

MOTHERS' COOKING STRESS AND FAMILY DINING OUT:
EXAMINING PSYCHOLOGICAL INFLUENCES AND FAMILY DINING OUT
BENEFITS ON MOTHERS' LIFE SATISFACTION

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by
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MOTHERS' COOKING STRESS AND FAMILY DINING OUT:
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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to (1) to examine whether the constructs of dining out constraints (i.e., interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, and intrapersonal constraint) influence the frequency of mothers dining out with their family, (2) to investigate the relationship between cooking stress, the need for a reward, the desire to dine out, constraints, and the frequency of dining out as leisure, focusing on the entire process from problem/need recognition to purchase decision, (3) to identify whether dining out benefits (i.e., enjoyment, convenience, detachment, relaxation, and learning experience) influence the life satisfaction of mothers, and (4) to assess the moderating effects of mothers' cooking stress on the relationships among dining out benefits and life satisfaction.

The results for the constraint model indicated that both interpersonal and structural constraints of dining out have significantly negative impacts on family dining out frequency, but it was failed to find the effect of intrapersonal constraint on family dining out frequency.

The findings for the decision-making model indicated that cooking stress has significantly positive impacts on both desire to dine out and need for reward. It was also

found that need for reward has a significantly positive impact on desire to dine out, and that desire to dine out has a significantly positive impact on perceived frequency of family dining out as leisure. It was revealed that desire to dine out also has significantly positive impacts on both interpersonal constraint and intrapersonal constraint, while there did not seem to be a positive relationship between desire to dine out and structural constraint. Both interpersonal constraint and structural constraint did not have significantly negative impacts on perceived frequency of dining out. Yet, intrapersonal constraint had a significantly negative impact on perceived frequency of dining out.

The results for the benefit model indicated that enjoyment, convenience, relaxation, and learning experience have significantly positive impacts on life satisfaction after family dining out. On the other hand, detachment did not have a significant impact on life satisfaction after family dining out. Regarding the moderating effects of high versus low cooking stress groups, the effects of convenience and learning experience on life satisfaction were significantly smaller in the high cooking stress group than in the low cooking stress group, but the effects of enjoyment on life satisfaction were significantly stronger in the high cooking stress group than in the low cooking stress group. The effects of detachment and relaxation on life satisfaction were not significantly different between the high and low cooking stress groups.

The implications of these findings for the restaurant management strategies to attract mothers and their families are discussed.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Background

Americans are increasingly preparing their meals at home rather than eating out in restaurants (NPD, 2018). According to the NPD group (2018), a market research company, over 80 % of American meals were prepared at home in 2017, which represents an increase compared to a decade ago. It was also found that restaurant visits have been decreasing since 2000, the latest peak, i.e., Americans dined out 187 times, on average, in 2017, while they dined out 216 times, on average, in 2000 (see Figure 1). Specifically, certain restaurant types have been struggling since the recession of 2007, i.e., visits to casual dining and family dining restaurants fell by 4% and 3%, respectively, in the first quarter of 2017 (NPD, 2017). In addition, same-store sales for casual dining restaurants, also known as family dining restaurants in the U.S., have been declining across most of the largest restaurant chains, such as Applebee's, Chili's, and Ruby Tuesday (Peltz, 2017). According to the NPD group (2017), the number of customers, especially dinner customers, has been declining for several years, and it fell by 2% in the first quarter of 2017.

The decline in restaurant visits can be explained by various threat factors (e. g., cost of a restaurant meal, meal kits, and streaming home entertainment). Since restaurant meal costs have been increasing more sharply than homemade meal costs (NPD, 2018), people might think that homemade meals are more economical, thereby reducing the number of times they dine out. The use of meal kits might also keep individuals or families from dining out. Further, the use of streaming home entertainment options, such as Netflix, might convince people to enjoy dinner at home. In response to these threats,

fast food or fast casual restaurants strive to offer convenient and healthy food. For example, Chick-fil-A is now offering meal kits which enable customers to prepare meals in simple steps.

Family dining restaurants also try to attract families by focusing on kids' programs. For instance, *Bob Evans* is providing healthy menu items for kids and free kids meals every Tuesday. However, experts in the restaurant industry have argued that new strategies are urgently needed to bring customers back because most of the casual/family dining restaurants have still been struggling (Peltz, 2017). It is fundamental and necessary to understand who family dining restaurants are targeting in order to develop new strategies.

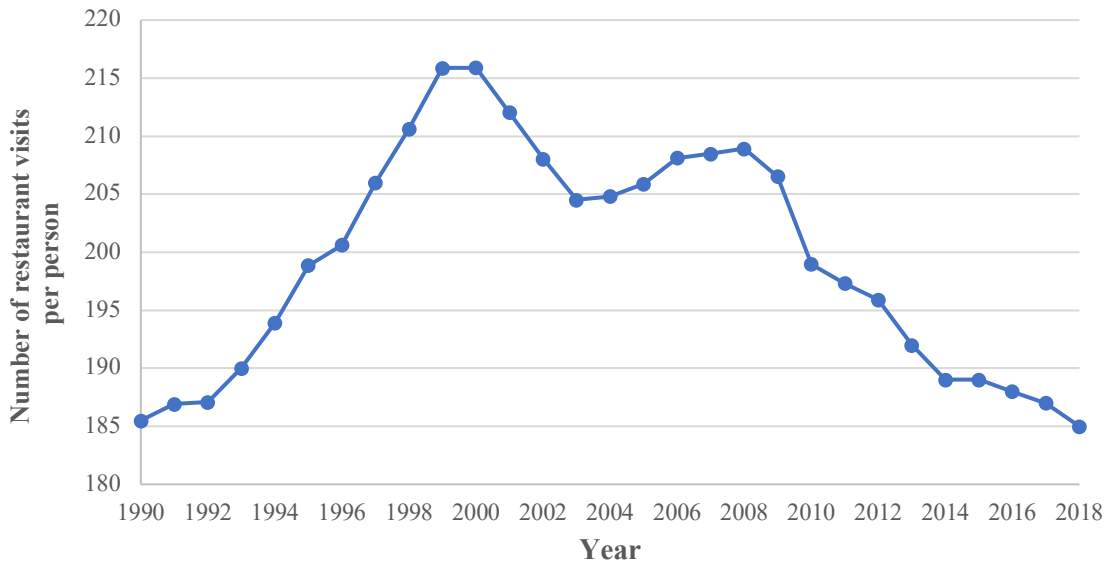


Figure 1
Restaurant Visits

Note: adopted from Patton's (2018) figure using data from the NPD group

Mothers are well known as the primary decision makers in relation to decisions regarding purchases for their family. A market research company (Mintel, 2015) recently

found that mothers are more likely than their partners to have an impact on buying decisions in various consumer categories (e.g., holidays, finance, and technology). Mothers play an important role in their households in terms of making food-related decisions. Acting as nutritional gatekeepers, mothers provide proper homemade food for family health (Madden & Chamberlain, 2010). Of course, demographic changes, such as greater numbers of women in the work force, have resulted in food preparation shifts, but mothers are still primarily responsible for food preparation and cooking for the family (Lupton, 2000). It was also discovered that mothers play a dominant role in family decision-making when it comes to dining out (Chen, Lenhto, Behnke, & Tang, 2016). Due to the mothers' important role in food-related decision making, family dining restaurants should focus on mothers. In order to develop new strategies, family dining restaurants should be able to answer very fundamental questions, including why families dine out less and eat at home more, how mothers make decisions concerning dining out, and how mothers perceive the benefits of dining out with their families.

1.2 Problem Statement

Customers dine out with family as a leisure activity (NRA, 2017a) because they enjoy good-tasting food, warm and hospitable service, and a comfortable atmosphere. However, families have been reducing eating out, especially at dinner time, thus family dining restaurants have been struggling for a long time (NPD, 2017; 2018). Family dining restaurants have tried to develop some new strategies to overcome this difficult situation, but they have not been of great help in bringing families back. The problem is that the family restaurant segment is overlooking the importance of understanding the right target as a very necessary approach in recovering growth. Despite mothers' influential roles in making food-related decisions, mothers have not been the subject of much scholarly

attention in the restaurant and hospitality area. Specifically, studies in the restaurant area have not clearly answered the essential questions regarding the ongoing issue, including why families dine out less and eat at home more, how mothers make decisions about dining out with their families instead of preparing family meals at home, and how mothers perceive the benefits of dining out with their families.

Cho, Lee, and Lee (2008) found constraints that keep people from eating out by focusing on the general public in one Asia country. Despite their contributions to the topic, studies examining constraints to eating out at restaurants within a specific population within a specific culture are rare. Thus, this study examines U.S. mothers' constraints in relation to dining out with their families. Identifying mothers' constraints in terms of dining out can help family dining restaurants understand the detailed reasons why families are dining out less and eating at home more often and to develop specific strategies to reduce mothers' constraints in terms of dining out.

Previous research has shown that making routine daily meals causes mothers to feel stressed (Bowen, Elliott, & Brenton, 2014; Robson, Crosby, & Stark, 2016). Furthermore, it was found that mothers choose to eat out with their families due to the stress of cooking (Robson et al., 2016). The stress associated with cooking can be the starting point in the problem-recognition stage of the family dining out decision-making process. Much of the current literature on decision making in the field of hospitality and restaurant studies pays particular attention to the influences of one or a few stages (e.g., purchase intention), but very little attention has been paid in the literature to the influences on all the stages of the purchasing decision-making process taken as a whole. Focusing on the process as a whole, from problem/need recognition to purchase decision, this study emphasizes the role of mothers' cooking stress and its psychological influences

on dining out decision-making. Understanding mothers' family dining out decision-making processes due to cooking stress might help family restaurant marketers to develop new marketing strategies in order to entice mothers and family customers to visit family dining restaurants.

Prior studies uncovered that, unlike cooking demands at home, restaurants provide various benefits for mothers (Kasparian, Mann, Serrano, & Farris, 2017; McGuffin et al., 2015; Robson et al., 2016; Stewart, Blisard, & Jolliffe, 2006). However, the studies of the benefits mothers obtain through dining out have focused on food contexts in order to identify the reasons why mothers dine out and encouraged them to prepare homemade meals for family health reasons (Robson, et al., 2016). They have done so because many public health and food scholars have argued that dining out is not good for physical health.

However, research has also shown that beneficial experience-based purchases (e.g., experience at restaurants) can influence happiness (De Bloom et al., 2009; Sirgy, Kruger, Lee, & Yu, 2011; Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003). Specifically, attention to dining out in terms of promoting a sense of personal well-being is recent in the restaurant context (Kim & Jang, 2017). Therefore, this study emphasizes the benefits of dining out as a family associated with mothers' life satisfaction. This dissertation provides an opportunity to report on the experiential benefits dining out can have on mothers' happiness. Additionally, an understanding of family dining out benefits helps family restaurants to reinforce dining out benefits for mothers and to develop marketing strategies which focus on dining out benefits in terms of increasing mothers' life satisfaction.

1.3 Research Purpose and Objectives

The purposes of this study are to: (1) examine whether the constructs of dining-out constraints influence the frequency of mothers dining out with their families, (2) investigate the relationship between cooking stress and its psychological influences on dining out decision-making, focusing on the entire process from problem/need recognition to purchase decision, and (3) identify whether the benefits gained from dining out as a family influence the life satisfaction of mothers.

Specifically, the objectives of the study are to:

- (1) review the literature on constraints to dining out, cooking stress and its psychological influences on decision-making in terms of dining out, and the benefits to dining out;
- (2) identify the constructs of family constraints to dining out, family decision-making processes in terms of dining out and cooking stress, and the benefits from dining out as a family from the viewpoint of mothers;
- (3) investigate proposed theoretical models in order to assess the effects of dining out constraints on the frequency of dining out, the effects of cooking stress and its psychological influences on dining out decision-making, and the effects of dining out benefits on the life satisfaction of mothers; and
- (4) offer recommendations in terms of restaurant strategies to attract mothers and their families.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into three sections: dining out constraints, psychological influences on dining out decision-making, and benefits of dining out. The first section reviews the related literature on dining out constraints including concept of dining out constraint, and family dining out constraints on mothers. The second section reviews psychological influences on dining out decision-making such as cooking stress, need for reward, and desire to dine out. The last section reviews the literature on dining out benefits and life satisfaction. At the end of each section, research models and hypotheses for this dissertation are introduced.

2.2 Dining Out Constraints

2.2.1 Concept of Leisure Constraint

The concept of constraint has been widely researched in the context of leisure (e.g., Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991; Jackson, 1991; 1993). Constraints refer to factors that limit the creation of leisure preference and deter or prevent enjoyment of and participation in leisure (Jackson, 1991).

The components of constraints were first examined by Crawford and Godbey (1987). They established a framework for leisure constraints and they suggested that there are three kinds of constraints: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints. First, intrapersonal constraints include personal psychological conditions and characteristics that relate to leisure preferences. Examples are stress, depression, anxiety, religiosity, perceived self-skill, and individual evaluations of the suitability of leisure activities. Second, interpersonal constraints happen as an outcome of the relationship or

interaction between the attributes of individuals. For instance, people may face an interpersonal constraint if they cannot find an appropriate partner (e.g., family or friend) to join them in the activity. Lastly, structural constraints refer to “intervening factors between leisure preference and participation” (Crawford et al., 1991). Examples involve availability of time, economic barriers (i.e., cost), access, opportunity, and family life cycle stage.

Jackson (1993) also classified six components of constraints that are shown to be common across contexts: personal reasons, social isolation, accessibility, cost, time, and facility. Personal reasons represent the motivations or abilities of an individual. Social isolation refers to traits that include interactions between two or more people. Accessibility means restricted access or lack of transportation. Cost includes equipment cost and experience costs. Time indicates intensity and levels of participation. Facility includes maintenance and crowding. Personal reasons and social isolation could be considered as a part of or equivalent to intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints, respectively, as argued by Crawford and Godbey (1987). The structural constraints, as set out by Crawford and Godbey (1987), also include accessibility, cost, time, and facility, as classified by Jackson (1993).

Many studies on leisure constraints confirmed the three-component construct of constraints using statistical techniques such as factor analysis (Loucks-Atkinson & Mannell, 2007; White, 2008). Most results of factor analyses revealed that the three factors of leisure constraints are reliable and valid constructs (Lee & Scott, 2009). Furthermore, Hubbard and Mannell (2001) suggested that the framework including the three-factor constraints is useful in the choice of reasonably comprehensive items to measure constraints. The three components of constraints are summarized in Figure 2.

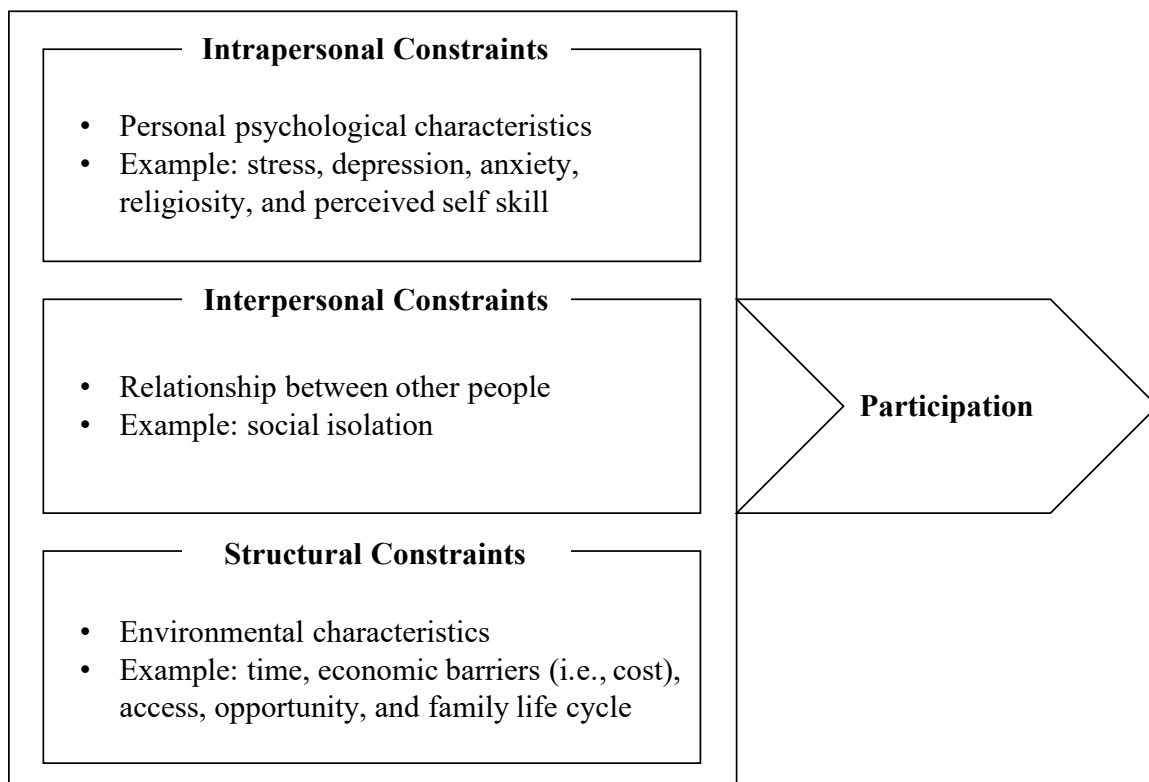


Figure 2

The Three Components of Leisure Constraints

2.2.2 Concept of Dining Out Constraint

Dining out in restaurants is considered as a form of leisure (Rojek, Shaw, & Veal, 2006) because it allows people to experience social activity in addition to eating food to satisfy their hunger (Finkelstein & Lynch, 2006). That is, people eat out to see and to be seen. The desire to be entertained by others while dining out is seen as a leisure motive (Finkelstein, 1989; 1998). The idea that dining out is a part of leisure is supported by the recent customer survey conducted by the National Restaurant Association (2017) using thousands of samples. The results of the survey revealed that 80% of customers dine out with family and friends as a leisure activity. Furthermore, a recent Amsterdam case study by Karsten, Kamphuis, and Remeijnse (2015) found that restaurants are among the

important places where family leisure and high involvement in parenting take place, because parents can pay more attention to their child(ren) and to each other in a convivial restaurant atmosphere without the responsibility of preparing family meals at home.

The approach to eating out as a leisure activity enables research on eating-out constraints to adapt the notion of leisure constraints. Applying the concept of leisure constraints to the context of eating out, the study undertaken by Cho et al. (2008) investigated how eating-out constraints affect eating-out behaviors in South Korea. The study used the three-factor model of constraints as suggested by Crawford and Godbey (1987) and defined eating out constraints as intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural factors that cause consumers not to be able to enjoy the activity of eating out. With 1,394 samples, the results indicated that structural constraints are divided into two factors: access/cost, and time. It also found that intrapersonal, interpersonal, and access/cost constraints negatively influence eating-out participation but it did not find that time constraints influence eating-out participation.

The study by Cho et al. (2008) contributed to the literature examining eating out constraints even though to date little attention has been devoted to the perceived constraints on dining out. The subject of their study was the general public in South Korea but dining out constraints might not be the same across different cultures and groups. Thus, more research on constraints related to a specific population is needed in a specific culture or context (Hung & Petrick, 2010). Since this study focuses on mothers' constraints regarding dining out in the context of family dining out, the next section reviews the literature on mothers' constraints in terms of family leisure and dining out.

2.2.3 Mothers' Family Leisure Constraints

Research on leisure constraints has argued the importance of life cycle stages in

the understanding of the phenomena of constraints. Orthner (1976) argued that examining leisure constraints based on the concept of family life cycle stage offers better knowledge of marital satisfaction, the relationships between husband, wife, and child/children, the patterns of communication, and the chore differentiation that are related to leisure participation. Also, the conceptual framework of life cycle might provide strategies to counteract constraints (Scott & Jackson, 1996).

Many studies have investigated either the constraints at a given life cycle stage (e.g., Raymore, Godbey, & Crawford, 1994) or the differences in constraints at different stages of the life cycle (e.g., McGuire, Dottavio, & O'Leary, 1986; Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002). In terms of constraints at different stages of the life cycle, self-esteem and Socio Economic Status (SES) may influence leisure participation at the adolescent stage (Raymore et al., 1994) and health-related issues may affect the leisure participation of seniors (McGuire, 1983). With regard to differences at different stages of the life cycle, intrapersonal constraints that reduce motivation to partake in leisure activities may be greater at the empty nest stage (Hall, 1975; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1975; Witt & Goodale, 1981). A possibility for this reduced motivation could be that empty nesters have no need to develop personally meaningful leisure interests because their children who have left home might influence their leisure activities (Pennington-Gray & Kerstetter, 2002).

Prior research investigated the different constraints on parents at different life stages in the context of leisure and tourism. Some studies posited that interpersonal constraints (e.g., lack of companion and family support) may be more significant when couples have preschool children (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1975; Witt & Goodale, 1981). Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002) found that parents with children of all ages or

with children older than 6 years old perceived significantly higher structural constraints on nature based tourism than retired people. The two lines of studies regarding different stages of the family life cycle reveal that individuals at different life cycle stages do not experience constraints in the same way (Hudson, 2000).

Researchers have argued that leisure constraints may be different based on gender (Jackson & Henderson, 1995; Scott & Jackson, 1996). Green, Hebron, and Woodward (1987) argued that leisure constraints in men and women may be different and that gender may mediate the life cycle stage because of the mixture of individual, social, and situational traits that combine to shape a person's lifestyle. Iso-Ahola, Jackson, and Dunn (1994) stated that men and women have different life situations over the life stages that cause them to participate differently in leisure activities and to have different constraints. Specifically, previous research on women's leisure supports the notion that women are more constrained than men in their leisure activities. Some research suggested that women experience stronger intrapersonal constraints such as self-consciousness, shyness, and lack of available information on opportunities for participation in activities (Alexandris & Carroll, 1997; Raymore et al., 1994). Hudson (2000) investigated a significant difference in constraints regarding participation in skiing between men and women. The results indicated that women had greater intrapersonal constraints such as fear of danger and lower perceived self-skills than men, while men had a major constraint when their partner did not wish to participate in skiing.

Based on the roles of family life stage and gender in the constraints construct, previous research has focused on leisure constraints on females at the parenthood stage. It was found that women with children, spent less time on leisure compared to women at other stages of the life cycle (Fast & Frederick, 1998). The finding could be explained by

the changes in women's roles and duties. Marriage and bearing and rearing children would have an impact on women's change in preferences and spending patterns (e.g., Wilkes, 1995). Mothers are interested in having quality time with their spouse and children and are likely to make their children their top priority (Henderson & Dialeschki, 1991). Related to this, Scott and Jackson (1996) posited that women tend to put the needs of others first due to their strong "ethic of care" (Henderson, Bialeschki, Shaw, & Freysinger, 1989) and a reduced feeling of entitlement (Henderson & Dialeschki, 1991). Therefore, mothers disregard their individual leisure needs because they are more inclined to put the needs of their children and families first (Henderson & Allen, 1991).

2.2.4 Family Dining Out Constraints on Mothers

Research has been conducted regarding the consumptions of food at home and away from home across family or household life cycle (Danko & Schaninger, 1990; Frash, Antun, & Hodges, 2008; Neulinger & Simon, 2011) because a family's food consumption and dining out behavior vary as family life stages change. In particular, the presence of children in the family significantly influences healthy food consumption (Schaninger & Danko, 1993). For example, Neulinger and Simon (2011) found that families with a small child had a high score on healthy food eating; they preferred regular fruit intake, low fat products, and whole grain food. Moreover, Douthitt and Fedyk (1988) discovered that families with children eat out less frequently and eat more homemade meals after their children were born than is the case with childless couples. This is because people think that homemade food is healthier than food consumed away from home (Nicklas & Johnson, 2004).

In addition, many mothers play an important role in their household when making food-related decisions, acting as "nutritional gatekeepers" (Rosenkranz & Dzewaltowski,

2008). Mothers consider providing proper homemade food to be important for family health (Madden & Chamberlain, 2010). A recent study found that young women with children focused on the nutrition factor when cooking at home, while young women without children emphasized taste when cooking at home (Raskind et al., 2017). Similarly, an existing study discovered that even working mothers cook at home because they consider the dietary factors (e.g., nutritional health food and dietary practice) rather than factors of time and economy (Zahari et al., 2012). Contrary to mothers' food-related decision-making based on family health, fathers have shown different preferences regarding eating. Labre (2005) discovered that men's eating practices were related more to fitness than to health. Additionally, men showed a preference for meat-based diets and traditional meals (Sobal, 2005).

Mothers choose cooking at home instead of dining out at a restaurant due to perceived cost, time, and energy. In terms of cost perception, Wolfson, Bleich, Smith, and Frattaroli (2016) found that participants perceived that home-cooking was less expensive than dining out at restaurants, thus home-cooking was a means of saving money. Costa, Schoolmeester, Dekker, and Jongen (2007) developed a "Hierarchical value map of eating out at a restaurant" using an interview method. The map showed that individuals do not dine out frequently because dining out at weekends is expensive. According to the study by Raskind et al. (2017), among young women, only women with children gave the cost of dining out as the sole reason for eating at home.

In addition, mothers' lives are busy at home and/or at work and they do not have enough time to cook. As a meal planning strategy for the busy weekdays, parents cooked large meals on Sunday and provided leftovers for subsequent meals on weekdays (Alm & Olsen, 2017). This time related coping strategy might reduce dining out frequency.

Related to the perceived cost and time, the study by Cho et al. (2008) also used cost and time as the main constraints affecting dining out participation. Regarding energy, some people gave up dining out and just ordered take-out food because even having to get dressed up to go out to eat took too much energy (Warde & Martens, 2000).

The provision of homemade food by mothers is considered to be a sign of maternal love (Moisio, Arnould, & Price, 2004) and duty (Lupton, 2000). However, preparing homemade meals on a daily basis for a family is not an easy task. Previous studies found that women spent 40% of their time providing homemade food (Lupton, 2000). In a similar vein, Bowers (2000) indicated that about 70% of women with children under the age of 18 years reported that cooking was their most demanding task. For this reason, mothers consider cooking as time consuming and stressful work (Bowen et al., 2014).

Despite the fact that cooking is very demanding of time and effort, many women in western nations feel guilty, frustrated, and defeated when they do not succeed in preparing regular cooked meals for their family (Carrigan, Szmigin, & Leek, 2006; Costa et al., 2007). The feelings of mothers are caused by social norms and pressures that imply that mothers who are not engaged in correct food preparation are regarded as immoral individuals (Madden & Chamberlain, 2010). On the other hand, the finding of Beardsworth et al. (2002) indicated that men felt fewer moral misgivings related to food than women did.

Taken together, much of the current literature on food-related decision making pays particular attention to factors influencing routine daily meals prepared by mothers. However, very little attention has been paid in the literature to the factors affecting mothers' dining out behavior or its frequency. Given that the number of customers who

go to family restaurants, especially for dinner, has been decreasing, it is important to identify what deters mothers who are the food-related decision makers in the household from going out to dinner with their family. This study, therefore, inferred the reasons why mothers do not dine out frequently based on the reasons why mothers prepare routine daily meals. Specifically, this study divided the barriers to mothers' dining out activity into three factors suggested by Cho et al. (2008) in their investigation of dining out constraints. In other words, mothers' constraints in relation to dining out with the family are divided into three: intrapersonal constraints generated by the relationship between family members, structural constraints caused by environmental attributes, and intrapersonal constraints caused by mothers' psychological issues. Hence, this study proposes that the three constructs of dining out constraints might have a negative influence on the frequency of mothers dining out with their family.

2.2.5 Research Model and Hypotheses for Dining Out Constraint

Figure 3 presents the research model for dining out constraint. The research model included interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, intrapersonal constraint, and frequency of family dining out. The three constraint constructs, interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, and intrapersonal constraint were selected as exogenous variables, while frequency of family dining out was designated as an endogenous variable. It was hypothesized that each exogenous variable may have direct effects on the endogenous variable. Eating in a restaurant is strongly associated with income (Saad, 2017), such that households with high incomes spend more money on food away from home and tend to eat out more frequently than those with low incomes (USDA, 2018). Since household income influences dining out frequency, this study utilizes yearly household income as a control variable. More detailed hypotheses are shown below the research model.

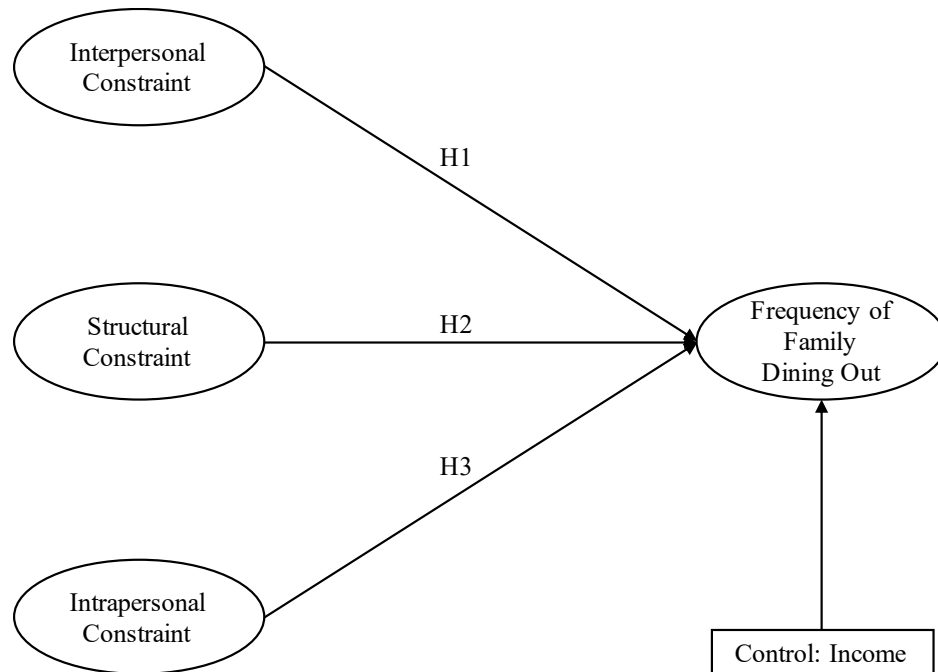


Figure 3

Research Model for Dining Out Constraint

H1: Interpersonal constraint will have negative impacts on family dining out frequency.

H2: Structural constraint will have negative impacts on family dining out frequency.

H3: Intrapersonal constraint will have negative impacts on family dining out frequency.

2.3 Psychological Influences on Dining Out Decision-Making

2.3.1 Cooking Stress

Traditional expectations of gender role persist all over the world and housework, family life, and childcare continue to be the primary responsibility of women (e.g., Rimmer & Rimmer, 1997). Even women who work outside the home feel obliged to do housework and to consider it as a “second-shift” in their working day (Croft, Schmader, & Block, 2015). According to Hochschild and Machung (2012), the term “the second

shift” means mothers’ household duties and childcare work at home after a full day’s work outside of the family home.

Mothers are subject to psychological demands arising from domestic chores (e.g., food preparation and cleanup afterwards) (Barnett & Shen, 1997). The American Psychological Association (2017) in its annual report on stress in America has found that overall stress levels of women are higher than those of men. Also, the findings of the report revealed that more women than men consider family responsibilities and money as being important forms of stress.

Recent studies have attempted to explain that the preparation of family meals can be challenging (Bowen, et al., 2014; Fulkerson, Story, Neumark-Sztainer, & Rydell, 2008; Robson et al., 2016). Bowen et al., (2014) conducted in-depth interviews with 150 mothers to investigate the gap that exists between the romanticized version of cooking and the realities of cooking. As shown in Figure 4, the study argued that home-cooking is considered to be a symbol of “good mothering, stable families, and the ideal of the healthy, and productive citizen”, but, in real life, it can be fraught with problems for mothers. That is, mothers feel joyful when cooking, but they also feel stressed because of family members’ complaints, lack of appreciation, the need to please the family, time pressure, and the tradeoff of saving money (Bowen et al., 2014).

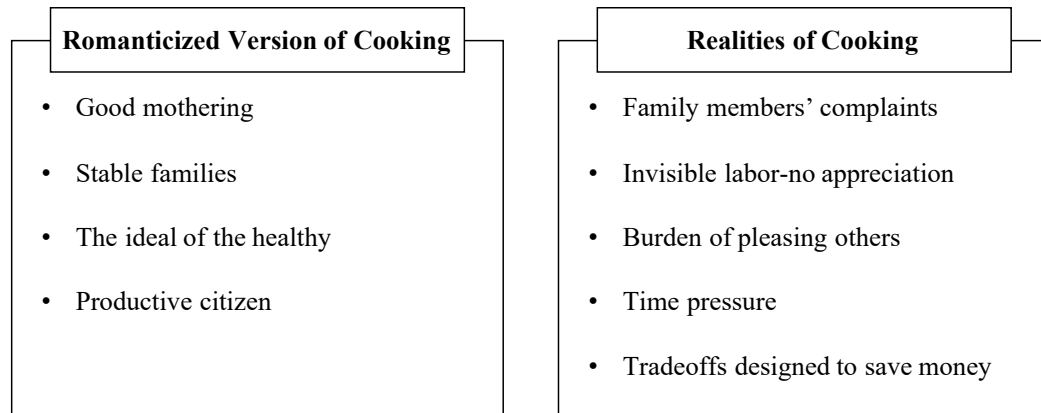


Figure 4

Gap between Romanticized Version of Cooking and Realities of Cooking

Note: quoted from Bowen et al. (2014)

Similarly, Robson et al. (2016) found that the absence of appreciation and the complaints of family members were barriers for mothers in relation to preparing and eating dinner at home. In other words, children's lack of appreciation and picky eating discourage mothers from devoting time, money and effort to making a meal (Robson et al., 2016).

In terms of the time pressure of cooking, previous studies found that cooking was the most demanding aspect of housework for a large number of women with children under the age of 18 years (Bowers, 2000), and that women spent 40% of their time providing homemade food (Lupton, 2000). Because cooking time includes planning menus, shopping for groceries, preparing meals, and cleaning up afterwards, mothers think that cooking is time-consuming and stressful (Bowen et al., 2014). Cooking stress is also caused by the conflict between the pressure to save money and the desire to make healthy home-cooked meals. The middle-class mothers interviewed by Bowen et al. (2014) reported that, even though they would like to purchase healthy items for their

family, they are more likely to purchase less healthy processed food items than more expensive organic food in order to save money.

Mothers choose to eat out with their family because of cooking stress (e.g., lack of appreciation of, and complaints about, homemade meals) (Robson et al., 2016).

Although cooking stress plays an important role in making the decision for the family to dine out, studies examining the role of cooking stress are rare in the literature on hospitality and restaurant management. This study assumes that mothers' cooking stress occurs in the problem recognition stage of the dining out decision-making process. Therefore, this study focuses on the role of cooking stress and other psychological influences on dining out decision-making.

2.3.2 The Role of Need for Reward in the Relationship between Cooking Stress and the Desire to Dine Out

The effort–reward imbalance model developed by Siegrist (1996) suggests an individual's work effort is made as part of a contract according to the social reciprocity norm where rewards are offered in the form of money, career opportunities involving job security, and esteem. However, once a recurrent imbalance or non-reciprocity between high efforts made and low rewards obtained exists, chronic work-associated stress occurs (Siegrist et al., 2004). In the housework situation, there are a lot of endless chores (efforts) to be done, while rewards are scant, vague, or intangible (Luscombe, 2014). Family members fail to see all of the mother's invisible labor including planning, preparing, and coordinating family meals and are likely to complain and not to express appreciation (Bowen et al., 2014). Thus, the effort–reward imbalance regarding home-made meals causes mothers to feel stressed when cooking for the family. This idea is

supported by the finding by Damaske, Smyth, and Zawadzki (2014) that women feel happier at work than at home, while men are happier at home than at work.

The research on self-gifting argues that effort made can cause people to feel entitled to some sort of reward (Taylor, Webb, & Sheeran, 2014). Similarly, Iso-ahola (2015) claims that some people start to notice cues for the right to compensation during or after a psychologically draining day at work. Based on the literature on self-gifting, this study proposes that mothers who feel stressed after putting effort into cooking for their family are likely to feel a need to dine out with their family or to feel the need for a self-gifted reward or for some form of compensation.

Specifically, compensation theory (Chick & Hood, 1996) points out that people are likely to choose rewarding leisure activities that are very different to the working day and that result in satisfaction not related to working life. Dining out at restaurants is one aspect of leisure activity (Rojek et al., 2006), and, unlike cooking demands, it provides positive feelings (Robson et al., 2016). According to Robson et al. (2016), mothers felt happy and relaxed when dining out because they and their family members could order what they wanted and they do not have to concern themselves with tasks such as cooking dinner and cleaning up after. It was also found that parents want to spend quality time (e.g., talking or catching-up) with their spouse and children at casual dining restaurants because cooking demands at home interrupt interaction with the family. As such, the need for a self-gifted reward for making family meals every day might lead a mother to wish to dine out with the family because family dining out, unlike making home-made meals, offers mothers various benefits (e.g., convenience, relaxation, and quality family time).

2.3.3 The Role of Dining Out Constraints in the Relationship between Desire to Dine Out and Dining Out Frequency

Purchase intention is defined as the desire to buy a specific type of product, and it implies that the decision to buy a specific product has not yet been made (Pavlou & Fygenon, 2006). According to Kotler, Bowen, and Makens (2009), there can be two factors in play between purchase intention and purchase decision in the buyer decision process. Although consumers have purchase intention, purchase decision is affected by the intensity of two factors, the attitudes of others and unexpected situations (e.g., income, cost, and expected benefits of the product). The attitudes of others and the unexpected situations are closely related to the three constraints (i.e., intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints) suggested by Crawford and Godbey (1987).

Applying the concept of leisure constraints to the context of eating out, Cho et al. (2008) defined eating out constraints as intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural factors that cause consumers not to be able to enjoy and participate in eating out. The results of the study indicated that intrapersonal, interpersonal, and access/cost constraints negatively influence eating out participation. As mentioned in the section on family dining out constraints of mothers, mothers consider various situations (e.g., family health, responsibility for cooking for the family, cost/time/energy, etc.) to make the decision as to whether to eat at home or away from home. Therefore, this study assumes that the desire to dine out with the family (dining out intention) leads to a family dining out decision as leisure. In addition, constraint factors (intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints) may come between the desire to dine out with the family and the family dining out decision.

2.3.4 Research Model and Hypotheses for Dining Out Decision-Making Process

Figure 5 shows the research model for the dining out decision-making process. The research model includes cooking stress, need for reward, desire to dine out, interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, intrapersonal constraint, and perceived frequency of family dining out as leisure. The cooking stress construct was selected as an exogenous variable, while the six constructs including need for reward, desire to dine out, interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, intrapersonal constraint, and perceived frequency of family dining out as leisure were designated as endogenous variables. It was hypothesized that the need for reward may have effects on the relationship between cooking stress and the desire to dine out. It was also hypothesized that the three types of constraints may have effects on the relationship between the desire to dine out and the perceived frequency of dining out as leisure. Eating at a restaurant is strongly associated with income (Saad, 2017), such that households with high income spend more money on food away from home and use it more frequently than those with low income (USDA, 2018). Since household income influences on dining out frequency, this study utilizes yearly household income as a control variable. More detailed hypotheses are shown below the research model.

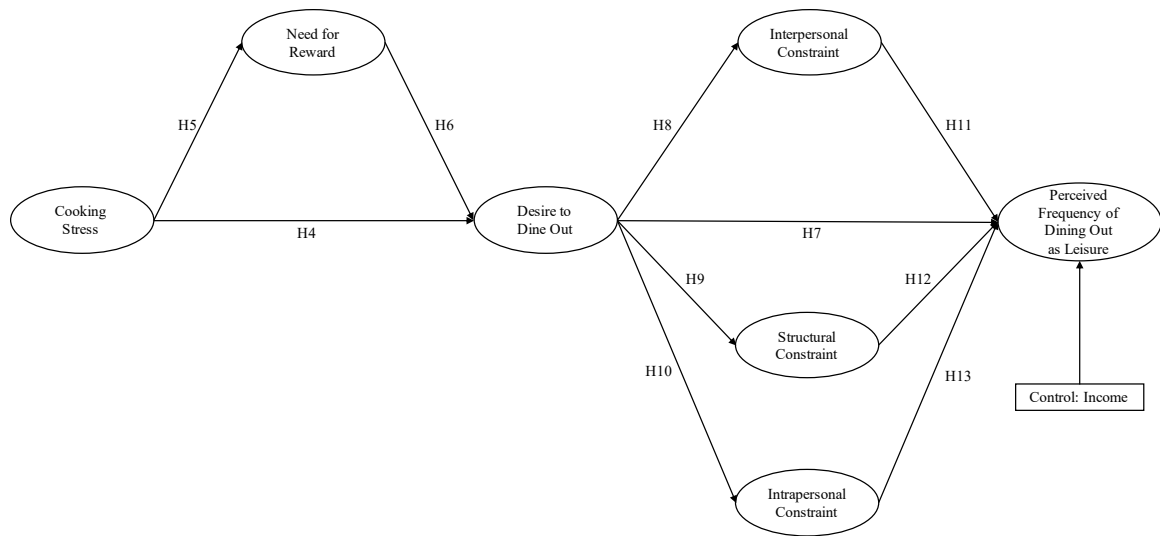


Figure 5

Research Model for Dining Out Decision-Making Process

H4: Cooking stress will have a positive impact on desire to dine out.

H5: Cooking stress will have a positive impact on need for reward.

H6: Need for reward will have a positive impact on desire to dine out.

H7: Desire to dine out will have a positive impact on perceived frequency of dining out.

H8: Desire to dine out will have a positive impact on interpersonal constraint.

H9: Desire to dine out will have a positive impact on structural constraint.

H10: Desire to dine out will have a positive impact on intrapersonal constraint.

H11: Interpersonal constraint will have a negative impact on perceived frequency of dining out as leisure.

H12: Structural constraint will have a negative impact on perceived frequency of dining out as leisure.

H13: Intrapersonal constraint will have a negative impact on perceived frequency of dining out as leisure.

2.4 Benefits of Dining Out

A large body of literature has investigated dining out motivation/motives (Cho et al., 2008; Ponnampalani & Balaji, 2014), the reasons for dining out (Kasparian et al., 2017; McGuffin et al., 2015; Robson et al., 2016; Stewart et al., 2006), and values of dining out (Jin, Lee, & Huffman, 2012; Park, 2004) in the food and restaurant context. The main focus of the prior research was to examine the benefits that individuals derive from eating in restaurants since restaurants are places that provide customers with the experiential benefits that come from food, service, and the physical environment of the restaurant (Park, 2004).

There are various benefits of dining out. Stewart et al. (2006) identified that people choose eating out for reasons of convenience, taste, nutrition, entertainment value, limited budget, and limited time. Kim, Eves, and Scarles (2009) used qualitative interviews to examine why people decide to eat out on holidays or on a trip and found the following reasons for eating out: exciting experience, health concerns, authentic experience, prestige, physical environment, escape from routine, acquiring knowledge, togetherness, sensory appeal, and physiological reasons. Similarly, Jin et al., (2012) posited that motivations for dining out include social interaction, convenience, quick service, and entertainment.

A variety of eating-out benefits have been categorized by previous studies (Cho et al., 2008; Epter, 2009; Mak, Lumbers, Eves, & Chang, 2012; Park, 2004). Mak et al. (2012) investigated motivational factors affecting tourist food consumption and classified the factors into five dimensions: obligatory, symbolic, extension, contrast, and pleasure. First, the obligatory dimensions are the essential nature of food intake on a trip and involve factors such as the physical need for nutrition and health concerns. Second, the

symbolic dimension reflects the motivators that arise from the symbolic value of food consumption to the travelers, and it involves factors such as education/learning, exploring local culture, prestige and status, and authentic experience. Third, the contrast dimension refers to the motivation to seek an experience that is in contrast to the travelers' routine daily experience (Quan & Wang, 2004), and involves factors such as exploring new food and enjoying an exciting experience. Fourth, the extension dimension denotes the motivation to pursue food-related experiences that extend the travelers' daily routine and it involves factors such as familiar flavors and core eating behaviors. Lastly, the pleasure dimension refers to the motivation to pursue pleasure from the food-related experience and it involves factors such as togetherness and sensory appeal.

Park (2004) mentioned that people visit a restaurant for the utilitarian and/or hedonic value of dining out; that is, utilitarian value represents functional and economic factors (e.g., convenient food and economic consumption), while hedonic value signifies the recreational and experiential aspects (e.g., fun, entertainment, and novelty). Cho et al. (2008) indicated that eating out motivation is divided into two: (1) intrinsic motivation (e.g., enjoyment and convenience), and (2) extrinsic motivation (e.g., trend and social). Epter (2009) focused more on investigating why people eat out compared to eating at home using mixed research methods such as interviews, videos, and questionnaires. The study found people eat out because of functional reasons (e.g., being convenient, saving time, and providing food), pleasure-based reasons (e.g., entertainment, celebrations, enjoyment of food, and some social connections), and cultural reasons (e.g., foods from different countries and ethnicities).

In addition to the diverse benefits of dining out, Finkelstein (1989) suggested that customers experience a sense of personal well-being in restaurants. Recently, the

‘therapeutic benefits’ of dining out as a way to cope with feelings of loneliness were identified by Kim and Jang (2017) in their study based on the effort-recovery theory (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). According to the effort-recovery theory (Meijman & Mulder, 1998), psychological detachment and relaxation should assist recovery since no additional demands are made on an individual who faces stressful environments.

As mentioned above, there has been a large volume of published studies examining the motivation and value of dining out and the specific dimensions. However, attention to the topic of the benefits of family dining out from the point of view of mothers is relatively rare. In the next section, this study reviews the modest amount of literature related to the benefits of dining out for mothers based on the general dining out benefits and dimensions.

2.4.1 Benefits of Dining Out for Mothers

Scholars have examined the reasons why individuals dine out at specific family life stages such as motherhood (Kasparian et al., 2017; McGuffin et al., 2015; Robson et al., 2016). Robson et al. (2016) investigated facilitators and barriers for preparing and eating dinner at home. The study used mixed methods (i.e., focus groups and questionnaires) with a sample of 27 female parents who have a child 3 to 10 years-old and who reported eating dinner out over 3 times per week. With regard to confidence in cooking ability, parents responded they have confidence in cooking a homemade meal. The authors found that female parents prefer to eat out because it provides quality family time, the lack of appreciation of homemade meals, as a reward, the perceived low costs and time, and picky eating of children. McGuffin et al. (2015) used focus group discussions to investigate why families make the choice to eat out. The research found the following reasons for eating out: treat (family/social time), time and convenience,

variety of food, accessibility (range of locations) and cost effectiveness. Kasparian et al. (2017) examined the purpose of mothers' dining out and found that the main motivators for dining away from home were convenience and having quality time with family members.

According to the literature mentioned above, quality family time was a common reason why mothers dine out. Eating out at a restaurant is good way to celebrate special events with family and friends (Warde & Martens, 2000). Since restaurants provide a positive setting for social integration, individuals enjoy the environment and they do not feel under pressure. (Warde & Martens, 2000). Epter (2009) also found that the most important reasons for deciding to eat out were social because dining out at a restaurant offers a social space where no one has to feel responsible for preparation or maintenance and where everyone can be relaxed.

Specifically, mothers can enjoy quality time with their spouse and children when eating out at a restaurant because there is no distraction from cooking or housework (McGuffin et al., 2015). Robson et al. (2016) found that the fact that eating dinner away from home allowed women quality family time was a main facilitator for eating out. Parents thought that cooking at home interferes with quality family time because the demands of cooking and serving disrupt their ability to interact with them. Cooking at home also made women feel isolated because other members of the family might be in other parts of the home while they are cooking in the kitchen. By contrast, women could sit and talk or catch up with their spouse and children at casual dining restaurants because eating out removed the barriers (Robson et al., 2016).

Individuals use restaurants as a form of entertainment because restaurants provide a welcoming and relaxed environment for everyone. The physical environment of

restaurants and the emotions people feel at restaurants demonstrate that eating out at a restaurant could be a leisure activity rather than a nourishment activity (Epter, 2009). Stewart et al. (2006) found that 45.5% of participants responded that the enjoyment of the meal was the most important reason for choosing a restaurant. Parents could focus more on an enjoyable and a stress-free experience than on food quality when eating out (McGuffin et al., 2015). Restaurants also provide tasty food. Even though individuals control what they or their family eat and they may have personal rules about eating, the rules are likely to be different or to be overlooked when eating out. People tend to choose the less healthy and the more tasty option (Epter, 2009). Robson et al. (2016) found that mothers enjoyed eating out because family members ordered what they wanted and, unlike when the meal was cooked at home by the mother, the meal would not be rejected.

When people rank the importance of eating out in the US, convenience is one of the most important characteristics after taste and nutrition (Stewart et al., 2006). Kasparian et al. (2017) examined the reasons for mothers' dining out and found that the main motivator for dining away from home was convenience because mothers do not need to cook and clean. Epter (2009) interviewed a mother with two children and she said that eating out is convenient especially when the family is away from home for activities (e.g., baseball game or going to the mall). Convenience of dining out is highly related to time and energy. Many Americans buy time by eating-out because they feel that there is a lack of time to cook or they do not want to prepare a homemade meal (Nichols & Fox, 1983). Epter (2009) discovered that time was a major reason for making a decision to eat dinner out or at home. The study also found that time was related to energy threshold. If people spend lots of time at work or if they return home late at night or have no energy, they do not have the motivation to cook. Similarly, Warde and Martens (2000)

discovered that many individuals decided to eat out on Friday nights because they felt too tired to prepare a meal.

Dining out can be an escape from daily routines because preparing and eating a meal at home is considered as part of a typical routine. People choose to eat out at restaurants on a holiday or trip because it is a way of escaping from the normal routines of daily life (Kim et al., 2009). Ashley, Hollows, Jones, and Taylor (2004) concurred with this notion by saying “eating out is an occasional treat, a special occasion, to be enjoyed as a departure from run-of-the-mill, everyday experience.” Warde and Martens (2000) listed many reasons that constitute the escape from routine, a major factor that makes dining out special as follows: eating different foods, eating in different surroundings, eating at different times (i.e., weekends, holidays), and eating in different company. Epter (2009) similarly mentioned that eating out at restaurants allows individuals to enjoy different foods in a different environment, being with other people and wearing different attire because eating out at a restaurant provides a break in the daily monotony of a busy life and gives people an opportunity to spend time together.

Based on the Effort-Recovery Theory (Meijman & Mulder, 1998) mentioned in the previous section, dining out may offer mothers opportunities for relaxation because they can become detached from the kitchen or home and the routine of daily family cooking. The idea is supported by Robson et al. (2016) whose study indicated that mothers see eating out as a reward because they can have a relaxing experience when dining out with no need to think or worry about tasks such as preparing the dinner and cleaning up afterwards.

Individuals may experience new and different cultures while dining out. Sparks, Bowen, and Klag (2003) discovered that a major motivation for eating out on vacation

was the desire to experience new and exciting meals that would differ from the usual meals. Epter (2009) also found that people eat out to try new and different meals from those that they usually eat or prepare. A young female interviewed by the author wants to eat a variety of dishes that she does not know how to cook. Most Americans rely on local ethnic foods (e.g., Chinese) to eat ethnic cuisine that they do not know how to cook; this indicates that the neophilic tendency continues to grow in the United States.

In summary, the benefits of family dining out that mothers perceive, compared to cooking at home, are enjoyment with family members, convenience, detachment from daily routine cooking, relaxation, and learning new things. The existing research on the topic focused on the qualitative methods (e.g., interview and focus group). However, the number of samples was small, and the age or income range of the samples was too narrow in relative terms to be generalized to the population of mothers. Therefore, based on the previous literature, in order to conduct a quantitative study, this study categorizes specific dimensions of family dining out benefits and develops a measurement scale for family dining out benefits, specifically from the viewpoint of mothers.

2.4.2 Life Satisfaction

A growing body of literature on life satisfaction related to certain positive experiences has investigated the areas of leisure and tourism (Chen, Huang, & Petrick 2016a; Chen, Petrick, & Shahvali, 2016b; Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004; Sirgy et al., 2011; Wang, 2017). Gilbert and Abdullah (2004) discovered that individuals who took holidays had higher life satisfaction than those who did not take holidays. The bottom-up spillover theory (Diener, 1984) suggests that overall life satisfaction is functionally associated with the satisfaction that comes from a specific consumption experience, that is, a specific life domain.

Sirgy et al. (2011) investigated how positive and negative affect from trip experiences impact life satisfaction through satisfaction with various life domains. The interesting finding of the study was that both positive and negative affects in culinary life influenced overall life satisfaction through culinary well-being. The positive affect in culinary life included the following measurement items: “enjoying good tasting food”, “eating healthy”, “experiencing new and exotic cuisines”, and “experiencing new and exotic beverages”. According to the results, this study assumes that mothers who dine out for family leisure might enjoy new and good tasting food with their family. The enjoyment of experience can result in an increase in life satisfaction.

Based on the effort-recovery theory (Meijman & Mulder, 1998), people who are exposed to work-related stress often have overload reactions such as fatigue, while overload reactions disappear once they no longer need to face the work demands (Chen et al., 2016b). Because individuals, especially females, feel more relaxed on vacation when they feel detached from housework and other daily routine demands, this experience of relaxation and detachment can assist recovery, which contributes to an increase in the level of life satisfaction (De Bloom et al., 2009). Therefore, this study proposes that mothers might experience convenience as well as relaxation by being detached from their daily routine when dining out with their family, and that the experience of convenience, detachment, and relaxation while dining out might increase their life satisfaction.

According to the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1998), people try to maintain and increase their external resources (e.g., financial assets) and internal sources (e.g., positive mood and energies). Because stress can lessen internal resources, people try to obtain more internal resources. For example, people can obtain new internal resources when they experience and learn something new (Hobfoll, 1998). Furthermore,

Sirgy et al. (2011) point out that experiencing positive affect in arts and cultural life increase overall life satisfaction through arts and culture well-being. For instance, people experience and learn new things such as other cultures in the form of food and beverages and the new learning experience contributes to their life satisfaction. Therefore, this study assumes that mothers who dine out for family leisure purposes might learn new things such as different cultures through food and beverages. This learning experience could increase life satisfaction.

2.4.3 Moderating Role of Cooking Stress

The burden of housework and chronic pressure can cause psychological distress (e.g., Pleck, 1985), which is closely related to women's health and well-being (Hartley, Popay, & Plewis, 1992). Recently, women's workplace stress combined with everyday domestic stress can cause demand overload, which affects women's health (Chandola, Kuper, Singh-Manoux, Bartley, & Marmot, 2004). Mother's stress can be alleviated by having time off from work. Recovery can be divided into two areas; macro-recovery and meta-recovery. Macro-recovery occurs during longer periods of time off work (e.g., vacations) while meta-recovery happens during shorter breaks from work (e.g., evenings and weekends) (Etzion, 2003; Sluiter et al., 2000). For example, family dining out as a leisure activity in the evenings or on weekends detaches mothers from the daily routine of cooking for the family. The break from home and kitchen can help mothers to recover from stress associated with household demands such cooking.

Prior studies examining stress recovery conclude that individuals with high stress jobs are less likely to relax and detach themselves from the job after working hours and at weekends (Cropley & Millward, 2009; Van Heck & Vingerhoets, 2007). This study, therefore, proposes that the effects of family dining out benefits on life satisfaction might

be smaller among mothers with higher level of cooking stress.

2.4.4 Research Model and Hypotheses for Benefits of Dining

Figure 6 shows the research model for the benefits of dining out. The research model included enjoyment, convenience, detachment, relaxation, learning experience, life satisfaction, and cooking stress. The five benefit constructs, enjoyment, convenience, detachment, relaxation, and learning experience were selected as exogenous variables, while life satisfaction was designated as an endogenous variable. It was hypothesized that each exogenous variable may have direct effects on the endogenous variable. This study also hypothesized that family dining out benefits on life satisfaction may be smaller among mothers with higher level of cooking stress. More detailed hypotheses are shown below the research model.



H19: Low Cooking Stress vs High Cooking Stress

Figure 6

Research Model for Benefits of Dining Out

H14: Enjoyment will have a positive impact on life satisfaction after family dining out.

H15: Convenience will have a positive impact on life satisfaction after family dining out.

H16: Detachment will have a positive impact on life satisfaction after family dining out.

H17: Relaxation will have a positive impact on life satisfaction after family dining out.

H18: Learning will have a positive impact on life satisfaction after family dining out.

H19: Family dining out benefits on life satisfaction will be smaller among mothers with higher levels of cooking stress.

2.5 Summary

The research models and hypotheses for this dissertation were presented in the final part of each literature section. A total of three research models and nineteen hypotheses were proposed based on the previous literature. Table 1 summarizes the research hypotheses and the structural relations.

Table 1

Summary of Research Hypotheses and Structural Paths

Hypothesis	Hypothesized path	Direction
Model for Dining Out Constraint		
H1	Interpersonal constraint → Dining out frequency	Negative
H2	Structural constraint → Dining out frequency	Negative
H3	Intrapersonal constraint → Dining out frequency	Negative
Model for Dining Out Decision-Making Process		
H4	Cooking stress → Desire to dine out	Positive
H5	Cooking stress → Need for reward	Positive
H6	Need for reward → Desire to dine out	Positive
H7	Desire to dine out → Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure	Positive
H8	Desire to dine out → Interpersonal constraint	Positive
H9	Desire to dine out → Structural constraint	Positive
H10	Desire to dine out → Intrapersonal constraint	Positive
H11	Interpersonal constraint → Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure	Negative
H12	Structural constraint → Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure	Negative
H13	Intrapersonal constraint → Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure	Negative
Model for Benefits of Dining Out		
H14	Enjoyment → Life satisfaction	Positive
H15	Convenience → Life satisfaction	Positive
H16	Detachment → Life satisfaction	Positive
H17	Relaxation → Life satisfaction	Positive
H18	Learning → Life satisfaction	Positive
H19	Low cooking stress on Dining out Benefits → Life satisfaction (vs High cooking stress)	Strong Positive

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Research methods are discussed in this chapter. The first section outlines the research design. The second section presents the purpose and procedure of instrument development, and the pilot study's purpose, methods, and results. The third section addresses the process of data collection for the main study. The implementation of data screening is elaborated in the fourth section. Lastly, data analysis techniques and procedures are described in the fifth section.

3.2 Research Design

The main purposes of the study are (1) to examine how mothers' constraints on family dining out influence family dining out frequency (Hypotheses 1–3), (2) to assess the relationships between cooking stress, need for reward, desire to dine out, constraints, and family dining out frequency as a leisure activity, focusing on the entire process from problem/need recognition to purchase decision (Hypotheses 4–13), and (3) to investigate how family dining out benefits influence the life satisfaction of mothers, and how the effects of family dining out benefits on life satisfaction are moderated by cooking stress levels (Hypotheses 14–19).

The constructs in the three research models are as follows. The first structural model included three exogenous variables (i.e., interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, and intrapersonal constraint), one endogenous variable (i.e., dining out frequency), and one control variable (i.e., yearly household income). The second structural model consisted of one exogenous variable (i.e., cooking stress), six endogenous variables (i.e., need for reward, desire to dine out, interpersonal constraint,

structural constraint, intrapersonal constraint, and perceived frequency of dining out as leisure), and one control variable (i.e., yearly household income). In the third structural model, five exogenous variables (i.e., enjoyment, convenience, detachment, relaxation, and learning) and one endogenous variable (i.e., life satisfaction) were included.

This study utilized an online survey method to identify the relationships among the main constructs (i.e., family dining out constraints, cooking stress, need for reward, desire to dine out, and family dining out benefits) in three research models. The online survey questionnaire was distributed to participants via an online survey company. The method is appropriate for use in this study because the target participants of the study were U.S. mothers who are active online. The fact was supported by the recent finding of an eMarketer report (2017), indicating that more than 95% of mothers in the U.S. were online users and, on average, they spent three and a half hours a day on the internet.

3.3 Instrument Development

This study developed measurement scales for the main constructs (i.e., family dining out constraints, cooking stress, need for reward, desire to dine out, perceived frequency of dining out as leisure, and family dining out benefits) for two reasons. First, valid scale development for dining out constraints from the viewpoint of mothers is needed in the areas of hospitality and restaurant management. General eating-out constraints including intrapersonal, interpersonal, and access/cost constraints were revealed by Cho et al., (2008) applying the three constructs of leisure constraints (i.e., intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints) to the context of eating out. However, the authors argued that further research is needed to develop more valid scales of eating out constraints because the average variance extracted (AVE) of eating-out

constraints was relatively low (.53 - .57) as seen in the results of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

Second, scales for mothers' cooking stress, need for reward, desire to dine out, perceived frequency of dining out as leisure, and dining out benefits have not been developed in the areas of hospitality and restaurant management. Qualitative methods such as interviews and focus groups were generally used to study mothers' cooking stress and dining out benefits in the food context (Bowen, et al., 2014; Kasparian et al., 2017; McGuffin et al., 2015; Robson et al., 2016). Additionally, the samples used in prior research on the topics were small and/or the age or income range of the samples was too narrow in relative terms to be generalized to the population of all mothers.

This study followed the scale development procedure suggested by previous research on instrument development in order to develop valid and reliable measurement items and scales for family dining out constraints, cooking stress, need for reward, desire to dine out, perceived frequency of dining out as leisure, and family dining out benefits (Menor & Roth, 2007; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). The development of the scales involved several steps: (1) specification of the theoretical constructs and their operational definitions, (2) item generation, (3) scale purification and pilot test, (4) questionnaire development, (5) survey data collection, (6) exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, (7) item and scale refinement.

First, a set of items for three constructs of family dining out constraints was derived from previous studies examining general eating out constraints (Cho et al., 2008) and leisure and travel constraints (Hudson, 2000; Hung & Petrick, 2010; 2012; Jun & Kyle, 2011; Moghimehfar & Halpenny, 2016; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008). The measurement items for cooking stress and its related family dining out decision-making

were derived from Bowen et al. (2014) for cooking stress, Epter (2009) and McGuffin et al. (2015) for need for reward, Robson et al. (2016) for desire to dine out, and Ren, Chung, Stoel, and Xu (2011) for perceived frequency of dining out as leisure. A set of items for five constructs of family dining out benefits was derived from prior studies (Chen et al., 2016a; Epter, 2009; Jin, Line, & Goh, 2013; Kasparian et al., 2017; Kim & Eves, 2012; Ponnam & Balaji, 2014; Robson et al., 2016; Wang, 2017).

Second, mothers' actual opinions of family dining out constraints and benefits were recorded during semistructured interviews. The actual opinions were collected from 19 U.S. mothers who were at least 18 years old via Amazon's Mechanical Turk, an online labor market. They were asked to answer two open-ended questions to create a list of family dining out constraints and benefits (i.e., Please specify if you have any issues that may limit your dining out frequency with your family; Please specify if you think there are any benefits from dining-out.). Thirty-one key words for family dining out constraints and 26 key words for family dining out benefits were identified in the interviews and were classified to match the three constructs of constraints and the five constructs of benefits. A total of 19 items for dining out constraints, 16 items for cooking stress and its related dining out decision-making, and 28 items for dining out benefits were developed from the literature and/or the interview. Next, professionals such as professors in the area of hospitality management reviewed the research instruments before finalizing the items for the pilot test.

3.3.1 Results of the Pilot Study

A pilot study was performed to build a robust research instrument for assessing dining out constraints, the dining out decision-making process, and dining out benefits. The main purpose of the pilot study was to test the validity and reliability of the

measurement items before finalizing the questionnaire for the main study. It also aimed to gather feedback on the wording of the preliminary questionnaire (Appendix A). Data for the pilot study were collected from U.S. mothers who were at least 18 years old via Amazon's Mechanical Turk, an online labor market. Data collection was executed in March 2018. With a total of 106 samples, a series of exploratory factor analyses (EFA) with maximum likelihood extraction and promax rotation were conducted. As suggested by Worthington and Whittaker (2006), EFA was necessary in the pilot study since the scales of mother' family dining out constraints, dining out decision-making process, and dining out benefits have not been developed in the areas of hospitality and restaurant management. KMO criteria, eigenvalues, scree plots, and item community were utilized to determine the number of factors to retain (Pallant, 2011), and factor loadings were used to decide item deletion or retention (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006).

Table 2 presents the final results of the EFA for dining out constraints. The appropriateness of the data for factor analysis was confirmed by satisfactory levels for the KMO measure of sampling adequacy (.73) and for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .001$). Three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were extracted for dining out constraints. These three components explained 55.94% of the variance. Factor loadings of all three components were greater than .40. Reliability coefficient alphas within the two factors, except for one factor with one indicator, were .84 and .78, indicating a generally acceptable level of internal consistency of the scales. Thus, the results supported three components for dining out constraints.

Although, of the 19 items, 10 items for constraints were retained by the EFA, six items eliminated in the process of the EFA were re-posted for collecting data for a main study. This is because the six constraint items were highly supported by interviews with

mothers and their mean values were above or slightly below 4, the mid-point of a 7-point Likert scale. The re-posted items were as follows: “I think a meal at a restaurant is less healthy than a meal at home.” ($M = 5.10$), “I feel that dining out is not more special than having dinner at home.” ($M = 4.40$), “I prefer eating at home to dining out.” ($M = 5.11$), “It is difficult for my family to agree on where to dine out.” ($M = 3.75$), “Dining out with my child(ren) is stressful (e.g., it is difficult to ensure their good behavior).” ($M = 3.85$), and “I cannot afford to dine out often.” ($M = 4.73$). Based on the feedback of the participants and the literature reviews, one new item “If I spend too much money on dining out, I feel guilty.” was added to a finalized survey questionnaire. Therefore, a total of 17 constraint items were selected for data collection in the main study.

Table 2

Exploratory Factor Analysis Results of Pilot Study for Dining Out Constraints

Factor/Items	Factor loading	Eigen value	Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Alpha
Factor 1: Interpersonal constraint		3.38	21.31	.84
C3: Good food	.955			
C2: Family health	.860			
C6: Duty	.667			
C11: Education	.579			
C16: Expensiveness	.489			
Factor 2: Structural constraint		2.42	28.08	.78
C14: Time	1.013			
C13: Energy	.721			
C10: Family time	.614			
C17: Crowd	.409			
Factor 3L Intrapersonal constraint		1.00	6.55	-
C7: Dine out guilt	.652			
Total			55.94	

Note: Total variance explained (55.94), KMO measure of sampling adequacy (.73). Bartlett’s test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 427.52$, $df = 45$, $p < .001$)

Table 3 shows the final EFA results of the pilot study for the dining out decision-making process. The appropriateness of the data for factor analysis was confirmed by satisfactory levels for the KMO measure of sampling adequacy (.85) and for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .001$). Four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were extracted for the dining out decision-making process. These four components explained 69.05% of the variance. Factor loadings of all four components were greater than .40. Reliability coefficient alphas within the four factors were .89, .88, .87, and .75, indicating a generally acceptable level of internal consistency of the scales. Thus, the results supported four components (i.e., cooking stress, need for reward, desire to dine out, and perceived frequency of dining out as leisure) for the dining out decision-making process, except for the three constraints.

Table 3

Exploratory Factor Analysis Results of Pilot Study for Dining Out Decision-Making Process

Factor/Items	Factor loading	Eigen value	Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Alpha
Factor 1: Cooking stress		6.39	20.99	.89
ST5: Money	.905			
ST2: Pleasing	.859			
ST1: Time	.810			
ST6: Stress	.732			
ST3: Appreciation	.665			
Factor 2: Need for reward		1.89	29.59	.88
RWD1: Deservedness	.929			
RWD4: Entertainment	.882			
RWD2: Break	.638			
RWD3: Relaxation	.541			
Factor 3: Desire to dine out		1.51	10.85	.87
DSR1: Free	.943			
DSR3: Break	.838			
DSR2: Escape	.771			

Factor 4: Perceived frequency of dine out as leisure	1.02	7.61	.75
RDO2: leisure	.978		
RDO3: Renewal	.562		
<hr/> Total		69.05	

Note: Total variance explained (69.05), KMO measure of sampling adequacy (.85). Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 940.57$, $df = 91$, $p < .001$)

Of the 16 measurement items for the decision-making process, 14 items were retained by the EFA. However, two items removed by the EFA were re-posted for collecting data for the main study because the average values of the items including “I feel frustrated when family members do not appreciate the time and energy that I put into preparing a meal.” ($M = 4.72$) and “I sometimes dine out with my family to relax.” ($M = 5.53$) were above 4, the mid-point of a 7-point Likert scale. Hence, a total of 16 decision-making process items were chosen for data collection in the main study.

The final results of the EFA for dining out benefits are shown in Table 4. The appropriateness of the data for factor analysis was confirmed by satisfactory levels for the KMO measure of sampling adequacy (.84) and for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .001$). Five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were extracted for dining out benefits. These five components explained 67.10% of the variance. Factor loadings for all five components were greater than .40. Reliability coefficient alphas within the five factors were .89, .91, .90, .90, and .86, indicating a generally acceptable level of internal consistency of the scales. Thus, the results supported five components for dining out benefits (i.e., enjoyment, convenience, relaxation, detachment, and learning). Of the 22 items, 21 measurement items retained by the EFA for benefits were selected for data collection in the main study.

Table 4

Exploratory Factor Analysis Results of Pilot Study for Dining Out Benefits

Factor/Items	Factor loading	Eigen value	Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Alpha
Factor 1: Enjoyment		8.58	37.34	.89
E3: Atmosphere	.824			
F3: Quality time	.811			
F2: Togetherness	.773			
S1: Taste	.728			
F1: Family time	.715			
S2: Look	.686			
E4: New restaurant	.638			
E1: Different food	.506			
Factor 2: Convenience		2.42	10.80	.91
C1: Time	.981			
C3: Cook	.915			
C3: Energy	.865			
C4: Activity	.424			
Factor 3: Relaxation		1.88	7.20	.90
R2: Tension	.917			
R3: Renewal	.913			
R1: Recharging	.740			
Factor 4: Detachment		1.52	6.00	.90
D2: Forgettery	.928			
D1: Distance	.899			
D3: Worry	.712			
Factor 5: Learning		1.09	5.76	.86
L1: Recipe	.981			
L2: Knowledge	.897			
L3: Culture	.607			
Total			67.10	

Note: Total variance explained (67.10), KMO measure of sampling adequacy (.84). Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 1658.67$, $df = 210$, $p < .001$)

3.3.2 Research Instrument for the Main Study

The questionnaires (Appendix B) included five sections. The first section involved general information about home cooking and family dining out (i.e., share of

housework, cooking duty, cooking time, dining out decision maker, restaurant type, dining out frequency, and dining out spending). The second section was designed to measure dining out constraints. The third section was developed to measure variables regarding mothers' dining out decision-making processes (i.e., cooking stress, need for reward, desire to dine out, and perceived frequency of dining out). The fourth section was designed to examine dining out benefits and life satisfaction. In the fifth section, the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents were included: age, race, education level, employment status, number of children, location, annual household income, age of youngest child.

Table 5, Table 6, and Table 7 show the items for each research construct used in the main survey questionnaire. All of the main constructs were measured using a 7-point Likert scale except for yearly household income used as a control variable. A total of 17 items were used to measure dining out constraints: 5 items for interpersonal constraints, 6 items for structural constraints, and 6 items for intrapersonal constraints. Dining out frequency was measured by asking participants to indicate how many nights per month they dine out with their family during a typical month, based on the study by Epter (2009). A total of 16 items were used to measure the dining out decision-making process except for constraints: six items for cooking stress, four items for need for reward, three items for desire to dine out, and three items for perceived frequency of dining out as leisure. In order to measure dining out benefits, a total of 21 items were used: seven items for enjoyment, four items for convenience, three items for detachment, three items for relaxation, four items for learning experience. Overall life satisfaction was derived from the study by Sirgy et al. (2011). An example of the three items for life satisfaction is the

following: “After my family dining out experience, my satisfaction with life in general is increased.”

Table 5

Measurement Items for Dining Out Constraint Model

Constructs	# of items	Measures
Interpersonal constraint	5	I think a meal at home is healthier than a meal at a restaurant. I care about my family’s health. I want to give good food to my family. I want to teach my child(ren) good eating habits by giving them home-cooked meals. It is difficult for my family to agree on where to dine out.
Structural constraint	6	Usually, I am too tired to go out. Usually, I do not have enough time to dine out. It is difficult for my family to find time to dine out (e.g., different activities, work schedules, etc.). I cannot afford to dine out often. The restaurants I want to visit are too crowded and/or loud. Dining out with my child(ren) is stressful (e.g., difficult to ensure their good behavior).
Intrapersonal constraint	6	I feel that dining out is not more special than having dinner at home. I prefer eating at home to dining out. I feel that we should eat at home more often than we dine out. If I dine out too often, I feel guilty. Dining out is more expensive than having dinner at home. If I spend too much money on dining out, I feel guilty.
Dining out frequency	1	During a typical month, how many nights per month do you dine out with your family?

Table 6

Measurement Items for Dining Out Decision-Making Model

Constructs	# of items	Measures
Cooking stress	6	I feel pressed for time when preparing family meals. I feel pressure to please family members when cooking for my family. I feel frustrated when family members do not appreciate the time and energy that I put into preparing a meal.

		<p>I feel that the dissatisfaction of family members (e.g., picky eating) discourages me from making family meals.</p> <p>I feel under pressure to save money when purchasing food items or ingredients for family meals.</p> <p>I feel that preparing routine daily meals is stressful.</p>
Need for Reward	4	<p>I feel I deserve a reward for preparing routine daily meals.</p> <p>I feel I need a break from the everyday eating routine.</p> <p>I feel I need to relax without thinking about preparing routine daily meals.</p> <p>I feel I need to have entertainment as a reward for preparing routine daily meals.</p>
Desire to dine out	3	<p>I sometimes want to dine out with my family to be free from the routine of everyday cooking.</p> <p>I sometimes want to dine out with my family to escape the burden of a sense of duty to cook.</p> <p>I sometimes want to dine out with my family to take a break from the everyday eating routine.</p>
Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure	3	<p>I sometimes dine out with my family to relax.</p> <p>I dine out regularly with my family to have more leisure time.</p> <p>I dine out with my family on a regular basis to feel renewed.</p>

Note: Measures for dining out constraints were omitted from Table 6 because the measures were presented in Table 5.

Table 7

Measurement Items for Dining Out Benefit Model

Constructs	# of items	Measures
Enjoyment	7	<p>“Dining out with my family enables me...”</p> <p>to enjoy the restaurant atmosphere.</p> <p>to enjoy different food to what I would normally prepare.</p> <p>to enjoy good tasting food.</p> <p>to enjoy nice looking food.</p> <p>to have an enjoyable family time.</p> <p>to eat together as a family outside of our home.</p> <p>to spend quality time with my family.</p>
Convenience	4	<p>“Dining out with my family...”</p> <p>is convenient when I do not have enough time to cook.</p> <p>is convenient when I do not have enough energy to cook.</p> <p>is convenient when I do not want to cook.</p> <p>is convenient when my family and I have different activities (e.g., sports practice, movie, shopping, etc.).</p>

Detachment	3	<p>“Dining out with my family enables me...”</p> <p>to distance myself from the demands of preparing routine daily meals.</p> <p>to forget about preparing routine daily meals.</p> <p>not to have to worry about preparing routine daily meals.</p>
Relaxation	3	<p>“Dining out with my family enables me...”</p> <p>to renew my energy/to recharge.</p> <p>to release tension/stress.</p> <p>to feel renewed.</p>
Learning	4	<p>“Dining out with my family enables me...”</p> <p>to learn about new recipes.</p> <p>to develop my own cooking knowledge and skills.</p> <p>to experience other cultures in the form of food and drink.</p> <p>to experience new restaurants.</p>
Life satisfaction	3	<p>“After my family dining out experience ...”</p> <p>My satisfaction with life in general is increased.</p> <p>My happiness in general is increased.</p> <p>My overall quality of life is enhanced.</p>

3.4 Data Collection for Main Study

The population of this study was defined as U.S. mothers who were at least 18 years old. This study limited the population to married mothers in the traditional American family structure. This is because dining out behavior varies depending on marital status (e.g., being divorced and separated) (Ham, Hwang, & Kim, 2004). Additionally, the traditional family form still makes up a substantial proportion of American families even though alternative family forms have become common in the U.S. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2017), children living with married parents constituted over half (64.98%) of the population of American children in 2017, followed by children living with a never married single parent (12.62%), a divorced single parent (8.36%), neither parent (4.04%), unmarried parents (3.90%), a separated single parent (3.49%), and others (2.60%). Therefore, this study selected U.S. married women who

have at least one child under the age of 18 residing in their household as the sample for the study.

This study used an online survey company—Qualtrics—to collect the data. The company built a cooperative system with Survey Sampling International (SSI) to obtain appropriate samples to reflect the research population. SSI recruits participants from a number of panels via diverse sourcing types and channels. The strategy uses a broad sample frame to minimize coverage bias that would rise from convenience sampling of an existing online survey, resulting in a good representation of the population. A Qualtrics survey questionnaire for the study was created by the researcher and target panels recruited by SSI were invited to participate in the survey. To ensure an eligible sample, three screening questions such as marital status and age of youngest child were included at the beginning of the questionnaire.

A Soper (2018) a priori sample size calculator was utilized to determine a proper sample size for structural equation modeling (SEM). The minimum sample sizes for the three research models were calculated using the anticipated effect size ($d = 0.30$), the desired statistical power level (0.80), the number of latent variables ($N = 4$ for the dining out constraint model; $N = 7$ for the dining out decision-making process model; $N = 7$ for the dining out benefit model) and observed variables ($N = 18$ for the dining out constraint model; $N = 33$ for the dining out decision-making process model; $N = 24$ for the dining out benefit model), and the probability level ($p = 0.05$). The recommended minimum sample sizes were 137 for the dining out constraint model, 170 for the dining out decision-making process model, and 170 for the dining out benefit model. A nationwide online survey to collect data was carried out in March 2018. Of the 748 distributed survey

questionnaires, a total of 644 questionnaires were obtained after eliminating ineligible and unengaged responses and the questionnaire were used for data analysis.

3.5 Data Screening

Data was screened in several steps. First, the initial data (N = 748) were checked for missing data, unengaged responses, and outliers. Eighty-one ineligible responses and 23 unengaged responses were detected, and there were no missing values or significant outliers. A total of 104 questionnaires were eliminated in the first step of data screening. Second, the normality of the data was identified using skewness and kurtosis tests because variables must be normally distributed to use maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) for assessing the model (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). As shown in Table 8, the results indicated that all 75 observed variables for three research models had the absolute values of skewness and kurtosis indices smaller than 3 and 10 respectively. According to Kline (2011), the data did not severely deviate from normality as the values were less than 3 for skewness and 10 for kurtosis. Since the data did not seem to violate the normality assumption, it was appropriate to use the MLE method for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM).

In the next step, influential observations and multicollinearity of the data were tested for multivariate assumptions. Cook's distance values were below 0.06 for the dining out constraint model, below 0.04 for the dining out decision-making model, and below 0.20 for the dining out benefit model. The results suggest that particularly extreme cases did not exist. Moreover, tolerance values were above 0.10 and variance inflation factor (VIF) values were below 10 for all variables in each of the three models. The findings revealed that collinearity among the variables in each model was not present. Finally, 644 samples were used for data analysis.

Table 8

Results of Normality Test (75 items, N = 644)

Item	Description	Skewness	Kurtosis
C1	Health	-1.244	1.268
C2	Family health	-2.640	7.267
C3	Good food	-2.661	7.666
C4	Education	-2.220	5.902
C5	Family agreement	-0.162	-1.005
C6	Specificity	0.022	-0.885
C7	Preference	-0.331	-0.704
C8	Duty	-1.166	0.936
C9	Dining out guilt	-0.631	-0.577
C10	Expensiveness	-1.815	3.191
C11	Money guilt	-0.973	0.099
C12	Energy	-0.139	-0.799
C13	Time	0.296	-0.653
C14	Family time	0.238	-0.847
C15	Money	-0.527	-0.702
C16	Crowd	-0.093	-0.688
C17	Young child	0.181	-1.231
DFreq	Frequency of family dining out	1.642	2.722
ST1	Time	-0.425	-0.590
ST2	Pleasing	-0.543	-0.685
ST3	Appreciation	-0.701	-0.417
ST4	Dissatisfaction	-0.064	-1.111
ST5	Money	-0.545	-0.600
ST6	Stress	-0.265	-0.922
RWD1	Deservedness	0.023	-0.991
RWD2	Break	-0.673	0.129
RWD3	Relaxation	-0.487	-0.236
RWD4	Entertainment	0.160	-0.780
DSR1	Free	-1.175	1.356
DSR2	Escape	-0.931	0.347
DSR3	Break	-1.125	1.547
RDO1	Relaxation	-1.031	1.130
RDO2	Leisure	-0.448	-0.627

RDO3	Renewal	-0.181	-0.751
B1	Atmosphere	-0.699	0.120
B2	Different food	-1.333	2.149
B3	Taste	-1.235	1.789
B4	Look	-0.935	0.806
B5	Distance	-0.973	0.715
B6	Forgettery	-0.934	0.555
B7	Worry	-1.027	0.917
B8	Energy	-0.624	0.008
B9	Tension	-0.716	0.019
B10	Renewal	-0.490	-0.321
B11	Family time	-1.358	2.592
B12	Togetherness	-1.249	2.105
B13	Quality time	-1.265	1.949
B14	Recipe	-0.221	-0.792
B15	Knowledge	-0.092	-0.878
B16	Culture	-0.747	0.032
B17	New restaurant	-1.158	1.670
B18	Time	-1.298	1.516
B19	Energy	-1.398	2.242
B20	Cook	-1.432	2.494
B21	Activity	-1.160	1.237
LS1	Satisfaction	-0.439	0.152
LS2	Happiness	-0.514	0.367
LS3	Quality	-0.456	0.101

3.6 Data Analysis

The data analysis for this study involved several steps. In the first step, frequency analysis was performed to examine the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents using SPSS software version 25. Second, a series of exploratory factor analyses (EFA) with maximum likelihood extraction and promax rotation in SPSS were conducted. The reason for conducting new EFA in the main study is because some changes of scales were made based on the results of the pilot study (e.g., adding new items and re-posting the deleted items). Worthington and Whittaker (2006) suggested that

it is preferable to carry out a new EFA on the modified scale before proceeding to CFA if changes of scales are necessary or if the results of the EFA are not satisfactory. KMO's criterion, eigenvalues, scree plots, and item community were utilized to determine the number of factors to retain (Pallant, 2011), and factor loadings were used to decide item deletion or retention (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006).

Next, AMOS software version 25 was used to perform a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and a structural equation modeling (SEM) with maximum likelihood estimation. Separate CFAs were conducted to examine whether all the latent variables in the hypothesized models 1, 2, and 3 were adequately measured. Model fits were assessed by an absolute index such as the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and incremental indices including the normed fit index (NFI), the incremental fit index (IFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), the comparative fit index (CFI). This study did not use the chi-square test as an absolute fit index because this test is sensitive to sample size (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). An adequate model fit is reported when RMSEA is less than .08, and the values of NFI, IFI, TLI and CFI exceed .90 (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011).

Reliability and validity of all scales in the three proposed models were examined based on the results of CFA. A satisfactory level of reliability and convergent validity is reported when the composite reliability (CR) exceeds .70 and the average variance extracted (AVE) exceeds .50 (Hair et al., 2010; Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003). Discriminant validity was also assessed by comparing both the AVE with Maximum Shared Variance (MSV) and the square root of AVE with inter-construct correlations (Hair et al., 2010). When the AVEs are greater than the MSVs and the square roots of

AVEs are greater than the inter-construct correlations, it is reported that all constructs are distinct.

Separate SEM procedures were conducted to examine the hypothesized relationships among the constructs in the structural model 1 for dining out constraint (H1 - H3), the model 2 for dining out decision-making (H4 - H13), and the model 3 for dining out benefit (H14 - H19). The first structural model included three exogenous variables (i.e., interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, and intrapersonal constraint), one endogenous variable (i.e., dining out frequency), and one control variable (i.e., yearly household income). The second structural model consisted of one exogenous variable (i.e., cooking stress), six endogenous variables (i.e., need for reward, desire to dine out, interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, intrapersonal constraint, and perceived frequency of dining out), and one control variable (i.e., yearly household income). In the third structural model, five exogenous variables (i.e., enjoyment, convenience, detachment, relaxation, and learning) and one endogenous variable (i.e., life satisfaction) were included. Each structural model was assessed by the same model fit indices used for testing the measurement model.

Finally, a SEM multiple group analysis was utilized to assess the moderating effects of mothers' cooking stress on the relationships among dining out benefits and life satisfaction (H19). To identify the significant difference between two cooking stress groups, the chi-square values with degrees of freedom were compared between the unconstrained and constrained models (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Statistical analysis methods for testing hypotheses are summarized in Table 9.

Table 9

Statistical Analysis Methods for Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Method	
Model for Dining Out Constraint		
H1: Interpersonal constraint → Dining out frequency	EFA, CFA, SEM	
H2: Structural constraint → Dining out frequency		
H3: Intrapersonal constraint → Dining out frequency		
Model for Dining Out Decision-Making Process		
H4: Cooking stress → Desire to dine out	EFA, CFA, SEM	
H5: Cooking stress → Need for reward		
H6: Need for reward → Desire to dine out		
H7: Desire to dine out → Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure		
H8: Desire to dine out → Interpersonal constraint		
H9: Desire to dine out → Structural constraint		
H10: Desire to dine out → Intrapersonal constraint		
H11: Interpersonal constraint → Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure		
H12: Structural constraint → Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure		
H13: Intrapersonal constraint → Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure		
Model for Benefits of Dining Out		
H14: Enjoyment → Life satisfaction		EFA, CFA, SEM
H15: Convenience → Life satisfaction		
H16: Detachment → Life satisfaction		
H17: Relaxation → Life satisfaction		
H18: Learning → Life satisfaction		
H19: Moderating effects of cooking stress	SEM multiple group analysis	

3.7 Summary

This chapter describes the research methodology for the study. First, the section on research design addresses research subjects and the main methods used for the study. Second, the section on instrument development elaborates the reasons why scale development is needed in the study, the procedure of scale development, the results of the pilot study, and the measurement items used for the main study. Third, the data collection section for the main study presents the research sample, the number of samples, and the

implementation of data collection. Fourth, the data screening section reports how the finalized data were obtained for statistical analyses. Finally, data analysis procedures and techniques are elaborated in the section on data analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis. The first section reports the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. The second section includes the results of the statistical analyses (i.e., EFA, CFA, and SEM) for the first proposed model “family dining out constraints of mothers”. The third section also comprises the findings of the statistical analyses (i.e., EFA, CFA, SEM, and bootstrapping) for the second proposed model “family dining out decision-making of mothers”. Finally, the fourth section covers the results of statistical analyses (i.e., EFA, CFA, SEM, and multi-group analysis) for the third proposed model “family dining out benefits of mothers”.

4.2 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Table 10 shows the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. The participants were 644 married women who had at least one child under the age of 18 residing in their household. Their average age was 37.13 years (SD = 8.70), ranging from 18 to 73 years of age. Of the participants, 39.3% had one child living at home, 37.9% had two children, 13.7% had three children, and 9.2% had more than four children. The average age of the youngest child was 6.55 years.

In terms of race, the majority of the respondents were Caucasian (78.7%), followed by Hispanic (7.5%), Asian (6.4%), and African-American (4.8%). Regarding education levels, 39.4% of the respondents had some college or associate degree, 24.8% were high school graduates, 23.0% were four-year college graduates, and 11.5% had completed graduate and post-graduate studies. Nearly half the respondents (48.4%) were homemakers, while 34.5% had full-time paid work, and 14.4% had part-time paid work.

Over half (54.9%) of the respondents reported that their annual household incomes were less than \$59,999; another 45.1% of the respondents reported an income of more than \$60,000. Of the respondents, 46.4% lived in suburban areas, 28.9% in rural areas, and 24.5% in urban areas.

Respondents were asked about their housework, including cooking, and about family dining out behavior. Among the participants, 34.5% seldom or never shared housework with their spouse, 32.9% sometimes shared housework with their spouse, and 32.6% often or very often shared housework with their spouse. Concerning the responsibility for making family meals, the majority of the respondents reported that cooking is their responsibility (87.1%), followed by spouse's responsibility (9.9%), and others (3.0%). They spent on average 3.67 hours per day preparing family meals including planning, grocery shopping, cooking, and cleaning up after. Over half (59.0%) of the respondents reported that they were the main decision makers on family dining out, 30.7% reported that it was decided by their spouse, 4.3% reported it was decided by their children. In order to dine out with the family, nearly half of the respondents (48.1%) went to casual dining restaurants, followed by fast food restaurants (30.7%), fast casual restaurants (15.5%), and fine dining restaurants (4.3%). They dined out an average of five nights per month with their family, and the mean expenditure on family dining out was \$156.69 per month.

Table 10

Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents (N = 644)

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	%
Number of children	1	253	39.3
	2	244	37.9
	3	88	13.7
	4 or more	59	9.2

Race	White / Caucasian	507	78.7
	Black / African American	31	4.8
	Hispanic / Latino American	48	7.5
	American Indian / Native American	6	.9
	Asian / Pacific Islander	41	6.4
	Multi-racial or mixed race	10	1.6
	Other	1	.2
Education level	High school or lower	160	24.8
	Some college or associate degree	254	39.4
	Bachelor's degree	148	23.0
	Graduate studies / Post-graduate studies	74	11.5
	Other	8	1.2
Employment status	Full-time paid work	222	34.5
	Part-time paid work	93	14.4
	Homemaker	312	48.4
	Other	17	2.6
Annual household income	\$19,999 or less	56	8.7
	\$20,000 - \$29,999	57	8.9
	\$30,000 - \$39,999	72	11.2
	\$40,000 - \$49,999	71	11.0
	\$50,000 - \$59,999	97	15.1
	\$60,000 - \$69,999	51	7.9
	\$70,000 - \$79,999	64	9.9
	\$80,000 - \$89,999	24	3.7
	\$90,000 - \$99,999	43	6.7
	\$100,000 or more	109	16.9
Location	Urban	158	24.5
	Suburban	300	46.6
	Rural	186	28.9

Table 10 (continued)

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	%
Share of housework	Never	48	7.5
	Seldom	174	27.0
	Somewhat	212	32.9
	Often	131	20.3
	Very often	79	12.3
Cooking duty	Me	561	87.1
	Spouse	64	9.9
	Other	19	3.0

Dining out decision maker	Me	380	59.0
	Spouse	198	30.7
	Child(ren)	28	4.3
	Other	38	5.9
Restaurant type	Fast food restaurant	198	30.7
	Fast casual restaurant	100	15.5
	Casual dining restaurant	310	48.1
	Fine dining restaurant	28	4.3
	Other	8	1.2
Characteristic		Mean (SD)	Range
Age		37.13 (8.70)	18-73
Age of youngest child		6.55 (5.26)	1-17
Cooking time		3.68 (3.13)	0-20
Dining out frequency		5.00 (4.07)	0-22
Dining out spending		156.69 (166.78)	0-1600

4.3 Model 1: Family Dining Out Constraints of Mothers

4.3.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with maximum likelihood extraction and promax rotation was conducted to examine underlying constraint factors. KMO's criterion, eigenvalues, scree plots, and item community were utilized to determine the number of factors to retain (Pallant, 2011), and factor loadings were used to decide item deletion or retention (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Table 11 presents the final results of the EFA. Of the 17 items, a total of 10 items for constraints were retained by the EFA (i.e., four items for interpersonal constraint, three for structural constraint, and three for intrapersonal constraint). The appropriateness of the data for factor analysis was confirmed by satisfactory levels for the KMO measure of sampling adequacy (.81) and for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .001$). Three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were extracted for dining out constraints (i.e., intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints). These three components explained 62.69% of the variance. Factor loadings of all three components were greater than .40. Reliability coefficient alphas within the three factors were .90, .84, and .69, indicating a generally acceptable level of internal

consistency of the scales. Thus, the results supported three components for dining out constraints.

Table 11

Exploratory Factor Analysis for Dining Out Constraints

Factor/Items	Factor loading	Eigen value	Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Alpha
Factor 1: Interpersonal constraint		3.81	32.70	.90
C3: Good food	.968			
C2: Family health	.930			
C4: Education	.841			
C1: Health	.608			
Factor 2: Structural constraint		2.28	21.23	.84
C13: Time	.904			
C14: Family time	.824			
C12: Energy	.659			
Factor 3: Intrapersonal constraint		1.23	8.77	.69
C9: Dining out guilt	.815			
C11: Money guilt	.675			
C8: Duty	.416			
Total			62.69	

Note: Total variance explained (62.69), KMO measure of sampling adequacy (.81). Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 3334.60$, $df = 45$, $p < .001$)

4.3.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to examine the overall fit of the measurement model with three constructs and ten indicators (i.e., four for interpersonal constraint, three for structural constraint, and three for intrapersonal constraint), and to confirm the reliability and validity of the constructs. The initial model provided a good fit (NFI = .959, IFI = .969, TLI = .956, CFI = .969, and RMSEA = .071) but the average variance extracted (AVE) for intrapersonal constraint was below the .50

cutoff. Among the three observed indicators of intrapersonal constraint construct, one indicator with a standardized factor loading below .60 was removed.

Overall, the re-specified measurement model with three constructs and nine indicators offered a good fit (NFI = .982, IFI = .989, TLI = .984, CFI = .989, and RMSEA = .047). The standardized factor loading, the composite reliability (CR), the average variance extracted (AVE) of each construct were estimated to assess reliability and convergent validity. As shown in Table 12, the standardized factor loadings of all measurement items ranged from .64 to .95 at the alpha level of .001. The CRs for interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, and intrapersonal constraint were .91, .84, and .71, respectively. These values are greater than the suggested threshold of .70 (Hair et al., 2010), indicating that each constraint construct was reliably measured. Moreover, the AVEs for all three constraint constructs were .72, .65, and .55, respectively. All values exceeded the recommended threshold of .50 (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Therefore, these findings of the factor loadings, the CRs, the AVEs confirmed the convergent validity of each constraint construct.

Discriminant validity was assessed by comparing both the AVE with Maximum Shared Variance (MSV) and the square root of AVE with inter-construct correlations (Hair et al., 2010). As shown in Table 12, the AVEs for all three constructs were greater than the MSVs. Also, the square roots of AVEs, ranging from .74 to .85, were greater than the inter-construct correlations, ranging from .12 to .41. Therefore, it was concluded that the three constraints are truly distinct constructs.

Table 12

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Dining Out Constraints

Construct/Item	M(SD)	Standardized factor loading	CR	AVE	MSV
----------------	-------	-----------------------------	----	-----	-----

Factor 1: Interpersonal constraint			.91	.72	.17
C3: Good food	6.29(1.25)	.954			
C2: Family health	6.30(1.28)	.914			
C4: Education	6.14(1.22)	.844			
C1: Health	5.66(1.48)	.644			
Factor 2: Structural constraint					
C13: Time	3.68(1.65)	.894	.84	.65	.07
C14: Family time	3.73(1.74)	.797			
C12: Energy	4.27(1.68)	.708			
Factor 3: Intrapersonal constraint			.71	.55	.17
C9: Dining out guilt	4.81(1.77)	.743			
C11: Money guilt	5.40(1.64)	.741			

Note: All factor loadings were significant at the .001 levels.

Model fit indices: NFI = .982, IFI = .989, TLI = .984, CFI = .989, and RMSEA = .047

4.3.3 Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling (SEM) with the maximum likelihood estimation was employed to examine the structural relationships among interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, intrapersonal constraint, and dining out frequency by controlling for yearly household income. The goodness-of-fit statistics of the SEM showed that the dining out constraint model had an adequate fit to the data (NFI = .940, IFI = .952, TLI = .937, CFI = .952, and RMSEA = .075). Therefore, the proposed model was not modified in the SEM.

Figure 7 and Table 13 present the SEM results for testing hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. The findings indicated that the interpersonal constraint of dining out has a significantly negative influence on dining out frequency ($t = -4.278, p < .001$); therefore, H1 was supported. It was also found that the structural constraint of dining out has a significantly negative influence on dining out frequency ($t = -2.614, p < .01$) supporting H2. However, H3 was not supported by showing the non-significant negative relationship between intrapersonal constraint of dining out and dining out frequency ($t = .058, p > .05$).

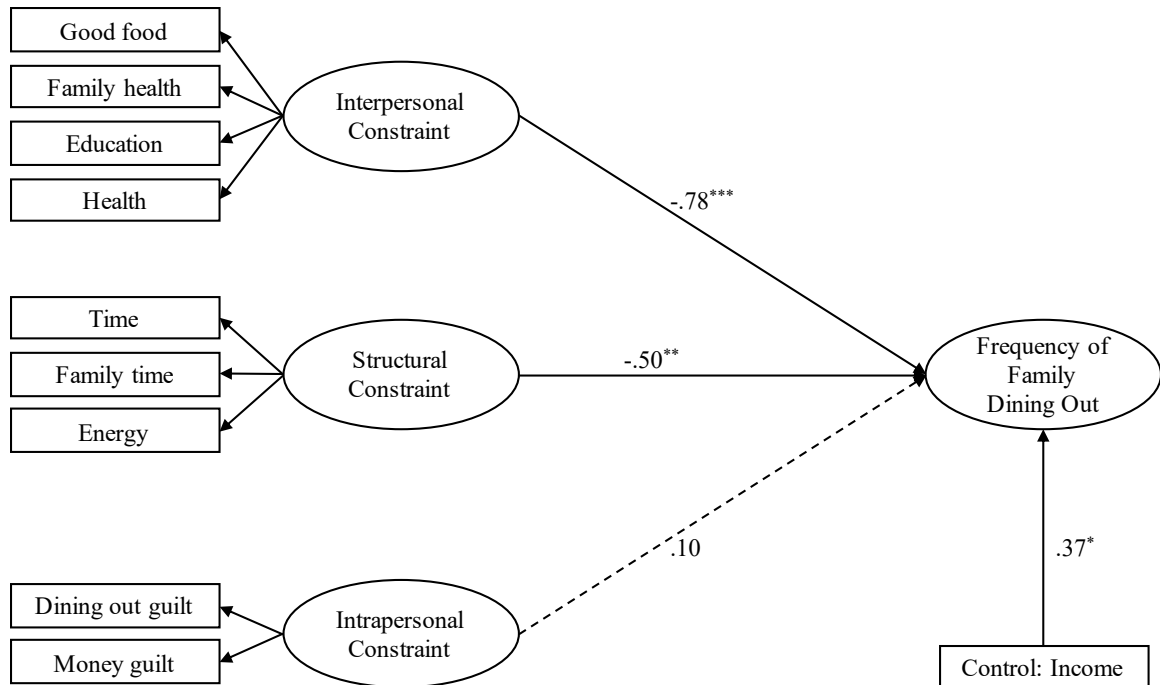


Figure 7
Structural Model Testing for Dining Out Constraint

Table 13

SEM Results for Testing Hypotheses 1 to 3

Hypothesized path	Standardized coefficients	t	Result for hypothesis
H1: Interpersonal constraint → Dining out frequency	-.778	-4.278***	Supported
H2: Structural constraint → Dining out frequency	-.496	-2.614**	Supported
H3: Intrapersonal constraint → Dining out frequency	.096	.058	Not supported

4.4 Model 2: Family Dining Out Decision-Making of Mothers

4.4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with maximum likelihood extraction and promax rotation was conducted to examine underlying factors for mothers' dining out

decision-making process. KMO's criterion, eigenvalues, scree plots, and item community were utilized to determine the number of factors to retain (Pallant, 2011), and factor loadings were used to decide item deletion or retention (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006).

Table 14 presents the final results of the EFA. Of the 33 items, a total of 24 items for dining out decision-making were retained by the EFA (i.e., six items for cooking stress, four for interpersonal constraint, three for structural constraint, three for desire to dine out, two for perceived frequency of dining out as leisure, four for intrapersonal constraint, and two for need for reward). The appropriateness of the data for factor analysis was confirmed by satisfactory levels for the KMO measure of sampling adequacy (.83) and for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .001$). Seven factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were extracted for mothers' dining out decision-making (i.e., cooking stress, need for reward, desire to dine out, interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, intrapersonal constraint, and perceived frequency of dining out as leisure). These seven components explained 60.49% of the variance. Factor loadings for all seven components were greater than .30. Reliability coefficient alphas within the seven factors ranged from .67 to .90, indicating a generally acceptable level of internal consistency of the scales. Therefore, the results supported seven components for dining out decision-making process.

Table 14

Exploratory Factor Analysis for Mothers' Dining Out Decision-Making

Factor/Items	Factor loading	Eigen value	Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Alpha
Factor 1: Cooking stress		5.65	17.69	.85
ST4: Dissatisfaction	.785			
ST2: Pleasing	.758			
ST3: Appreciation	.741			
ST6: Stress	.718			

ST1: Time	.611			
ST5: Money	.496			
Factor 2: Interpersonal constraint		3.35	11.15	.90
C3: Good food	.959			
C2: Family health	.925			
C4: Education	.851			
C1: Health	.618			
Factor 3: Structural constraint		2.74	13.60	.84
C13: Time	.900			
C14: Family time	.854			
C12: Energy	.630			
Factor 4: Desire to dine out		1.92	7.51	.86
DSR1: Free	.894			
DSR3: Break	.807			
DSR2: Escape	.703			
Factor 5: Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure		1.29	4.05	.85
RDO2: leisure	.992			
RDO3: Renewal	.729			
Factor 6: Intrapersonal constraint		1.09	3.41	.67
C11: Money guilt	.797			
C9: Dine out guilt	.703			
C8: Duty	.422			
C15: Money	.314			
Factor 7: Need for reward		1.00	3.09	.77
RWD4: Entertainment	.852			
RWD1: Deservedness	.713			
Total			60.49	

Note: Total variance explained (60.49), KMO measure of sampling adequacy (.83).
Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 7637.57$, $df = 276$, $p < .001$)

4.4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to examine the overall fit of the measurement model with seven constructs and 24 indicators (i.e., six for cooking stress, two for need for reward, three for desire to dine out, four for interpersonal constraint, three for structural constraint, four for intrapersonal constraint, and two for

perceived frequency of dining out) and to confirm the reliability and validity of the constructs. The initial model provided an adequate fit (NFI = .901, IFI = .929, TLI = .914, CFI = .929, and RMSEA = .060). However, the composite reliability (CR) and the average variance extracted (AVE) for intrapersonal constraint were below the .70 cutoff and below the .50 cutoff, respectively. The AVE for cooking stress was marginally below the .50. Among the four observed indicators of intrapersonal constraint construct, two indicators with the standardized factor loading below .60 were removed. Overall, the re-specified measurement model with seven constructs and twenty-two indicators offered a good fit (NFI = .942, IFI = .966, TLI = .957, CFI = .966, and RMSEA = .045). The standardized factor loading, the composite reliability (CR), and the average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct were estimated to assess reliability and convergent validity. As shown in Table 15, the standardized factor loadings for all measurement items ranged from .58 to .96 at the alpha level of .001. The CRs for cooking stress, interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, desire to dine out, perceived frequency of dining out, intrapersonal constraint, and need for reward were .84, .91, .85, .86, .85, .71, and .77, respectively. These values are greater than the suggested threshold of .70 (Hair et al., 2010), indicating that each constraint construct was reliably measured. Moreover, the AVEs for all seven constructs were .47, .71, .65, .68, .75, .56 and .63, respectively. All values exceeded the recommended threshold of .50 (Netemeyer et al., 2003), except for one indicator. Thus, these findings of the factor loadings, the CRs, the AVEs confirmed the convergent validity of each construct.

Discriminant validity was assessed by comparing both the AVE with Maximum Shared Variance (MSV) and square root of AVE with inter-construct correlations (Hair et al., 2010). As shown in Table 15, the AVEs for all seven constructs were greater than the

MSVs. Also, the square roots of the AVEs, ranging from .68 to .84, were greater than the inter-construct correlations, ranging from -.009 to .50. Therefore, it was concluded that the seven constructs are truly distinct.

Table 15

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Mothers' Dining out Decision-Making

Construct/Item	M(SD)	Standardized factor loading	CR	AVE	MSV
Factor 1: Cooking stress			.84	.47	.25
ST4: Dissatisfaction	4.14(1.86)	.748			
ST2: Pleasing	4.72(1.77)	.669			
ST3: Appreciation	5.02(1.75)	.680			
ST6: Stress	4.33(1.79)	.757			
ST1: Time	4.40(1.67)	.644			
ST5: Money	4.77(1.71)	.577			
Factor 2: Interpersonal constraint			.91	.71	.08
C3: Good food	6.29(1.25)	.959			
C2: Family health	6.30(1.28)	.911			
C4: Education	6.14(1.22)	.836			
C1: Health	5.66(1.48)	.629			
Factor 3: Structural constraint			.85	.65	.16
C13: Time	3.68(1.65)	.897			
C14: Family time	3.73(1.74)	.792			
C12: Energy	4.27(1.68)	.712			
Factor 4: Desire to dine out			.86	.68	.25
DSR1: Free	5.48(1.43)	.839			
DSR3: Break	5.57(1.29)	.811			
DSR2: Escape	5.31(1.52)	.815			
Factor 5: Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure			.85	.75	.24
RDO2: leisure	4.59(1.67)	.859			
RDO3: Renewal	4.23(1.68)	.867			
Factor 6: Intrapersonal constraint			.71	.56	.18
C11: Money guilt	5.40(1.64)	.789			
C9: Dine out guilt	4.81(1.77)	.699			
Factor 7: Need for reward			.77	.63	.24
RWD4: Entertainment	3.76(1.71)	.827			

Note: All factor loadings were significant at the .001 levels.

Model fit indices: NFI = .942, IFI = .966, TLI = .957, CFI = .966, and RMSEA = .045

4.4.3 Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling (SEM) with the maximum likelihood estimation was employed to examine the structural relationships among cooking stress, need for reward, desire to dine out, interpersonal constraint, structural constraint, intrapersonal constraint, and perceived frequency of dining out by controlling yearly household income. The initial goodness-of-fit statistics of the SEM showed that the dining out decision-making model fit was not good enough (NFI = .901, IFI = .928, TLI = .915, CFI = .928, and RMSEA = .061). Based on modification indices, the proposed model was modified in the SEM. The revised model had an adequate fit to the data (NFI = .926, IFI = .953, TLI = .943, CFI = .953, and RMSEA = .050).

Figure 8 and Table 16 present the revised SEM results for testing hypotheses 4 to 13. The finding indicated that cooking stress has significantly positive influences on both desire to dine out ($t = 8.488, p < .001$) and need for reward ($t = 8.450, p < .001$); thus, H4 and H5 were supported. It was also found that need for reward has a significantly positive influence on desire to dine out ($t = 3.338, p < .001$) thereby supporting H6. The result revealed that desire to dine out has a significantly positive influence on the perceived frequency of dining out as leisure ($t = 7.361, p < .001$), supporting H7. H8 and H10 were supported by showing the significant positive effects of the desire to dine out on both interpersonal constraint ($t = 6.635, p < .001$) and intrapersonal constraint ($t = 6.904, p < .001$). However, H9 was not supported by showing the significant negative relationship between desire to dine out and structural constraint ($t = -2.570, p < .05$). Next, hypotheses 11, 12, and 13 were assessed. However, both interpersonal constraint ($t = -1.025, p > .05$)

and structural constraint ($t = -.927, p > .05$) did not have a significantly negative influence on perceived frequency of dining out as leisure; therefore, H11 and H12 were not supported. H13 was supported by showing the significant negative impact of interpersonal constraint on perceived frequency of dining out as a leisure activity.

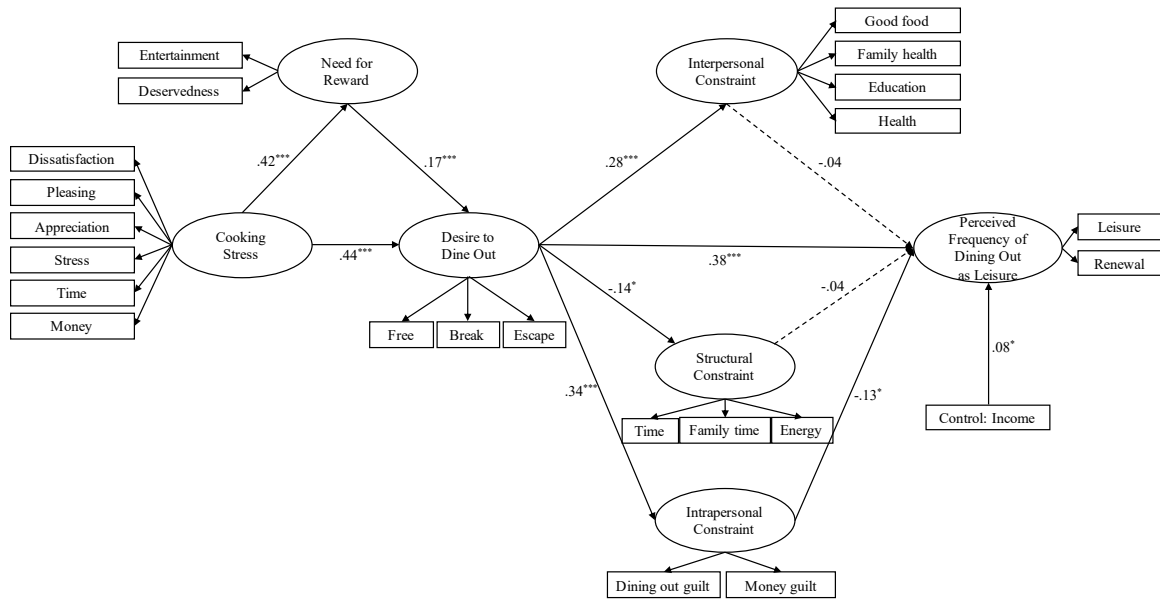


Figure 8

Structural Model Testing for Mothers' Dining Out Decision-Making

Table 16

SEM Results for Testing Hypotheses 4 to 13

Hypothesized path	Standardized coefficients	t	Result for hypothesis
H4: Cooking stress → Desire to dine out	.435	8.488***	Supported
H5: Cooking stress → Need for reward	.417	8.450***	Supported
H6: Need for reward → Desire to dine out	.165	3.338***	Supported
H7: Desire to dine out → Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure	.376	7.361***	Supported
H8: Desire to dine out → Interpersonal constraint	.282	6.635***	Supported
H9: Desire to dine out → Structural constraint	-.138	-2.570*	Not supported

H10: Desire to dine out → Intrapersonal constraint	.341	6.904***	Supported
H11: Interpersonal constraint → Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure	-.041	-1.025	Not supported
H12: Structural constraint → Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure	-.042	-.927	Not supported
H13: Intrapersonal constraint → Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure	-.126	-2.352*	Supported

Further bootstrapping estimates were performed to examine the indirect effects of cooking stress on desire to dine out through need for reward and the indirect effects of desire to dine out on perceived frequency of dining out through intrapersonal constraint. The results, as shown in Table 17, indicate that need for reward significantly mediates the relationship between cooking stress and desire to dine out ($B = .06, SE = .02, p < .05$). It was also found that intrapersonal constraint mediates the relationship between desire to dine out and perceived frequency of dining out as a leisure activity ($B = -.05, SE = .03, p < .05$). Therefore, this study confirmed the mediating role of need for reward and intrapersonal constraint in the dining out decision-making of mothers.

Table 17

Summary of Indirect Effects

Path/effect	Bootstrap estimates		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	95% CI
Cooking stress → Need for reward → Desire to dine out	.059	.020	.021, .101
Desire to dine out → Intrapersonal constraint → Perceived frequency of dining out as leisure	-.052	.028	-.114, -.002

4.5 Model 3: Family Dining Out Benefits of Mothers

4.5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with maximum likelihood extraction and promax rotation was conducted to examine underlying dining out benefit factors. KMO's criterion, eigenvalues, scree plots, and item community were utilized to determine the number of factors to retain (Pallant, 2011), and factor loadings were used to decide item deletion or retention (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Table 18 presents the final results of the EFA. Of the 24 items, a total of 23 items for benefits were retained by the EFA (i.e., seven items for enjoyment, four for convenience, three for detachment, three for relaxation, three for learning, and three for life satisfaction). The appropriateness of the data for factor analysis was confirmed by satisfactory levels for the KMO measure of sampling adequacy (.92) and for Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .001$). Five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were extracted for dining out benefits (i.e., enjoyment, convenience, detachment, relaxation, and learning). These five components explained 67.66% of the variance. Factor loadings for all five components were greater than .40. Reliability coefficient alphas within the five factors ranged from .85 to .91, indicating an acceptable level of internal consistency of the scales. Thus, the results supported five components for dining out benefits.

Table 18

Exploratory Factor Analysis for Dining Out Benefits

Factor/Items	Factor loading	Eigen value	Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Alpha
Factor 1: Enjoyment		8.83	42.05	.89
F2: Togetherness	.885			
F3: Quality time	.841			
F1: Family time	.793			
E3: Taste	.671			
E1: Atmosphere	.631			

E2: Different food	.580			
E4: Look	.533			
Factor 2: Convenience		2.40	10.67	.89
C1: Energy	.907			
C2: Cook	.831			
C3: Time	.810			
C4: Activity	.666			
Factor 3: Detachment		1.54	6.51	.91
D2: Forgettery	.914			
D1: Distance	.833			
D3: Worry	.789			
Factor 4: Relaxation		1.28	4.57	.91
R3: Renewal	.910			
R2: Tension	.824			
R1: Energy	.750			
Factor 5: Learning		1.01	3.86	.85
L2: Knowledge	.939			
L1: Recipe	.919			
L3: Culture	.504			
Total			67.66	

Note: Total variance explained (67.66), KMO measure of sampling adequacy (.92).
Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 9244.47$, $df = 190$, $p < .001$)

4.5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to examine the overall fit of the measurement model with six constructs and 23 indicators (i.e., seven for enjoyment, four for convenience, three for detachment, three for relaxation, three for learning, and three for life satisfaction) and to confirm the reliability and validity of the constructs. The initial model provided a moderate fit (NFI = .916, IFI = .934, TLI = .922, CFI = .934, and RMSEA = .072).

To improve the model fit, the measurement model was revised based on the modification indices. Overall, the re-specified measurement model offered a good fit

(NFI = .944, IFI = .962, TLI = .954, CFI = .962, and RMSEA = .055). The standardized factor loading, the composite reliability (CR), the average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct were estimated in order to assess reliability and convergent validity. As shown in Table 19, the standardized factor loadings for all measurement items ranged from .60 to .92 at the alpha level of .001. The CRs for enjoyment, convenience, detachment, relaxation, learning, and life satisfaction were .89, .90, .91, .91, .86, and .91, respectively. These values are greater than the suggested threshold of .70 (Hair et al., 2010), indicating that each constraint construct was reliably measured. Moreover, the AVEs for all six constructs were .53, .68, .77, .76, .68, and .77, respectively. All values exceeded the recommended threshold of .50 (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Therefore, these findings of the factor loadings, the CRs, the AVEs confirmed the convergent validity of each construct.

Discriminant validity was assessed by comparing both the AVE with Maximum Shared Variance (MSV) and the square root of the AVE with inter-construct correlations (Hair et al., 2010). As shown in Table 19, the AVEs for all six constructs were greater than the MSVs. Also, the square roots of AVEs, ranging from .73 to .88, were greater than the inter-construct correlations, ranging from .15 to .67. Therefore, it was concluded that the five benefits and life satisfaction are truly distinct constructs.

Table 19

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Dining Out Benefits

Construct/Item	M(SD)	Standardized factor loading	CR	AVE	MSV
Factor 1: Enjoyment			.89	.53	.39
F2: Togetherness	5.73(1.21)	.792			
F3: Quality time	5.71(1.26)	.736			
F1: Family time	5.66(1.24)	.795			
E3: Taste	5.66(1.21)	.714			

E1: Atmosphere	4.94(1.45)	.634			
E2: Different food	5.62(1.31)	.753			
E4: Look	5.33(1.36)	.649			
Factor 2: Convenience			.90	.68	.40
C1: Energy	5.62(1.37)	.889			
C2: Cook	5.75(1.27)	.874			
C3: Time	5.53(1.47)	.807			
C4: Activity	5.49(1.41)	.721			
Factor 3: Detachment			.91	.77	.40
D2: Forgettery	5.34(1.46)	.914			
D1: Distance	5.44(1.40)	.842			
D3: Worry	5.47(1.40)	.882			
Factor 4: Relaxation			.91	.76	.45
R3: Renewal	4.74(1.56)	.902			
R2: Tension	4.94(1.49)	.871			
R1: Energy	4.95(1.47)	.848			
Factor 5: Learning			.86	.68	.24
L2: Knowledge	4.16(1.73)	.922			
L1: Recipe	4.38(1.73)	.906			
L3: Culture	4.94(1.57)	.604			
Factor 6: Life satisfaction			.91	.77	.45
LS1: Satisfaction	4.76(1.39)	.858			
LS2: Happiness	4.98(1.29)	.891			
LS3: Quality	4.84(1.37)	.885			

Note: All factor loadings were significant at the .001 levels.

Model fit indices: NFI = .944, IFI = .962, TLI = .954, CFI = .962, and RMSEA = .055

4.5.3 Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling (SEM) with the maximum likelihood estimation was employed to examine the structural relationships among enjoyment, convenience, detachment, relaxation, learning, and life satisfaction. The initial goodness-of-fit statistics of the SEM showed that the dining out benefit model fit was not good enough (NFI = .851, IFI = .868, TLI = .847, CFI = .867, and RMSEA = .101). Based on modification

indices, the proposed model was modified in the SEM. The revised model had a good fit to the data (NFI = .942, IFI = .961, TLI = .953, CFI = .961, and RMSEA = .056).

Figure 9 and Table 20 present the revised SEM results for testing hypotheses 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18. The findings indicated that enjoyment of dining out has a significantly positive influence on life satisfaction ($t = 3.402, p < .001$); therefore, H14 was supported. It was also found that convenience of dining out has a significantly positive influence on life satisfaction ($t = 2.088, p < .05$) thereby supporting H15. However, H16 was not supported by showing the non-significant relationship between detachment and life satisfaction ($t = -1.815, p > .05$). H17 and H18 were supported by showing the significant positive effects of both relaxation ($t = 8.673, p < .001$) and learning ($t = 4.338, p < .001$) on life satisfaction.

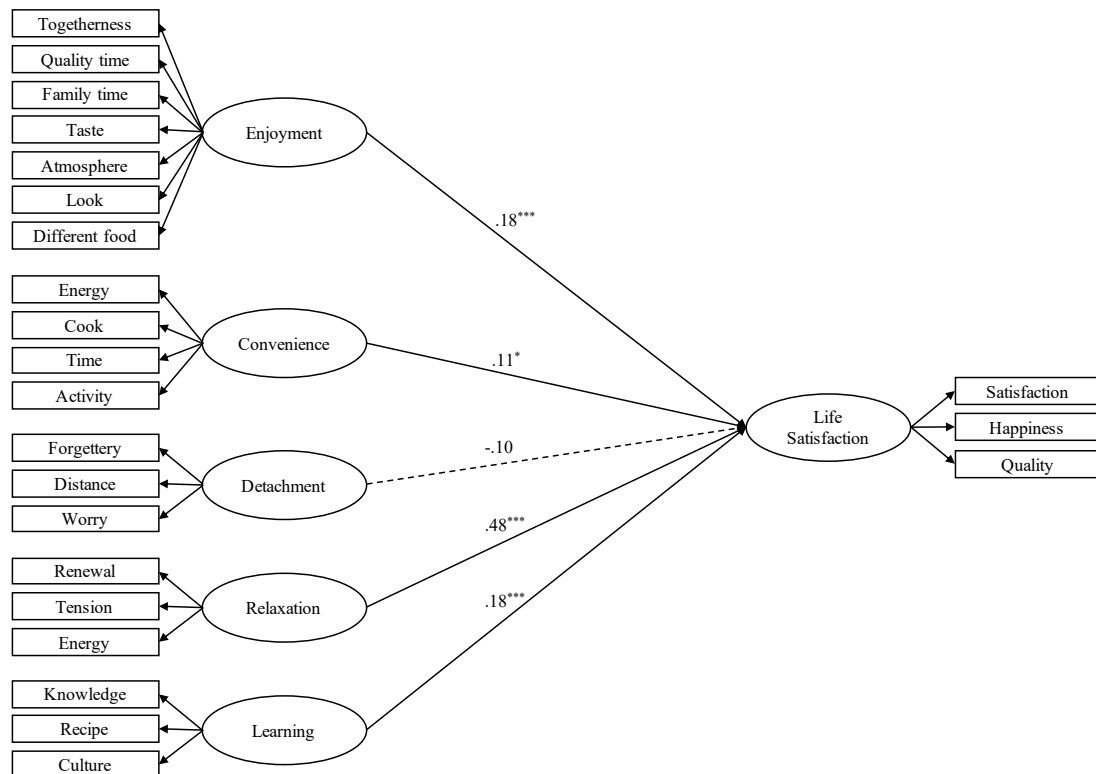


Figure 9

Structural Model Testing for Dining Out Benefits

Table 20

SEM Results for Testing Hypotheses 14 to 18

Hypothesized path	Standardized coefficients	t	Result for hypothesis
H14: Enjoyment → Life satisfaction	.184	3.402***	Supported
H15: Convenience → Life satisfaction	.107	2.088*	Supported
H16: Detachment → Life satisfaction	-.096	-1.815	Not supported
H17: Relaxation → Life satisfaction	.476	8.673***	Supported
H18: Learning → Life satisfaction	.179	4.338***	Supported

4.5.4 Moderating Effects of Cooking Stress

A multi-group analysis was utilized to assess the moderating effects of mothers' cooking stress on the relationships among dining out benefits and life satisfaction. The sample was divided into two groups (i.e., a low vs. a high cooking stress group) by using both the mean score (4.67) and median score (4.56) of the cooking stress. The respondents who reported below the mean/median for cooking stress were categorized into the low cooking stress group ($n = 332$), while those with above the mean/median were categorized into the high cooking stress group ($n = 312$).

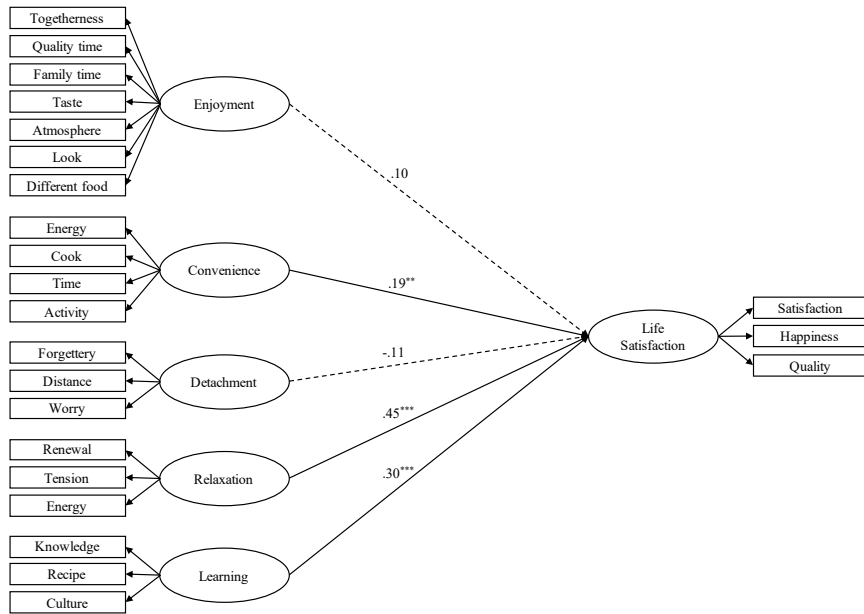
To identify the significant differences between the low and high cooking stress groups, the chi-square values with degrees of freedom were compared between the unconstrained and constrained models (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The results revealed that the chi-square value of the unconstrained model ($\chi^2_{(df=424)} = 1034.24$) was significantly different from that of the constrained model ($\chi^2_{(df=446)} = 1072.20$) ($\Delta\chi^2_{(df=22)} = 37.96, p < .05$). Specifically, this study further tested the chi-square comparison between the two models (unconstrained and constrained) to examine which paths are significantly different between the low and high cooking stress groups.

Figure 10 and Table 21 show the results of the moderating effects of cooking stress. The chi-square differences between the unconstrained and constrained models are shown to be consistent in the relationships between enjoyment and life satisfaction ($\Delta\chi^2_{(df=1)} = 3.88, p < .05$), indicating that the effects of enjoyment on life satisfaction were significantly stronger in the high cooking stress group ($\beta = .285, t = 3.46, p < .001$) than in the low cooking stress group ($\beta = .092, t = 1.23, p > .05$). In terms of the relationship between convenience and life satisfaction, the chi-square values significantly differed ($\Delta\chi^2_{(df=1)} = 4.16, p < .05$), such that the effects of convenience on life satisfaction were significantly stronger in the low cooking stress group ($\beta = .192, t = 2.73, p < .01$) than in the high cooking stress group ($\beta = -.046, t = -.60, p > .05$). However, the chi-square values did not differ in the relationship between detachment and life satisfaction ($\Delta\chi^2_{(df=1)} = .53, p < .05$) and between relaxation and life satisfaction ($\Delta\chi^2_{(df=1)} = .07, p < .05$).

Regarding the relationship between learning and life satisfaction, the chi-square values differed significantly ($\Delta\chi^2_{(df=1)} = 10.41, p < .001$), such that the effects of learning on life satisfaction were significantly stronger in the low cooking stress group ($\beta = .296, t = 5.09, p < .001$) than in the high cooking stress group ($\beta = .052, t = .89, p > .05$).

Therefore, the findings show that cooking stress partially moderates the relationships between dining out benefits and life satisfaction, partially supporting H19.

Low Cooking Stress Group



High Cooking Stress Group

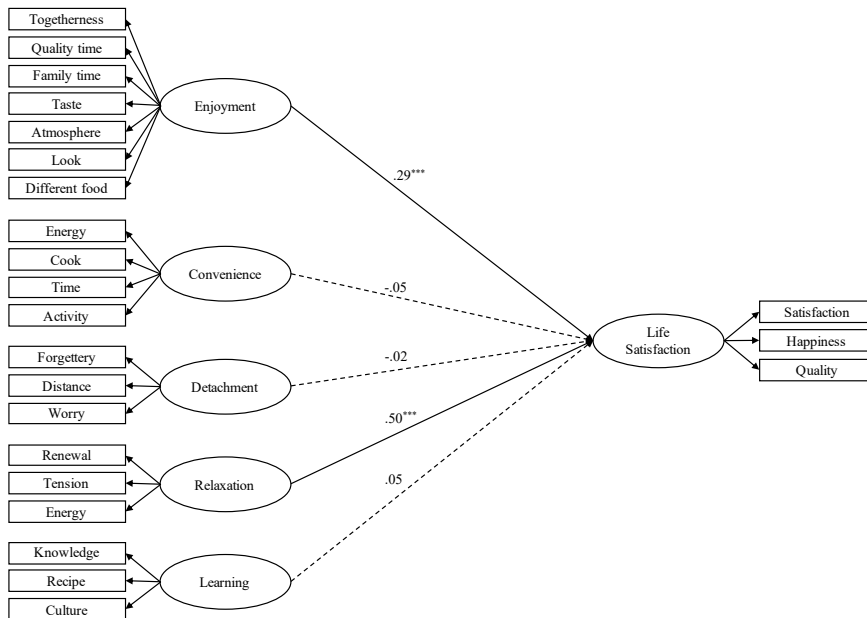


Figure 10

Moderating Effects of Cooking Stress

Table 21

SEM Results for Testing Hypothesis 19

Path	Standardized coefficients		$\Delta\chi^2_{(df=1)}$	Result for hypothesis
	Low cooking stress (<i>N</i> = 332)	High cooking stress (<i>N</i> = 312)		
Enjoyment → Life satisfaction	.092	.285	3.88*	Partially Supported
Convenience → Life satisfaction	.192	-.046	4.16*	
Detachment → Life satisfaction	-.111	-.019	.53	
Relaxation → Life satisfaction	.445	.504	.07	
Learning → Life satisfaction	.296	.052	10.41***	

4.6 Summary

This chapter addressed the results of the data analysis. First, the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents were reported. Second, the EFA, CFA, and SEM were performed for the first proposed model “family dining out constraints of mothers”. From the results of the EFA and CFA, this study supported that the dining out constraints comprised of three constructs and nine indicators. Also, the SEM results showed that the dining out constraint model had an adequate fit to the data. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported, while hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Third, the EFA, CFA, SEM, and bootstrapping were performed for the second proposed model “family dining out decision-making”. The results of the EFA and CFA, supported the fact that that dining out decision-making was included with seven constructs and twenty-two indicators. The modified SEM results showed that the dining out constraint model had an adequate fit to the data. Among ten hypotheses from H4 to H13, seven hypotheses were supported (H4, H5, H6, H7, H8, H10, and H13), but three were not supported (H9, H11, and H12). A further bootstrapping found that the need for

reward and intrapersonal constraint have mediating roles in mothers' decision-making processes regarding dining out.

Lastly, the EFA, CFA, SEM, and multi-group analysis were conducted for the third proposed model, "family dining out benefits". From the results of the EFA and CFA, this study supported that the dining out benefits were covered by 5 constructs and twenty indicators. The revised SEM results showed that the dining out benefit model had a good fit to the data. Among 5 hypotheses from H14 to H18, all hypotheses were supported, except for H16. The findings of the multi-group analysis revealed that cooking stress partially moderates the relationships between dining out benefits and life satisfaction thereby partially supporting H19.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the study's discussion and conclusion. The first section discusses the findings, the second section presents the theoretical and practical implications of the findings, and the last section addresses the study's limitations and recommendations for future research.

5.2 Discussion of Findings

This study examined how mothers' constraints of family dining out influence family dining out frequency (Hypotheses 1 – 3). The results indicated that both interpersonal and structural constraints of dining out have significantly negative impacts on family dining out frequency. Specifically, interpersonal constraint was found to be the most important factor that reduced the frequency of family dining out. That is, mothers dine out less with family because they consider attributes caused by the relationship between family members (e.g., family health and educational purpose for children). The finding is in agreement with previous literature (Madden & Chamberlain, 2010; Neulinger & Simon, 2011; Rosenkranz & Dzewaltowski, 2008) indicating that mothers, acting as “nutritional gatekeepers”, place a priority on family health, especially the health of their children. Despite the efforts of family restaurants to offer healthy menu items (NRA, 2017b), mothers still think that a meal at a restaurant is less healthy than a meal at home. Therefore, based on this result, family restaurants should improve the development of healthy menu items to attract families and mothers.

Contrary to the assumption of this study, it was failed to find the effect of intrapersonal constraint on family dining out frequency. A possible reason for the

inconsistent results could be the measurement items for intrapersonal constraints.

Although the items for intrapersonal constraints were developed by literature reviews, actual opinions of mothers, and a pilot study, two of six items remained after conducting a series of exploratory factor analyses and confirmatory factor analyses. Because the two items include mothers' perceived guilt and financial guilt of frequent dining out, they might not be enough to explain the general intrapersonal constraints of mothers.

Therefore, future research should develop more robust measurement items for intrapersonal constraints.

Focusing on the entire process from problem/need recognition to purchase decision, this study investigated the relationships between cooking stress, need for reward, desire to dine out, constraints, and frequency of dining out as leisure (Hypotheses 4 – 13). The findings indicated that cooking stress has significantly positive impacts on both desire to dine out and need for reward. It was also found that need for reward has a significantly positive impact on desire to dine out. The results support the literature on self-gifting (Taylor et al., 2014) and the compensation theory (Chick & Hood, 1996). Mothers who felt stressed after putting effort into cooking for their family sensed a need for a self-gifted reward for making family meals every day, which led them to want to dine out with the family to take a break from the everyday meal routine. The results also support the restaurant patron's decision making process as proposed by Kotler et al. (2009) by finding the relationships between cooking stress (actual state), need for reward (need for recognition), and desire to dine out (desire state).

In terms of the relationships between desire to dine out, three constraints, and perceived frequency of family dining out as leisure, this study uncovered that desire to dine out has a significantly positive impact on perceived frequency of family dining out

as leisure. It was revealed that desire to dine out also has significantly positive impacts on both interpersonal constraint and intrapersonal constraint, while there did not seem to be a positive relationship between desire to dine out and structural constraint. Furthermore, both interpersonal constraint and structural constraint did not have significantly negative impacts on perceived frequency of dining out. Yet, intrapersonal constraint had a significantly negative impact on perceived frequency of dining out. That is, mothers who desired to dine out with the family to take a break from the everyday meal routine went out regularly to eat outside home with the family to have more leisure time. The mothers who desired to dine out with the family also felt intrapersonal constraint (e.g., guilt), which kept them from dining out regularly with the family. These findings support the hospitality buyer decision making process proposed by Kotler et al. (2009) by identifying the relationships between desire to dine out (dining out intention), intrapersonal constraint (unexpected situation), and frequency of family dining out (dining out decision).

Unlike the assumptions of this study, even if the mothers who desired to dine out with the family felt interpersonal constraint (e.g., family health), the interpersonal constraint did not affect regular dining out behavior with the family. Interestingly, the mothers who desired to dine out with the family felt low structural constraint (e.g., time and energy), and the structural constraint did not influence regular dining out behavior with the family. A possible explanation for these inconsistent results can be found in the study of Wahlich, Gardner, and McGowen (2013). The authors found that participants think monitoring nutritional content is less important when they see food as a ‘treat’ during the weekend. Perhaps mothers who desire to dine out with the family consider family dining out as a ‘treat’ and just go out to eat even though they recognize the

importance of health for their family (interpersonal constraint). Another possible reason can be found in the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1998), suggesting that people try to maintain and increase their external resources (e.g., financial assets) and internal sources (e.g., positive mood and energies). Because mothers' internal resources might be reduced by cooking stress, the increased desire to dine out might lessen structural constraints (e.g., lack of time and/or energy) in order to gain more internal resources.

Finally, this study investigated the effects of mothers' family dining out benefits on the life satisfaction of mothers and the moderating effects of high versus low cooking stress groups on the relationships between family dining out benefits and life satisfaction (Hypotheses 14 – 19). It was found that enjoyment, convenience, relaxation, and learning experience have significantly positive impacts on life satisfaction after family dining out. Mothers who experienced the benefits of enjoyment, convenience, relaxation, and learning had high life satisfaction after family dining out. The findings support the effort-recovery theory (Meijman & Mulder, 1998), and the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1998). Family dining out increases mothers' happiness since mothers do not need to prepare routine daily meals, and they can enjoy new and good tasting food with their family, relax, and learn something new (e.g., about recipes and culture) while dining out with their family.

On the other hand, detachment did not have a significant impact on life satisfaction after family dining out. Mothers' life satisfaction was not influenced by the benefits of detachment from preparing routine daily meals. Previous research posited that shorter breaks (e.g., evenings and weekends) bring about recovery from work (Etzion, 2003; Sluiter et al., 2000). However, family dining out as a leisure activity in the

evenings or on weekends might not necessarily detach mothers from the daily routine of cooking for the family. Or, perhaps the break from preparing routine daily meals may be too short to promote a feeling of life satisfaction. For example, a mother might think of tomorrow's dinner menu or preparing a child's lunch box for the next day after she returns home from a restaurant, which may not help in increasing her life satisfaction despite dining out.

Regarding the moderating effects of high versus low cooking stress groups, this study assumed that family dining out benefits on life satisfaction would be smaller among mothers with higher levels of cooking stress, but the assumption was only partially supported. Like this study expected, the effects of convenience and learning experience on life satisfaction were significantly smaller in the high cooking stress group than in the low cooking stress group. These results support studies suggesting that individuals with high stress jobs are less likely to detach themselves from the job after working hours and at weekends (Cropley & Millward, 2009; Van Heck & Vingerhoets, 2007). Unlike the assumption of this study, the effects of enjoyment on life satisfaction were significantly stronger in the high cooking stress group than in the low cooking stress group. The effects of detachment and relaxation on life satisfaction were not significantly different between the high and low cooking stress groups. That is, mothers with high cooking stress felt high life satisfaction after family dining out because they experienced the benefits of enjoyment and relaxation while dining out with family. However, mothers with low cooking stress felt high life satisfaction after family dining out because they experienced the benefits of convenience, relaxation, and new learning while dining out with family.

The compensation theory (Chick & Hood, 1996) could explain the unexpected finding that the relationship between enjoyment and life satisfaction was stronger in the high cooking stress group. According to the compensation theory (Chick & Hood, 1996), people are likely to choose rewarding leisure activities that are very different to the working day and that result in satisfaction not related to working life. Unlike cooking demands that interrupt interaction with the family (Robson et al., 2016), leisure dining out might enable mothers who feel particularly high cooking stress to enjoy different food to what they normally prepare and spend quality time (e.g., talking or catching-up) with their family, which might lead to high life satisfaction after family dining out.

The effort-recovery theory (Meijman & Mulder, 1998) could provide an explanation for no significant difference between the high and low cooking stress groups in terms of the effect of relaxation on life satisfaction. Based on the effort-recovery theory (Meijman & Mulder 1998), people who are exposed to work-related stress often have overload reactions such as fatigue, while overload reactions disappear once they no longer need to face those work demands (Chen et al., 2016b). Like mothers who usually feel relaxed when dining out (Robson et al., 2016), mothers who especially feel stressed in cooking might experience relaxation by being free from their daily routine when dining out, which might increase their life satisfaction.

5.3 Implications of the Research Findings

5.3.1 Theoretical Implications

In this dissertation, the main purposes were (1) to examine whether the three constructs of constraints on family dining out influence the frequency by which mothers dine out with their families, (2) to investigate the relationship between cooking stress, the need for a reward, the desire to dine out, constraints, and the frequency of dining out as

leisure, focusing on the entire process from problem/need recognition to purchase decision, and (3) to identify whether benefits gained by the family dining out influence the life satisfaction of mothers.

First, this study developed measurements for three factors of family dining out constraints implied by Crawford and Godbey's (1987) concept of leisure constraints. The results of this investigation showed that three factors that influence a family's dining out include interpersonal, structural, and intrapersonal constraints. Among these three factors, interpersonal and structural constraints on dining out significantly negatively impacted family dining out frequency. Cho et al. (2008) investigated eating-out constraints by focusing on general consumers, while the present study focused on the context of family dining out and mothers as the specific target. Therefore, the present study extends knowledge of constraints on mothers' dining out with their families to the topic of dining out constraints.

Second, the results of this study revealed significant relationships between cooking stress, need for reward, desire to dine out, intrapersonal constraint, and dining out frequency. Much of the current literature on decision making in the field of hospitality and restaurant studies focuses on the influences on one or a few stages (e.g., purchase intention). However, the present study focused on the mothers' psychological influences on all stages of the family dining out decision-making process, from problem/need recognition to purchase decision. Specifically, this study used cooking stress as the starting point in the problem-recognition stage of the family dining out decision-making process. The measurement items for mothers' cooking stress, need for reward, desire to dine out, leisure dining out frequency were developed and empirically tested because this research adopted the ideas of cooking stress and its related

psychological influences from previous studies using qualitative methods (Bowen et al., 2014; Robson et al., 2016). Thus, this study adds the knowledge of mothers' cooking stress and its related family dining out decision-making to the topic of stress and the hospitality buyer's decision-making process.

Lastly, this research developed measurements for family dining out benefits to conduct an empirical investigation since existing research in the food context has used qualitative methods to explore mothers' perceived benefits from the family's dining out (e.g., interview and focus group). This study found five factors of family dining out benefits (i.e., enjoyment, convenience, detachment, relaxation, and learning experience). Among these five factors, enjoyment, convenience, relaxation, and learning experience significantly positively impacted mothers' life satisfaction after their families dined out. Attention to dining out benefits as a sense of personal well-being is recent in the restaurant context (Kim & Jang, 2017). Specifically, this study focused on family dining out benefits associated with cooking demands from the mothers' point of view. Hence, this study offers new insights into the topic of dining out benefits.

5.3.2 Practical Implications

This study has several practical implications from the viewpoints of mothers and restaurant management. From the views of mothers, this study suggests that mothers should understand the various benefits of their family dining out, which increase their happiness, and the family dining out decision-making associated with cooking stress. Mothers often had interpersonal or structural constraints that reduced the frequencies at which their families dined out. Specifically, intrapersonal constraints (i.e., guilt) kept mothers from dining out regularly with their families even if they needed or wanted to dine out due to cooking stress. However, family dining out benefits (i.e., enjoyment,

convenience, relaxation, learning) increased their life satisfaction after dining out. Even mothers with high cooking stress felt high life satisfaction due to the enjoyment and relaxation that they received from dining out with their family.

Mothers try to dine out less with their family for health reasons, but mothers should understand that the stress they sustain from cooking demands can negatively affect their physical and mental health. Therefore, mothers should protect themselves from stress. If mothers experience high cooking stress, they should stop feeling guilty and dine out with their family to be free from cooking demands because dining out with their family will increase their life satisfaction. Satisfied mothers might then enjoy preparing routine daily meals. Mothers' happiness may then lead to family members' happiness and ultimately make a healthier society.

From a managerial viewpoint, restaurant managers may use the results of this study to reduce dining out constraints. Interpersonal constraints were discovered to be the most important factor that lessened families' dining out frequencies. Therefore, restaurants should strive to provide healthy food for families and inform mothers that their meals are as good and as healthy as homemade meals.

Moreover, restaurant marketers might utilize the findings on the family dining out decision-making process due to cooking stress to better understand their customers who are mothers. Mothers often need or want to dine out due to cooking stress, which leads them to dine out regularly with their families to gain more leisure time. However, regular family dining out was reduced by mothers' guilt. Using these results, marketers might establish empathy marketing based on customers' feelings and emotions (e.g., cooking stress, need for reward, desire to dine out, and guilt). According to Ellwood and Shekar (2008), the use of marketing language for women should include emotional aspects and

should promote the emotions which can result from certain products because women generally have a high empathy quotient. For example, restaurants might use an advertising statement such as, “It is only natural to get tired of preparing routine daily meals. You need a reward. You want to go out to dinner! Come to us with an easy mind and free up some leisure time.”

In addition, managers might use the findings regarding dining out benefits to improve beneficial experiences for mothers. Relaxation was determined to be the most important factor in increasing life satisfaction for mothers who have both low and high levels of cooking stress. Enjoyment was identified as the most important factor in increasing life satisfaction for mothers who were experiencing high cooking stress. Hence, managers should provide food, service, and an atmosphere in which customers can feel more relaxed and enjoy quality time with their family. In addition, restaurants might attract family customers and mothers by using marketing strategies which emphasize dining out benefits to increase the life satisfaction of mothers. For example, restaurants might use advertising statements such as, “If you feel stressed from preparing routine daily meals, come to us with your family. Relax and enjoy food that is different and delicious.”

5.4 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Study

This research had several limitations. First, the study sample was married women with children under the age of 18 years, which might lead to an increased problem of generalizability. Future research should include all mothers with various family types (e.g., divorced and separated mothers) to further investigate mothers’ dining out constraints, dining out decision making caused by cooking stress, and dining out benefits. Samples with fathers should also be included in future studies. Future research might

classify the sample of mothers into specific groups and identify group differences in dining out constraints, cooking stress and its related dining out decision-making, and dining out benefits. For example, cooking stress might be different for mothers who work (vs. mothers who stay at home), mothers who cook (vs., mothers who do not), and mothers who make decisions on dining out (vs. mothers who do not).

Second, two intrapersonal constraint items were used to test the structural equation modeling because two of six items remained after conducting exploratory factor analyses and confirmatory factor analyses. The small number of items might influence the unexpected results of the nonsignificant negative impacts of intrapersonal constraints on dining out frequency. Therefore, future research should develop more robust measurement items for intrapersonal constraints. Furthermore, mothers' dining out constraints may differ according to the ages of the mothers and children. For example, mothers with infants and/or toddlers may experience difficulties in going out with very young children. Dining out constraints should be examined based on different ages of the mothers and children.

Lastly, dining out benefits and life satisfaction were assessed from mothers' memories of their family's dining out experience, which may have increased measurement errors. Future study should use pretests/posttests to measure levels of life satisfaction before and after families dine out to further investigate the effectiveness of dining out benefits. Additionally, this study did not use a control variable, but life satisfaction might be influenced by various factors. Therefore, control variables, such as employment status and ages of young children, should be considered.

APPENDIX A

Survey Questionnaire for the Pilot Study

Thank you for your participation. The purpose of this survey is to examine how mothers feel about preparing family dinners and their dining out experience with their family. In order to be eligible, you must be a married woman who has at least one child under the age of 18 residing in your household. Please read the questions carefully and then answer each one.

Are you a married woman?

- Yes No

How old is your youngest child living at home with you?

- 1 or under 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 or over

Section A. General information about home cooking and dining out

Please answer the following questions on your experience of home cooking and dining out.

Please indicate the degree to which housework is shared with your spouse.

- Never Seldom Somewhat Often Very often

Who is mainly responsible for making family meals in your household?

- Me Spouse Others (please specify)

On average, how many hours per day do you spend preparing family meals (including planning, grocery shopping, cooking, and cleaning up after)?

_____ hours per day

In your family, who primarily makes the decision on dining out?

- Me Spouse Child(ren) Other (please specify)

Which of the following best describes the type of restaurant in which you usually dine out with your family?

- Fast food restaurant (No table service. e.g., McDonald's)
 Fast casual restaurant (No table service, but offering non-disposable plates and cutlery. e.g., Panera Bread)
 Casual dining restaurant (Family-style dining offering table service. e.g., Applebee's or Olive Garden)
 Fine dining restaurant (Full service restaurant)
 Other (please specify)

During a typical month, how many nights per month do you dine out with your family?
 _____ nights per month

During a typical month, approximately how much do you spend on dining out with your family?
 _____ dollars per month

Section B. Constraints on dining out

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements describing conditions that may limit your dining out frequency with your family.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Strongly agree (7)
I think a meal at a restaurant is less healthy than a meal at home.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I care about my family's health.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I want to give good food to my family.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel that dining-out is not more special than having dinner at home.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I prefer eating at home to dining-out.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel that we should eat at home more often than we dine out.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If I dine out too often, I feel guilty.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My family and/or I need a special diet (e.g., due to dietary restrictions, food intolerance, weight control, etc.).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is difficult for my family to agree on where to dine out.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is difficult for my family to find time to dine out (e.g., different activities, work schedules, etc.).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

I want to teach my child(ren) good eating habits by giving them home-cooked meals.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Dining-out with my child(ren) is stressful (e.g., difficult to ensure their good behavior).	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Usually, I am too tired to go out.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Usually, I do not have enough time to dine out.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
I cannot afford to dine out often.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Dining-out is more expensive than having dinner at home.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
The restaurants I want to visit are too crowded and/or loud.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
There is lack of menu options for my child(ren).	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
There is no restaurant suitable for families.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

Other than those mentioned above, please specify if you have any other issues that may limit your dining out frequency with your family.

Section C. Feelings toward home cooking and dining out

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements describing your feelings about preparing routine daily meals for your family.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Strongly agree (7)
I feel pressed for time when preparing family meals.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I feel pressure to please family members when cooking for my family.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	

I feel frustrated when family members do not appreciate the time and energy that I put into preparing a meal.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
I feel that the dissatisfaction of family members (e.g., picky eating) discourages me from making family meals.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
I feel under pressure to save money when purchasing food items or ingredients for family meals.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
I feel that preparing routine daily meals is stressful.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements describing your need for reward for preparing routine daily meals.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Strongly agree (7)
I feel I deserve a reward for preparing routine daily meals.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I feel I need a break from the everyday eating routine.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I feel I need to relax without thinking about preparing routine daily meals.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I feel I need to have entertainment as a reward for preparing routine daily meals.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements describing your desire to dine out with family.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Strongly agree (7)
I sometimes want to dine out with my family to be free from the routine of everyday cooking.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I sometimes want to dine out with my family to escape the burden of a sense of duty to cook.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I sometimes want to dine out with my family to take a break from the everyday eating routine.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements describing your regular dining out activity with your family.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Strongly agree (7)
I sometimes dine out with my family to relax.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I dine out regularly with my family to have more leisure time.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I dine out with my family on a regular basis to feel renewed.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	

Section D. Dining out experience

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements describing the benefits of dining out.

“Dining out with my family enables me...”	Strongly disagree (1)	Strongly agree (7)
to enjoy different food to what I would normally prepare.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
to enjoy a variety of food.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
to enjoy the restaurant atmosphere.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
to experience new restaurants.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
to distance myself from the demands of preparing routine daily meals.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
to forget about preparing routine daily meals.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
not to have to worry about preparing routine daily meals.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
to renew my energy/to recharge.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
to release tension/stress.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
to feel renewed.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
to have an enjoyable family time.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
to eat together as a family outside of our home.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
to spend quality time with my family.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	

to experience new restaurants.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to enjoy nice looking food.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to learn about new recipes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to develop my own cooking knowledge and skills.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to experience other cultures in the form of food and drink.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
“Dining out with my family...” is convenient when I do not have enough time to cook.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
is convenient when I do not have enough energy to cook.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
is convenient when I do not want to cook.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
is convenient when my family and I have different activities (e.g., sports practice, movie, shopping, etc.).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Other than those mentioned above, please specify if you think there are any other benefits of dining-out.

Section E. Satisfaction of general life

Please indicate your satisfaction or dissatisfaction with life in general shortly after the most recent dining out experience you had with your family.

“After my family dining out experience ...”	Strongly disagree (1)	Strongly agree (7)					
My satisfaction with life in general is increased.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My happiness in general is increased.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My overall quality of life is enhanced.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section F. Demographic information

What is your year of birth? _____

Which of the following best represents your ethnic background?

- White / Caucasian
- Black / African American
- Hispanic / Latino American

- American Indian / Native American
- Asian / Pacific Islander
- Multi-racial or mixed race
- Other (please specify)

What is your highest level of education?

- High school or lower
- Some college or associate degree (two-year)
- Bachelor's degree (four-year)
- Graduate studies / Post-graduate studies
- Other (please specify)

What is your main current employment status?

- Full-time paid work Part-time paid work Homemaker
- Other (please specify)

How many children under 18 reside in your household?

- 1 2 3 4 or more

How old is the oldest child living at home with you? (If you have only one child, please enter "999" in the following blank.)

_____ years old

Which of the following best describes the area you live in?

- Urban Suburban Rural

Which of the following describes your total 2017 annual household income from all sources before taxes? (U.S. Dollars)

- 19,999 or less
- 20,000–29,999
- 30,000–39,999
- 40,000–49,999
- 50,000–59,999
- 60,000–69,999
- 70,000–79,999
- 80,000–89,999
- 90,000-99,999
- 100,000 or more

How do you feel about the survey? Please share your comments or opinions.

APPENDIX B

Survey Questionnaire for the Main Study

Thank you for your participation. The purpose of this survey is to examine how mothers feel about preparing family dinners and their dining out experience with their family. In order to be eligible, you must be a married woman who has at least one child under the age of 18 residing in your household. Please read the questions carefully and then answer each one.

Are you a married woman?

- Yes No

How old is your youngest child living at home with you?

- 1 or under 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 or over

We care about the quality of our survey data and hope to receive the most accurate measures of your opinions, so it is important to us that you thoughtfully provide your best answer to each question in the survey.

Do you commit to providing your thoughtful and honest answers to the questions in this survey?

- I will provide my best answer.
 I will no provide my best answer.
 I can't promise either way.

Section A. General information about home cooking and dining out

Please answer the following questions on your experience of home cooking and dining out.

Please indicate the degree to which housework is shared with your spouse.

- Never Seldom Somewhat Often Very often

Who is mainly responsible for making family meals in your household?

- Me Spouse Others (please specify)

On average, how many hours per day do you spend preparing family meals (including planning, grocery shopping, cooking, and cleaning up after)?

_____ hours per day

In your family, who primarily makes the decision on dining out?

- Me Spouse Child(ren) Other (please specify)

Which of the following best describes the type of restaurant in which you usually dine out with your family?

- Fast food restaurant (No table service. e.g., McDonald's)
- Fast casual restaurant (No table service, but offering non-disposable plates and cutlery. e.g., Panera Bread)
- Casual dining restaurant (Family-style dining offering table service. e.g., Applebee's or Olive Garden)
- Fine dining restaurant (Full service restaurant)
- Other (please specify)

During a typical month, how many nights per month do you dine out with your family?
 _____ nights per month

During a typical month, approximately how much do you spend on dining out with your family?
 _____ dollars per month

Section B. Constraints on dining out

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements describing conditions that may limit your dining out frequency with your family.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Strongly agree (7)
I think a meal at home is healthier than a meal at a restaurant.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I care about my family's health.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I want to give good food to my family.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I want to teach my child(ren) good eating habits by giving them home-cooked meals.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
It is difficult for my family to agree on where to dine out.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
Usually, I am too tired to go out.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
Usually, I do not have enough time to dine out.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
It is difficult for my family to find time to dine out (e.g., different activities, work schedules, etc.).	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I cannot afford to dine out often.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
The restaurants I want to visit are too crowded and/or loud.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	

Dining out with my child(ren) is stressful (e.g., difficult to ensure their good behavior).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel that dining out is not more special than having dinner at home.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I prefer eating at home to dining out.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel that we should eat at home more often than we dine out.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If I dine out too often, I feel guilty.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dining out is more expensive than having dinner at home.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If I spend too much money on dining out, I feel guilty.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section C. Feelings toward home cooking and dining out

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements describing your feelings about preparing routine daily meals for your family.

	Strongly disagree (1)						Strongly agree (7)
I feel pressed for time when preparing family meals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel pressure to please family members when cooking for my family.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel frustrated when family members do not appreciate the time and energy that I put into preparing a meal.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel that the dissatisfaction of family members (e.g., picky eating) discourages me from making family meals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel under pressure to save money when purchasing food items or ingredients for family meals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel that preparing routine daily meals is stressful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements describing your need for reward for preparing routine daily meals.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Strongly agree (7)
I feel I deserve a reward for preparing routine daily meals.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I feel I need a break from the everyday eating routine.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I feel I need to relax without thinking about preparing routine daily meals.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I feel I need to have entertainment as a reward for preparing routine daily meals.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements describing your desire to dine out with family.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Strongly agree (7)
I sometimes want to dine out with my family to be free from the routine of everyday cooking.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I sometimes want to dine out with my family to escape the burden of a sense of duty to cook.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I sometimes want to dine out with my family to take a break from the everyday eating routine.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements describing your regular dining out activity with your family.

	Strongly disagree (1)	Strongly agree (7)
I sometimes dine out with my family to relax.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I dine out regularly with my family to have more leisure time.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
I dine out with my family on a regular basis to feel renewed.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	

Section D. Dining out experience

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements describing the benefits of dining out.

“Dining out with my family enables me...”	Strongly disagree (1)	Strongly agree (7)					
to enjoy the restaurant atmosphere.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to enjoy different food to what I would normally prepare.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to enjoy good tasting food.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to enjoy nice looking food.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to distance myself from the demands of preparing routine daily meals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to forget about preparing routine daily meals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
not to have to worry about preparing routine daily meals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to renew my energy/to recharge.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to release tension/stress.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to feel renewed.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to have an enjoyable family time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to eat together as a family outside of our home.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to spend quality time with my family.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to learn about new recipes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to develop my own cooking knowledge and skills.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to experience other cultures in the form of food and drink.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
to experience new restaurants.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
“Dining out with my family...” is convenient when I do not have enough time to cook.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
is convenient when I do not have enough energy to cook.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
is convenient when I do not want to cook.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
is convenient when my family and I have different activities (e.g., sports practice, movie, shopping, etc.).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section E. Satisfaction of general life

Please indicate your satisfaction or dissatisfaction with life in general shortly after the most recent dining out experience you had with your family.

“After my family dining out experience ...”	Strongly disagree (1)	Strongly agree (7)
My satisfaction with life in general is increased.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
My happiness in general is increased.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	
My overall quality of life is enhanced.	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	

Section F. Demographic information

What is your year of birth? _____

Which of the following best represents your ethnic background?

- White / Caucasian
- Black / African American
- Hispanic / Latino American
- American Indian / Native American
- Asian / Pacific Islander
- Multi-racial or mixed race
- Other (please specify)

What is your highest level of education?

- High school or lower
- Some college or associate degree (two-year)
- Bachelor’s degree (four-year)
- Graduate studies / Post-graduate studies
- Other (please specify)

What is your main current employment status?

- Full-time paid work Part-time paid work Homemaker
- Other (please specify)

How many children under 18 reside in your household?

- 1 2 3 4 or more

How old is the oldest child living at home with you? (If you have only one child, please enter "999" in the following blank.)

_____ years old

Which of the following best describes the area you live in?

- Urban Suburban Rural

Which of the following describes your total 2017 annual household income from all sources before taxes? (U.S. Dollars)

- 19,999 or less
 20,000–29,999
 30,000–39,999
 40,000–49,999
 50,000–59,999
 60,000–69,999
 70,000–79,999
 80,000–89,999
 90,000–99,999
 100,000 or more

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