose preparation methods from the ones mentioned as examples in the following bracket, the same method was applied as that used for multiple choice answers.

More precisely three different variables were coded as the preferred preparation method; therefore the question in point was finally coded as a close-ended one.

### *3.5.1 Changes in coding and the questionnaire format*

Regarding socio-economic variables, during the coding phase some minor changes were made. The age categories were introduced and answers were coded along them ranging from 1 to 5. The occupation categories were reduced and rotated. Since self-employed as an option is not related to occupation type, it was deleted and the respondent were coded in the category of “other”. The same changes were applied for unemployed people due to their low number in the sample. With respect to the time spent on sports, 4 categories were made (0-3, 4-6, 6-9, 10- hours/week) and answers were grouped within them. Finally, income categories were also divided into 4 groups, with intervals of 10.000 SEK/month.

### **3.6 Possible errors**

In order to declare that the results of our study are reliable, the surveying process had to be free from random errors (Kinneer and Taylor, 1996). These errors could occur through the sampling process. However, we claim that the possibility of errors emerging was minimized through the approach method of respondents (c.f. 3.4). Nevertheless in some cases it has happened that surveys were conducted at restaurants or cafés, meaning that people willing to eat out in this case had higher probability to get into the sample. Overall, we can state that the number of respondents is not over represented in the sample. Moreover, the errors deriving from this could only affect the results regarding the actual lunch eating pattern. Some may argue that the university canteen was not an adequate place for respondent selection.

In opposition, we stress that in this case the place does not determine the actual lunch eating habit, since many students bring their lunch from home and it is instead an assembling place (where they spend lunch time) than a catering service provider's own, privileged space.

The only troubling issue that we have found was the high number of university students represented in the sample. This problem may have affected both the stratified age structure and may have caused skewdness in the education variable (a large number of highly educated respondents). The cause of the problem was mainly identified as the convenience of surveying. The kind of error could have been decreased by eliminating some responses from this segment. However we propose that the error is not significant and the information at hand worth more than an absolutely proper stratified sample.

Regarding possible errors, another not sampling related issue emerged. The problem was to track along the applied scaling process. In general researchers accept that there are four primary measurement scales: nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio (Hair *et al*, 2003, Green, Tull and Albaum, 1988). In order to investigate the food choice model ordinal (Likert) scales were incorporated. Hair *et al* (2003) noted that ordinal scales are unable to tap distances among different variables and are only useful to rank-order among raw responses and create a hierarchical order. However, it is debated whether the Likert and semantic differential scales are ordinal or interval ones (Gardner, 1975). Since linear regression analysis was applied in our study this problem seemed to be a major one. In Hair *et al* (2003) interpretation of this kind of measurement instrument is not adequate and appropriate, since it is the interval scale that allows such computations. In contrast Gardner (1975) asserted that "the distinction between ordinal and interval scales in not a black-and-white distinction" (Gardner,1975:43).

The problem with the Likert scale is embedded in the fact that the exact level of measurement of the resulting scale score is unknown (Himmelfarb, 1993). In other words the differentiation is more likely to be based on psychometric tradition (e.g. instead of using Celsius for temperature it works with measures like or dislike values). Within marketing research it is argued that semantic differential is often attributed with qualities describing interval scales and can be analyzed through techniques that are applicable for the former one (Green, Tull and Albaum, 1988). Moreover, leading scale development researchers consider implicitly the Likert scale as an interval one.

### **3.7 Analysis process description**

Since many of our questions were constructed as multiple choice ones, meaning that respondents had to indicate relevant variables that were important for them, a specific statistical analysis had to be applied.

Market researchers often want to test whether the responses to a survey interview follow a particular pattern (Hair *et al*, 2003). Chi-square analysis is a useful tool that assesses how the observed frequencies fit the pattern of the expected frequencies. Hair *et al* (2003) referred to this as the “goodness-of-fit” test. This method permits testing for significance between the frequency distributions of two or more groups (e.g. gender, age, income etc.). Therefore in our case this method was used in order to extract the ones among the eight independent variables that had significant impact on any of the identified dependent variables. These eliminated items are useful to understand differences of respondent choices. However in this case we could only obtain specific information regarding the identified market clusters, meaning that an overall description regarding the independent variables’ direction, impact power and interaction would be absent. Our independent variables were constructed to express linear increasing relationships.

In the case of gender, age, education, income, workload, number of hours spent on sports and ethnic background, this consideration was implicit. Regarding occupation the concept had to be sophisticated. The idea behind it was that occupation according to us determines two underlying factors that among respondents were either increasing or decreasing. One of them was the increasing disposable time for lunch, while the other was the decreasing “tense of social context” was placed. Using these increasing/decreasing factors we thought that linear relationships could be tracked among dependent and independent variables. Hair *et al* (2003) describes this connection as a relationship between two variables whereby the strength and nature of the relationship remains the same over the range of both variables. What method should one choose in order to investigate this feature? Hair *et al* (2003) suggests multiple regression analysis as a possible way. This statistical technique analyzes the linear relationship between a dependent variable and multiple independent variables by estimating coefficients for the equation for a straight line (Hair *et al*, 2003).

To sum up, we propose, that regarding our analysis, two statistical methods were applied. Firstly, cross tabulations and Chi-square methods were run in SPSS in order to extract the relevant independent variables and in particular analyze the relationship in respect with each socio-economic variable. Additionally, in some of the cases, through the application of a multiple regression analysis linear relationships were quantified and the influencing factors were filtered. Since Hair *et al* (2003) argued that researchers tended toward significant levels of 0.01, 0.05 and 0.1, here we would like to stress that only those variables were included in our models that met the criteria of being under the significance level of 0.1. As a result of the analysis finally we could present the reader with some comprehensive models that describe both the nature of lunch and eating out phenomenon from our perspective.







## 4. RESULTS

*In this chapter the results of our investigation in terms of the average lunch consumer will be presented. We will begin with the presentation of the results regarding the frequency of eating lunch, duration and cost and what Gothenburgers eat and drink for lunch. Additionally the results of the meal selection process will be presented. Finally we will investigate where and with whom they had their last lunch and discuss some relevant figures describing the patterns of eating out in general.*

### 4.1 Lunch habits in the mirror of pure figures

The results of our statistical analysis showed in detail what eating patterns described lunch customers. At the beginning of our questionnaire we asked respondents to indicate how often they had eaten lunch in the past seven days. Most of them (n=165) had lunch everyday. However, on average, people in Gothenburgers had lunch 5,71 times a week ( $\sigma = 1,664$ ). The number of lunches on a weekly basis ranged from 0 to 7. Using a 5 points importance scale, lunch was most commonly rated at level of 4 – as important- with a relatively small standard deviation ( $\sigma = 0,869$ ).

The study found that the average lunch starts at 12:26 and finishes at 13:03, meaning that a lunch breaks on an average are 37 minutes long (more precisely: 36,73 min). According to our survey the earliest lunch started at 10 am, while the latest one at 6 pm. The average cost of a lunch is 38,1 SEK although there is a drop in the sample number of this variable (n=285). The reason was that people, whose last lunch was prepared home, faced difficulties determining the monetary cost of the dish. Therefore we behave that it is important to take a separate look at the cost of the lunch bought out and the cost of the lunch prepared at home. The results show that the average amount spent on lunch out was 47,53 SEK and on the lunch prepared home 23,69 SEK.

**Table 4.1** The frequency of eating lunch, the duration and cost of the lunch

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Lunch times/week	343	0	7	5,71	1,644
Start	340	10,00	18,00	12,4421	1,07574
End	340	10,50	18,50	13,0544	1,08810
Duration	340	,05	2,00	,6122	,26726
Cost	285	3	100	38,10	21,259
Valid N (listwise)	284				

#### *4.1.1 What do people eat and drink for lunch in Gothenburg?*

Question number 5 was an open ended question where respondents were asked to name and describe the dish they lately had. After collecting all data we made up the following categories based on the answers (see Table 4.2, column 1). Parallel with the Swedish Lunch Association (2004) our results showed that the most common dish for lunch in Gothenburg is pasta (13 % of the cases). Chicken, fish and sandwiches were the following dishes that people usually have for lunch. Furthermore, Asian meals and the Traditional Swedish food (Husmanskost) were also mentioned as regular choices. If we sum up the first six alternatives mentioned, we see that more than 50% of lunches consist of these dishes.

**Table 4.2** Last lunch dishes

<b>Name of lunch dish</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Valid percent</b>
Pasta	43	13
Chicken dishes	30	9,1
Fish dishes	29	8,8
Sandwiches/Baguettes	28	8,5
Asian meals	22	6,7
Husmanskost	19	5,8
Beef	17	5,2
Soups	15	4,5
Sausages (korv)	15	4,5
Pork/schnitzel	14	4,2
Pizza	13	3,9
Salads	10	3,0
Pies	10	3,0
Hamburgers	9	2,7
Egg dishes	8	2,4
Stews (kött grytor)	8	2,4
Pytt i panna	7	2,1
Rice/couscous dishes	6	1,8
Minced meat	6	1,8
Vegetarian dishes	6	1,8
Bakery and diary products	6	1,8
Porridges and cereals	5	1,5
Mexican dishes	5	1,5
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>330</b>	

In terms of bread consumption at lunch 53% answered negatively, meaning that in 47% of the cases, bread was eaten as a compliment to the dish. Additionally, it was most common to eat bread with butter (30% of the whole sample).

Appetizers and desserts were definitely not an essential part of the Swedish lunch. Only in 10% of the cases we have found people eating dessert and 2% had appetizers.

Water is the most common drink that people have at lunch representing 40% of the cases. Soft drinks and milk consumption describes 30% of the sample, while alcoholic drinks are not common at lunch in Sweden (6%). In 13% of the cases it happened that respondents did not drink anything for lunch. Coffee is an important item of the Swedish lunch. The results showed that in 45% of the cases respondents had coffee after the meal, 4% had tea, while 51% of them had neither coffee nor tea.

#### *4.1.2 The most favorite lunch dish*

In order to determine the first three favorite main courses we faced a two sided dilemma. Since the survey question asked respondents to choose their three favorite lunch dishes by rating them with 1, 2 and 3, we had three different “positions” to give. One solution was to simply determine the frequencies in terms of No.1, No.2 and No.3 dishes. However, in this case not all ratings were taken into consideration. The other solution was to weigh the ratings like gold, silver and bronze medals, whereas one gold medal (position as No 1. dish) is equivalent with three points, silver equals two points while for bronze the dish is rewarded with one point. The results in terms of the two above mentioned methods differ. Through the application of the first method the results show that meat was No.1 (118 respondents), pasta No.2 (76 respondents) and poultry was No.3 (65 respondents). Using the other method results showed that the gold medal was won by meat courses (506 points), fish and seafood was given with silver (371 points), while the bronze medal belonged to pasta (324 points).

The situation in terms of garnish is similar to the aforementioned one. The pure frequency tables showed that Swedish people were more likely to rate potatoes as the number one garnish on the plate, closely followed by salads and vegetables. However, if we weighed the results in the same way introduced above the situation changed and salads and vegetables became the first (302 points), while potatoes only deserved the second place by scoring 296 points.

Considering the food preferences and seasonality, respondents were asked which are their favorite lunch dishes in respect to summer and winter seasons. Numerous answers were given and we had to make categories in order to code and evaluate the outcome. As a result, 17 different dishes were determined. For the summer season people were most likely to prefer salads, fish dishes, pasta, grilled food, meat, poultry and seafood. In respect with the winter meat dishes were the most common menus followed by soups, pasta, fish dishes, and poultry.

In 55 per cent of the cases people did not care to have desert at lunch. However, if they did, they preferred ice cream, cakes, baked goods, chocolates and candies. It is almost the same case in regard to fruits. In 37 per cent of the cases people did not eat fruit at lunch; however if they did it was more likely to an apple or a banana (41% of the cases). Other popular fruits were pear, mandarin, orange and kiwi.

#### *4.1.3 Preparation method and cuisine*

Grilling is the absolute favorite preparation method chosen by 151 respondents. Frying (stekt) is number two scoring 111 selections. As for the third place we saw a fierce competition among “wok”-ing and boiling. However, the Asian method won this position with 55 choices.

The results suggest that Swedish cuisine is the favorite one when it comes to lunch. Slightly more than two hundred (202) respondents indicated this as the preferred choice. Italian cuisine was the second most popular cuisine chosen (159 respondents), followed by Greek. Asian food were also preferred and among them Thai food is the favorite (41 respondents). American and Mexican dishes add up to 32 choices. In the “other” category Nordic cuisine (Danish, Norwegian and Finish) were mentioned ten times.

#### 4.1.4 Where and with whom do people eat lunch?

The places where people used to have lunch are presented in Table 4.3.

**Table 4.3** Places where last lunch was eaten

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Home	116	,2	33,9	33,9
	School	27	,0	7,9	41,8
	Canteen (workplace)	83	,1	24,3	66,1
	Restaurant	37	,1	10,8	76,9
	Fast food	22	,0	6,4	83,3
	Cafe	12	,0	3,5	86,8
	Lunchrestaurant (self-service)	37	,1	10,8	97,7
	Retirement home	1	,0	,3	98,0
	Other	7	,0	2,0	100,0
	Total	342	,5	100,0	
Missing	System	65193	99,5		
Total		65535	100,0		

The results suggested that respondents were most likely to eat their lunches at home (34%). This was followed by canteens at the workplaces (24%) and restaurants in town (11%). Other common places were cafés, fast food restaurants and schools. Adding up all the places outside the home, it becomes evident that in 66 per cent of the cases, lunch was consumed out. Meals at work and school cover frequent lunches and, some restaurants and café meals are also taken during working time.



Another important aspect to take in consideration in our analysis was the place where the dish is prepared. Therefore we asked the respondents whether they consumed a meal prepared at home or a purchased meal for their last lunch. Results show that in most of the cases (56%) the lunch was purchased and in 44% of the cases the meal was prepared at home.

It is known that sharing the meal with other matters a lot. Our results confirmed this idea, as lunch seems to be spent in company, most likely with colleagues (42%), family (20%) and friends (10%). Only 25% of the respondents indicated spending their last lunches alone.

#### **4.2 Food choice factors**

We were also interested in finding out which factors influence the lunch dish selection in concordance with the factors discussed by Khan (1981), which were used when constructing the question (see Table 4.4, column 1). The results show that the most important factor which determined the lunch dish selection was appetite. Other important factors were the intrinsic factors (e.g. appearance, taste, odour, and temperature), price, health considerations and food variation.

The least important factors were found to be cultural and traditional factors, advertisements, opinions/choice of friends and colleagues, food status/prestige of the meal and the eating occasion.

**Table 4.4** Factors influencing the lunch dish selection

<b>Food choice variable</b>	<b>Number of respondents</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard deviation</b>
Familiarity	335	3,40	1,309
Appetite	335	4,47	1,074
Mood and humor	335	3,56	1,350
Opinion and choice of friends and colleagues	334	2,38	1,255
Food status and prestige	334	2,20	1,161
Portion size	335	3,70	1,196
Daily physical activity	333	3,51	1,432
Healthy considerations	335	4,23	1,144
Preparation method	334	3,46	1,256
Price	334	4,08	1,179
Speed of service	334	3,76	1,113
Food variation	333	3,95	1,168
Culture and tradition	334	1,76	1,111
Eating environment	333	2,62	1,383
Advertisements	335	2,11	1,074
Appearance	335	4,19	1,234
Taste	335	4,41	1,154
Odour	335	4,41	1,117
Temperature	335	4,24	1,176

### 4.3 Eating out

Considering the *eating out* definition (i.e. food prepared and consumed outside the domestic sphere) and the aforementioned results, we found that the number of meals eaten away from home adds up to 49 per cent of the cases.

Regarding the weekly patterns of eating out, on average people in Gothenburg eat out lunch 2,33 times a week ( $\sigma = 1,973$ ). The frequency of eating out varies from 0 to 7. The most frequent number that people indicated was 0 (27% of the cases) while if they ate out they were more likely to do it 5 times a week (16%).

The results suggested that there were a number of similarities between the samples in terms of general reasons for eating lunch out. Among the nine variables that we identified as factors that may influence people to eat out (see Table 4.5), the following three variables were found to be the most relevant: *Convenience* is the most important trigger (217 respondents), *better food out* (186 respondents) and *no time to cook at home* (140 respondents). It is also worth mentioning that the *atmosphere* was also indicated as an important factor for eating out (138 respondents).

**Table 4.5** Reasons for eating lunch out

Reasons	Frequency	Valid Percent
Convenience	217	23
Better food out	186	20
No time to cook at home	140	15
Atmosphere	138	15
Higher variety of food out	85	9
Fun with colleagues and friends	76	8
Relatively cheap	39	4
Tired of home cooked food	35	3
Nobody cooks for me	34	3

There were numerous and varied places where people could have lunch. Therefore it was interesting to explore the extent to which different factors influenced the decision making process when it came to choosing a lunch place. The conducted survey pointed out that *price* is the most important factor (211 respondents) in this respect. Price was followed by the convenience of location (198), good cuisine (e.g. good chef-191), cleanliness of the place (169) and good ingredients (162).

The survey indicated that for most of the people in Gothenburg, food cost is an important item in their budget, 65 per cent of the cases. Another question closely related to this was the issue of skipping lunch when case the respondent faced financial problems. We found out that only 37% of the respondents choose food cost as something to save money on. We also asked respondents if they would like to eat lunch out more often than they do now. In the survey 69% of the respondents showed no interest in eating out more often.

#### **4.4 Favorite lunch dish**

In order to conclude the section on results our market research presents the reader with the two tables indicating the favorite lunch dishes for the summer and winter seasons (see Table 4.6 and 4.7). The table columns present lunch dishes according to their “preference values”. However, among the larger categories we also included what respondents had indicated most frequently.

One practical example, regarding summer, we found salad is the most appealing dish followed by fish, pasta and grilled food. Additionally within salads our survey determined the following order: Greek salad was the most popular followed by pasta salad, tuna fish salad and Cesar salad.

**Table 4.6** Favorite lunch dishes in summer

<b>I. Salad</b>	<b>II. Fish</b>	<b>III. Pasta</b>	<b>IV. Grill</b>	<b>V. Poultry</b>	<b>VI. Meat</b>	<b>VII. Seafood</b>
Greek salad	Sushi	Pizza	Grilled meat	Chicken	Meatball	Shrimps
Pasta salad	Salmon	Spaghetti with minced meat	Pork or Loin	Turkey	Kebab	Mussel
Tuna fish salad	Herring (sill)	Pasta carbonara	Fish		Beef, hamburger and panbiff	
Caesar salad	Cod (torsk)	Pasta bolognese			Ham, sausage, kassler and sparerib	
Chicken salad	Mackerel (makrill)	Lasagne			Veal or Mutton	
Shrimp salad	Fish pudding	Chicken pasta			Tacos	
					Cold cuts	

**Table 4.7** Favorite lunch dishes in winter

<b>I. Meat</b>	<b>II. Pasta</b>	<b>III. Soup</b>	<b>IV. Fish</b>	<b>V. Stews</b>
Pork	Pizza	Fish soup	Cod (torsk)	Meat
Biff	Spaghetti with minced meat	Vegetable soup	Sushi	Fish
Sausages	Spaghetti with vegetables	Meat soup	Mackerel	Poultry
Meatballs			Herring	Vegetables
Hamburger				
Entré cote				

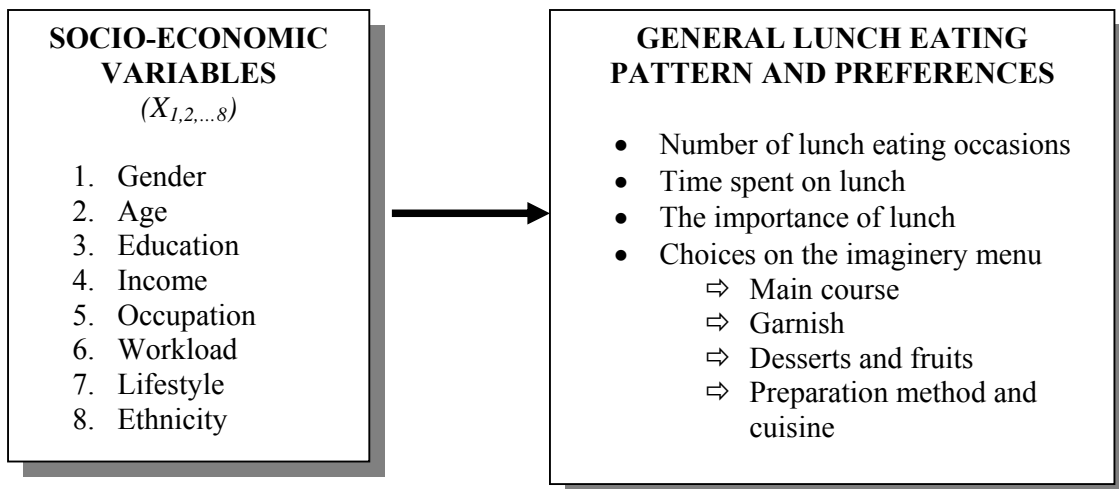


## 5. ANALYSIS

*Within this chapter the results of our survey will be analyzed the socio-economic variables discussed in the methodology. Our aim was to investigate what kind of special characteristics and attributes do lunch customers in Gothenburg segments carry. Further on the analysis was broken down into three major blocks. Firstly, it will investigate the basic lunch eating pattern, secondly it will introduce the reader to a comprehensive model that describes the lunch meal selection, and finally it will analyze the reasons for eating out and the process of lunch place selection.*

### 5.1 Analyzing the general lunch eating pattern and preferences

Regarding the present lunch eating pattern, we have prepared a brief analysis that describes what specific characteristics the different lunch customers have. The first analysis block encompasses some dimensions that we have found relevant to describe the lunch eating pattern and preferences. Within the following paragraphs we will discuss how different independent variables affect lunch eating occasions, the importance that lunch represents for respondents and finally the specific lunch meals that different lunch customers prefer (see Figure 5.1).



**Figure 5.1** Outline for analyzing general lunch eating pattern and preferences

### 5.1.1 Differences in lunch eating occasions

Differences among respondents regarding how many times they had lunch within the last seven days, could be explained using three significant factors: age, income and lifestyle (see Table 5.1).

**Table 5.1** Factors affecting the number of lunches on a weekly basis

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,914	,344		14,268	,000
	Age	,279	,081	,200	3,443	,001
	Income	-,208	,099	-,119	-2,092	,037
	Physical activity	,207	,093	,121	2,211	,028

a. Dependent Variable: Lunch times/week

Age and income maintained a positive effect on lunch eating frequencies, meaning that older people put more emphasis on having lunch everyday, compared to youngsters who had often skipped or missed this meal of the day. The lifestyle of respondents in terms of sports also implicitly resulted in an increase in the number of lunch occasions. This insight highlighted that physical activity enhanced the importance of regular and structured food intake. One of the most surprising findings of ours was that income on the other hand negatively influenced the number of weekly lunches. Finally, we came up with the following equation that describes the factors that determined the number of lunches (on a weekly basis):

$$Y_{\#lunch} = 4,914 - 0,2x_2 - 0,119x_4 + 0,121x_7$$

Eventually, through the comparisons of means, we could see that it was only the fourth income category that had caused this kind of impact (see Table 5.2), since it is significantly lower than the overall average 5,69. Deriving from this, the relationship is still regarded as negative its absolute validity is questionable.



**Table 5.2** Means for number of lunches within income categories

Lunch times/week				
Income	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Skewness
-10 000 SEK	5,73	95	1,634	-1,371
10 001 - 20 000 SEK	5,68	117	1,765	-1,316
20 001 - 30 000 SEK	5,84	96	1,496	-1,403
30 001 SEK -	5,09	33	1,702	-,677
Total	5,68	341	1,655	-1,270

### 5.1.2 Time spent on lunch

The amount of time that respondents spent on lunch was significantly determined by three factors: age, education and occupation (see Table 5.3).

**Table 5.3** Factors influencing the time spent on lunch

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	,509	,070		7,220	,000
	Age	,028	,015	,126	1,830	,068
	Education	,041	,022	,107	1,900	,058
	Occupation	-,031	,013	-,168	-2,406	,017

a. Dependent Variable: Duration

According to our data we could assert that as people got older they were willing to spend more and more time on their lunch, in parallel with their level of education. Surprisingly, occupation negatively affected the amount of lunch time, meaning that people having relatively more time, were more likely to eat and consume faster. The table presented below may explain why (see Table 5.4).

**Table 5.4** Cross-tabulation in respect with the point of purchase and occupation

		Occupation					Total	
		Student	Full time	Part time	Pensioner	Other		
Home / purchase	Home made	Count	34	65	16	30	4	149
	Expected Count		37,1	71,2	14,0	19,2	7,4	149,0
Bought	Count		51	98	16	14	13	192
	Expected Count		47,9	91,8	18,0	24,8	9,6	192,0
Total	Count		85	163	32	44	17	341
	Expected Count		85,0	163,0	32,0	44,0	17,0	341,0

The figures presented above clearly showed that in most of the cases part time workers, pensioners and other categories ate home prepared meals. This kind of majority significantly differed from the expected values on a level of .004. In opposition with the increase of the occupation variable, a negative linear relationship towards eating home cooked food was also tracked (supporting our previous insight). We could even further develop our reasoning by finding a positive relationship between the duration of lunches and the point of purchase.

The linear regression model indicated that if people decided to eat out and buy lunch from a catering company they were more likely to spend more time on it (see Table 5.5).

**Table 5.5** Linear relationship between time spent on lunch and the point of purchase

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	,567	,022		26,093	,000
	Home / purchased	,078	,029	,146	2,703	,007

a. Dependent Variable: Duration

Finally, to conclude we stress that the decline in terms of time spent on lunches regarding occupation classes is due to the point of purchase. In other words, more disposable time seems to push people towards preparing their own lunches and since home lunches are not given the same amount of time as purchased ones it may also explain the contradiction between the disposable lunch time and the actual time spent on lunch.

### 5.1.3 The importance of lunch

We found it necessary to analyze how different respondents rated lunch according to its importance. We wanted to see if we could identify different clusters along our dimensions. The linear regression model filtered four different factors: age, lifestyle (sport), occupation and education as ones that may explain differences among answers. However, occupation and education were odd ones, meaning that only either the former or the later one could have been included in the model.

The two models provided us exactly the same reasoning power and the significance levels regarding the two variables in point (see Table 5.6 a and b).

**Table 5.6 a** Factors influencing the importance of lunch

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,700	,252		10,713	,000
	Age	,103	,041	,140	2,503	,013
	Physical activity	,169	,049	,189	3,477	,001
	Education	,136	,069	,108	1,962	,051

a. Dependent Variable: Lunch importance

**Table 5.6 b** Factors influencing the importance of lunch

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,098	,169		18,341	,000
	Age	,142	,050	,194	2,856	,005
	Occupation	-,080	,041	-,133	-1,961	,051
	Physical activity	,162	,049	,181	3,325	,001

a. Dependent Variable: Lunch importance

Finally the following two equations were prepared by us:

$$Y_{Lunchimp}^1 = 2,7 + 0,140x_2 + 0,108x_3 + 0,189x_7$$

$$Y_{Lunchimp}^2 = 3,098 + 0,194x_2 - 0,133x_5 + 0,181x_7$$

We believe that the first equation is better for describing the factors that affect lunch importance as a linear relationship. This assumption of ours relies on the fact that further on we have also checked the mean values of the two crucial variables. According to our results we found that with the increase of the education level the importance of lunch perfectly fitted a linear relationship.

In terms of occupation, pensioner, full time and part time categories indicated the highest importance value for lunch, while for students and the “other category” lunch seemed to be less important.

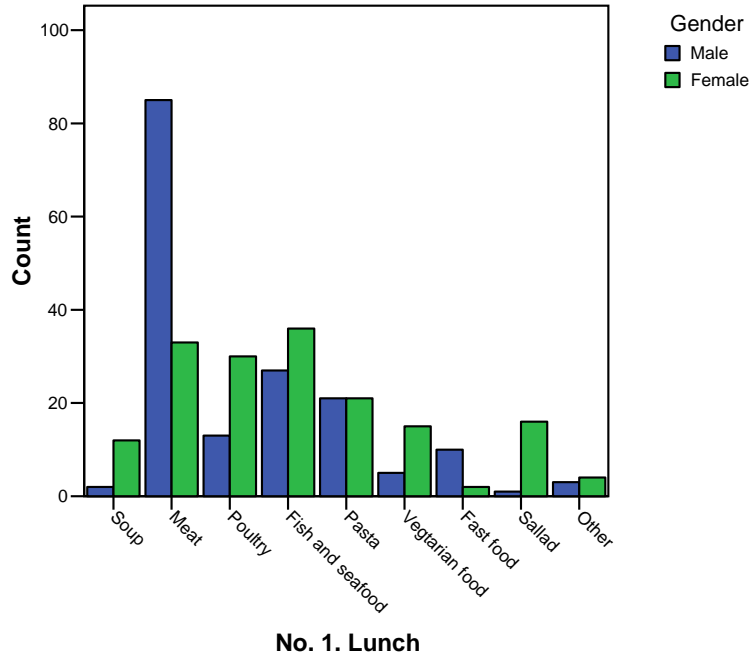
#### 5.1.4 The imaginary menu

In concordance with Beardsworth and Kiel (1997) statement that any given society can be described with a given menu differentiation, our imaginary menu offered us the possibility to examine whether different lunch customer segments in Gothenburg have different preferences. Regarded as *menu pluralism* by Beardsworth and Kiel (1997), within this block of analysis the reader will be presented with some of the favorite lunch meals that describe the preferences of distinct lunch customers. Additionally a complete lunch meal (main course, garnish, dessert, fruit, preparation method and cuisine) analysis will be examined.

#### THE N<sup>o</sup> 1 MAIN COURSE

To analyze our results a Chi-square method was used to find out the number one lunch course. Our findings suggested that along the dimensions of gender,

age, education and occupation significant differences could be found. The chart below shows how respondents rated their favorite lunch course with respect to their gender (see Figure 5.2).



**Figure 5.2** The most favorite main lunch courses in mirror of gender

The diagram nicely points out that meat is most likely to be appreciated by men, while women prefer “fish and sea food”. Female respondents also ranked meat courses (2<sup>nd</sup> place) and poultry dishes (3<sup>rd</sup> place) high. Other typical dishes chosen by women were: soups, salads and vegetarian food. On the other hand, a distinct male choice was fast food. Pasta was the only dish where a nice balance was seen. Overall we can suggest that female respondents have a more balanced and higher variety of selection patterns, compared to males.

Age also has a significant impact on the favorite lunch selection. The detailed information on the selection pattern is summed up in the table below (see Table 5.7). Soups tend to be favored by old people. Meat was the favorite course among all age segments and showed stable distribution closely fitting the

expected values. Regarding poultry and pasta, the output table suggests that this meal choice is most likely to describe the selection pattern of the two youngest generations (10-29).

Fish and seafood could be distinctly attached to the middle aged generation (30-65) where the results considerably exceed the expected numbers. Vegetarian food is popular among people between the age of 50-65, which may highlight new upcoming trends within the next old generation. Fast food was favored and chosen by the younger generation (up till the age of 50), beyond that no selection was made. Regarding salads, our survey showed that they were sought and selected by the older and middle aged generations.

**Table 5.7** Cross-tabulation table along age and lunch main courses

			Age					Total
			10-19	20-29	30-49	50-65	66-	
No. 1. Lunch	Soup	Count	0	2	4	2	6	14
		Expected Count	1,6	3,5	4,6	2,5	1,8	14,0
	Meat	Count	14	24	43	20	17	118
		Expected Count	13,3	29,9	38,6	20,7	15,5	118,0
	Poultry	Count	6	17	9	5	6	43
		Expected Count	4,9	10,9	14,1	7,6	5,6	43,0
	Fish and seafood	Count	4	13	27	15	4	63
		Expected Count	7,1	15,9	20,6	11,1	8,3	63,0
	Pasta	Count	8	16	9	4	5	42
		Expected Count	4,8	10,6	13,8	7,4	5,5	42,0
	Vegetarian food	Count	2	7	5	6	0	20
		Expected Count	2,3	5,1	6,5	3,5	2,6	20,0
	Fast food	Count	3	4	5	0	0	12
		Expected Count	1,4	3,0	3,9	2,1	1,6	12,0
	Sallad	Count	1	1	4	6	5	17
		Expected Count	1,9	4,3	5,6	3,0	2,2	17,0
	Other	Count	0	1	4	1	1	7
		Expected Count	,8	1,8	2,3	1,2	,9	7,0
Total	Count	38	85	110	59	44	336	
	Expected Count	38,0	85,0	110,0	59,0	44,0	336,0	

Regarding education we found that highly educated people tend to favor “light” lunch courses (e.g. soups, poultry, fish and seafood, vegetarian or salads) instead of the favorite “heavy” dishes like meat, pasta or fast food that describes the selection pattern of less educated respondents. These findings are in line with Bordieu’s (1984, cited in Beardsworth and Kiel, 1997) work/study

which claimed that high-status individuals prefer sophisticated and delicate light dishes, compared to less educated classes.

In terms of occupation two interesting insights should be mentioned. One is that students favor poultry dishes over meat ones, unlike full time workers, where meat is the absolute favorite. The other light food category, fish and seafood, on the other hand showed stable distribution among all five segments.

#### GARNISH

Although Sandberg (1995) and Englund (1995) stressed the importance and dominance of potatoes in the Swedish cuisine, our study revealed that the picture is not that simple and supported the findings of Westman and Skans (2001) by pin pointing that salads are the most common side dishes. This may highlight new trends regarding garnishes, therefore is worthy of an in depth investigation and analysis of our results.

Our findings suggested that old people tended to favor potatoes compared to other type of garnishes. Overall, lighter and healthier side dishes were favored by the younger generations (10-29). Regarding middle aged people (30-49) we can suggest that the garnish pattern shows a relatively balanced picture with a slight increase in the preference of sauces. Salads were the most frequently chosen side dishes among respondents between the ages of 50-64. Bread is the one that seems to be equally preferred by all age categories (see Table 5.8).

**Table 5.8** Cross-tabulation regarding garnish and age

			Age					Total
			10-19	20-29	30-49	50-65	66-	
No.1. Garnish	Potatoes	Count	11	24	38	20	24	117
		Expected Count	13,2	29,4	38,1	21,1	15,2	117,0
	Rice	Count	7	17	20	7	5	56
		Expected Count	6,3	14,1	18,2	10,1	7,3	56,0
	Sallads and vegetables	Count	14	28	33	27	5	107
		Expected Count	12,0	26,9	34,8	19,3	13,9	107,0
	Sauces	Count	2	10	15	3	4	34
		Expected Count	3,8	8,6	11,1	6,1	4,4	34,0
	Bread	Count	3	4	4	4	4	19
		Expected Count	2,1	4,8	6,2	3,4	2,5	19,0
	Other	Count	1	2	0	0	2	5
		Expected Count	,6	1,3	1,6	,9	,7	5,0
Total		Count	38	85	110	61	44	338
		Expected Count	38,0	85,0	110,0	61,0	44,0	338,0

The favorite garnish for males and females are presented in Table 5.9. The results showed that potatoes and sauces were typical male choices, while salads and vegetables were female garnishes. Rice was split 50-50% among the two groups and bread also seemed to give an almost perfect 50-50% distribution. Sauces are preferred by men.

**Table 5.9** Cross-tabulation along garnish and gender

			Gender		Total
			Male	Female	
No.1. Garnish	Potatoes	Count	68	49	117
		Expected Count	58,5	58,5	117,0
	Rice	Count	28	28	56
		Expected Count	28,0	28,0	56,0
	Sallads and vegetables	Count	32	75	107
		Expected Count	53,5	53,5	107,0
	Sauces	Count	28	6	34
		Expected Count	17,0	17,0	34,0
	Bread	Count	11	8	19
		Expected Count	9,5	9,5	19,0
	Other	Count	2	3	5
		Expected Count	2,5	2,5	5,0
Total		Count	169	169	338
		Expected Count	169,0	169,0	338,0

As people became more and more educated their garnish selection also showed changes. Primary school educated respondents favor potatoes and bread above other options. In the case of secondary school educated respondents the sample indicated that although potatoes were still the most frequently chosen, rice and



sauces were catching up. At the university level salads and vegetables were the most appealing garnishes followed by potatoes and rice (please note that compared to the previous three categories rice is most favored within this one). Regarding bread, our study showed that it is stable among the all classification variables. Students tended to favor salads and vegetables above all other garnishes followed by potatoes and rice. Full time workers chose potatoes as the most common side dish, closely followed by salads.

We would also like to note that this category represented the “sauce and rice favorers”. Part time workers, like students, were most likely to choose salads and vegetables, while pensioners in concordance with their age chose potatoes. Lifestyle (sport) as an additional factor also affected the garnish choice. As the amount of time spent on sports increased, the selection of garnish also changed. Potatoes were most likely to be chosen by people with low physical activity levels. Further on with an escalating “activity scale” potatoes were substituted with salads and finally with rice. This trend nicely reflects that changes in the garnish were firstly related to dietary considerations, cutting back on energy intake, while above 10 hours of weekly activity it was the type of “energy carrier” that had been substituted. Additionally, fatty sauces were avoided in the upper two categories.

#### DESSERTS AND FRUITS

Ice cream was the favorite dessert according to our survey. More specifically we see that it was common among kids and teenagers (10-19). The upper categories, regarding this dessert item, indicated small differences. Cakes and baked goods presented a quite balanced picture among all age clusters with a slight increase in people above the age of 66. Respondents between the ages of 20-29 favored chocolates and candies. Pies and pancakes describe the mature

age category of people (50-65). Pudding and creams were preferred evenly among people from all age categories.

Men preferred ice cream, while women liked chocolate/candies, cakes and baked goods. Surprisingly, regarding education we found that university people favored chocolate/candies, while ice cream was more common among secondary school educated respondents. Pies and pancakes were popular at the lowest level of education.

Female respondents, compared to male ones, more frequently ate fruits at lunch. The split between the two favorite fruits is a matter of gender and age. According to our study female respondents favored apples, while male ones preferred bananas. The banana vs. apple debate could be also seen to differ among age groups, as young people (10-49) were more likely to eat bananas, while old respondents definitely preferred apples.

#### PREPARATION METHOD AND CUISINE

Regarding the favored preparation method, our study did not show significant differences among males and females. However this insight was not true for age, education and income. Grilled and fried meat preparation methods were favored by youngsters between the ages of 10-19. One step up, the situation was almost the same, only expanded to include marinated dishes. The middle age group definitely jostled beside grilled (BBQ) meat dishes, while fried meals drop back. Marinated and “wooked” meals were also over represented in this cluster compared to others. As respondents got older, the importance and likeliness to eat boiled/cooked meat became more common and finally topped the grilling (in respect with the age above 66).

Among primary school educated respondents cooked meat was the favorite choice along with fried. Respondents with a secondary school background choose grilling (BBQ) and frying, moreover this group was the one that preferred marinated meats. Finally, university respondents indicated grilled, fried and wooked meat as their favorite.

Income was also seen as one of the significant factor when it came to preparation method. Lower income categories favored grilled, fried and cooked/boiled meat, while the upper segments also liked marinating and wooking.

Regarding the eleven identified cuisines we found some interesting insights. Swedish cuisine was favored by the older generation (see Table 5.10). In many cases it happened that old people only indicated one or marked twice the Swedish box (instead of choosing another option). In opposition with age, the degree of education decreased the importance of the Swedish cuisine. Interestingly income had an overall positive impact, meaning that people with higher salaries were more concerned about the national kitchen. Therefore we agree with Englund's (1995) insight that Swedish cuisine is becoming more and more gourmet.

**Table 5.10** Cross-tabulation regarding Swedish cuisine and age

			Age					Total
			10-19	20-29	30-49	50-65	66-	
Swedish	0	Count	24	49	49	15	2	139
		Expected Count	15,9	34,6	44,8	24,9	18,8	139,0
	1	Count	15	36	61	46	44	202
		Expected Count	23,1	50,4	65,2	36,1	27,2	202,0
Total		Count	39	85	110	61	46	341
		Expected Count	39,0	85,0	110,0	61,0	46,0	341,0

Italian food was most common among highly educated younger respondents (under the age of 50), while the difference between frequencies regarding the

other Mediterranean cuisine (Greek) could be explained by gender. In the case of this type of food, female respondents were more likely to indicate it as one of their favorite. We argue that this could be closely related to the female preference for salads, hence the association with the delicious Greek salad. The famous French kitchen also showed some interesting points, namely that gender and income were found to be influential factors. Male respondents with higher salaries tended to favor this kind of cuisine which implicitly means that French dishes represent a higher status or value for consumers.

The comparison of the Chinese and Japanese cuisine also provided interesting insights, since while Chinese was favored by males and middle educated (secondary school) respondents, Japanese food is preferred by young (20-29) highly educated women.

Coming to American cuisine, fast food dishes described the selection pattern of young male consumers, backed with an implicit low income. In concordance with Prättälä (1989) and Olsen *et al* (2000) we found the affects of Americanization were seen in the youngest generations.

Although Arabian and Mexican cuisines had significant relationships with some of the independent variables, due to the low number of choices only one conclusion was drawn. Arabian meals were only chosen by people coming outside of Sweden (respectively from Arabia). In other words the ethnic background determines the choice of this option.

Thai food was very popular among the generation between the ages of 20-39 holding at least a secondary school educational. Among them they were most likely students. The other southern Asian cuisine, Indian, was favored by female respondents, doing either light or intellectual work. Choices made in the

“other” category were mostly made by respondents coming from abroad and indicated Nordic meals in most of the cases.

### *5.1.5 Summary*

In concordance with other researchers (see Chapman, 1990; Fiddes, 1991; Beardsworth and Kiel, 1997; Mennell *et al*, 1992; Prättälä, 1989 and Roos *et al*, 2001), we assert that different lunch eating patterns describe the analyzed respondents.

These patterns can be seen as symbols that suitably describe their preferences. Men are most likely to choose heavy and fatty characteristically masculine dishes like meats with different sauces, while women tend to favor light and “weight conscious” meals (c.f. Wood, 1992). We could also see that some lunch meals are appropriate for young people but not for older consumers (e.g. fast food). Along with Mennell’s (1992) and Prättälä’s (1989) insights, young people may shape their food preferences during the adulthood and have new trends and eating patterns.

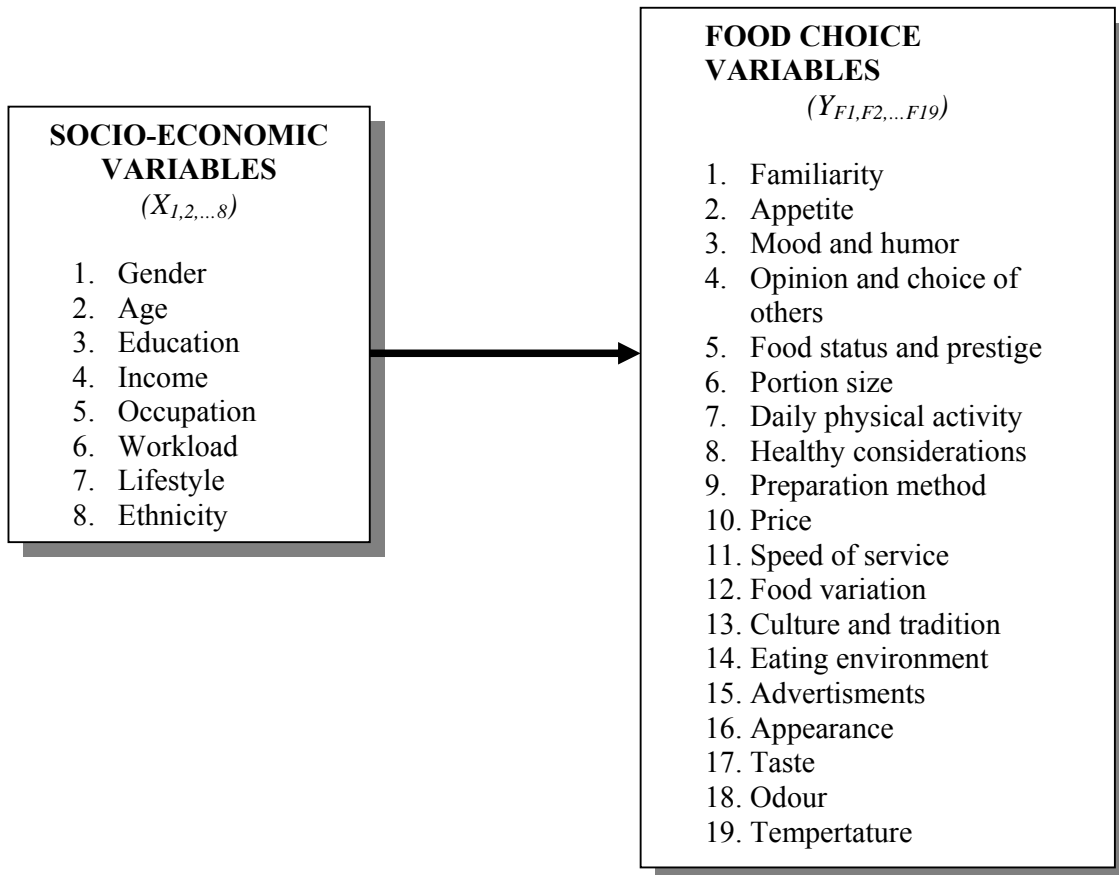
## **5.2 Food choice model**

The conducted research gave us the opportunity to reproduce a food choice model on the basis of the literature presented before. Among the models described we found Khan’s (1981) model as the most appealing and useful tool for our research. However, the model in the way it was presented by the author was not completely compatible with our study. Due to this, minor changes were made and a new model was prepared.

### 5.2.1 Analyzing food choice variables

As it was described before, the model in point is operating with various numbers of features that determine individuals' food habits, acceptances and preferences and therefore the actual food choice. Among them due to space restrictions, our questionnaire contained only 19 variables that were identified as crucial ones (dependent variables).

In order to see what special characteristics our lunch customers have, first a multiple regression analysis was run in order to filter those independent variables that had an impact on the dependent ones. We would like to note that within this section the significance level was even stricter, thus only those variables were included in the equations that met the criterion to be under the level of .05. The figure presented below describes our approach.



**Figure 5.3** The relationship between socio-economic variables and food choice factors

FAMILIARITY OF THE DISH

Peryam (1963) noted that the condition under which a consumer first experiences a food shapes its future acceptability and re-selection. The familiarity of the dish means the previous experience of the respondents. It reflects what dish the individual has tried before and how open he or she is to new types of food. The linear regression model indicated four factors that affect this variable (see Table 5.11). The explanatory power of the model is 32,6 per cent.

**Table 5.11** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of familiarity

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,691	,305		12,115	,000
	Gender	-,360	,137	-,138	-2,632	,009
	Education	-,278	,103	-,148	-2,688	,008
	Ethnicity	,430	,168	,134	2,559	,011
	Occupation	,178	,049	,199	3,621	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Familiarity

$$Y_{familiarity} = 3,691 - 0,138x_1 - 0,148x_3 + 0,199x_5 + 0,134x_8 \quad (R^2 = 0,326)$$

On one hand gender and education negatively, while ethnicity and occupation positively, influenced the importance of this variable. In other words, female respondents in line with highly educated participants rated this item lower. In this sense we suggest that these types of customers are more open minded ones and are more likely to try new and unknown lunch dishes. Regarding ethnicity our study revealed that people with an ethnic background find it more important to know what they are eating and rely on their previous experiences in terms of lunch meal selection. As for occupation, students and full time workers were found to be more innovative compared with part- time workers or pensioners. This indicates that for these former categories it is not lunch that they are willing to experiment with new tastes.

APPETITE, HUNGER AND SATIETY

Our physiological needs provide the basic determinants of food choice. Humans need energy and nutrients in order to survive and will respond to the feelings of hunger and satiety. Appetite, hunger and satiety are factors that work hand in hand. Hunger sends signs to our brain that the energy consumption has reached a critical level and the loss has to be substituted; therefore people go and search for food. During the eating process satiety leads the individual to stop the activity and it finally results in pleasure and joy. We found three influential variables that impact the importance of this dimension: ethnicity, occupation and age ( $R^2=0,395$ ) (Table 5.12).

**Table 5.12** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of appetite

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5,211	,155		33,644	,000
	Ethnicity	,384	,135	,146	2,850	,005
	Occupation	,131	,047	,179	2,767	,006
	Age	-,384	,059	-,426	-6,534	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Apatite

$$Y_{Apetite} = 5,211 - 0,426x_2 + 0,179x_5 + 0,146x_8 \quad (R^2=0,395)$$

Age as the most influential power, has a negative impact on the importance, simply meaning that as people get older they are less likely to listen to these factors and make selections based on hunger. In contrast, the younger generation shows its explicit importance and relies on the internal voice of hunger. Interestingly, occupation also has a positive impact meaning that people with less work are more likely to consider their state of hunger. Since, we assume that students and full time workers have a more stable level of hunger regarding lunch compared to other groups; this might explain why this factor was lacking importance compared to others. Finally, the above factor is



also influenced by ethnic background, especially in case of those who are not originally from Sweden.

### MOOD AND HUMOR

Various researches have noted the links between food choice and the expression of emotional stress, personality traits, family bonds, mood state and establishing one's individuality (Herne, 1995). Our findings show that it is solely age that affects the importance of this variable, however quite powerfully (26%) (Table 5.13).

**Table 5.13** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of humor

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,434	,192		23,149	,000
	Age	-,296	,060	-,261	-4,941	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Humor

$$Y_{Humor} = 4,431 - 0,261x_2 \quad (R^2 = 0,261)$$

The model nicely points out that as respondents get older they evaluate this factor with less and less importance, implicitly meaning that the younger generation is more influenced by their personal humor and daily mood.

### CHOICE AND OPINION OF FRIENDS AND COLLEAGUES

Since we live in social communities, societal influences on eating behavior can also be very important. For example, the presence of another person while eating has been reported to increase the quantity of a meal by 44%; the size of the meal further increases as more people are present (Graves and Nitzke,

2002). The extent to which one eats alone, socializes and interacts with others during the lunch can be described using this variable.

We assert that, regarding the lunch occasions, the importance of the factor above is affected by age, income and occupation (see Table 5.14), without exception all in a negative direction. This insight reflects the fact that with the increase of the independent variables the rate of importance declines. As people get older, have higher salaries and are placed in a “relaxed social environment” (occupation), they rate this factor lower and lower. As a practical example, an old, rich pensioner is likely to put the less emphasis on the opinion of his friends or colleagues with whom he or she has lunch.

**Table 5.14** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of choices made by others

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,522	,205		17,181	,000
	Age	-,163	,076	-,154	-2,130	,034
	Income	-,147	,075	-,112	-1,975	,049
	Occupation	-,137	,058	-,161	-2,355	,019

a. Dependent Variable: Friends and colleagues choice

$$Y_{\text{Friend \& colleagues}} = 3,522 - 0,154x_2 - 0,112x_4 - 0,161x_5 \quad (R^2 = 0,327)$$

#### FOOD STATUS AND PRESTIGE

As cited in the literature review, for us eating is not only about obtaining nutrients, it is more than that. We are consuming gustatory experiences and in a very real sense we are also consuming meanings and symbols (c.f. Beardsworth and Kiel, 1997). Kronl and Lau (1982) pointed out that consumers make choices according to the meanings associated with particular foods. Calnan and Cant (1990) went even further and produced tables which clearly identify differences in perceptions of good and bad foods, healthy and unhealthy foods,

square meals and proper meals. Food status and prestige is one of the most suitable variables that refer to aforementioned insights. In connection with this, our survey indicated income, education and ethnicity to be influential factors (see Table 5.15).

**Table 5.15** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of food status and prestige

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,359	,237		9,972	,000
	Income	,196	,063	,161	3,103	,002
	Education	-,335	,087	-,201	-3,846	,000
	Ethnicity	,793	,147	,280	5,378	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Food status and prestige

$$Y_{Status} = 2,359 - 0,201x_3 + 0,161x_4 + 0,280x_8 \quad (R^2 = 0,350)$$

Among them income and ethnicity have a positive effect, suggesting that people with higher salaries and ethnic backgrounds are more concerned with the status of the chosen lunch. Surprisingly education has a negative impact, indicating that as people become more and more educated they put less and less emphasis on this characteristic of the lunch meal. In addition, we also highlight the fact that education diminishes this kind of food differentiation/elimination method.

#### PORTION SIZE

Portion size is an important characteristic of all meals since many people attach it to food quality and to the value that they get for their money. In general, portion size is in line with the calorie intake; hence it is also appealing for individuals willing to maximize the delight of satiety. Gender, age, education, income and occupation were the variables that showed significant relationships (see Table 5.16). The explanatory power of our model is 47,8 per cent.

**Table 5.16** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of portion size

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5,334	,295		18,111	,000
	Income	-,134	,068	-,107	-1,972	,049
	Education	-,210	,089	-,122	-2,346	,020
	Age	-,225	,068	-,225	-3,301	,001
	Gender	-1,000	,118	-,419	-8,473	,000
	Occupation	,128	,053	,157	2,438	,015

a. Dependent Variable: Portion size

$$Y_{Portion} = 5,334 - 0,419x_1 - 0,225x_2 - 0,122x_3 - 0,107x_4 + 0,157x_5 \quad (R^2 = 0,478)$$

Among the five variables four have negative impacts. Female respondents found it less important to choose big portions as did older participants. Education and income also decreases the importance of this dimension, simply meaning that highly educated people, with higher salaries do not associate food quality/value with portion size. In turn, occupation maintains a positive impact, representing the fact that for students and full - time workers portion size is less important than it is in case of part time employed respondents or pensioners.

#### DAILY PHYSICAL ACTIVITY

On a basic level the essence of food is to replace our energy loss derived from our daily activity. According to the UK Department of Health the Estimated Average Requirements (EAR) is daily calorie intake of 1940 calories per day for women and 2550 for men (WLR, 2004). As we see the amount of recommended calorie differs among genders, however we would like to note that other factors such age and physical activity also influence the above figures. In order to have a well balanced diet, the nutritional intake should be in proportion with our daily activity level. The model prepared by us had three

determinants: age, income and lifestyle (sport). The explanatory power of the model is also considerable 51,1 per cent ( Table 5.17).

**Table 5.17** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of daily physical activity

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,656	,269		9,890	,000
	Age	-,317	,063	-,261	-5,046	,000
	Income	,328	,077	,217	4,274	,000
	Lifestyle (sport)	,568	,073	,381	7,806	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Daily physical activity

$$Y_{phy.activity} = 2,656 - 0,261x_2 + 0,217x_4 + 0,381x_7 \quad (R^2 = 0,511)$$

Interestingly, daily physical activity becomes less and less important as people get older. This highlights one crucial problem. As people age the metabolism process gets slower and slower and the daily physical activity also decreases. These facts show the importance of a more precise and conscious diet (based on energy necessity). However, as the model suggested older people are less and less involved with this aspect of the lunch meal selection and neglect to put emphasis on this factor. The other two factors (income and physical activity) have a positive impact and clearly reflect the fact that respondents with higher salaries and with more mobility are likely to rate this factor higher. We would also like to express our surprise to see that education, on the other hand, could not form part of the model.

#### HEALTH CONSIDERATIONS

Healthy eating and healthy food are fancy and appealing catch phrases today. New products enter the market with reduced fat or organically produced ingredients. However, many researchers propose that the nutritional knowledge of consumers is not adequate and just a small segment care about healthy

considerations. Our study revealed that in Sweden healthy guidelines form a crucial part of the lunch selection pattern.

The multiple regression analysis showed that income, lifestyle, gender, education and ethnicity have a positive impact on the importance of these factors (see Table 5.18).

**Table 5.18** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of healthy considerations

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,425	,265		9,158	,000
	Income	,207	,062	,172	3,332	,001
	Lifestyle (sport)	,289	,061	,242	4,710	,000
	Gender	,563	,118	,245	4,765	,000
	Education	,193	,085	,116	2,276	,023
	Ethnicity	,397	,145	,141	2,747	,006

a. Dependent Variable: Healthy considerations

$$Y_{Health} = 2,425 + 0,245x_1 + 0,116x_3 + 0,172x_4 + 0,242x_7 + 0,141x_8 \quad (R^2 = 0,417)$$

Among them it was interesting to see that female respondents were more concerned with this issue. Education also positively influenced the results suggesting that people coming from universities or high schools are oriented towards seeking out further information regarding the lunch meal in terms of health guidelines.

#### PREPARATION METHOD

Herne (1995) noted the fact that higher social class is associated with the choice of “healthier” diets and extends into the area of cooking methods. Our study regarding the importance of how the lunch meal is prepared showed that significant differences could be seen along the dimensions of: gender, income,

workload, lifestyle (sport) and ethnicity (see Table 5.19). All of the aforementioned ones indicated a positive linear relationship.

**Table 5.19** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of familiarity

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,584	,250		6,333	,000
	Income	,303	,067	,230	4,543	,000
	Lifestyle (sport)	,155	,066	,119	2,336	,020
	Gender	,845	,128	,336	6,620	,000
	Ethnicity	,401	,157	,131	2,561	,011
	Workload	,284	,091	,158	3,128	,002

a. Dependent Variable: Perparation method

$$Y_{Pr\ epethod} = 1,584 + 0,336x_1 + 0,230x_4 + 0,158x_6 + 0,119x_7 + 0,131x_8 \quad (R^2 = 0,445)$$

Female customers with a higher income and a high level of physical activity are more concerned with the way the lunch meal is prepared. Interestingly people coming from outside of Sweden also rated this component higher in line with respondents doing hard physical work. By checking the frequencies regarding the preparation methods (see Tables 5.20) we could assert that sitting and intellectual workers prefer grilling, while workers with light physical activity appreciate frying (note that the differences among groups are not significant). Regarding meat, heavy duty respondents indicated frying as their favorite preparation method (considerable differing from the expected value).

**Table 5.20** Cross-tabulation regarding workload and preparation methods

		Prep m1					Total	
		Marinerat	kokat	Grillat	friterat	stekt		wokat
Workload Sitting/Intelectua	Count	12	32	79	4	47	21	195
	Expected Cour	17,7	29,4	73,9	3,3	54,3	16,4	195,0
Light	Count	12	10	25	1	26	3	77
	Expected Cour	7,0	11,6	29,2	1,3	21,4	6,5	77,0
Heavy	Count	2	2	6	0	10	0	20
	Expected Cour	1,8	3,0	7,6	,3	5,6	1,7	20,0
Other	Count	1	1	3	0	0	1	6
	Expected Cour	,5	,9	2,3	,1	1,7	,5	6,0
Total	Count	27	45	113	5	83	25	298
	Expected Cour	27,0	45,0	113,0	5,0	83,0	25,0	298,0

PRICE

Graves and Nitzke (2002) noted that food prices are of declining importance in their effect on food choice behaviors, due to economic development and higher efficiency in food processing. In spite of this we have found that price is still among one of the most influential factors when it comes to lunch meal selection. The research conducted by Westman and Skans (2001) suggested that the price level is important when choosing a lunch place but had a minor role in the decision making process of choosing the dish. In support of this our study indicates that regarding the lunch place selection, price is the most important variable. However, this is not the case when it comes to meal selection (only the seventh most important item). The multiple regression analysis identified three components that finally determined the importance level of price. Age and income affects in a negative direction, while occupation has a positive impact on the overall model (see Table 5.21).

**Table 5.21** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of price

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,949	,192		25,828	,000
	Income	-,339	,070	-,275	-4,859	,000
	Age	-,141	,071	-,142	-1,973	,049
	Occupation	,118	,055	,147	2,162	,031

a. Dependent Variable: Price

$$Y_{Price} = 4,949 - 0,142x_2 - 2,75x_4 + 0,147x_5 \quad (R^2 = 0,337)$$

Implicitly in opposition to the increase of income the importance of price declines. In respect to occupation the relationship is positive. We believe that this is due to the fact that within increasing categories income also declines.



### SPEED OF SERVICE

The speed of service generally refers to the fact that lunch is a meal squeezed into our daily routine, hence restricted by time. Studies quoted in the introduction showed that lunch time is decreasing and our study indicated that people in Gothenburg spend around 37 minutes on lunch. Therefore, we believed that this factor represents a relatively important dimension for each lunch customer segment. As a result we found that age is the only factor that affects its importance, in a really powerfully way explaining 33,5% of the total variation (see Table 5.22).

**Table 5.22** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of speed of service

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.			
	B	Std. Error	Beta					
1	(Constant)	4,689	,154			30,402	,000	
	Age	-,313	,048			-,335	-6,486	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Speed of service

$$Y_{Speed} = 4,689 - 0,335x_2 \quad (R^2 = 0,335)$$

Regarding age we propose that as people get older they are less likely to evaluate the speed of service as an important factor. However, we expected that occupation was an influential factor, since it was not it was excluded from our model.

### FOOD VARIATION

“The Health Education Authority’s” study of healthy eating in low income groups discovered that consumers with very little money to spend adopted a “tunnel vision” approach to food shopping, choosing the same familiar food each time (Herne 1995:17). Food variation is also an important element when it comes to healthy and balanced diets since it offers the opportunity to have all

food components essential for our physiological functioning. Our study revealed that the importance of variation depends on age and income, affecting it in opposite directions (see Table 5.23).

**Table 5.23** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of familiarity

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,955	,192		20,632	,000
	Age	-,225	,055	-,229	-4,067	,000
	Income	,301	,069	,245	4,358	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Food variation

$$Y_{\text{variation}} = 3,995 - 0,229x_2 + 0,245x_4 \quad (R^2 = 0,274)$$

The result of our analysis is in concordance with the above introduced study. Moreover, it adds that with the increase of age, the importance of having a wide variety of lunch meals decreases. To see even more clearly we checked the means regarding the identified age clusters (see Table 5.24). Our findings show that food variation is the least important figure for respondents between 10-19 and the one above the age of 66.

**Table 5.24** Means of food variation importance within different age categories

Food variation			
Age	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
10-19	3,79	38	1,277
20-29	4,10	84	1,168
30-49	4,17	110	1,082
50-65	4,02	56	,863
66-	3,16	45	1,296
Total	3,95	333	1,168

CULTURE

Culture in broad terms has an enormous influence on all aspects of food consumption. Graves and Nitzke (2002) argued that cultural food practices not only affect taste preferences, but also shopping habits, manners, communication, and personal interactions. According to them, as people from varying backgrounds become acculturated into a society, their dietary habits tend to change. Sensitivity to what might be considered “good” or “bad” by persons from varying cultures is critical for all catering operators willing to tailor lunch meals to individuals within a cultural context. Considering the above variable, the multiple regression analysis only identified education as a significant influential power (see Table 5.25). The negative coefficient in the model represents the fact that highly educated people rated culture, traditions and habits significantly lower than their less educated counterparts. This insight can be interpreted as the diminishing power of education over cultural and traditional eating preferences.

**Table 5.25** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of culture and tradition

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,318	,205		11,299	,000
	Education	-,246	,087	-,154	-2,843	,005

a. Dependent Variable: Culture and traditions

$$Y_{Culture} = 2,318 - 0,154x_3 \quad (R^2 = 0,154)$$

EATING ENVIRONMENT

Herne (1995) noted that very little data exists on the influence of environment and situation. However, the basic premise is that the quality expected of food is a function of where it is eaten and the circumstances under which it is consumed.

Our investigation showed that respondents generally rated this variable low. Moreover significantly a linear relationship could have been found regarding only the ethnic background of respondents (see Table 5.26). Our finding indicates that people with an ethnic origin are willing to harmonize their lunch tastes with those of the surrounding environment and put more emphasis on the aspect of where the lunch meal is eaten.

**Table 5.26** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of the eating environment

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,510	,084		29,744	,000
	Ethnicity	,519	,184	,153	2,821	,005

a. Dependent Variable: Eating environment

$$Y_{Environment} = 2,510 + 0,153x_8 \quad (R^2 = 0,153)$$

#### ADVERTISEMENT

The media and its advertisements are powerful forces in influencing the food choices (Graves and Nitzke, 2002). In our study people rated the importance of this information relatively low, meaning that advertisements have low impact on the lunch meal selection according to our respondents. Differences among ratings were looked at three dimensions: gender, occupation and ethnicity (see Table 5.27)

**Table 5.27** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of advertisements

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,041	,129		15,819	,000
	Ethnicity	,417	,140	,159	2,974	,003
	Gender	,356	,114	,166	3,114	,002
	Occupation	-,081	,039	-,111	-2,078	,039

a. Dependent Variable: Advertisements

$$Y_{Advertisement} = 2,041 + 0,166x_1 - 0,111x_5 + 0,159x_8 \quad (R^2 = 0,254)$$

We propose that the female and ethnic lunch consumers in Gothenburg are more willing to listen and rely on advertisements regarding their lunch meal selection. Moreover, students and full-time workers also consider this information source. In some cases we were informed that these respondents read newspapers and have looked for special lunch meal offers advertised in newspapers. However, part-time or pensioner respondents seemed to be uninterested and less involved in this source of information.

#### APPEARANCE

Since appearance is a very important aspect of food products it is one of the major attributes that affect consumers' perception of lunch meals. It is an all inclusive term involving size, shape, texture, mass, gloss, color and other attributes such as translucency (Plater, 2001). Among them the initial outlook affects whether a food product is purchased or not. Hence, investigating the related importance is definitely essential. Our study found the difference among ratings could be reasoned by gender (see Table 5.28). The model shows that women marked the appearance variable with a higher importance level and were more concerned with similar issues when it came to choosing the preferred lunch meal.

**Table 5.28** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of appearance

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,024	,095		42,312	,000
	Gender	,319	,134	,129	2,383	,018

a. Dependent Variable: Appearance

$$Y_{Appearance} = 4,024 + 0,129x_1 \quad (R^2 = 0,129)$$

### TASTE

Taste is generally the most important factor influencing food choice. Graves and Nitzke (2002) noted that taste responses are affected initially by genetic, physiological and metabolic variables. Taste preferences are also modified by experiences related to one's gender, age, obesity, and eating behaviors according to them. The authors added that cultural food preferences also have significant impact on taste. Regarding our research we found gender and ethnicity to be the two variables that influence the importance of this lunch selection factor (see Table 5.29). Both variables have a negative impact on the model, meaning that female respondents as well as participants coming from outside of Sweden rated this variable with a higher value. This increased value implicitly reflects more strict and defined taste preferences regarding all the different options (e.g. sweet, sour, bitter).

**Table 5.29** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of taste

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,187	,095		44,058	,000
	Gender	,269	,125	,117	2,156	,032
	Ethnicity	,392	,152	,139	2,572	,011

a. Dependent Variable: Taste

- Analysis -

$$Y_{Taste} = 4,187 + 0,117x_1 + 0,139x_8 \quad (R^2 = 0,178)$$

ODOUR

The sense of smell was originally part of our survival system and is still a primitive and powerful sensory device, even though humans tend to link it to animals. Scents are hard for us to describe, but they leave strong memories. Since the smells can evoke or associate memories connected to a certain dish, its importance regarding food choices is beyond dispute. We have found that the importance of this meal selection factor is influenced by gender (see Table 5.30). Female respondent were more likely to rate it higher than their male ones.

**Table 5.30** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of odour

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,223	,086		49,300	,000
	Gender	,369	,121	,165	3,058	,002

a. Dependent Variable: Odour

$$Y_{Odor} = 4,223 + 0,165x_1 \quad (R^2 = 0,224)$$

TEMPERATURE

Temperature was an important feature regarding the Swedish lunch (see Tellström, 2003). Since we assume that cold food is easily accessible, this variable in general reflects the desire to have a warm lunch meal. Our findings proved that income and workload maintains a positive linear relationship in the model (see Table 5.31). Simply meaning, that for people with higher income it is more important to have cooked meal for lunch, in parallel with respondents doing hard physical work.

**Table 5.31** Socio-economic factors affecting the importance of temperature

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,448	,203		17,023	,000
	Income	,173	,066	,140	2,606	,010
	Workload	,292	,091	,173	3,217	,001

a. Dependent Variable: Temperature

$$Y_{Temp} = 3,448 + 0,140x_4 + 0,173x_6 \quad (R^2 = 0,254)$$

### 5.2.2. Adapting Kahn's model

As it was introduced in the *Literature Review*, Khan (1981) clustered the above introduced variables into six major blocks. Although the author used biological, physiological and psychological variables in the same way as other features mentioned above we believe that these factors hold special and distinct characteristics that may explain changes regarding their application. To be more precise, among the three aspects involved we see biological and physiological factors as variables that can describe individuals in a „standardized and measurable” way. In turn, psychological aspects are hardly definable ones and could be regarded as personal factors like mood, emotion, feelings etc. Hence they were removed from this category and placed within personal factors.

Along with these insights the heart of our model lies in the assumption that all individuals can be described with some quantifiable general characteristics such as age, gender, education etc. These eight values represent the independent variables that describe all lunch customers in the same way. Around the subject we placed those features that, according to the literature, determine the food selection patterns.



Further on our aim was to see how these dependent variables (19) are affected by the identified independent ones; consequently also explaining different food selection patterns regarding various lunch customers. Since the 19 different food choice variables represent a diverse and hardly tangible group of separate entities, we have decided to group them into larger, general blocks. Finally we came up with the following general categories:

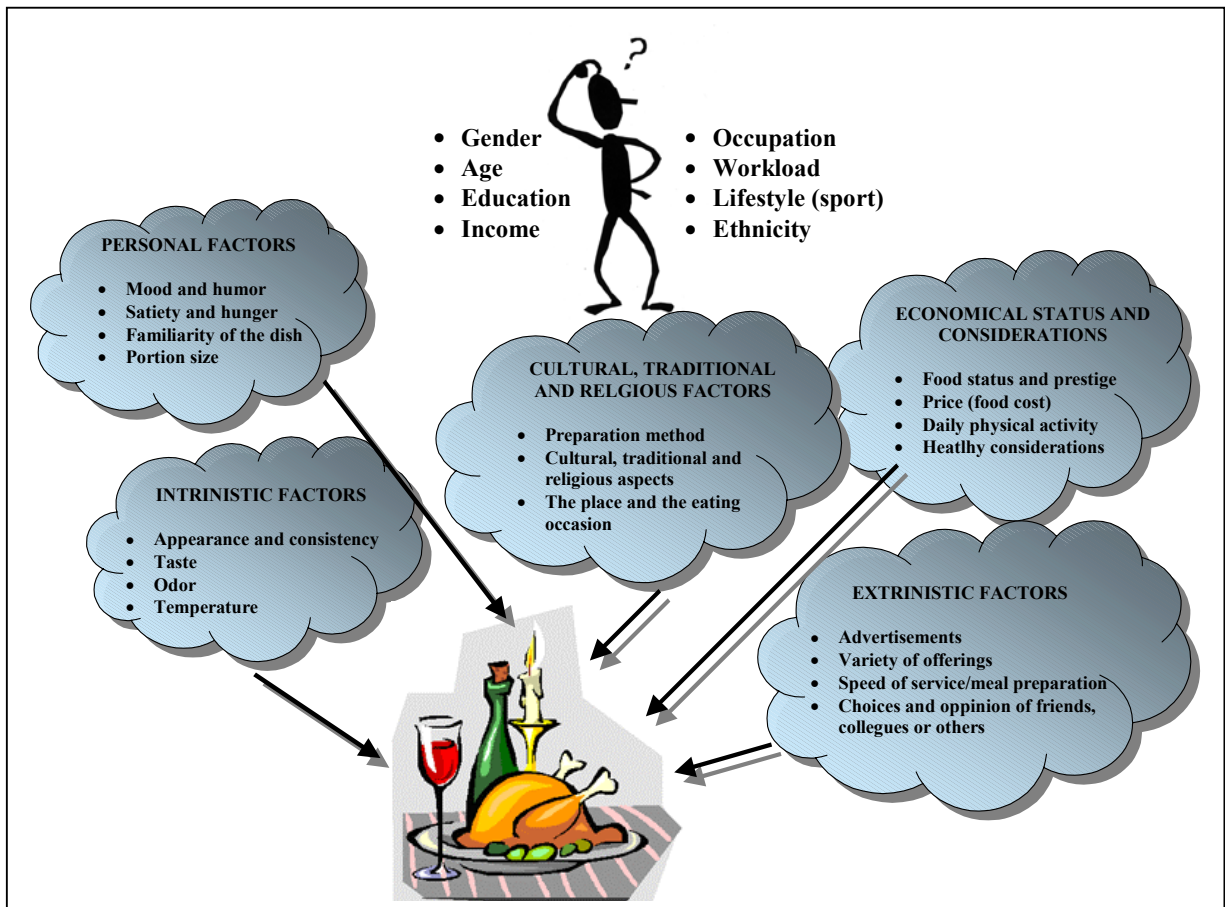
1. *Personal factors*: these factors are related to the individual and describe them specifically. Khan (1981) points out that “a person selects food rather than nutrients for his or her diet” (Khan,1981:129). Choice at this individual level is a function of several interrelated aspects of personality like mood, humor, actual satiety and hunger or even the familiarity of the dishes (previous experience). Since portion size is relatively based on personal preferences and is closely related to the nutritional intake of the individual, determined by satiety and hunger, additionally this variable was also included in this block.
2. *Economical status and considerations*: Beside pure economic considerations such as food cost that is reflected in the importance of price, Sinnet and Lord (1986) argue that “the economic status of a society determines various aspects of individuals’ lifestyles including eating patterns, physical activity, standards of health and hygiene” (Sinnet and Lord, 1986, cited in Herne, 1995:16). Along this line four different variables were identified: food status and prestige, price (food cost), daily physical activity and healthy considerations.
3. *Cultural, traditional and religious factors*: Culture has a definite significant impact on food consumption. The importance of this factor reflects which food is regarded as acceptable, when and where it should be eaten, who should prepare it, what cooking method should be used and other food etiquette concerns. Accordingly, the following variables

were added to this: preparation method, cultural traditional and religious aspects.

4. *Extrinsic factors*: refer to the “outer” environment that may have significant impact on individuals’ meal selection. These include environment, advertisements, the variety of offerings, the speed of service/meal preparation and the choice of who to spend the meal time with.

5. *Intrinsic factors*: The elements found here in general aim to affect the sensory devices of people and therefore can effectively influence food selection.

After encompassing all the 19 food choice variables into five major blocks we designed the following model (Figure 5.4).



**Figure 5.4** Modeling the affects of socio-economic variables on food choice

### 5.2.3 Quantifying the food choice model

Further on multiple regressions were run in order to see which of the independent variables determine these newly classified groups. The following tables provide the regression equation that describes the linear relationship between the variables (under the significance level of .05).

#### PERSONAL FACTORS

Personal factors are affected by gender, age, occupation and ethnicity (see Table 5.32). The analysis shows that female customers put less emphasis on personal factors when it comes to lunch meal selection in line with older people. Occupation and ethnic background however, have a positive impact. This means that part time workers, pensioners or unemployed people are more likely to listen to their emotional and daily temper, in comparison to students or full time employed individuals. In the case of the former, we believe that the monotony or the daily routine gives respondents a stable state of inner mode that they are less likely to consider personal factors as an influential variable.

**Table 5.32** Socio-economic factors affecting personal factors

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	16,790	,452		37,147	,000
	Ethnicity	1,149	,368	,161	3,123	,002
	Age	-,870	,161	-,354	-5,403	,000
	Gender	-1,254	,297	-,215	-4,218	,000
	Occupation	,537	,130	,270	4,146	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Personal

$$Y_{Personal} = 16,790 - 0,215x_1 - 0,354x_2 + 0,270x_5 + 0,161x_8 \quad (R^2 = 0,164)$$

ECONOMICAL STATUS AND CONSIDERATIONS

Lifestyle in terms of sports and ethnicity were found as variables having a positive impact on this model block (see Table 5.33). Surprisingly income and age did not make it to be included in the final model. However in case we don't consider our restrictions regarding the significance level and raise it up till .01, these two variables are also included (see Table 5.34).

**Table 5.33** Socio-economic factors affecting economic status and considerations on significance level of 0.05

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	12,108	,324		37,339	,000
	Lifestyle (sport)	,825	,155	,278	5,338	,000
	Ethnicity	1,522	,364	,217	4,177	,000

$$Y_{socio-eco} = 12,108 + 0,278x_7 + 0,217x_7 \quad (R^2 = 0,167)$$

**Table 5.34** Socio-economic factors affecting economic status and considerations on significance level of 0.1

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	12,328	,581		21,213	,000
	Age	-,242	,135	-,101	-1,795	,074
	Income	,281	,164	,094	1,722	,086
	Lifestyle (sport)	,770	,157	,259	4,907	,000
	Ethnicity	1,453	,368	,207	3,946	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Socioecon

CULTURAL, TRADITIONAL AND RELIGIOUS FACTORS

Five socio-economic variables were found as significant ones regarding the cultural, traditional and religious factors (see Table 5.35). We stress that female respondents are more involved in these issues in line with higher income and

ethnic background. Education, on the other hand, negatively impacts the model and reduces the importance as subjects get more and more educated.

**Table 5.35** Socio-economic factors affecting cultural and traditional factors

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,696	,371		12,661	,000
	Gender	,883	,182	,257	4,842	,000
	Ethnicity	,555	,222	,132	2,504	,013
	Education	-,345	,131	-,140	-2,642	,009
	Income	,335	,096	,186	3,480	,001

a. Dependent Variable: Cultr

$$Y_{Culture} = 4,696 + 0,257x_1 - 0,140x_3 + 0,186x_4 + 0,132x_8$$

#### INTRINISTIC FACTORS

Gender and workload were found as influential variables (see Table 5.36). Among them gender has an overall affect, while it is only the higher importance of the temperature that explains the inclusion of workload within the model.

**Table 5.36** Socio-economic factors affecting intrinsic factors

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	15,824	,497		31,844	,000
	Gender	1,044	,396	,142	2,633	,009
	Workload	,620	,285	,118	2,179	,030

a. Dependent Variable: Intrinsic

$$Y_{Intrin} = 15,824 + 0,142x_1 + 0,118x_6 \quad (R^2=0,055)$$

EXTRINISTIC FACTORS

The importance of the outer environment is dominated by three figures: gender, age and ethnicity (see Table 5.37). Among them age is the only one that has a negative impact on the model, simply indicating that older people rate this component with a lower level of importance. On the other hand female respondents are more concerned with these issues in concordance with participants coming from outside of Sweden.

**Table 5.37** Socio-economic factors affecting extrinsic factors

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	16,429	,509		32,274	,000
	Age	-,764	,142	-,281	-5,373	,000
	Gender	,790	,333	,122	2,372	,018
	Ethnicity	1,170	,415	,148	2,818	,005

a. Dependent Variable: Extr

$$Y_{Extrin} = 16,429 + 0,122x_1 - 0,281x_2 + 0,148x_3 \quad (R^2 = 0,189)$$

5.2.4 Summary

All food choice models nicely represent that food selection, like any other complex human behavior, is influenced by many interrelating factors (Shepherd, 2001). However, these models are not quantitative ones, meaning that they do not explain the likely mechanism for these different factors, nor quantify their relative importance or how they interact. Deriving from our collected data we tried to overcome this kind of shortcoming of the general model and apply it on the Swedish lunch market.

As result we delineated the effects that influence food choice and also expressed the relative importance of each factor. Nevertheless, the real value of our model is embedded in its ability to identify and quantify which socio-econometric variable that influences to what extent the model blocks are

important. We believe that finally we can present the reader with a structure that offers a deeper understanding of the decision making process and food selection patterns by revealing linear structural relationships among food choice factors and various lunch customer characteristics.

### **5.3 Eating out analysis**

In concordance with our research questions and the whole organization of our thesis the last and final block of analysis will deal with the phenomenon of eating out in terms of lunch in Gothenburg. Within these paragraphs we will mainly focus on why people in Gothenburg go and eat out and since they decided to do so, how they select the desired lunch place. Additionally we will also investigate if there are any socio-econometric variables that may explain differences in the number of eating out occasions.

#### *5.3.1 Frequency of eating out*

Many factors like: gender, age, household income, education were listed as variables that affect the number of times people eat out (see Warde and Martens, 2000; Swedish National Food Administration, 2003; Westman and Skans, 2001). The studies quoted before indicate positive associations between education, age and income. Regarding our study the SPSS analysis filtered four determinant factors that impact the number of times people eat lunch out (see Table 5.38).

**Table 5.38** Socio-economic factors affecting the number of eating out occasions

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1,149	,480		2,395	,017
	Gender	-,341	,203	-,086	-1,676	,095
	Education	,532	,152	,187	3,497	,001
	Income	,372	,107	,180	3,477	,001
	Occupation	-,272	,072	-,201	-3,779	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Eating out/week

The model shows that gender, education, income and occupation have a significant linear relationship with the dependent variable. The reasoning power of the model is 14,8% ( $R^2=0,148$ ). Through the application of the outputs the following equation was prepared:

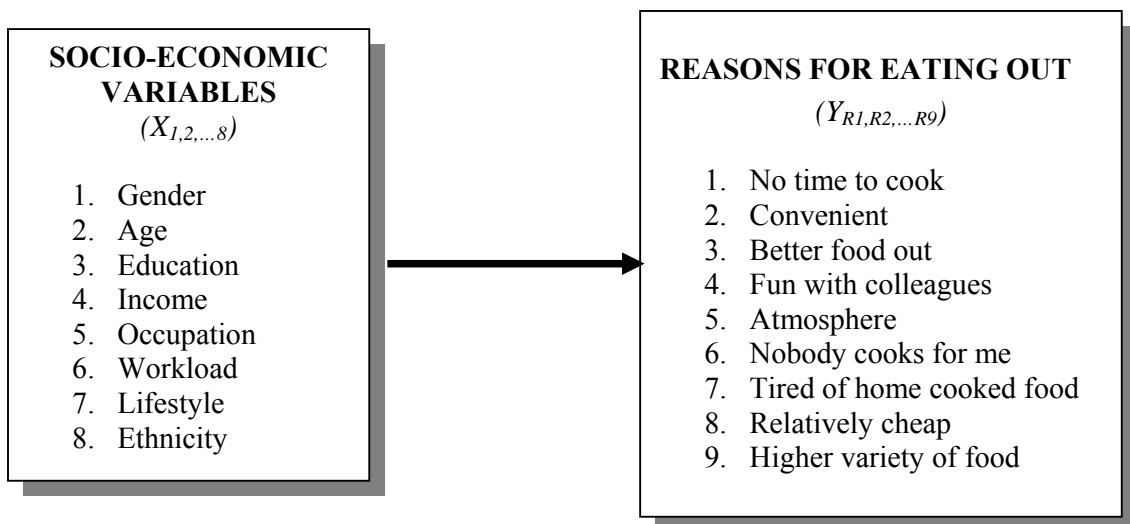
$$Y_{\#eatingout} = 1,149 - 0,086x_1 + 0,187x_3 + 0,180x_4 - 0,201x_5$$

Interestingly, based on our results we could declare that it is more likely male “Gothenburgers” who eat out. Besides gender, the level of education and income positively influences the number of lunch meals bought and eaten outside from home. In other words it means that highly educated people are more likely to eat out in line with consumers having higher salaries. On the other hand considering our occupation categories we can also assert that students and day time workers eat out more than part time workers, pensioners or “other” (e.g. “*mamaledig*” or unemployed) category. To sum up we suggest that since occupation is the most important influential factor in the model it is mainly the available time and the “tense of social context” that affects the eating out occasions.



### 5.3.2 Reasons for eating out

Question 13 highlighted ten dependent variables that may explain why lunch customers choose eating out as a way to get their daily lunch meal. In the following paragraphs we will present our findings on how the 8 socio-economic variables influencing the choice frequency of the reasoning variables (see Figure 5.5)



**Figure 5.5** The relationship between socio-economic factors and reasons for eating lunch out

In concordance with the analysis process described in the methodology (c.f. 3.7) firstly we will present the results of the Chi-square methods indicating those socio-economic variables that may explain differences in the number of times respondents had chosen the relevant dependent variable (see Table 5.39).

**Table 5.39** Socio-economic factors reasoning differences in choosing frequencies

	Gender	Age	Edu.	Income	Occ.	Work load	Sport	Ethnicity
No time to cook		.056						
Convenient		.000			.000			
Better food out	.000	.002	.061	.020	.001			
Fun with colleagues	.056	.000	.042		.000			
Atmosphere	.001				.007			
Nobody cooks for me		.000	.049	.007				
Tired of home cooked food	.012	.000	.045		.000			
Relatively cheap	.006	.030		.000				
Higher variety of food	.006	.035				.018	.030	.090

\* the boxes indicate significance levels

#### NO TIME TO COOK HOME

Overall respondents rated this attribute as the third most important one. However, age was the only variable that may explain differences among responses. After analyzing the cross tabulation table representing both the actual and expected counts we found that the younger generation (20-29) is more likely to chose this reason for eating out. Later, age as the only independent variable was put into a linear regression model, where a negative linear relationship (-.100) was determined (sig .068).

#### CONVENIENT

The most important factor regarding eating out is affected by two components: age and occupation (sig .000). However, if we combine these factors in one regression model it turns out that it is only occupation that has a significant impact (sig .008). Further on freeing the model from the age variable we could see that on a .000 significance level occupation has a negative influence (-0.224). This means that the probability of choosing this variable apart from students and day time workers, are lower than in other cases.

#### BETTER FOOD OUT

Better food prepared by catering operators was rated as the second most important and relevant factor describing why people in Gothenburg choose to eat lunch out. The five different factors indicated by the Chi-square analysis were finally reduced to two components: gender and occupation. Gender showed positive (+.299) while occupation proved to have a negative (-.241) affect (sig .000). Female respondents chose "better food out" as reason for eating out. On the other hand the negative effect of occupation meant that people having more available time do not regard food prepared and served out as better than home made ones. This attitude could be explained by the fact that compared to their busy counterparts, e.g. students, day time or part-time workers, they may have more time to collect good ingredients and prepare good quality home-made lunches.

#### FUN WITH COLLEAGUES

Among the three variables indicated in the Chi-square table of our regression analysis, it was seen that it is solely occupation that significantly influences the selection of this variable. The linear regression model suggests a positive relationship (.135), expressing that people with more time and lunch breaks that

are more flexible, may explain or chose eating out in order to have fun with their friends and colleagues. On the other hand surprisingly those people who face a tenses social environment regarding their lunch place, in our survey indicated that they have neglected to choose this aspect as a possible reason. We believe that this kind of strange attitude is due to the assumption that both students and daytime workers take lunch company for granted.

#### ATMOSPHERE

Many people claim that a lunch break is a chance to escape from the daily routine and relax. In this sense the change of the environment is essential. This desire could be seen as the need to experience a friendly nice atmosphere (rated as the fourth most important item). During our analysis we have found two components: age and occupation as factors that significantly describe a linear relationship regarding the dependent variable. Finally the cleared regression model indicated that age was the only factor that affected the need to experience a nice atmosphere. Surprisingly it has a positive impact .174 (sig .001), meaning that older people tend to explain their choice of eating out with this factor, implicitly embodying the desire to have a break in the daily routine.

#### NOBODY COOKS FOR ME

This reason is mainly depends on the cooking ability of respondents. Among the three variables: age, education and income, it was the first two that finally have been extracted as influential factors regarding our linear model (both of them in a negative direction). In terms of education this meant that it is most likely young and lesser educated people who explain their eating out due to the absence of somebody to take care of their daily lunch. Age is a more powerful reasoning force within this model.

During the Chi-square analysis we found that the “selection frequency” of this factor is not continuously decreasing (see Table 5.40.). The ratio is high in regard to the younger generations, while it drops back in regard to the middle aged people and finally it also shows an increase when it comes to old people.

**Table 5.40** Cross-tabulation of age and “nobody cooks for me at home”

		Age					Total
		10-19	20-29	30-49	50-65	66-	
Nobody cooks for me at home	Count	28	74	106	58	34	300
	Expected Count	35,0	76,3	98,8	53,9	35,9	300,0
1	Count	11	11	4	2	6	34
	Expected Count	4,0	8,7	11,2	6,1	4,1	34,0
Total	Count	39	85	110	60	40	334
	Expected Count	39,0	85,0	110,0	60,0	40,0	334,0

#### TIRED OF HOME COOKED FOOD

Not many of the respondents chose this variable as a possible reason (35). However with regards to those who did, at first glance it seemed that gender, age, education and occupation were the reasoning forces. Among them our regression finally removed age (sig .000) and gender (sig .009) as the factors that have impact on this variable. According to these results we can assert that men are more likely to claim that they are tired of home cooked lunches and thereby choose eating out. In regard with age not surprisingly as respondents get older they also tend to choose this factor.

#### RELATIVELY CHEAP

Gender (sig .031) and income (sig .000) took part in the regression model. It was interesting to see that men rate eating out as relatively cheap compared to women. This insight may highlight differences in price sensitivity. Income implicitly had a strong impact on this variable, since in most of the cases, it was the comparative measurement. Calnan and Cant’s (1990) work asserted that

women were more price conscious and put more emphasis on cost factors. Although their study was conducted among people coming from the working class we believe that it is still applicable in support with our findings.

#### HIGHER VARIETY OF FOOD

Although the Chi square method nicely pointed out that there were many factors influencing this variable as a possible choice, the regression analysis only indicated two relevant factors: gender (sig .006) and education (sig .024). According to the table male respondents have chosen this category more often than female ones. However, even more surprisingly it showed that education had a negative affect on this factor meaning that lesser educated respondents claim food variety as their reason for eating out (please note that it can also mean that these people are more likely to eat monotonously, but we have no evidence to support this assumption).

Finally, after the detailed analysis of all factors, we have created a model consisting of 9 equations. The model describes the reasoning factors in the linear relationship with 5 (out of 8) independent variables: gender, age, education, income and occupation. In our research the other three variables: workload (type of work), lifestyle and ethnic background had no significant linear impact on the dependent variables.

$$Y_{R1} = 0,543 - 0,100x_2$$

$$Y_{R2} = 0,828 - 0,224x_5$$

$$Y_{R3} = 0,609 - 0,299x_1 - 0,241x_5$$

$$Y_{R4} = 0,133 + 0,135x_2$$

$$Y_{R5} = 0,199 + 0,174x_2$$

$$Y_{R6} = 0,351 - 0,169x_2 - 0,120x_3$$

- Analysis -

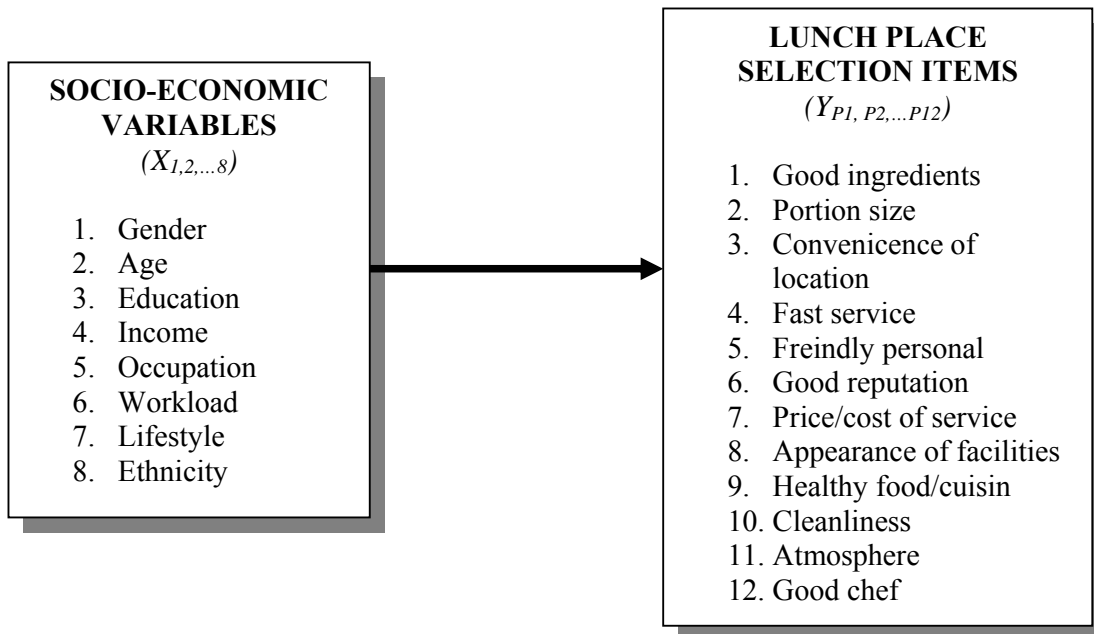
$$Y_{R7} = -0,051 - 0,139x_1 + 0,259x_2$$

$$Y_{R8} = -0,36 - 0,115x_1 + 0,256x_4$$

$$Y_{R9} = 0,496 - 0,148x_1 - 0,122x_3$$

### 5.3.3 Lunch place selection patterns

As discussed earlier, our survey revealed the most important factors of the lunch place selection pattern in Gothenburg. In order to develop and expand on these findings, the following paragraphs will discuss how different socio-economic variables affect the importance of the twelve lunch place selection variables (see Figure 5.6). We will also present a detailed model by preparing equations for the all twelve independent variables and we also highlight some of the most important findings that as we believe may be interesting for the reader to be discuss more deeply.



**Figure 5.6** The relationship between socio-economic factors and lunch place selection items

The “first step” analysis showed that without exception all of our applied socio-economic variables had significant impact on the identified twelve place selection items. Portion size, friendly employees, cleanliness and fast service seemed to be the ones described by the bulk of factors (see Table 5.41).

**Table 5.41** Socio-economic factors reasoning differences in choosing frequencies

	Gender	Age	Edu.	Income	Occ.	Work load	Sport	Ethnicity
Good ingredients	.001			.008				
Portion size	.000	.000	.001	.001	.000		.003	
Convenience of location		.024			.019			
Fast service		.000	.008		.000		.071	
Friendly personal		.004	.001		.038	.052	.024	
Good reputation	.018			.003				
Price/cost of Service		.000		.000	.000			
Appearance of facilities	.004			.000	.000			
Healthy food/cousin	.062		.038					.030
Cleanliness	.000		.042			.083	.077	
Atmosphere				.050				
Good chef		.041		.015			.071	

\* the boxes indicate significance levels



#### GOOD INGREDIENTS AND GOOD CHEF

An interesting comparison that our study tried to reveal was whether Gothenburgers appreciate more good ingredients in their lunches or a crafted chef / well cooked food. Overall it was the talented chef / well cooked food that won the competition. Regarding good ingredients the Chi square techniques suggested that it was gender and income that affected the choice of this variable. If we take a closer look at the frequencies within the groups it turns out that male customers are more likely to choose this option (97 count cases in respect with the expected value of 81,2). In terms of income we can assert that the highest category (above 30.000 SEK/month) is most concerned with this “value” showing interest 25 times of the cases compared to the expected value of 15,7. If we apply the multiple regression analysis it turns out that gender is the only significant component (sig.001) backed with a negative direction (-.186). The figure in point symbolizes that male lunch customers are more likely to be concerned with the lunch meal raw materials when it comes to eating out place selection.

With regard to the good chef it is income and lifestyle (physical activity) that affect the linear model, although in opposite directions (see Table 5.42). On one hand customers with higher wages are more concerned with the chef who prepares to food compared to their “poorer” counterparts. On the other, sportsmanship implies a negative impact on this factor, simply meaning that people with high physical activity are less interested in the art of gastronomy when they choose lunch place.

**Table 5.42** Socio-economic factors affecting the choice of “good chef”

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	,503	,085		5,932	,000
	Income	,079	,028	,153	2,829	,005
	Physical activity	-,060	,028	-,117	-2,177	,030

a. Dependent Variable: Good chef

#### PORTION SIZE

Our study found that this variable is influenced by many factors, hence the linear regression model provides us with a more simple and clearer picture regarding the variables involved and their direction (please note that the explaining power of the model is also considerable 32,3% ( $R^2 = 0,323$ ). Our results point out that it is only gender, education and income that have significant impact on the selection of this variable (all of them in a negative direction). With a practical example, it means that it is less likely to be selected as an important variable by a highly educated rich woman. It also seems that education helps people to understand that quantity does not equal quality.

#### CONVENIENCE OF LOCATION

Convenience of location was influenced by two factors: age and occupation (we have the assumption that these factors are closely related to each other on sig. level .000). Our linear regression model finally extracted occupation as the only affecting variable with the value of -.113 (sig. .099). The increasing spare time that is in line with the increase of occupation value seems to diminish the importance of location. In other words respondents without a strict time schedule are more likely to go further just to have lunch. Here it is also worth mentioning that age implies a negative, but not significant, effect on the model meaning that as people get older convenience is not that important.

FAST SERVICE

The analysis of the fast service variable seems to underline our previous assumption that it is determined by the available time (regarding lunch break). Hence, occupation was found to be an influential factor. However, this insight is only partially true, since the model also indicated that age was an even more significant power. This means that young people appreciate it more if lunch meals are served faster.

FRIENDLY PERSONAL AND ATMOSPHERE

With respect to the need to be served by a friendly personal our study found that age, education and the lifestyle (sports) were its determinants. Strange to say, but in opposition with age, education and lifestyle had a negative impact on the importance of this factor. This means that highly educated people and sportsmen rate it less important to be served by cordial employees.

**Table 5.43** Socio-economic factors affecting the choice of “friendly personal”

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	,661	,141		4,692	,000
Age	,047	,023	,112	2,035	,043
Education	-,111	,039	-,155	-2,851	,005
Physical activity	-,076	,027	-,149	-2,775	,006

a. Dependent Variable: Friendly personal

Although with regard to atmosphere the Chi-square analysis indicated that income was the only dimension along which frequencies were significantly different within the categories, linear relationship was only seen in terms of workload (sig .090). The direction of this effect was negative meaning that people having intellectually stimulating work and that sit more are more

attracted by a nice atmosphere, compared to people doing exhausting physical work.

#### GOOD REPUTATION

One of our most interesting findings in regard with the lunch place selection was that our study revealed that a good reputation and fame are more likely to influence male lunch customers place selection. Still, within this component we assert that with the increase of income the relevance of this factor is also strengthened.

#### PRICE

With regards price we can state that two components are significant in the linear regression model: income and occupation. Implicitly income negatively affects the frequency of this variable (-.395) while occupation has a positive affect (.108). Additionally these two variables explain 16,3% of the overall variation ( $R^2=.163$ ) In the case of occupation, pensioners and other occupation categories are more concerned with this aspect. One may argue that this can be explained by the decline in income regarding the categories in point. However, in opposition we assert that no evidence for correlation have been found between the two factors.

#### APPEARANCE AND CLEANNESS

While the importance of appearance is influenced by occupation and gender, cleanness is solely by gender. To conclude we assert that female customers are more influenced by there eyes and put more emphasis both on their sensory devices and their hygienic considerations. As for occupation our study indicated that for students and day time workers cleanness of the lunch place is more important. This insight might show that in these cases respondents were not totally satisfied with this component of the lunch place.

## HEALTHY CUISINE

Surprisingly the lifestyle (sport) of respondents did not make it into the linear model of the healthy food/cuisine. The three determinants we have tracked were gender, education and ethnic background. All three variables had a positive effect on the model meaning that highly educated, female customers coming from outside of Sweden were more concerned about the healthiness of food and cuisine that the lunch place offers.

The twelve different lunch place issues discussed above could be framed in the form of twelve equations that specifically describe the relationship between dependent and independent variables. These equations are listed below:

$$\begin{aligned}Y_{p1} &= 0,571 - 0,186x_1 \\Y_{p2} &= 1,093 - 0,518x_1 - 0,140x_3 - 0,250x_4 \\Y_{p3} &= 0,696 - 0,136x_5 \\Y_{p4} &= 0,716 - 0,159x_2 - 0,155x_5 \\Y_{p5} &= 0,661 + 0,112x_2 - 0,155x_3 - 0,149x_7 \\Y_{p6} &= 0,015 - 0,108x_1 + 0,171x_4 \\Y_{p7} &= 0,978 - 0,395x_4 + 0,108x_5 \\Y_{p8} &= 0,197 + 0,165x_1 - 0,106x_5 \\Y_{p9} &= 0,183 + 0,104x_1 + 0,099x_3 + 0,1x_8 \\Y_{p10} &= 0,376 + 0,251x_1 \\Y_{p11} &= 0,384 - 0,093x_6 \\Y_{p12} &= 0,503 + 0,153x_4 - 0,117x_7\end{aligned}$$

### *5.3.4 Clustering the lunch place selection variables*

As previously highlighted in the methodology we have followed a “tripartial” construct when we prepared the lunch place selection block, so with the exception of one, we have organized all eleven variables into these three major clusters: Food/product component, Place/servicescape and Service/intangible component.

- Analysis -

The odd one was income, since we could not decide whether it is a service or food related component, moreover we believe that is a distinct item that can form a separate category on its own. Regarding price no separate analysis was conducted since it simply matched the linear regression model discussed before.

FOOD/PRODUCT COMPONENT

This component is made up by the following dependent variables: good ingredients, portion size and healthy food/cuisine. Regarding the linear regression analysis we found that gender and lifestyle are the two influential factors. The food component is more highly rated by male customers than female ones, while “active males” also consider this aspect as an essential one when it comes to choosing the desired lunch place.

$$Y_{FOOD} = 1,352 - 0,320 x_1 + 0,1x_7$$

PLACE COMPONENT (SERVICESCAPE)

With regards to this component the following factors were included: convenience of location, good reputation, appearance of facilities and cleanliness. Our investigation showed that gender and income are the significant factors. In contradiction to the food component, when it comes to place related factors female respondents indicated higher importance (more properly have chosen them more frequently). Additionally income also maintains a positive relationship in the model, simply meaning that the more money the individuals earn the more likely they are to rate these factors higher and deliver decisions along these dimensions.

$$Y_{PLACE} = 1,134 + 0,259x_1 + 0,157x_4$$

#### SERVICE/INTANGIBLE COMPONENT

Finally the service component encompassed four different items: speed of service (fast service), friendly personal, atmosphere, a talented chef. The results deriving from our investigation showed that the two significant factors work against each other. While income positively, the lifestyle of the respondents negatively affects this component. With regards to the lifestyle we can state that this independent component places the emphasis on the food component while neglects the service offers. Simply put, this means that these kinds of customers are more likely to make their decisions along rational or easily quantifiable measures like nutritional values, ingredients, calories, etc.

$$Y_{SERVICE} = 1,399 + 0,09x_4 - 0,13x_7$$





## 6. CONCLUSIONS

*Throughout our study we have followed a kind of “tripartial” segmentation method outlined in the introduction. Within concluding section the same process will be followed. Firstly we will talk about general eating patterns, then we turn to our findings on food choice and finally we will discuss some of the issues related to eating out. Since some managerial benefits were pointed out in the beginning of this thesis, we thought that it would be valuable to apply them to our study. Hence, within the following paragraphs we try to be as practical as possible and outline some of the findings that we believe can serve as useful guidelines for the relevant hospitality industry.*

### 6.1 Evaluation of the socio-economic variables

Overall we saw that all of our identified variables were included in the created models. However in some cases they were more or less powerful ones. It was interesting to see that regarding the three major blocks, different factors turned out to be influential ones. With some examples: the first block was dominated by age and occupation. However, when it turned to actual lunch meal selection, gender and education were involved and occupation dropped out. Regarding food choice, gender and age were again frequent explanatory factors, but besides them ethnicity also appeared in this part of the investigation. Finally, when it came to eating out gender, lifestyle, income and occupation became influencing forces. This insight of ours nicely reflects that in various circumstances different groups of variables have reasoning power.

Still, regarding socio-economic variables, it was interesting to see that workload hardly had any influence on the dependent variables. This insight reflects the fact discussed in the introduction that lunch or eating has moved beyond simply appeasing appetite or fulfilling pure biological necessities.

We found that almost all over our study occupation was a powerful describing power. This may highlight two issues: firstly that lunch is pretty much determined and restricted by time, and secondly that it differs from other types of meals in terms of social context (it is more likely to be spent among colleagues or friends). These two aspects we believe give the specific nature of lunch and may be a field for more in depth investigation.

## **6.2 General eating pattern**

The first block showed some trends, preferences and attitudes towards lunch. In general its value is embedded in its ability to come up with a menu classification adapted from Beardsworth and Kiel (1997). The literature review outlined the author's scheme prepared along six dimensions. With the help of our findings we could group the Swedish lunch customers in one of these different menu types (see Table 6.1)

**Table 6.1** Lunch menu differentiation along socio-economic variables

<b>Traditional menu</b>	Old people (50-)	Lesser or middle educated	Part time, unemployed or pensioner (more spare time)	Low number of hours spent on sports (0-6hrs/week)	Income categories above 20000 SEK/month
<b>Rational menu</b>	Distinct lifestyle profile (above 7 hours of sport per week)	Female dominated	Income categories above 20000 SEK/month	Middle - Older generation (30-65)	
<b>Convenience menu</b>	Younger Generations (10-29)	Part time, unemployed (more spare time)	Hard or light physical work		
<b>Economy menu</b>	Income category under 10000 SEK/month				
<b>Hedonistic menu</b>	Income categories above 20000 SEK/month	Mature population age (50-65)	University level of education	Male dominated	
<b>Moral menu</b>	Female dominated	Distinct lifestyle profile (above 7 hours of sports per week)	Younger-middle generation (20-39)		

Using these menus businesses can analyze their customers and present them with the most fitting menu types and meals, hence better serve their needs. We previously did the detailed menu analysis within the analysis part where we checked responses to the imaginary menu.

### **6.3 Food choice model**

Food choice can be seen as a primary concern to those involved in producing and manufacturing foods, since their major interest is in selling products. In order to promote food and sell it, operators definitely need to understand factors that are important and appealing for different customers. This can lead to the better allocation of marketing forces related to meal promotion and therefore substantially contribute to increased marketing efficiency. In particular, only with an adequate understanding of the reasons for people's food choice can these businesses attempt to make changes or better serve the needs.

Shepherd (2001) noted that the integration of these dimensions into a coherent and quantitative model of food choice remains an area in need of development. Hence we tried to fulfill this demand; we prepare a schematic model representing food choices on the basis of socio-economic variables (see Appendix 2). Through the application of the new quantified model companies can identify important and distinct factors in regards to the customers served. Our model generally reveals a good prediction of behaviors and can be used to determine the relative importance of different factors in influencing food choice. We believe that this approach offers a useful method for the prediction of proximal influences on food choice.

We believe our findings offer a good and schematic pattern for industry members to investigate the decision making process and therefore develop efficient marketing strategies that also contribute to the product development. Since people choose what they find appealing it is indispensable to know the dimension along which they evaluate food. Along the importance scale businesses can develop the "best fit" products and identify the most appealing features.

- *Conclusions* -

Through the education of front line employees they can outline those meal dimensions that are appealing for different types of customers, hence contribute to marketing efficiency. With a practical example: the extrinsic values would be the most important ones for young, female customers with some kind of ethnic background, while personal factors influence young, male, full-time worker customers' lunch selection. With this information employees would know what features to emphasize more and how to approach customers in order to provide the highest achievable value "served on the plate".

Regarding food choice, we found that in Gothenburg lunch is often a reflection of the cultural values associated with the country of origin and is often resistant to change even in immigrant population. Therefore ethnicity as a food selection factor represents a significant variable in the overall model. Also, gender as a variable was found to be important in terms of appearance, extrinsic and personal factors that highlight interesting contradictions. According to our analysis we propose that female lunch customers are more concerned with extraneous values and attributes compared to male respondents who were more likely to listen to their internal personal instances.

The model here was introduced as a useful tool for those selling lunch products. However, it is well known that the eating pattern of today's developed western societies shows harmful trends and leads to a series of public health problems such as obesity and various related cardiovascular diseases. Many studies suggest that these threats occur even to younger generations. Sweden is not an exception, hence models of this kind are not only a primary concern to those involved in producing and selling foods, but also for health promoting authorities and civil organizations willing to change society's choices and influence its dietary patterns. The application of these models within this field of research is proposed here as an interesting topic for future studies.

## **6.4 Eating out**

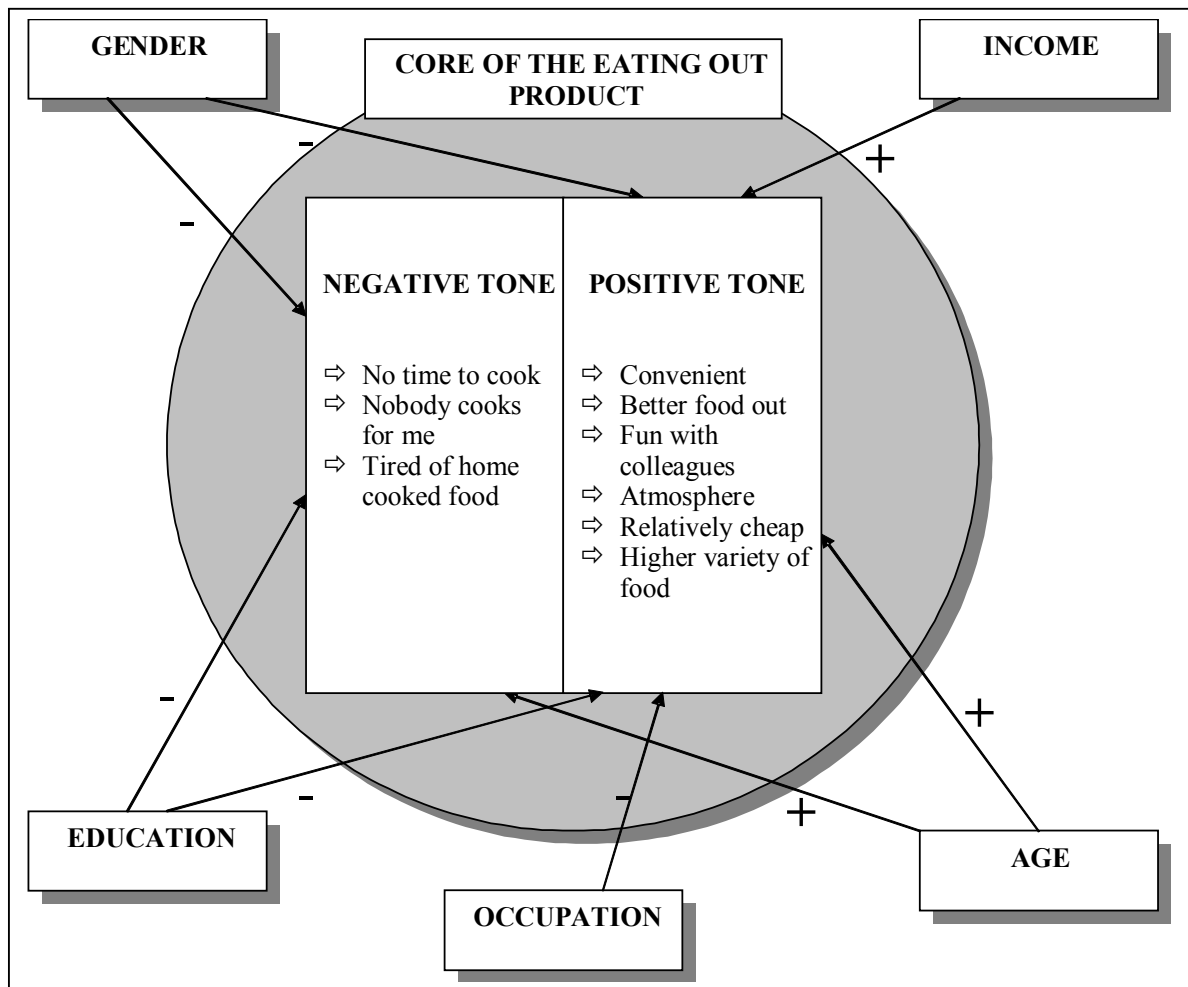
Our findings on eating out encompassed two major blocks, one was the reason why individuals decide on eating out, and the second was how they select the lunch place.

According to us, the reasons for eating out form the core of the lunch product. It is the essential need to buy the service and may also explain the basic expectation level of the individual. Hence, our investigation tried to reveal differences and point out issues for operators that need to be examined.

The reasons for eating out were mainly affected by gender, age and occupation. Among the nine identified reasons, three were attributed with a “negativistic tone” meaning that the driving force behind them was kind of obliging e.g. no time to cook; nobody cooks for me, or tired of home cooked meals. These items generally describe the young, male lesser educated generations. Note that in the “tired of home cooked food” group the old generation was also representative. Regarding the negativistic attitude, the expectation level of individuals was considerably low, meaning that satisfaction was not that much of a difficulty. Implicitly, the situation on the opposite side is far more challenging. The “positive tone” represents two things: on one hand the presence and satisfaction of the need, while on the other the shortage. These six cases were influenced by the same variables as above; however, the bulk was extended along the dimension of income. For us it meant that in the case of male, full time workers, between the age of 30-65 and with a relatively high income: convenience, better food out, fun with colleagues, higher variety and relatively cheap were factors in place. For part-time workers or pensioners, women and younger people, these aspects were missing.

This approach envisages either the shortage of the “positive tone” or the inappropriate description of the applied variables, hence future investigation in this field of eating out is suggested.

To conclude we stress that our study revealed two opposing sets of forces and their influencing socio-economic variables that push individuals towards eating out (see Figure 6.1). Further development in regards to optional reasoning variables would be beneficial. Hence it can be a topic for another topic of research study. Nevertheless, the reasons identified by us gave a general picture of different forces that may impact different lunch customers in Sweden.



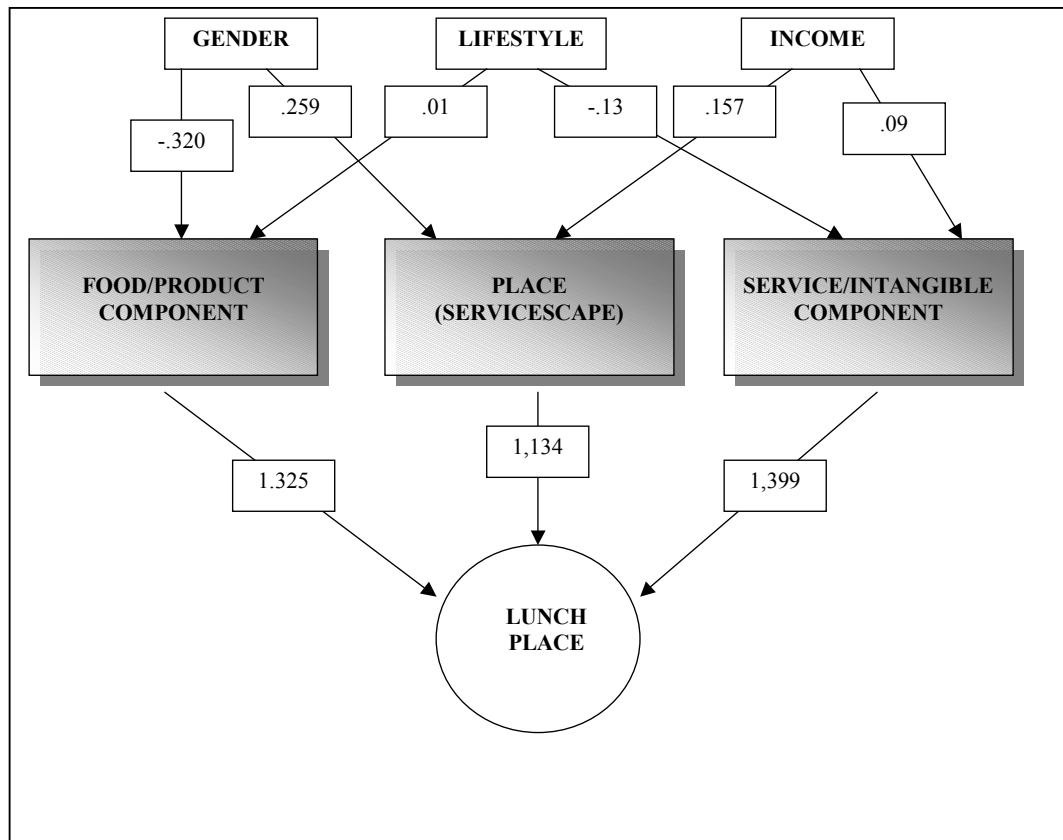
**Figure 6.1** The negative and positive reasoning tones and the influencing socio- economic variables

- *Conclusions* -

The lunch place selection pattern offers businesses a perceptual map along which they can place those marketing elements that they believe are appealing for different lunch customers. Our approach defined three blocks of place selection factors: product, place and service.

Regarding the above factors we found that women were more concerned with visual things connected to the servicescape, such appearance of facilities and cleanliness, while men were more involved in the product itself. It was interesting to see that our results showed that men were more attracted by good components than a good chef (while the opposite was true for women). These insights definitely give businesses with an idea of how to promote these aspects and target the relevant customer base. Income also affected the place component, meaning people with higher salaries were more concerned with the outlook in line with the provided services. Lifestyle, in regards to sports, was also a major concern in the place selection, since a distinct importance was placed on the product. Negligence of this service component was implicit. To make it more visual we have prepared a model describing the influential factors and their directions in regard to the three blocks (see Figure 6.2).





**Figure 6.2** Socio-economic factors affecting lunch place selection items

### 6.5 Summary

Beside the inevitable importance of conducting a market research among Swedish citizens' lunch preferences, throughout our research we aimed to come up with an overall eating out process description. Since the food choice model was presented as a general one it could be incorporated into the process of eating out.

Regarding the above consideration our study revealed and quantified those forces that push individuals towards eating out. The person decided to participate so our study analyzed how he/ she select the lunch place to eat at. Being in place we examined how he/she carried out the decision and chose a

- *Conclusions* -

lunch dish. Finally, through the application of the imaginary menu classification we also made an attempt to determine a complete lunch meal consumed at the place.

The results of this study can hopefully help managers from the hospitality industry to understand the underlying factors that influence lunch habits. Because our study was conducted only in Gothenburg, it would be of interest to do comparative studies in rest of big cities in Sweden, to define whether this could be applied more generally.

Every learning process involves realizing how things could have been done differently. This thesis has been no exception. However, being aware of it, we highlighted some of the shortcomings of our research and proposed future field of interests. We hope that the reader enjoyed reading our study and considered our findings as a comprehensive, original and hopefully innovative one.

## APPENDIX 1. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

### DIN LUNCH UPPLEVELSE

Vi är tacksamma för Ert deltagande i denna studie av svenskens genomsnittliga lunchätande. Den utförs av Handelshögskolan vid Göteborgs Universitet i samarbete med Arla Foods. Resultatet kommer att bidra till en bättre förståelse av vilken typ av lunch svenskar i genomsnitt föredrar att äta, vilka lunch vanor folk har, samt vad det är som gör att svensken väljer ett lunchställe framför ett annat. Dina inställningar, preferenser samt åsikter är viktiga för denna studie och svaren är anonyma.

**Instruktioner: Var god läs igenom varje fråga noggrant. Fyll i rutorna som representerar Ditt svar!**

*Fråga 1-11 är relaterade till den senaste lunchen Du åt!*

**1. Hur många gånger har Du ätit lunch de senaste SJU dagarna?**

.....

**2. Har Du ätit lunch idag?**             Ja                             Nej

**2.b Om du har inte har ätit lunch idag, När åt du lunch senast (t.ex. igår, förrgår o.s.v)?**

.....

**3. Vilket klockslag på dagen åt Du lunch senast? Ange på ett ungefär!**

Start klockan:        .....                            till klockan:        .....

**4. Hur mycket pengar spenderade Du när du Senast åt lunch?**

.....(KRONOR)

**5.a Vad åt Du senast till lunch? Specificera exakt vad du åt! Vad hette maträtten?**

Maträttens namn:

.....

”Sovel” (t.ex. kött, fisk, veg.)

.....

Grönsaker (t.ex. tomat, sallad)

Tillbehör (t.ex. potatis, ris, pasta)

.....

**5.b Ät Du till lunchen....?**  Bröd  Smör på brödet

**6. Var maträtten?**

Hemlagad  Köpt mat

**7. När Du senast åt lunch, var åt Du denna?**

Hemma  Café  
 Skolmatsal  Lunchrestaurang (självservering)  
 På jobbet i matsalen  Åldringsvård  
 Restaurang (bordsservering)

Annat:.....

**8. Med vem åt Du lunch senast?**

Jag åt ensam  Jag åt med  
arbetskollegor/studiekamrater  
 Jag åt med min familj/släktingar  Jag åt med kompisar som ej  
tillhör jobb/skola  
 Annat:.....

**9.a Ät Du någon förrätt eller dessert när Du senast åt lunch?**

Nej  Ja, både och  
 Ja, men endast förrätt  Ja, men endast dessert

**9.b Om ja specificera vad Du åt**

.....

**10. Vad drack Du till maten när Du senast åt lunch?**

Jag drack inget  Juice  Vin  
 Läsk/dricka  Mjölk  Sprit  
 Vatten  Lättöl  Annat:.....  
 Mineralvatten  Starköl

**11. Drack du te eller kaffe när Du senast åt lunch?**

Nej

Ja, jag drack kaffe

Ja, jag drack te

*Fråga 12- 27 är relaterade till Din vanliga lunch ätande!*

**12. Hur många gånger i förra veckan åt Du lunch utanför hemmet?**

.....

**13. Välj de tre viktigaste orsakerna till varför Du går ut och äter lunch! Kryssa i de tre som bäst beskriver Din inställning!**

ORSAKER	
Jag har inte tid att laga mat	
Behändigt (lätt och bekvämt)	
Kul med sällskap med vänner och kollegor	
Godare mat ute	
Miljöombyte	
Ingen lagar mat hemma hos mig	
Jag har tröttnat på hemlagad mat	
Det är relativt billigt	
Större variation av mat rätter	

**14. Vilken betydelse har lunchen som måltid för Dig? Kryssa i den ruta som bäst beskriver Din inställning.**

Extremt stor betydelse

Våldigt stor betydelse

Den har viss betydelse

Endast liten betydelse

Den har ingen betydelse

15. Vad är viktigast för Dig: Ditt sällskap vid lunchen eller att maten är av hög kvalitet? Sätt ett kryss på det stället på linjen nedan som bäst beskriver Din inställning!



Själva maten  
(portionens  
storlek, pris, o



Atmosfären: hur du tillbringar din lunchtid (kompisar, kollegor, släktingar, lokalen i sig)

16. Välj de FEM egenskaperna som är viktigast när Du väljer lunchställe!  
Markera dessa fem rutor med ett kryss!

EGENSKAPER	
Matens kvalitet (bra råvaror)	
Portionens storlek	
Lokalitet (närhet och lätt att ta sig dit)	
Snabb service	
Vänlig och snäll personal	
Matstället är känt och välbesökt	
Pris	
Utseende av faciliteter (ex. mysig inredning)	
Hälsosam och nyttig mat	
Renhet och fräschhet av matstället	
Trevlig mänsklig atmosfär	
God mat (duktig kock)	

17. Om Du har ekonomiska problem är det då sannolikt att Du lägger ut mindre pengar på mat (t.ex. hoppar över lunchen)?

Ja       Nej

18. Är matkostnad en viktig del i Din budget?

Ja       Nej

19. Skulle Du vilja äta lunch ute oftare än Du gör idag?

Ja       Nej

**20. Ange betydelsen av följande variabler när Du väljer vilken maträtt du ska äta!**

<b>VARIABLER</b>	Extremt stor betydelse för mig	Väldigt stor betydelse för mig	Det har betydelse för mig	Det har viss betydelse för mig	Endast liten betydelse för mig	Det har ingen betydelse för mig
Välkänd mat (jag har ätit det tidigare)						
Min matlust/ min aptit						
Vilket humör jag är på						
Mina kompisars, släktingars och kollegors åsikter och val						
Matens status, prestige och berömmelse						
Portionens storlek						
Mina dagliga fysiska aktiviteter						
Nyttig näringsriktig mat						
Tillagningsmetoder (t.ex. grillad eller stekt mat)						
Pris						
Snabbhet av att få maten efter beställning						
Matens variation (ofta varierande maträtter; undvika monoton)						
Kulturella och religiösa traditioner och aspekter						
Ställe där jag äter min mat (t.ex. jag vill inte äta korv på en trendig restaurang)						
Reklam						
Utseende, färg och konsistens						
Smak (sött, surt, salt o.s.v.)						
Doft						
Temperatur						

**21. Välj tre stycken favorit bas lunchrätter och ranka dessa genom att fylla i en 1:a, 2:a och 3:a i de relevanta rutorna!**

- Kött (oxkött, fläskkött, kalvkött, köttfärs, korv o s v)
- Fjäderfä (kyckling; kalkon, gås, anka, o s v)
- Fisk och skaldjur (torsk, tonfisk, lax, räkor, musslor; o s v)
- Pasta
- Vegetarisk mat (grönsaker, potatis, bönor, o s v)
- Snabbmat (till ex hamburgare, pizza, gatukök)
- Sallad
- Soppa
- Annat:.....

**22. Vilka TVÅ är Dina favorittillbehör till lunchen? Ranka dessa genom att sätta en 1:a för det som är viktigast och en 2:a för det som är näst viktigast!**

- |                                  |                               |   |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Potatis | <input type="checkbox"/> Ris  | <input type="checkbox"/> Sallad/Grönsaker |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sås     | <input type="checkbox"/> Bröd | <input type="checkbox"/>                  |

Annat:.....

**23. Vilken är Din favoritdessert till lunch!**

- Jag äter aldrig desserter till lunch
- Glass
- Kaka/Bakelse
- Chokladbit/Godis
- Pannkaka, Pajer, Våfflor
- Pudding/Kräm (ex. Jordgubbskräm, Aprikoskräm o.s.v.)
- Kex
- Annat:.....

**24. Vilken är Din favoritfrukt som Du med största sannolikhet äter på din lunch?**

- .....
- Jag äter vanligtvis inte någon frukt i samband med lunch



**25. Hur föredrar Du att maten Du äter ska vara tillagad? (grillat, marinerat, kokat, friterat, stekt, wokat, rökt etc?)**

.....

**26. Från vilket land kommer Dina TVÅ favorit ”kök”? Markera dessa två med kryss i de relevanta rutorna.**

- Svenskt
- Italiensk
- Grekiskt
- Franskt
- Kinesiskt
- Japanskt
- Mexikanskt
- Amerikanskt
- Afrikanskt – Vänligen ange land (kök): .....
- Arabiskt – Vänligen ange land (kök): .....
- Annat: .....

**27. Vilka är Din lunchfavorit rätt på vintern resp. sommaren?**

På sommaren är:

.....

På vintern är:

.....

*Fråga 28-36 handlar om Dig som person!*

**28. När är Du född:**

19

**29. Är Du:**

Man             Kvinna

**30. a. Är båda Dina föräldrar födda i Sverige?**

Ja                     Nej

**30. b. Om nej, ange i vilket land:**

Mamma: .....

Pappa: .....

**31. Vad är Din huvudsakliga sysselsättning? Kryssa i det alternativ som bäst beskriver Din nuvarande situation.**

- Studerande                       Heltidsarbetande                       Deltidsarbetande  
 Egen företagare                       Arbetslös                       Pensionerad  
 Annat:.....

**32. Din utbildningsnivå? Var god kryssa i alla de alternativ som beskriver Din utbildning.**

- Grundskola                       Gymnasieskola                       Universitet/Högskola

**33. Vilken av följande alternativ beskriver bäst Ditt aktuella arbete?**

- Lätt kroppsarbete                       Tungt kroppsarbete  
 Stillasittande/intellektuellt arbete                       Annat: .....

**34. a Hur många timmar i förra veckan tränade/ utövade Du någon form av sport? Ange på ett ungefär!**

..... (antal timmar)

**35. I vilken av följande kategorier ligger Din inkomst före skatt per månad?**

- jag har ingen inkomst                       - 10 000  
 10 001 – 15 000                       15 001 – 20 000  
 20 001 – 25 000                       25 001 – 30 000  
 30 001 – 35 000                       35 001 – 40 000  
 40 001 –

- Appendix -

**36. Var bor Du? Ange Ditt post nummer samt vilken ort Du bor i!**

.....

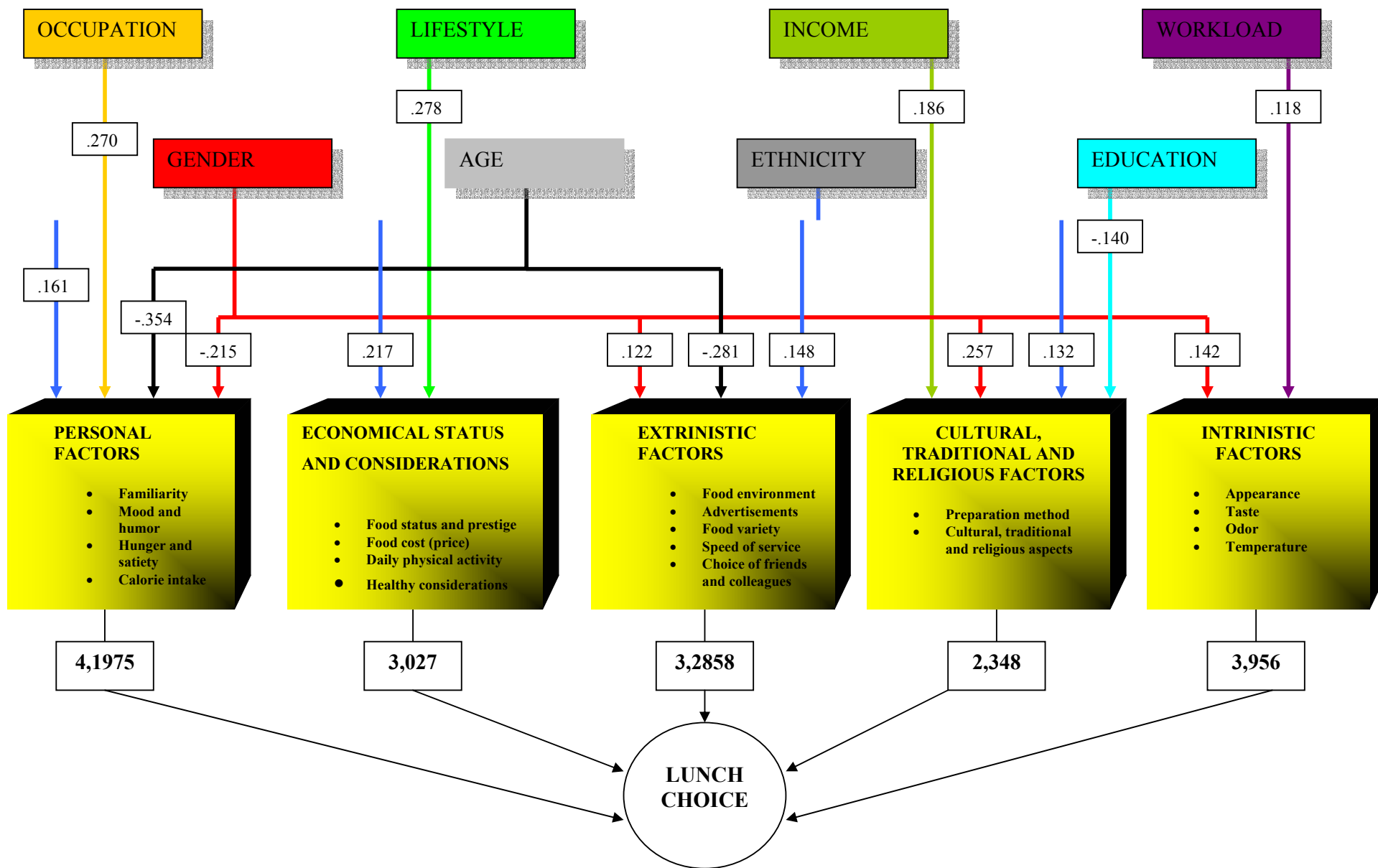
**TACK FÖR DIN MEDVERKAN!!!**

**Dagens datum:.....**

**Intervju tid:.....**



- Appendix -





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