

THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED VALUE AND EMOTION  
IN DETERMINING CONSUMER SATISFACTION AND  
LOYALTY: A CASE OF ASIAN RESTAURANTS

By

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Submitted to the Faculty of the  
Graduate College of the  
Oklahoma State University  
in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for  
the Degree of  
MASTER OF SCIENCE  
July, 2014

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LOYALTY: A CASE OF ASIAN RESTAURANTS

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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to give thanks to our Lord God for his unconditional love toward me.

I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to my advisor, Dr. Hailin Qu, for his thoughtful, professional guidance and encouragement over the last two years and for his constant support and patience with my slow progress. I would also like to thank my committee members, Dr. Murat Hancer and Dr. Yeasun Chung. I would not have accomplished my master's thesis without their encouragement, suggestions, and support. I appreciate Ms. Tammy Collins, Mr. David Howey, and all of the staff members of the School of Hotel and Restaurant Administration at Oklahoma State University for their kind assistance. Moreover, I wish to extend my thanks to our graduate students who have offered assistance, valuable suggestions, and emotional support, especially Jin Young Im, Borham Yoon, Sohyun Bae, Miyoung Kim, Haemi Kim, Yeon Ho Shin, Heyjin Kwon, Wenjing Zou, Ruiying Cai, Yaochin Wang, Dongdong Zhang, and Jeena Shrestha.

I would also like to thank my friends in Korea for their beautiful friendship, including Chansook Song, Jinho Shin, Jiyou Kim, Miyoung Lee, and Jieun Lee. I wish to give special thanks to Professor Kang Myoung-goo at Seoul National University for his priceless advice and warm attentiveness.

Lastly, I wish to express my deepest thanks to my family. I could not have even started my master's program without my husband's support. Like I always say, I love you, my husband, Sun Gi Cho. I also thank my parents, Changho Song and Soonyong Lee, for their endless sacrifice and love. I owe a great debt of gratitude to my parents. My sons, Chris and Caleb, deserve my deepest thanks. I sincerely thank you for staying with me and sharing your life with me. Your existence is the meaning of my life. I love you more than words can express.

Name: SONG, JAHYUN

Date of Degree: JULY, 2014

Title of Study: THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED VALUE AND EMOTION IN  
DETERMINING CONSUMER SATISFACTION AND LOYALTY: A  
CASE OF ASIAN RESTAURANTS

Major Field: HUMAN SCIENCES

Abstract: The purpose of this study were (1) to propose and test a model of consumer choice behavior that examines the role of perceived value, emotions, and individual differences in determining consumer satisfaction and loyalty in a case of Asian restaurants, and (2) to provide practical recommendations to ethnic restaurant marketers, particularly in the Asian restaurant sector. This study followed the regulatory focus theory, which proposes motivational difference in goal setting that each regulatory system controls and influences consumers' decision making process. In the context of this theory, the study suggested that individuals' psychological differences are significant antecedents that influence their cognitive evaluations of and emotional responses from dining experiences at Asian restaurants, which consequently determine consumer satisfaction and loyalty. The target population of the study was frequent American travelers who had entered their email addresses into a public email database and who have visited any Asian restaurant within the previous 30 days. For data collection, an online survey was employed by using a convenience sampling approach. A total of 435 responses were analyzed using confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modeling, and analysis of variance methods.

Overall, the results of this study indicate that perceived value and emotional responses play significant roles in determining consumers' satisfaction and loyalty in the ethnic restaurant context. Specifically, the findings indicate that utilitarian value induces American consumers' satisfaction and loyalty more than hedonic value does. Furthermore, while researching the influences of individual factors, this study discovered that the promotion focus affected utilitarian value as well as hedonic value and positive emotions which previous literature has generally indicated, whereas the prevention focus did not influence any value dimensions; instead it had significant effects on negative emotions. Lastly, the findings regarding the development stage of each ethnic cuisine suggested that American consumers of narrow-stage Asian restaurants (Japanese restaurants in this case) are searching for unique and exotic dining experiences (i.e., hedonic value) that encourage positive emotions. In contrast, consumers were more likely to consider the utilitarian value aspects of dining services (e.g., food tastiness, food portion) while dining at Asian restaurants within the expanding stage (Thai restaurants in the present case).

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

America is a multicultural and multiethnic country that is influenced by various countries all over the world (Liu & Jang, 2009). Due to this unique cultural melting pot characteristic, the ethnic food market in the United States has emerged as one of the fastest-growing sectors in the food service industry (Mills, 2012). According to the US Census Bureau's report (2012), the country's Hispanic and Asian populations have significantly grown in recent decades, and their populations are expected to grow nearly three times as large over the next 40 years. Reflecting this demographic trend, the popularity of Asian cuisine appears to be continually growing, following Italian and Mexican cuisines (Jang & Ha, 2009).

As the United States becomes more diverse, ethnic restaurants could appeal to a more diverse demographic, and these populations could influence Americans' sense of taste and arouse Americans' interest in ethnic cuisines. In the Ethnic Food & Beverage Consumer Trend Report, among 1,500 respondents, about 77 percent of respondents said that they dine out at ethnic restaurants at least once a month, and 38 percent of them do so weekly (Technomic Inc., 2012). Furthermore, as economic conditions improve, and as purchasing power of younger generations who are more familiar with different cultures increases, more demands at ethnic restaurants are expected by the consumers who seek a new and exciting experience when dining out (Jang & Ha, 2009). However, only a quarter of diners appeared to be content with their dining experiences at

an ethnic restaurant, according to the Technomic's report (2012). This result might arouse ethnic restaurateurs' and academic researchers' curiosity such as "What factors influence ethnic restaurant consumers to be satisfied?", "How can restaurant practitioners maximize their consumers' satisfaction?", and "What is the best strategy for attracting potential consumers?" The reasons why they choose an ethnic restaurant when dining out would provide clues as to what to expect and a basis for predicting their level of consumption satisfaction and loyalty (i.e., revisit intention and positive word-of-mouth intention).

Generally, the primary reason that consumers reported for dining out is to gain value for their money spent at a restaurant (Lockyer, 2009). The more the diners perceive the quality of the dining experience as exceeding the costs of achieving those experiences, the higher their perceptions of the value of the products and services at a restaurant will be, which in turn provides them greater satisfaction (Tam, 2004). Along the same line, Slater (1997, p. 166) asserted, "the creation of customer value must be the reason for the firm's existence and certainly for its success." In this respect, restaurant operators should consider the consumer value as one of the key factors for a better understanding of consumer behavior.

Consumers eat at restaurants in order to satisfy their hunger with appropriate services (Ha & Jang, 2012). However, when dining out at an ethnic restaurant, consumers expect not only tasty food and good service but also an exotic or exciting dining experience (Ha & Jang, 2010b). Given this nature of dining consumption at ethnic restaurants, diners perceive utilitarian value by evaluating the food and service quality they receive against the costs of obtaining it (Ryu, Han, & Jang, 2010). Simultaneously, diners perceive hedonic value through evaluations of their recreational and experiential dining experiences (Park, 2004).

In general, the restaurant literature has considered the quality of foods and services reflecting utilitarian value as the most determinant factor of consumer satisfaction and future behaviors (Jang & Namkung, 2009; Qu, 1997). However, ethnic restaurant studies have postulated that authentic atmospherics is a crucial factor in consumers' positive evaluations of an

ethnic restaurant (Ebster & Guist, 2005; Ha & Jang, 2012; S. S. Jang, Ha, & Park, 2012; S. S. Jang, Liu, & Namkung, 2011; Liu & Jang, 2009; Zeng, Go, & de Vries, 2012). In other words, the products and services offered by an ethnic restaurant are frequently evaluated by hedonic value (e.g., authentic interior) as well as utilitarian value (e.g., tasty foods). Consequently, this study adopts hedonic and utilitarian value as salient value dimensions for understanding consumer behavior in an ethnic restaurant setting.

When hedonic value is central to the consumption experience, such as dining experiences at an ethnic restaurant, the role of consumers' emotions is particularly important and critical (Edvardsson, 2005). According to cognitive appraisal theory, emotions arise as a consequence of the cognitive assessment of the situation they experience (e.g., Arnold, 1960; Frijda, 1986; Roseman, 1984). In other words, restaurant consumers feel distinct emotions relevant to their appraisal of the dining experience. For example, when consumers evaluate their dining experiences as consistent with their dining motivations or goals, it often elicits positive emotional states, such as pleasure and happiness, and vice versa (Roseman, 1996). Many researchers in the psychology field have pointed out that these emotional states, which were induced by the consumption situations, significantly impact satisfaction (Mano & Oliver, 1993; Oliver, 1993; Robert A. Westbrook, 1987; Robert A. Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). A recent hospitality study also suggested that emotions play an important role in bringing such benefits as well as in increasing consumers' satisfaction and loyalty (Han & Jeong, 2013). However, there is still a lack of empirical evidence that shows how practitioners, particularly in the ethnic restaurant sector, can manage consumers' emotional responses in order to achieve desirable consumption outcomes, such as satisfaction and loyalty. Thus, this study associates consumers' emotional responses with a consumer value that delivers satisfaction and loyalty.

Satisfaction will be a primary determinant of the long-term financial performance of service firms as long as consumers' loyalty can substantially contribute to a firm's profits (Gronholdt, Martensen, & Kristensen, 2000; Hallowell, 1996; McDougall & Levesque, 2000).

Therefore, as the competition among restaurants for the food service market intensifies, it becomes increasingly important for restaurateurs and researchers to identify the variables that enhance consumers' satisfaction that, in turn, induces strong loyalty. However, our understanding of what variables influence consumers' attitudes and how these impacts vary among consumers is relatively weak within the ethnic restaurant sector.

There have been several attempts to find the answers to this curiosity in the ethnic restaurant literature, as well. One study that is particularly relevant to the present questions is Jang et al.'s (2012) investigation, during which they explored how dining factors influence consumers' emotions and perceived value in the ethnic restaurant setting. These authors found that the authentic aspects of the food and servicescape have significant impacts on positive emotions and overall evaluation that induce positive consumption outcomes. However, the extant studies have overlooked the fact that the consumer value and emotional responses are subjective constructs that vary between consumers and between situations (Hyun, Kim, & Lee, 2011; Sánchez, Callarisa, Rodríguez, & Moliner, 2006).

For starters, each consumer can prioritize a unique set of dining factors. In other words, two consumers may perceive different value and feel distinct emotions during the same consumption experience. It is therefore critical to assess how consumer variables affect the relative importance of dining factors related to consumer value and their emotional responses and to maximize their satisfaction and future intentions accordingly.

People differ in how they approach pleasure and avoid pain. Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997) is one principle that can explain these individual differences. This principle distinguishes an individual's propensity with two types of regulatory focus: *promotion focus* versus *prevention focus* (Higgins, 1997, 1998). That is, promotion-focused individuals are more sensitive to the presence and absence of positive outcomes (e.g., gains and nongains), whereas prevention-focused individuals are more sensitive to the presence and absence of negative outcomes (e.g., losses and nonlosses) (Higgins, Shah, & Friedman, 1997).

According to Yeo and Park (2006), the promotion-focused consumers of their study primarily focused on hedonic value when forming brand extension evaluations, while the prevention-focused consumers put more weight on the perception of risk than on the perception of hedonic value. Herzstein, Posavac, and Brakus (2007) also confirmed the influence of regulatory focus fit on the likelihood that someone would purchase new or really new products. In their study, Herzstein et al. found that consumers who were promotion-focused were more likely to purchase newly launched products than those who were prevention-focused. These results illuminate that consumers experienced heightened positive emotion and attitude toward products or strategies when their perceived value is consistent with their regulatory goals (Roy & Ng, 2012).

Such regulatory focus may thoroughly explain the variation in the individual differences on either the hedonic value or the utilitarian value that consumers perceive from dining experiences at ethnic restaurants. For example, individuals with a promotion focus could be motivated to pay attention to exotic and unique dining experiences, such as authentically flavored ethnic foods or an interior design that suits the restaurant's theme. In other words, hedonic value could appeal more to promotion-focused consumers than to prevention-focused consumers. In contrast, individuals with a prevention focus are concerned with negative outcomes, such as food neophobia or unhealthful foods/environments (Hwang & Lin, 2010). Thus, prevention-focused consumers could be motivated to focus on more functional or utilitarian value, such as the taste of the food in general or healthy menu options. Therefore, a regulatory fit can assist our understanding of why some consumers are more attracted to particular dining factors and how individual factors affect emotional responses and further satisfaction toward products and services. In this regard, consumers' self-regulatory focus would seem to be necessary for the consumer behavior research in an ethnic restaurant setting. However, to the best of our knowledge no research has investigated this important effect of regulatory focus in the ethnic restaurant literature.

As mentioned previously, consumer value and emotions can vary depending on situations (e.g., types of ethnic cuisines) as well as individual differences (Sánchez et al., 2006). By keeping this variation at the forefront of consideration, this study tested whether the effects of consumer value, emotions, and satisfaction differ depending on types of ethnic cuisines (i.e., Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants). Understanding the target consumer is crucial to establishing optimal marketing strategies for each ethnic cuisine segment. Therefore, a specific investigation is necessary to provide more insightful information across the different themes of restaurants. Accordingly, this study examines the effect of the restaurant types by ethnic theme on various factors that affect consumer loyalty (i.e., utilitarian and hedonic values, positive and negative emotions, and satisfaction).

### **Purposes of the study**

There are two main purposes of this study.

1. To propose and test a model of consumer choice behavior that examines the role of perceived value, emotions, and individual differences (i.e., regulatory focus) in determining consumer satisfaction and loyalty in a case of Asian restaurants, and
2. To provide practical recommendations to ethnic restaurant marketers, particularly in the Asian restaurant sector.

### **Objectives of the study**

The objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To identify whether perceived value (i.e., hedonic value and utilitarian value) influences emotional responses (i.e., positive and negative) and consumer satisfaction.
2. To assess the mediating role of emotional responses between perceived value and consumer satisfaction.

3. To examine whether consumer satisfaction impacts consumer loyalty (i.e., revisit intention, positive word-of-mouth intention).
4. To investigate the effects of regulatory focus (i.e., promotion focus and prevention focus) as antecedents on perceived value and emotional responses.
5. To reveal effects of types of ethnic cuisines (i.e., Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants) on various antecedents of consumer loyalty (i.e., hedonic and utilitarian values, positive and negative emotions, and satisfaction).
6. To provide recommendations to Asian restaurant managers and marketers who endeavor to satisfy American consumers.

### **Significance of the study**

#### Theoretical contributions

It is well recognized that individual differences significantly influence each individual's decision-making process (Arnold & Reynolds, 2009; Crowe & Higgins, 1997). Considering psychological differences of individuals, this study adopts regulatory focus theory, which proposes motivational difference in goal setting that each regulatory system controls (i.e., promotion and prevention focus) (Higgins, 1997, 1998). By adding this individual factor in the proposed model, this study attempts to examine how consumers' perceived value and emotional responses vary depending on their regulatory focus.

Firstly, the current study assumed that the consumer's regulatory focus will influence the relative effects of consumer value in their dining experience at an ethnic restaurant. Considering the particular corresponding relationship between regulatory focus and consumer value, this study agreed with previous suggestions that promotion focus is related to hedonic value, whereas prevention focus is associated with utilitarian value (Arnold & Reynolds, 2009; Chernev, 2004). However, empirical evidences are limited regarding the relationship between these two constructs due to a short history of regulatory focus theory in the service industry (Arnold & Reynolds, 2009;

Sun, 2011). Thus, in addition to those corresponding relationships suggested by previous studies, this study considered and hypothesized every positive relationship between both regulatory foci (i.e., promotion and prevention focus) and both consumer value dimensions (i.e., hedonic and utilitarian values) to offer empirical evidence.

Secondly, this study further examined the different influences of regulatory focus on what the most dominant emotion that basically affects consumers' decisions is. Most studies regarding the relationship between regulatory focus and emotions have investigated specific types of emotional responses corresponding to each regulatory focus (e.g., promotion-focused emotion: cheerfulness-related emotions versus prevention focused emotion: quiescence-related emotions) and its effect or intensity depending on various situations or conditions (e.g., cultural background, service failure, and expectations) (Chitturi, Raghunathan, & Mahajan, 2007; Higgins et al., 1997; Trudel, Murray, & Cotte, 2012; W. Yang, Mattila, & Hou, 2013). To date, only a few researches have considered these effects for predicting consumer behaviors in a service industry (Bu, Kim, & Son, 2013; Trudel et al., 2012). Furthermore, very little is known about the dominant emotion that influences consumers' behavior linked to individuals' regulatory focus. Accordingly, with regard to the relationship between regulatory focus and emotions, the current study is also expected to provide theoretical implications for the service industry.

### Practical contributions

This research is expected to contribute to several managerial implications. First, the findings of the study can provide insights into segmentation by investigating the variations in individual perceptions on consumer value and emotions. Through a deeper understanding of the target consumers, ethnic restaurateurs can reinforce particular dining factors that enhance consumers' positive emotions and value, such as by providing authentic interior or nutritious foods. The efforts that reinforce the desires and needs of the target customers will yield a competitive advantage to the restaurant.



Second, this study is also expected to generate insightful information that ethnic restaurant operators can use to establish optimal promotion strategies (e.g., advertisements and/or sales promotions) based on the consumers' propensity to make decisions. For example, Asian restaurant operators can utilize the results of this research when they decide to advertise new menus. Should an Asian restaurant put out an advertisement that focuses on functional benefits (i.e., low prices, quality food, or a convenient location), then the consumers with a prevention orientation might feel more drawn to the restaurant than those who have a promotion orientation. On the contrary, if the advertisement focuses on the emotional benefits (i.e., well matched interior design, various short-order traditional food options, or favorable music), then the promotion focused consumers might be more interested in this advertisement than the prevention focused consumers. This thesis can therefore be expected to provide meaningful managerial implications in terms of promotion strategies for ethnic restaurant operators.

Third, this study can contribute to a better understanding of customers' perceptions toward specific types of ethnic restaurants. Consumers may have different perceptions of a particular segment of an ethnic restaurant. From this aspect, the study will generate practical contributions for positioning strategies through the understanding of the current position of the restaurant.

Finally, this research will help the restaurateurs to understand consumer behavior in general. To develop any marketing strategies, marketers must possess knowledge of consumer behavior. In this regard, this study is expected to provide comprehensive knowledge of consumer behavior in five major areas: *perceived value*, *consumption emotions*, *satisfaction*, *loyalty*, and *individual differences*.

### **Organization of the Study**

This thesis is composed of five chapters. Chapter I describes the background, the purposes, and the significance of the study to present the rationales of conducting this research. Chapter II reviews the literature about perceived value, consumption emotions, consumer satisfaction, loyalty, and regulatory focus theory. With those theory and constructs, the author proposes and tests the conceptual framework to achieve the research purposes. Chapter III provides the method of the study, including instruments, data collection, data sampling, and the data analysis procedure. Chapter IV reports the results of the study. The descriptive information of the sample and the results of the hypothesis testing are discussed. Finally, Chapter V presents the conclusion of the study, theoretical contributions, practical implications, limitations, and future study suggestions.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### **Perceived value**

‘Value creation’ has become the important phenomenon among both practitioners and researchers in the marketing field (Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). Slater (1997, p. 166) argued, “the creation of customer value must be the reason for the firm’s existence and certainly for its success.” In this respect, the importance of ‘perceived value’ has been recognized as a key factor in strategic management (Mizik and Jacobson, 2003; Spiteri and Dion, 2004).

Previous research has suggested that value which is created for the consumer is highly linked to consumer satisfaction and better business performance (Gronholdt et al., 2000; Khalifa, 2004). As various studies in the service marketing have argued, the more consumers perceived value from their consumption, the greater satisfaction they are probably experiencing (Hyun et al., 2011; S. S. Jang, Ha, & Park, 2012; McDougall & Levesque, 2000; Ryu et al., 2010; Tam, 2004). In other words, the consumers who perceived value from their consumption are more satisfied than the consumers who do not perceive value. The satisfaction that consumers perceive during consumption experiences leads to a favorable attitude toward products or services, which, in turn, contributes to firms’ revenue. Thus, as the competition between firms intensifies, firms require ongoing efforts to offer greater value to the consumers than their competitors offer to achieve competitive advantages for the firms’ success.

### *Concept of perceived value*

The concept of 'perceived value' is poorly differentiated from other related terms, such as 'values,' 'utility,' or 'quality.' In particular, the terms 'value' and 'values' are often misused by many people, including even researchers and practitioners in relevant fields. Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007, p. 429) pointed out that 'value' and 'values' are distinctly different in that "Value is the outcome of an evaluative judgment, whereas the term *values* refers to the standards, rules, criteria, norms, goals, or ideals that serve as the basis for such an evaluative judgment." Simply speaking, "'Value' implies a 'trade-off' between benefits and sacrifices ... In contrast, 'values' are important personal beliefs" (Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007, p. 429). However, the terms '*perceived value*' and '*consumer value*' can be regarded as synonyms, so these terms were used interchangeably in this study (Gallarza & Gil Saura, 2006).

Perceived value is widely known as a difficult concept to define and measure due to its abstract and polysemous nature (McDougall & Levesque, 2000). There are various definitions of 'perceived value' in the marketing literature. Among them, one of the most cited definitions is that provided by Zeithaml (1988, p. 14), who defined 'perceived value' as "the consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given." This definition highlights 'perceived value' as a uni-dimensional construct that can be measured by simply trading off between benefits and costs from their consumption experience (Zeithaml, 1988).

There also exist definitions that capture a multi-dimensional aspect of perceived value. For example, Woodruff (1997, p. 142) defined 'perceived value' as a "customer's perceived preference for an evaluation of those product attributes, attribute performances, and consequences arising from use that facilitate (or block) achieving the customer's goals and purposes in use situations." In addition to these representative definitions, there are various definitions that describe perceived value (See Table 1).

Table 1. Various definitions of perceived value

<b>Author and year</b>	<b>Definitions</b>
Holbrook and Corfman (1985)	... an interactive relativistic preference experience... characterizing a subject's experience of interacting with some object. The object may be any thing or event.
Woodruff (1997)	Customer's perceived preference for an evaluation of those product attributes, attribute performances, and consequences arising from use that facilitate (or block) achieving the customer's goals and purposes in use situations.
Zeithaml (1988)	... the consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given.
Monroe (1991)	Ratio of perceived benefits relative to perceived sacrifice
Woodruff and Gardial (1993)	Trade-off between desirable attributes compared with sacrifice attributes
Anderson, Jain, and Chintagunta (1993)	Perceived worth in monetary units of the set of economic, technical, service, and social benefits received by a customer firm in exchange for the price paid for a product offering, taking into consideration the available alternative suppliers' offerings and price
Flint, Woodruff, and Gardial (1997)	The customers' assessment of the value that has been created for them by a supplier given the trade-offs between all relevant benefits and sacrifices in a specific-use situation

Source: Ulaga and Chacour (2001) and Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007)

### ***Multidimensional approach of perceived value***

Due to the lack of consensus on the definition and the concept of 'perceived value,' various approaches have emerged to conceptualize and measure this concept (Boksberger & Melsen, 2011; Khalifa, 2004; Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). For example, Sheth, Newman, and Gross (1991) developed the theory of consumption values by suggesting a broader theoretical framework of perceived value. Their theory established the five values that influence consumer choice: functional value, emotional value, social value, epistemic value, and conditional value. Table 2 shows the definitions of each value offered by the researchers.

Table 2. Definitions of the five values influencing consumer choice

Functional value	The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity for functional, utilitarian, or physical performance.
Social value	The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's association with one or more specific social groups.
Emotional value	The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity to arouse feelings or affective states.
Epistemic value	The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity to arouse curiosity, provide novelty, and/or satisfy a desire for knowledge.
Conditional value	The perceived utility acquired by an alternative as the result of the specific situation or set of circumstances facing the choice maker.

Source: Sheth et al. (1991)

Based on the consumption theory, Sweeney et al. (1996) developed a measurement for the three dimensions of value – functional, social, and emotional – by omitting any value that did not match their research setting from the value dimension proposed by Sheth et al. (1991). Sweeney and Soutar (2001) further established a multiple-item scale (so-called PERVAL scale) that measures the four major dimensions of emotional value, social value, and two types of functional value (price/value for money and performance/quality). In addition, based on the view that regards perceived value as an “interactive relativistic preference experience,” Holbrook (1999, p. 5) offered integrative dimensions to describe consumer value. This scholar proposed ‘Holbrook’s typology of consumer value’ with three dichotomies: extrinsic versus intrinsic, self-oriented versus other-oriented, and active versus reactive. Table 3 represents these three dichotomies, which consist of eight separate categories of consumer value.

Table 3. Holbrook’s typology of consumer value

		Extrinsic	Intrinsic
Self-oriented	Active	Efficiency (O/I; convenience)	Play (Fun)
	Reactive	Excellence (Quality)	Aesthetics (Beauty)
Other-oriented	Active	Status (Success, impression)	Ethics (Virtue, Justice)
	Reactive	Esteem (Reputation, materialism)	Spirituality (Faith)

Source: Holbrook (1999)

One of the most frequently adopted approaches in most cases is the hedonic versus utilitarian value dichotomy (Gallarza & Gil Saura, 2006). Consumers pursue specific value by eating out at ethnic restaurants, such as hedonic value and utilitarian value (Ha & Jang, 2013). Diners not only seek fun and pleasant experiences but also pursue economical and functional benefits through the dining experiences (Park, 2004). Correspondingly, restaurants provide hedonic benefits, such as agreeable interior design or music, and utilitarian benefits, such as tasty food or low prices. In this regard, the current study adopts the hedonic and utilitarian values approach of consumer value. More details of this approach were discussed in the next section.

### ***Utilitarian value and hedonic value approach***

Until the early 1980s, most research had neglected the hedonic aspect of consumption experience in consumer research literature (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Subsequently, Batra and Ahtola (1990) proposed the hedonic component and justified this concept of consumption behaviors with two basic reasons: consumers perceive value on their consumptions through both “(1) consummatory affective (hedonic) gratification (from sensory attributes) and (2) instrumental, utilitarian reasons concerned with ‘expectations of consequences’ (of a means-ends variety, from functional and nonsensory attributes)” (p. 159). That is, consumers perceive value on their consumptions through both hedonic aspects and utilitarian aspects of consumption experiences.

In a similar vein, Babin, Darden, and Griffin (1994) argued that shopping experience can produce both hedonic and utilitarian outcomes, and they attempted to develop a value scale for these two dimensions of shopping experience. The results of their study then verified that distinct hedonic and utilitarian shopping value dimensions do exist and are related to a number of important consumption variables. According to Babin et al. (1994), utilitarian value represents a usefulness of consumption in instrumental, task-related, rational, functional, cognitive, and a means to an end. On the other hand, hedonic value refers to an overall feeling in relation to non-

instrumental, experiential, and affective behavior that reflects the entertainment and emotional worth of a shopping experience. In short, utilitarian value is a practical trade-off between the benefits and their costs whereas hedonic value is an experiential trade-off of these elements (Hyun et al., 2011).

Value as perceived by restaurant consumers can also be conceptualized and operationalized by an approach that considers utilitarian and hedonic value. Consumers are eating out at a restaurant to satisfy their hunger with appropriate services (Ha & Jang, 2012). Thus, food and service attributes have been considered core functions of a restaurant that affect consumer satisfaction and future behaviors (Jang & Namkung, 2009; Qu, 1997). However, when dining out, consumers expect not only tasty food and good service but also a fun or a refreshing dining experience at a restaurant (Ha & Jang, 2010b). Given this nature of dining consumption, diners perceive utilitarian value by evaluating the food and service quality they received against the costs of obtaining the services (Ryu et al., 2010). Simultaneously, diners perceive hedonic value through evaluation associated with the recreational and experiential dining experiences (Park, 2004). As a result, hedonic and utilitarian values should be considered salient value dimensions in restaurant setting (Ryu et al., 2010).

Recently, the hospitality literature has reported research on perceived value using this dichotomy involving utilitarian and hedonic value. For example, Ryu et al. (2010) adopted utilitarian and hedonic values to examine the relationships among value, satisfaction, and further behavioral intentions in the fast-casual restaurant setting. The result demonstrated that although both hedonic and utilitarian values significantly affect consumer satisfaction, utilitarian value has a greater impact on both satisfaction and behavioral intention than hedonic value.

Park (2004) classified consumer values into hedonic and utilitarian in order to explore the relationship between the consumer value of eating out and the importance of restaurant attributes. The result showed that hedonic value was intertwined with the attributes of mood, quick service, cleanliness, food taste, employee kindness, and facilities, whereas utilitarian value was correlated



to the attributes of reasonable price, quick service, and promotional incentives. In addition, Park found that hedonic value affected buying frequency more than the utilitarian value did. This indicates that the participants in his study chose fast food restaurants for more hedonic reasons than utilitarian reasons.

Finally, Ha and Jang (2010b) also attempted to understand how perceived value influences satisfaction and behavioral intentions in the Korean restaurant setting. In their study, the authors found that the utilitarian value of their dining experience had a stronger impact on consumer satisfaction and future behavioral intentions than did hedonic value.

These studies showed that utilitarian and hedonic values are clearly associated with consumer satisfaction and behavioral intentions, but the values' relative impacts vary depending on the situation. Accordingly, in order to measure consumer value, the present study adopts utilitarian and hedonic values as major dimensions of perceived value to find empirical evidence in the ethnic restaurant setting.

### **Consumption emotion**

Before discussing the impact of consumption emotions related to consumer value and satisfaction, it is important to distinguish between similar terminologies such as emotion, affect, feeling, and mood.

The term affect is normally regarded as a comprehensive terminology that encompasses all internal feeling states, including emotions, feelings, and moods (J. B. Cohen, Pham, & Andrade, 2008; Gardner, 1985). Emotion refers to mental states of readiness that come from cognitive appraisals of events or thoughts (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999). On the other hand, mood represents transient feeling states that are influenced by specific times and situations, whereas feeling includes the more general and pervasive affective states that individuals perceive (Gardner, 1985). The current study considers every psychological and affective state that

encompasses emotion, affect, feeling, and mood to be the emotional responses perceived by consumers.

A more specific description of emotions includes the particular internal feeling states that arise from the cognitive assessment of particular events or thoughts. These emotions can be distinguished from consumption emotions that consumers experience during service or product consumption (Oliver, 1993; Robert A. Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). More specifically, consumption emotions refer to the “set of emotional responses elicited specifically during product usage or consumption experiences” (Robert A. Westbrook & Oliver, 1991, p. 85).

Emotions and consumption emotions have basically same characteristics of internal and affective states, and neither feature the external and cognitive states (Sun, 2011). Yet, differences in these emotions can be found. The distinctions between emotions and consumption emotions is that the latter are more specific, unique, and less intense, whereas emotions are more intense and general (Richins, 1997). Since this study investigates consumers’ emotions during dining experiences at an ethnic restaurant, it uses consumption emotions as affective responses, which it distinguishes from cognitive assessments (i.e., perceived value).

Various researchers in psychology and marketing have proposed measures of consumer emotions such as Differential Emotions Scale (DES-I and II), Emotions Profile Index (EPI), Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD), and Consumption Emotion Set (CES). Table 4 shows a summary of previous studies’ approaches to measuring the emotions. Plutchik and Kellerman (1974), Izard (1977), Richins (1997), and Mehrabian and Russell (1974) proposed measures of consumer emotions.

Plutchik and Kellerman (1974) developed the EPI index for emotions. Based on the Plutchik (1958)’s study, they suggested eight fundamental emotions: fear, anger, joy, sadness, acceptance, disgust, surprise, and expectancy. Izard (1977) proposed the differential emotions scale (DES) to measure ten basic emotions: interest, joy, anger, disgust, contempt, distress, fear, shame, guilt, and surprise. Izard (1991) developed the DES into the DES-II, which includes a

total of 30 adjective items (three adjective items per one emotion). In addition, Richins (1997) suggested the consumption emotions set (CES) as a set of consumption emotion descriptors based on prior studies that uncovered the domain of consumption emotions. This CES scale includes 43 items with 16 basic emotions (see Table 4). Four more emotions with nine more items were added to the final version of CES. With these approaches, researchers have categorized a variety of emotional states into a small set of fundamental emotions determined by each researcher (Han et. al, 2010). Thus, the aforementioned measures for emotions can be recognized as the categorical dimension approach. In the categorical dimension approach, emotional states are measured by a unipolar structure (e.g., pleasure, excitement, anger, or disgust).

Besides the categorical dimension approach, there is the structural dimension approach (e.g., PAD scale) that regards emotional states in a systematic manner rather than as independent mono-polar categories (Hyunjoo Oh, 2005). Mehrabian and Russell (1974) developed the PAD scale to assess the emotional reactions in response to environmental or physical surroundings. Based on the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) paradigm, the researchers suggested that environmental stimuli (S) can evoke certain emotional responses (O) and that such emotions, in turn, lead to consumers' behavioral intentions (R). This paradigm provides three fundamental dimensions of emotions, namely, pleasure, arousal, and dominance. Unlike a unipolar structure of measures, the PAD scale assesses emotional states in terms of the bipolar continuum of pleasure (e.g., pleasure-annoyed), arousal (e.g., aroused-unaroused), and dominance (e.g., dominant-submissive).

Many researchers have argued that the categorical approach is superior to the structural approach in that the former is more likely to capture the wide variety of emotional reactions in a consumption situation (Han, Back, & Barrett, 2010; Hyunjoo Oh, 2005; Richins, 1997). Machleit and Eroglu (2000) empirically compared the three emotion measures most frequently used in the marketing field (i.e., DES, Plutchik measure, and PAD). The results of their study suggest that the DES and Plutchik measure (a categorical dimension measure) perform considerably better than

the PDA scale (a structural dimension measure) in a retail setting. While taking this empirical evidence into consideration, the current study uses the categorical dimension approach to evaluate emotional responses evoked during dining experiences at an ethnic restaurant. Specifically, the emotional responses that the current study considers are positive and negative emotions induced from dining experience at Asian restaurants.

Table 4. A summary of the emotion measures in previous research

Authors	Terminology used	Categories/dimensions	Number of descriptors (subcategories)
Plutchik and Kellerman (1974)	EPI	Fear Anger Joy Sadness Acceptance Disgust Surprise Expectancy	62 descriptor pairs
Mehrabian and Russell (1974)	PAD	Pleasure Arousal Dominance	18 semantic differential descriptors
Izard (1977)	DES	Interest Joy Anger Disgust Contempt Distress Fear Shame Guilt Surprise	30 descriptors
Plutchik (1980)	Plutchik measure	Fear Anger Joy Sadness Acceptance Disgust Surprise Anticipation	34 descriptors
Havlena and Holbrook (1986)	Reduced set of the PAD	Pleasure Arousal Dominance	12 semantic differential descriptors
Edell and Burke (1987)	Feelings towards ads	Upbeat Warm Negative feeling	65 descriptors

(Continued)

Oh (2005)	Affective reactions to print apparel ads	Warm Negative feeling Upbeat Sensual Bored	14 descriptors
Richins (1997)	CES	Anger Discontent Worry Sadness Fear Shame Envy Loneliness Romantic love Love Peacefulness Contentment Optimism Joy Excitement Surprise	43 descriptors

Source: Han et al. (2010)

### **Consumer satisfaction**

Academic researchers and practitioners have consistently paid attention to the concept of consumer satisfaction, because consumers are the primary source of most companies' revenue (Tam, 2004). Consumer satisfaction is a fundamental determinant of consumer loyalty, which is also a critical success factor of firms' growth (Han & Ryu, 2009; Ladhari, 2009; Reichheld, 1993). Thus, service firms increasingly devote substantial attention to enhancing consumer satisfaction level (Ryu, Han, & Kim, 2008).

There are various theories that explain the mechanism of consumer satisfaction (Liu & Jang, 2009): the expectancy-disconfirmation theory (Lewin, 1938), contrast theory (Howard & Sheth, 1969), assimilation or cognitive dissonance theory (Anderson, 1973), equity theory (Oliver & Swan, 1989), and value-percept theory (Robert A Westbrook & Reilly, 1983). Among them, the most influential theory to explain consumer satisfaction in the marketing literature is the Expectancy-Disconfirmation theory initially proposed by Lewin (1938) and further developed

by Oliver (1980, 1989). This theory asserts that the perceived discrepancy between the *expectations* the consumers have before the consumption and the *perceived performance* after consumption determine consumer satisfaction. Specifically, positive disconfirmation occurs when perceived performance exceeds expectations, which results in consumer satisfaction. In contrast, negative disconfirmation occurs when perceived performance is beyond their expectations, which leads to dissatisfaction. Similarly, the equity theory proposes that consumer satisfaction occurs when the *benefits* that consumers obtain from their consumption exceeds the *costs* that they spent on them.

In the service management literature, consumer satisfaction arises when a consumer's perception of the value obtained from his/her consumption equals the perceived service quality relative to costs (i.e., price, time, effort); moreover, the value that the consumer would expect from other competitors affects this perceived service quality (Hallowell, 1996). However, these views consider only the cognitive aspects of satisfaction evaluation and do not consider the affective states that consumers might feel during consumption experiences. Based on a performance-based approach, many researchers have asserted that consumer satisfaction evaluations should incorporate emotional reactions as well as cognitive evaluations (Kotler, 2000; Oliver, 2010; Rust & Oliver, 1994). For example, Oliver (2010, p. 23) insisted that consumer satisfaction is "the consumer's fulfillment response, the degree to which the level of fulfillment is pleasant or unpleasant." Kotler (2000) also mentioned that satisfaction is the affective states that individuals feel (i.e., pleasure or disappointment) resulting from the trade-off between perceived performance and their prior expectations.

Furthermore, researchers have brought to light detailed information about consumption behavior by organizing their observations of consumer satisfaction into two broad perspectives: transaction-specific and cumulative/overall satisfaction. The former conceptualization views satisfaction as an emotional response to performance on specific attributes of a service provider, whereas the latter recognized that satisfaction is determined by repeated transactions over time

(Shankar, Smith, & Rangaswamy, 2003). That is, if satisfaction occurs in one time consumption experience (e.g., making a hotel reservation at a holiday resort), it is likely to be a transaction-specific satisfaction (H. H. Chang, Wang, & Yang, 2009). However, if satisfaction occurs in the repeating purchases, it is likely to be a cumulative or overall satisfaction. Many researchers have supported that overall satisfaction better predicts consumer loyalty which in turn increases firms' profitability (Hallowell, 1996; Reichheld & Sasser, 1990; Rust, Zahorik, & Keiningham, 1995).

### **Consumer loyalty**

Consumer loyalty refers to “a deeply held commitment to repurchase or re-patronize a preferred product or service consistently in the future despite situational influences and marketing efforts” (Oliver, 1999, p. 34). Consumer loyalty has long been regarded as a primary goal of most firms, so firms try to retain existing consumers for sustainable growth. Basically, the cost of retaining existing consumers is relatively low compared to the cost of creating new consumers (Chen & Chen, 2010). Moreover, loyal consumers are more likely to create new consumers by positive word-of-mouth and recommendation. In this respect, researchers and practitioners have attempted to measure consumer loyalty in order to understand better consumer retention.

Consumer loyalty can be measured not only in terms of repeating purchase behavior, but also in terms of their desires to continue a relationship with service providers (Chen & Chen, 2010; Yang & Peterson, 2004). Along this line, assessing consumer loyalty has been conducted using either the behavioral approach or the attitudinal approach. The behavioral approach examines actual consumer behaviors in past purchases based on “rate of purchase, frequency of purchase and possibility of purchase” (Chang et al., 2009, p. 427). In contrast, the attitudinal approach considers consumers' psychological responses toward a product or service, which involves a consumer's positive attitude, such as favorable word-of-mouth (Ha & Jang, 2010b).

In practice, loyalty that captures actual repurchasing behavior is difficult to measure, so most researchers employ attitudinal loyalty, which incorporates emotional commitment to a

service provider (Yang & Peterson, 2004). Accordingly, the degree of consumers' loyalty is frequently measured by their behavioral intentions reflecting their attitudinal loyalty, such as diners' intent to revisit and express favorable word-of-mouth to others. In this regard, the current study applies an attitudinal approach to assess the degree of diners' loyalty by using three indicators of behavioral intentions: intention to revisit, word-of-mouth, and search for alternatives.

Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996) asserted that a service provider generates positive behavioral intentions when it compels its consumers to: 1) express positive word-of-mouth about them, 2) recommend them to others, 3) revisit (or repurchase from) them, 4) spend more time with them, and 5) pay price premiums. Based on these constructs, a wide variety of studies have examined the consumer loyalty associated with quality (Chang et al., 2009; Haghighi, Dorosti, Rahnama, & Hoseinpour, 2012), value (Chen & Tsai, 2008; Gallarza & Gil Saura, 2006; Gounaris, Tzempelikos, & Chatzipanagiotou, 2007), emotions (Chang, Lv, Chou, He, & Song, 2013; Han & Jeong, 2013), and satisfaction (Gronholdt et al., 2000; Hallowell, 1996).

This study includes the two most frequently used behavioral intention variables, which indicated as favorable outcomes for a service provider in most consumer behavior studies: revisiting intentions and word-of-mouth intentions. However, the term "behavioral intention" implies not only rebuy intention but also switching intention (Keaveney, 1995). Switching intention, then, can be seen as a negative consequence for a service provider. Competition is fierce in the restaurant industry, so diners literally have a variety of choices for selecting restaurants. This market situation means that unsatisfied diners are highly likely to search for alternative restaurants at minimal or no additional costs to themselves. Therefore, the present study includes switching intention as another behavioral intention outcome along with revisit and word-of-mouth intentions.



## **Regulatory focus theory**

Regulatory focus theory extends self-discrepancy theory, which proposes that human behavior is guided by two fundamental goal classifications: ideals and oughts (Higgins, 1987, 1997). Ideals refer to an individual's hopes, wishes, or aspirations, while oughts refer to an individual's obligations, duties, or responsibilities. Furthermore, regulatory focus theory is similar to the hedonic principle, because both argue that people approach pleasure and avoid pain. Nevertheless, this theory expands upon the hedonic principle and self-discrepancy theory, because it suggests that behavior patterns (i.e., desired end state and undesired end state) are distinct in different self-regulatory systems when guided by fundamental goal classifications (i.e., ideals and oughts).

Individuals pursue ideal goals with the promotion system, whereas they pursue ought goals using the prevention system (Higgins, 1997, 1998). In this respect, regulatory focus theory proposes motivational differences in goal setting that each system controls, and distinguishes individuals into two enduring orientations: *a promotion focus* versus *a prevention focus* (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Regulatory focus theory suggests that an ideal state involves advancement, accomplishment, and aspirations that reflect nurturance needs as a promotion goal. Promotion-focused individuals are therefore shown to be more sensitive to the presence or absence of positive outcomes (e.g., gains and nongains). In contrast, an ought state includes protection, safety, and responsibility, which reflect security needs as a prevention goal. Hence, prevention-focused individuals are shown to be more sensitive to the absence or presence of negative outcomes (e.g., losses and nonlosses) (Crowe & Higgins, 1997; Higgins, 1998; Higgins, Grant, & Shah, 2001). Figure 1 provides a summary of the different psychological variables associated with the characteristics of promotion focus and prevention focus.

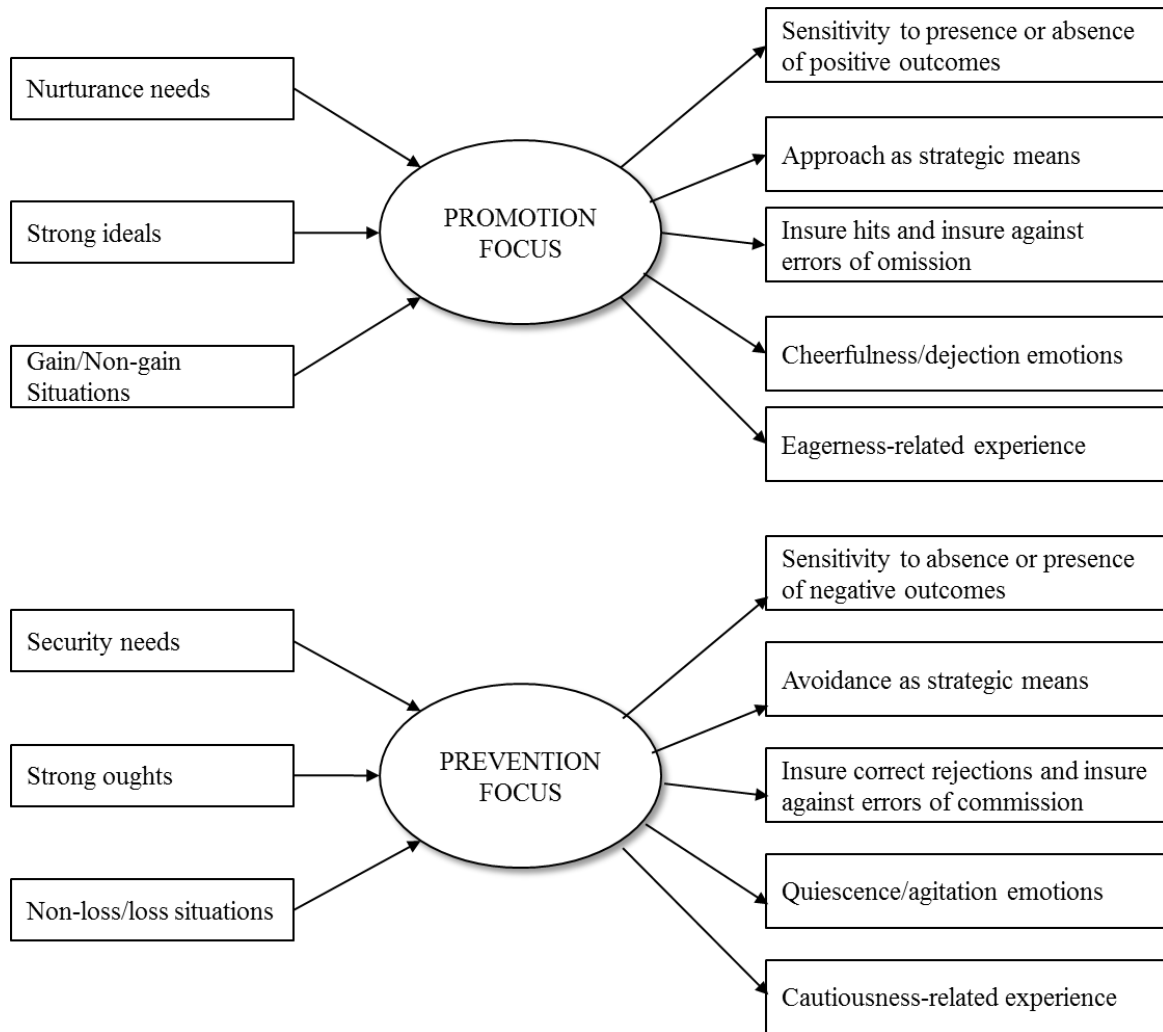


Figure 1. Psychological Variables with Distinct Relations to Promotion Focus and Prevention Focus from Higgins et al. (2001)

***Regulatory fit***

Regulatory focus also plays an important role in the way people process information (Aaker & Lee, 2006; Cesario, Higgins, & Scholer, 2008). It has been revealed that individuals are more likely to focus on information when it is consistent with individuals' self-regulatory focus than when it is inconsistent with the goal (Chernev, 2004). Thus, it is important to acknowledge that people have a feeling of 'fit' if they approach strategies that correspond with their self-regulatory orientation (Aaker & Lee, 2006; Roy & Ng, 2012). Along the same line, prior research in social psychology has postulated that regulatory focus affects the strategy that individuals use

to obtain their goals (Chernev, 2004; Higgins, 1998; Higgins et al., 2001). That is, individuals with a promotional focus tend to approach matches with the desired end state. They are likely to focus on achievement and on maximizing gains when they adopt strategies. In contrast, individuals with a prevention focus tend to avoid mismatches with the desired end state. They are likely to focus on safety and minimizing losses (Chernev, 2004). Consequently, compared to individuals who are promotion-focused, individuals who are prevention-focused appeared to exhibit a more conservative bias in evaluation and decision making (Crowe & Higgins, 1997; Higgins, 2002). When individuals experience regulatory 'fit,' they are apt to evaluate an object in a more favorable manner with positive affect and value (Higgins et al., 2001).

### ***Regulatory focus theory in previous research***

Regulatory focus is motivational in nature (Arnold & Reynolds, 2009). Individuals' motivation regulates their attitude and behavior during the decision making process. Thus, growing attention has been paid to the role of regulatory focus on human psychology and behavior in various academic areas, such as education, psychology, marketing, and retailing (M. J. Arnold & Reynolds, 2009; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Wang & Lee, 2006).

In the psychology field, regulatory focus has been examined to investigate human psychological attributes, such as motivation, emotion, attitude, or behavior. For example, Higgins et al. (2001) attempted to identify the true nature of approach or avoid experiences by considering the motivational experiences of strategic states, such as feeling eager or cautious. Through their investigation, Higgins and his colleagues found that the promotion-focused individuals tended to approach eagerness-related experiences, whereas prevention-focused individuals tended to avoid cautiousness-related experiences in their life.

In the marketing field, research has been focused on how regulatory focus affects individuals' preferences, emotions, information process, and evaluation of product attributes. For example, Safer and Higgins (1997) tested and confirmed that participants with stronger

promotion focus are more likely to purchase the luxurious alternative than the secure and reliable product, whereas participants with stronger prevention focus are more likely to purchase the secure/reliable alternative than the luxurious one. Another study that examined the impact of regulatory focus on consumer satisfaction found that prevention-focused individuals are more concerned with negative outcomes and less satisfied with positive outcomes compared to promotion-focused individuals (Trudel et al., 2012). Furthermore, the findings of Aaker and Lee (2006) study showed that a more positive attitude appeared in a product that matches participants' regulatory goals. For example, promotion-focused consumers bought the toothpaste with the whitening function, and the prevention-focused consumers bought the anticavity function toothpaste.

As the regulatory fit principle argues, when individuals make a decision or adopt a strategy that is consistent with their regulatory goal, they experience heightened perceived value and a greater number of positive emotions. Thus, it is important to consider how regulatory focus affects individuals' evaluations through the value and emotion, which is one of the purposes of this study.

### ***Regulatory focus in consumer behavior***

Recent research in consumer behavior has recognized the importance of individual differences in each consumption situation, and has attempted to investigate the psychological aspects of individuals in order to understand consumer behavior more thoroughly. In this regard, regulatory focus theory emerged to explain this psychological aspect that influences the variation of the individual differences on consumers' decision making behavior.

Based on the popular notion that people are all different, several studies have attempted to identify how regulatory focus affects their consumption behavior (Hassenzahl, Schöbel, & Trautmann, 2008; Pham & Higgins, 2005; Roy & Ng, 2012; Trudel et al., 2012; Yeo & Park, 2006). For example, Yeo and Park (2006) studied regulatory focus fit by testing how participants

reacted to a brand extension strategy when the extension was similar versus dissimilar to the original brand. The result showed that the promotion-focused consumer primarily focused on the hedonic value (positive outcome) when forming brand extension evaluations whereas the prevention-focused consumer put more weight on the perception of risk (negative outcome) than on the perception of hedonic value.

Herzenstein et al. (2007) also examined the role of regulatory focus on the likelihood of purchase of new or really new products. In their study, the authors found that consumers who were promotion-focused were more likely to purchase newly launched products than those who were prevention-focused. In addition, Roy and Ng (2012) demonstrated that consumers with promotion focus have more positive attitudes toward a product with more hedonic benefits than utilitarian benefits. On the other hand, consumers with prevention focus have more favorable attitudes toward a product that features more utilitarian benefits than hedonic benefits.

Roy and Ng (2012) pointed out that no one has asked how motivational goals influence consumers' satisfaction and post-purchasing decisions despite the significant effects of regulatory focus on consumers' attitude and decision toward consumptions or strategies. For example, two consumers with different motivational goals (i.e., promotion versus prevention) of evaluating dining experience at an ethnic restaurant may focus on different considerations, such as an exotic mood of service and food versus healthy food options and inexpensive prices. Such different consumers may end up evaluating their dining experience very differently. In this particular context, the current study expects that consumers will make a decision involving a trade-off between dining experiences with their motivational goals. Accordingly, this study considers regulatory focus an important psychological variable for understanding diners' attitudes and choice behaviors toward a service provider.

### ***Regulatory focus: The antecedent of perceived value and emotion***

Previous studies have suggested that hedonic and utilitarian values are major determinants of consumers' choices (Ahtola, 1985; Jones, Reynolds, & Arnold, 2006). Thus, service providers should recognize not only how to create hedonic and utilitarian values and how these values affect consumer behavior but also what factors influence these values. An interesting consideration about the hedonic and utilitarian values is that the consumers' goal orientations (i.e., promotion or prevention) can result in differing effects of these values and emotional responses.

Marketing literature has often stated that utilitarian value is more necessary-oriented and that practical attributes potentially involve both losses and gains, while hedonic value is more pleasure-oriented and experiential attributes offer only gains (Arnold & Reynolds, 2009). With this regard, Chernev (2004) suggested that promotion-focused goals are a better fit with hedonic components, whereas prevention focus is more likely to match with utilitarian components. This prediction follows the regulatory focus theory, which argues promotion-focused individuals tend to pursue ideal goals and are therefore more sensitive to the presence or absence of positive outcomes (e.g., gains and nongains), whereas prevention-focused individuals seem to pursue ought goals and are more sensitive to the presence or absence of negative outcomes (e.g., losses and nonlosses) (Higgins, 1997, 1998).

As discussed earlier, an individual's regulatory orientation (i.e., promotion or prevention) not only guides his or her behavior (Higgins, 2002) but also makes differences in his or her cognitive judgment processes (Friedman & Förster, 2001). According to the cognitive tuning theory (Friedman & Förster, 2001), individuals view the same environment uniquely. As a result, people make unique decisions depending on the types of cognitive processes they use. Specifically, cognitive tuning theory suggests that promotion-focused individuals tend to see their environment as benign and asking to be explored. Such individuals therefore are riskier and more engaged in exploratory and creative behavior (Förster, Higgins, & Idson, 1998; Sun, 2011). In

contrast, prevention-focused individuals remain careful and circumspect about their environment, because they perceive it as threatening and problematic (Friedman & Förster, 2001). Accordingly, they are more analytical and likely to concentrate on safety and security. Along with regulatory focus theory, this idea can assist our understanding of the relationship between regulatory focus and perceived value in the context of an ethnic restaurant. That is, it seems reasonable to suspect that diners with a promotion focus could be motivated to try exotic and unique dining experiences, reflecting hedonic value (e.g., authentically flavored ethnic foods or well-matched interior design with the restaurant theme), while diners with a prevention focus worry more about negative factors (e.g., food neophobia, unhealthy foods/environments) while choosing restaurants (Hwang & Lin, 2010). This caution suggests that prevention-focused diners could be motivated to focus on utilitarian components like generally tasty food or healthy menu options and such consumers are more likely to have a conservative view on an evaluation about dining services (Trudel et al., 2012).

Taken together, the current study assumed that the consumer's regulatory focus will influence the relative effects of consumer value in their dining experience at an ethnic restaurant. With regard to the particular corresponding relationship between regulatory focus and consumer value, this study agreed with previous suggestions that promotion focus is related to hedonic value, whereas prevention focus is associated with utilitarian value. However, there is still a lack of empirical evidence regarding the relationship between these two constructs due to a short history of regulatory focus theory in the service industry (M. J. Arnold & Reynolds, 2009; Sun, 2011). Thus, this attempt may serve theoretical contributions through confirming and/or revealing the relationship between regulatory focus and perceived value.

*H1-a:* Promotion focus is positively related to hedonic value.

*H1-b:* Promotion focus is not related to utilitarian value.

*H2-a:* Prevention focus is not related to hedonic value.

*H2-b:* Prevention focus is positively related to utilitarian value.

As discussed above, prevention-focused people have more concerns about negative outcomes (e.g., losses and nonlosses) and are less satisfied with positive outcomes (e.g., gains and nongains) compared to promotion-focused people. In contrast, promotion-focused people put more weight on positive outcomes and are less likely to worry about negative outcome than prevention-focused people (Trudel et al., 2012). Thus, it might be easier for consumers who are closer to a prevention focus to feel negative emotions because they tend to focus more on negative outcomes, whereas the reverse is true with promotion focus. As a result, it is reasonable to suspect that the different effects of each emotion occur according to the types of regulatory focus.

In sum, the following hypotheses were proposed in terms of the relationship between regulatory focus and emotions.

*H3-a:* Promotion focus is positively related to positive emotion.

*H3-b:* Promotion focus is not related to negative emotion.

*H4-a:* Prevention focus is not related to positive emotion.

*H4-b:* Prevention focus is positively related to negative emotion.

### **Relationships among perceived value, emotion, satisfaction, and loyalty**

Empirical evidence about the relationships among perceived value, consumer satisfaction, and loyalty has been well documented. Prior studies have evidenced a direct link between perceived value and satisfaction as well as a direct (or at least indirect) relationship between perceived value and loyalty (or through satisfaction) (Gallarza & Gil Saura, 2006; Gounaris et al., 2007; Ha & Jang, 2010b).



Based on these foundations, numerous studies have attempted to examine particular relationships among the service encounter constructs mentioned above with/without other important factors, such as dining attributes (Ha & Jang, 2010a; Liu & Jang, 2009), service quality (Chen & Chen, 2010; Tam, 2004), and restaurant image (Ryu et al., 2008). For example, Ha and Jang (2010b) investigated the relationships among perceived value, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions, and found direct relationships between perceived value and satisfaction, between perceived value and behavioral intentions, and satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Ryu, Lee, and Kim (2012) empirically tested the impact of three dining attributes (i.e., physical environment, food, and service) on restaurant image, perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty. Ryu and his colleagues found that these three elements of quality dimensions were significant determinants of restaurant image and that the restaurant's image was a significant antecedent of perceived value. Furthermore, they confirmed that perceived value is a predictor of consumer satisfaction and that consumer satisfaction is a determinant of loyalty.

Despite the significant role of emotions on satisfaction revealed, a limited number of studies have examined the effects of emotional responses evoked as a direct result of consumers' perceived value on satisfaction and loyalty. There is no doubt that the consumers who have more positive emotions during their dining experiences will possess greater consumer satisfaction and loyalty. Thus, emotions should be considered a significant antecedent of consumer satisfaction (Bigné, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005). In the restaurant literature, Ryu and Jang (2007) identified the role of emotions on the relationship between consumers' perceptions toward dining environments and behavioral intentions. The findings of their study indicated that consumer value influences consumers' behavioral intentions through emotional states.

Although the literature provides some evidences to understand the causal connections among the important constructs (i.e., perceived value, emotion, satisfaction, and loyalty), very few studies have been conducted to examine the integrative relationships among them in the context of the restaurant industry. Considering all together, the current study attempted to identify

how these important variables play roles in determining consumer loyalty in an ethnic restaurant setting.

### *Perceived value and emotion*

According to the cognitive appraisal theory, emotions arise as a result of the cognitive evaluation of the events or situations that individuals face. Consequently, cognitive appraisal theory claims that individuals experience discrete emotions based on their cognitive evaluation of specific situations, that is, their appraisals (Lazarus, 1991). In other words, the cognitive assessment firstly occurs then emotions are elicited.

Prior studies in this area have investigated various appraisal dimensions that include “unexpectedness of an event, pleasantness or motive-consistency (situational state), sense of control over an event, coping potential with what happened, agency or responsibility for what happened, certainty about the consequences of an event, and legitimacy of what happened” (Dalakas, 2006, p. 25). For example, Scherer (1993) observed that consumers experience positive emotions through motive-consistent situations, whereas negative emotions are induced by motive-inconsistent events. Lazarus (1991) also found that feelings of anger are elicited when the blame for a negative event is caused by a controllable external factor, while anxiety is experienced when the blame for a negative event is attributed to an uncontrollable one.

Current restaurant research also appears to lend support to the cognitive appraisal theory. For instance, the findings of the Dalakas (2006) study, who examined how consumer appraisals of different events during a service encounter affect the type of emotional states, indicated that cognitive appraisals led to emotional responses. Similarly, Sun (2011) employed the cognitive appraisal paradigms and provided empirical support concerning how two dimensions of service value (appraisals of utilitarian and hedonic dining experiences) induce emotions. The result revealed that both dimensions of value significantly influenced positive emotions, and the author confirmed that cognitive appraisal predicts consumers’ emotional response.

Based on previous research, the following hypotheses were proposed concerning the effects of two dimensions of service evaluations in consumer emotions.

***Hypothesis 5:*** Consumers will experience positive emotions when they perceive value from the service experiences.

*H5-a:* Hedonic value is positively related to positive emotions.

*H5-b:* Utilitarian value is positively related to positive emotions.

***Hypothesis 6:*** Consumers will experience negative emotions when they do not perceive value from the service experiences.

*H6-a:* Hedonic value is negatively related to negative emotions.

*H6-b:* Utilitarian value is negatively related to negative emotions.

### ***Emotions and satisfaction***

Many researchers have suggested the proposition that the positive affect factor and negative affect factor are the independent unipolar dimensions of consumption related emotions (Westbrook, 1987; Oliver, 1993; Mano and Oliver, 1993). For example, Westbrook (1987) examined consumer affective responses to product consumption experiences and the responses' relationship with re-purchasing behaviors. His analysis indicated that positive and negative feelings are independent of each other, and both dimensions of affective response influence the levels of consumer satisfaction and loyalty. Similarly, Oliver (1993) also confirmed the existence of positive and negative emotions in consumption situations, and found that positive and negative emotions influence satisfaction and dissatisfaction, respectively. In addition, the findings of Mano and Oliver's (1993) study, who examined the interrelationship among evaluations, feelings, and satisfaction in consumption experiences, suggest that consumer satisfaction significantly correlates with positive and negative affect.

In restaurant literature, there are several attempts to investigate the role of consumer emotions associated with satisfaction or behavioral intentions (Han & Jeong, 2013; Jang & Namkung, 2009; Lin & Mattila, 2010; Ryu & Jang, 2007; Sun, 2011). Liu and Jang (2009) examined the mediating role of emotional responses on the relationship among dining atmospherics, perceived value, and behavioral intentions, adopting the two unipolar dimensions of positive and negative emotion. The authors argued that positive emotion induces pleasure, excitement, contentment, refreshment, interest, and relaxation during the dining experience. In contrast, negative emotion can manifest in feelings of anger, disgust, boredom, regret, distress, and contempt. The results of the study showed then that both positive and negative emotions effect consumers' post-dining behavioral intentions.

These unipolar dimensions of emotions (i.e., positive and negative emotions) were also used for the study that investigated the mediating effects of emotions on the relationship between perceived quality and behavioral intentions (Jang & Namkung, 2009). In this study, emotions were measured with five positive emotions across 12 items and five negative emotions across 16 items, and the authors found atmospherics and service quality enhancing positive emotions and product quality helping to relieve negative emotional reactions.

Taking this extant literature into account, the current study hypothesized that positive emotion will directly enhance consumers' satisfaction while negative emotion will directly reduce their satisfaction.

***Hypothesis 7:*** Emotional responses evoked by dining experiences will influence the extent of the consumers' satisfaction.

*H7-a:* Positive emotions are positively related to consumer satisfaction.

*H7-b:* Negative emotions are negatively related to consumer satisfaction.

### *Perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty*

The most widely accepted frameworks for understanding perceived value and satisfaction are derived from the Expectancy-Disconfirmation theory (Ma, Qu, Njite, & Chen, 2011). As discussed earlier, consumer satisfaction occurs in terms of expectancy disconfirmation, attribution, and inequity judgments (Mano & Oliver, 1993). In other words, consumers will be satisfied when the services provided meet or exceed their expectation; otherwise, they will be dissatisfied. In this respect, perceived value is posited to be an immediate antecedent of consumer satisfaction (Haemoon Oh, 2000). The more the consumer perceives the value of service, the higher consumer satisfaction and loyalty toward the service (Tam, 2004). Thus, most studies have considered consumer loyalty, such as behavioral intentions, as an extension of the relationship between perceived value and satisfaction (Ha & Jang, 2010b; Hanzaee & Khonsari, 2011; Ryu et al., 2010).

For example, Hanzaee and Khonsari (2011) attempted to identify the role of hedonic and utilitarian values on consumers' satisfaction and behavioral intentions through a case study. The result of their study showed a strong and meaningful positive relation between both values and satisfaction. This study also revealed a significant direct relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions. The findings of this study are consistent with Ryu et al.'s study, who examined the relationships among hedonic and utilitarian values, consumer satisfaction, and behavioral intentions in the fast-casual restaurant industry. In their study, they further identified the relative effects of utilitarian and hedonic values on satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Their results indicated that utilitarian value has a greater impact on both consumer satisfaction and behavioral intention than does hedonic value in the context of the fast-casual restaurant. Finally, the researchers confirmed the role of satisfaction as a partial mediator on the relation between perceived value and behavioral intentions.

In accordance with the empirical evidence, it was hypothesized that perceived value would directly lead to consumer satisfaction and consumer satisfaction would directly influence

consumer loyalty. In addition, a direct relationship between revisit intention and word-of-mouth intention was also hypothesized.

***Hypothesis 8:*** Both hedonic and utilitarian values will lead to consumer satisfaction.

*H8-a:* Hedonic value is positively related to consumer satisfaction.

*H8-b:* Utilitarian value is positively related to consumer satisfaction.

***Hypothesis 9:*** Consumer satisfaction will positively influence consumer loyalty.

*H9-a:* Consumer satisfaction is positively related to revisit intention.

*H9-b:* Consumer satisfaction is positively related to word-of-mouth intention.

***H10:*** Word-of-mouth intention is positively related to revisit intention.

### **Ethnic restaurant**

Ethnic foods can be defined as “foods from a particular country that members of an ethnic group consider their own” (Ha & Jang, 2012, p. 207). America is a multicultural and multiethnic country that is influenced by countries all over the world (Liu & Jang, 2009). Due to this unique characteristic as a cultural melting pot, the ethnic food market in the United States has emerged as one of the fastest growing sectors in the food service industry (Bu et al., 2013).

Reflecting this growing phenomenon, the revenue of ethnic restaurants has reached that of the fast food restaurant market in the US (Geisler, 2011). Ethnic restaurants not only serve eating-related services but also provide opportunities for local consumers to experience foreign food and culture (Jang, Liu, & Namkung, 2011); therefore, diners can perceive them as having both utilitarian and hedonic value, respectively. Many local consumers may expect more unique and exotic experiences associated with foreign cultures in the ethnic restaurant compared to general western style restaurants. In this respect, the ethnic restaurant literature holds experiential and

hedonic value, such as authentic-tasting foods or exotic interior design, as important to enhancing consumer satisfaction and favorable behavioral intentions (Ebster & Guist, 2005; Jang, Ha, & Park, 2012).

However, as ethnic cuisine becomes more familiar to the local consumers, the relative importance of hedonic and utilitarian values appears to differ in terms of the development stage of each ethnic cuisine. For example, the role of authenticity, which provides hedonic value, lessened within the ethnic restaurants that became mainstream in the US, such as Chinese, Italian, and Mexican restaurants (Ha & Jang, 2010b; Jang et al., 2011). On the contrary, the influence of hedonic aspects of dining service still plays an important role in emerging ethnic food restaurants, such as Japanese and Korean restaurants (Jang et al., 2012; Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007). Taking into consideration that the effect of hedonic and utilitarian value on consumer satisfaction and emotional responses can vary according to the development stage of each ethnic cuisine, this study attempts to understand these differences using Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants.

Among the wide range of ethnic restaurants in the US, Asian cuisines (including Chinese cuisine) appear to be the fastest-growing ethnic food choices, following Italian and Mexican foods (Jang & Ha, 2009). According to Sloan (2001), the development of ethnic foods can be divided into four stages in terms of the volume of sales: exotic, narrow, expanding, and mainstream. Chinese Restaurant News (2007) reported that the number of Chinese restaurants operating in the US exceeds the total number of all McDonald's, Wendy's, and Burger King domestic stores combined. With Italian and Mexican cuisine, Chinese cuisine therefore seems to take a dominant position within the ethnic restaurant market in the US, attracting almost all local consumers (Mills, 2000).

Thai foods are one of the rapidly growing ethnic restaurants among Asian cuisine in the US (Sunanta, 2005). The uniquely spicy hot taste and healthy and nutritious image of Thai cuisine led to this popularity among American consumers (Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007). Reflecting this trend, nearly 1,300 professional chefs rated Thai food as one of the hottest trends

of ethnic cuisines along with Korean, Vietnamese, and Malaysian cuisines for the upcoming year, according to a recent survey conducted by the National Restaurant Association (2013).

In addition, Japanese cuisine has also gained popularity among local consumers in the US ethnic restaurant industry during the recession period because of its healthy ingredients and great taste (Lim, 2010). According to the Japan External Trade Organization (JECTO), the number of Japanese restaurants in the US increased nearly 50% to 14,129 in 2010 from 9,128 in 2005. The increase was due to food trends reflecting nutritious, sustainable, and fresh foods (Lim, 2010). Indeed, the national trend toward eating more healthy foods has driven the success of Japanese cuisine in the US in past ten years.

Considered all together, the current study classifies Chinese cuisine as being in the mainstream stage, while Thai foods are in the expanding stage and Japanese foods can be seen as being in the narrow stage (Jang et al., 2012; Jang and Ha, 2009; Sloan, 2001). In summary, using three ethnic restaurants mentioned above, this study attempts to identify the effect of the types of ethnic restaurants on each direct or indirect antecedent variable of consumer loyalty such as consumer value, emotions, and satisfaction. Regarding this, following hypothesis was proposed.

**H11a:** Hedonic value is perceived differently by consumers among Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants.

**H11b:** Utilitarian value is perceived differently by consumers among Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants.

**H12a:** Positive emotions are experienced differently by consumers among Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants.

**H12b:** Negative emotions are experienced differently by consumers among Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants.

**H13:** The level of consumer satisfaction is different among Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants.



## **Summary of research hypotheses**

This study attempted to identify how different psychological aspects influence consumers' perceived value and emotional responses. For this attempt to explain the variance between individuals, the current study considered regulatory focus theory, which suggests that promotion focus is more associated with hedonic value and positive emotions, whereas prevention focus is more match with utilitarian value and negative emotions, Based on these suggestions, the following six hypotheses are presented.

**H1-a:** Promotion focus is positively related to hedonic value. (+)

**H1-b:** Promotion focus is not related to utilitarian value. (no relationship)

**H2-a:** Prevention focus is not related to hedonic value. (no relationship)

**H2-b:** Prevention focus is positively related to utilitarian value. (+)

**H3-a:** Promotion focus is positively related to positive emotion. (+)

**H3-b:** Promotion focus is not related to negative emotion. (no relationship)

**H4-a:** Prevention focus is not related to positive emotion. (no relationship)

**H4-b:** Prevention focus is positively related to negative emotion. (+)

Basically, the current study acknowledges that there are two primary perceived value dimensions, hedonic value and utilitarian value, and questions how these consumer values influence emotions and consumer satisfaction that contribute loyalty formation. In addition, this study suggested that emotions play a mediating role (at least partially) in the relationship between perceived value and satisfaction, which is a prerequisite for consumer loyalty. In these regards, the following hypotheses were suggested to find the role of these variables in determining consumer satisfaction and loyalty in the context of ethnic restaurants.

**Hypothesis 5:** Consumers will experience positive emotions when they perceive value from the service experiences.

**H5-a:** Hedonic value is positively related to positive emotions. (+)

**H5-b:** Utilitarian value is positively related to positive emotions. (+)

**Hypothesis 6:** Consumers will experience negative emotions when they do not perceive value from the service experiences.

**H6-a:** Hedonic value is negatively related to negative emotions. (-)

**H6-b:** Utilitarian value is negatively related to negative emotions. (-)

**Hypothesis 7:** Emotional responses induced by dining experiences will influence the extent of the consumers' satisfaction.

**H7-a:** Positive emotions are positively related to consumer satisfaction. (+)

**H7-b:** Negative emotions are negatively related to consumer satisfaction. (-)

**Hypothesis 8:** Both hedonic and utilitarian values will lead to consumer satisfaction.

**H8-a:** Hedonic value is positively related to consumer satisfaction. (+)

**H8-b:** Utilitarian value is positively related to consumer satisfaction. (+)

**H9:** Consumer satisfaction will positively influence consumer loyalty.

**H9-a:** Consumer satisfaction is positively related to revisit intention. (+)

**H9-b:** Consumer satisfaction is positively related to word-of-mouth intention. (+)

**H10:** Word-of-mouth intention is positively related to revisit intention. (+)

Lastly, a more specific investigation for different restaurant types was suggested to understand their target consumers.

***H11a:*** Hedonic value is perceived differently by consumers among Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants.

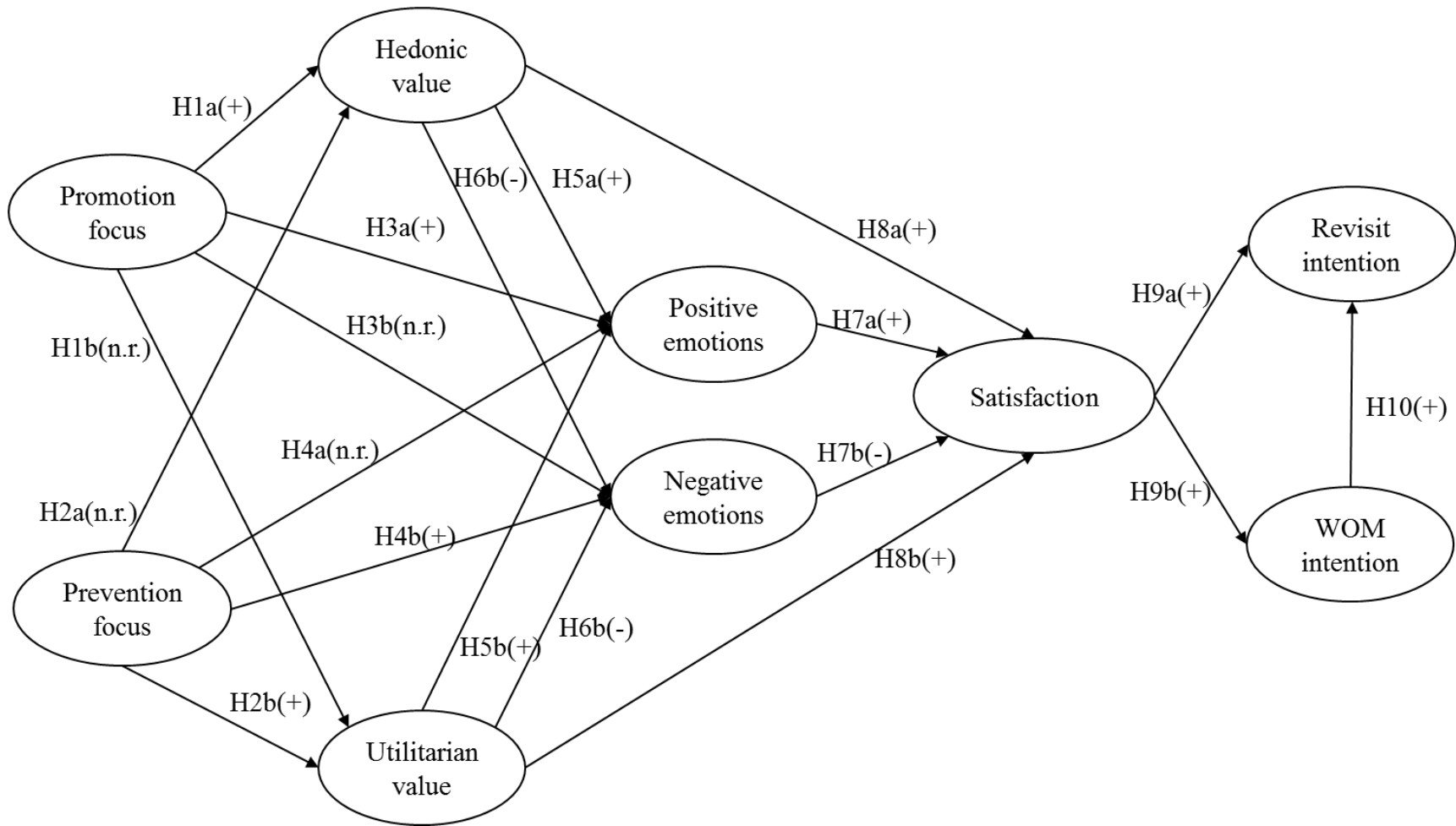
***H11b:*** Utilitarian value is perceived differently by consumers among Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants.

***H12a:*** Positive emotions are experienced differently by consumers among Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants.

***H12b:*** Negative emotions are experienced differently by consumers among Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants.

***H13:*** The level of consumer satisfaction is different among Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants.

To better understand the integrative picture of this study, a conceptual framework is provided in Figure 2. This study proposed that service operators should examine the determinant factors that enhance desired consumer satisfaction and loyalty so that they can provide more appropriate services for their consumers. The current study also suggested that individual differences should be considered as an antecedent of consumer values and emotions, considering that people seem to perceive value differently and feel different emotions during the same consumption experience. Taken together, the following proposed model (see Figure 2) was developed based on these research purposes.



Note: n.r.= no relationship

Figure 2. The proposed model of this study

## CHAPTER III

### METHOD

A descriptive and causal research design was used in this study with a cross-sectional and a sample survey.

#### **Survey instrument**

A self-administered questionnaire was employed to collect data. The survey's initial question asks the respondents whether they have had experiences with dining out at any Asian restaurant within the last 30 days. Only those who answered 'yes' were invited to complete the remaining questionnaire.

The first section of the questionnaire is designed to solicit information about the respondent's dining experience at an Asian restaurant of their choice. This section inquires after what type of Asian restaurant the participant is referencing for this survey and their frequency of visits.

The second section of this questionnaire consists of five categories that measure the proposed construct's relation to all variables: 1) regulatory focus (promotion focus and prevention focus), 2) perceived value (hedonic value and utilitarian value), 3) consumption emotions (positive and negative emotional responses), 4) satisfaction, and 5) loyalty (revisit intention, word-of-mouth intention, and switching intention). All items were developed on the basis of previous literature, but they were revised slightly to fit the ethnic restaurant circumstance, and were reduced in number.

In particular, regulatory focus was measured using a regulatory focus scale (eight items), which was adapted and modified from Lockwood, Jordan, and Kunda (2002)'s study. This scale consists of a promotion focus subscale (four items) and a prevention focus subscale (four items). The scale for perceived value (ten items) comprised items from Ha and Jang (2010b)'s study, including a hedonic value subscale (five items) and a utilitarian value subscale (five items). In addition, for the measure of consumption emotions, a scale based on the works of Jang and Namkung (2009) and Yi and Baumgartner (2004) was developed by considering the positive and negative emotions that can be induced in the restaurant context. As a result, a total of eight items were categorized as either positive or negative emotions. Pleasure, excitement, relaxedness, and refreshment are considered positive emotions, and upset, disappointment, regret, and boredom are regarded as negative emotions. Moreover, consumer satisfaction was measured by three items borrowed from Oliver (1980). Lastly, the measurement items for revisit intention (three items), word-of-mouth intention (three items), and switching intention (three items) were borrowed and revised from Hutchinson, Lai, and Wang (2009)'s, Jones et al. (2006)'s, and Mattila and Ro (2008)'s studies, respectively. Overall, a total of thirty-eight items for ten constructs comprised the questionnaire's measurement items.

All items, except for the regulatory focus items, were measured for the degree of agreement or disagreement on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The regulatory focus was rated on a seven-point scale with endpoints (1 = not at all true of me, 7 = very true of me). Table 5 shows the measurement items of the constructs used in this study.

The last section of the questionnaire asked the respondents about their socio-demographic information, such as gender, age, educational level, annual household income, and ethnicity.

Table 5. A summary of measurement items

Construct	Items	Reference
<b>Regulatory focus</b>		
Promotion focus	<p><b>PM1:</b> I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations.</p> <p><b>PM2:</b> I typically focus on the success I hope to achieve in the future.</p> <p><b>PM3:</b> I often imagine myself experiencing good things that I hope will happen to me.</p> <p><b>PM4:</b> In general, I am focused on achieving positive outcomes in my life.</p>	Lockwood, Jordan, and Kunda (2002)
Prevention Focus	<p><b>PV1:</b> I frequently think about how I can prevent failures in my life.</p> <p><b>PV2:</b> I am anxious that I will fall short of my responsibilities and obligations.</p> <p><b>PV3:</b> I often imagine myself experiencing bad things that I fear might happen to me.</p> <p><b>PV4:</b> In general, I am focused on preventing negative events in my life.</p>	
<b>Perceived value</b>		
Hedonic value	<p><b>HV1:</b> The interior design of this restaurant made me feel that culture.</p> <p><b>HV2:</b> The music that they played in this restaurant entertained me.</p> <p><b>HV3:</b> The traditional aspects of the foods made me feel like I was escaping from ordinary life.</p> <p><b>HV4:</b> The mood of this restaurant made me feel like I was in an exotic place.</p> <p><b>HV5:</b> The layout, facilities, and aesthetics of this restaurant were fun and unique to me.</p>	Ha and Jang (2010)
Utilitarian value	<p><b>UV1:</b> The cost of food was reasonable in this restaurant.</p> <p><b>UV2:</b> The foods I had were tasty, so I enjoyed them.</p> <p><b>UV3:</b> The food portion in this restaurant was enough, satisfying my hunger.</p> <p><b>UV4:</b> I liked a variety of menu choices in this restaurant.</p> <p><b>UV5:</b> I liked the healthy food options in this restaurant.</p>	
<b>Consumption Emotion</b>	When I think of eating out at this restaurant, I feel...	
Positive emotion	<p><b>PE1:</b> Joy</p> <p><b>PE2:</b> Excited</p> <p><b>PE3:</b> Relaxed</p> <p><b>PE4:</b> Refreshed</p>	Jang and Namkung (2009)

(Continued)

Negative emotion	<b>NE1:</b> Upset <b>NE2:</b> Disappointed <b>NE3:</b> Regret <b>NE4:</b> Bored	Yi and Baumgartner (2004)
<b>Satisfaction</b>	<b>SAT1:</b> My choice to dine at this restaurant was a wise one. <b>SAT2:</b> I was happy with the dining experience in this restaurant. <b>SAT3:</b> Overall, I was satisfied with the dining experience in this restaurant.	Oliver (1980)
<b>Loyalty</b>		
Revisit intention	<b>RI1:</b> I would like to return to this restaurant for my next dining out. <b>RI2:</b> I would absolutely consider coming back to this restaurant. <b>RI3:</b> I would absolutely consider coming back to this restaurant.	Hutchinson, Lai, and Wang (2009)
WOM intention	<b>WOM1:</b> I would positively recommend this restaurant to my friends or relatives. <b>WOM2:</b> I would be glad to refer this restaurant to other people. <b>WOM3:</b> I would recommend this restaurant to those who are planning to dine out.	Jones et al. (2006)
Switching intention	<b>SI1:</b> I do not want to go back to this restaurant. <b>SI2:</b> I will choose another Asian restaurant when I want to eat Asian foods. <b>SI3:</b> I will look for other types ethnic restaurants.	Mattila and Ro (2008)

### Pilot test

To ensure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire before conducting the survey, a pilot test was performed with twenty people who dined out at Asian restaurants within the last 30 days. Firstly, to assure content validity, the survey questionnaire was reviewed during the pilot test by three professors in the School of Hotel and Restaurant Administration at Oklahoma State University and two Americans who are frequent diners (at least once a month) at Asian restaurants in the US. Based on their suggestions, the questionnaire was slightly modified.

In addition, the reliability of the scales was evaluated by calculating the coefficient alphas (i.e., Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ) of each construct to confirm the degree of internal consistency among the



multiple measurements. According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), any measurement scale with a Cronbach's alpha above 0.70 can be regarded as minimum value, indicating that the individual items possess fine internal consistency and can therefore measure a hypothetical construct. As shown in Table 6, the Cronbach's alpha of the ten constructs ranged between .73 and .96. Therefore, the instrument used in this study had a sufficient level of internal consistency and reliability for data analysis.

Table 6. The results of pilot test

Variable	Cronbach's alpha
Promotion focus	.89
Prevention focus	.73
Hedonic value	.88
Utilitarian value	.83
Positive emotions	.90
Negative emotions	.96
Satisfaction	.95
Revisit intention	.92
WOM intention	.98
Switching intention	.87

### **Data collection and sampling**

The present study established and tested the proposed model using the case of ethnic restaurants, particularly Asian restaurants. Asian restaurants in the US have appeared to gain intense popularity among Americans as well as Asian populations, and Asian cuisine is also expected to become the hottest trend of ethnic cuisine in the upcoming years (Technomic Inc., 2012). Despite its popularity, the level of American consumer satisfaction revealed still low. Therefore, the study that examines how to enhance Americans' satisfaction with this restaurant sector and their loyalty to this sector is urgently needed.

Generally, Asian restaurants in the US try to provide exotic dining attributes (e.g., authentic décor or traditional music), in addition to their basic dining services so that they can more strongly appeal to American consumers who want to have unique dining experiences. In other words, the hedonic aspects of dining might be influential factors of consumer loyalty to

Asian restaurants (Ha & Jang, 2010a). However, some consumers might place more weight on utilitarian value (e.g., food tasty, food portion, or menu variety) than on hedonic value while choosing Asian restaurants. Thus, the case of Asian restaurants seemed appropriate for examining the relative effects of hedonic and utilitarian values, which are the primary consideration of this study on consumer satisfaction and loyalty.

### ***Sample size***

Since the current study was conducted using the maximum likelihood estimation method to assess the relationship between all latent variables, the sample size could be determined by the rule of  $N:q$  (sample size =  $N$ ; number of parameters to be estimated= $q$ ) (Jackson, 2003). Jackson (2003) and Kline (2011) concluded that an ideal  $N:q$  ratio for a minimum sample size is 20:1 and that 10:1 would be less ideal. Since the current study included a total of nine constructs with 30 variables in the model after refining the measurement items, the expected sample size ranged from  $N=600$  ( $20 \times 30$ ) to  $N=300$  ( $10 \times 30$ ). Stevens (2009) also suggested a ratio of 15 responses to one variable for a reasonable regression equation in the social sciences context. Based on Stevens' suggestion (2009), the expected minimum sample size for the current study would be 450 (i.e.,  $15 \times 30$ ).

In general, any model with more parameters to be assessed than a simpler model needs a larger sample size to achieve more reliable results (Kline, 2011), which leads to the assumption that the most ideal minimum sample size for the present study would be at least 600 or more. However, researchers have argued that the maximum likelihood estimation method becomes highly sensitive if the sample size is very large (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). To avoid potential bias due to a sample size that is too large, the expected sample size of this study was determined based on Steven's (2009) guidelines. As a result, the author aimed to obtain at least 450 or more valid responses to meet the sample size criterion.

The total valid responses collected for this study was 435, which is a little smaller than the expected sample size. Nevertheless, this sample size is bigger than the suggested sample size ratio of 10:1. Regarding more absolute terms, Kline (2011) remarked that about 200 responses are the “typical” minimum sample size in studies that apply structural equation modeling (SEM), having observed that this absolute number was the approximate median sample size in a total of 165 published articles that reported SEM results. The author explained that the sample size of 200 would not be too small if the ML method is used for SEM. As discussed so far, there is no commonly accepted rule of thumb that determines a “large enough” sample size (Jackson, 2003). Therefore, the author decided that a sample size of 435 is applicable to SEM analysis even though it is smaller than the expected sample size (i.e., 450).

### ***Data collection***

The target population of the study is frequent American travelers who had entered their email addresses into a public email database purchased by Center for Hospitality and Tourism Research at Oklahoma State University and who have experienced any Asian restaurants within the last 30 days. The author chose frequent travelers, because these consumers’ motivational orientation (promotion versus prevention focus) has a greater influence over their eating decisions when they are at unfamiliar destinations than when they are in familiar, local areas regarding whether they intend to visit an ethnic restaurant. Furthermore, frequent travelers can be regarded as frequent diners (Kim, 2009).

An online survey was employed to collect data for this study. Compared to traditional paper-based surveys, online surveys have important advantages in terms of 1) lower cost, 2) being less time-consuming for the researcher (faster responses), 3) offering a geographically unrestricted sample, 4) convenient implementation (automation of coding), and 5) design flexibility (Cobanoglu, Warde, & Moreo, 2001; Koh & Kim, 2004). Due to these advantages, the online survey method has been widely used to collect data in recent years.

The author collected the data by using a convenience sampling approach. The designated website for the online survey, Qualtrics.com, was used to distribute the self-administered questionnaire, including an invitation letter that contained a hyperlink to access the survey. The survey was conducted for three weeks from March 7<sup>th</sup> to March 28<sup>th</sup>, 2014. Invitations were sent to 650,861 email addresses from the database. Of these addresses, 50.65% (329,671) were undeliverable. Consequently, 321,190 emails were delivered, and a total of 449 responses were received, indicating a 0.14% response rate.

### **Data analysis**

To achieve the objectives of this study, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and descriptive analysis were performed using the statistical software packages of SPSS 21.0 and AMOS 21.0.

Firstly, the collected data was screened to confirm missing or unengaged data, outliers, normality, and multicollinearity. After completing this cleaning procedure, the author conducted a descriptive data analysis to visualize the respondents' profiles. Next, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to refine the measurement items and to assure the construct and discriminate validity before beginning SEM, as recommended by Hair et al. (2006). After SEM was conducted to test the proposed structural model, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was then utilized to determine if there were significant differences in consumer value, emotions, and level of consumer satisfaction among the types of ethnic cuisine (i.e., Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants).

### ***Structural equation modeling***

The two-step SEM procedure was used to test the intended overall model. In the first stage, the model fit and construct validity of the measurement model were assessed using CFA. In the second stage, the author conducted SEM using the maximum likelihood estimation method to

examine the strength (i.e., path coefficients) and the direction of the linear relationships among the latent variables to verify the statistical significance of each path.

Kline (2011) suggested six basic steps of SEM. A flowchart of these steps was provided in Figure 3. The author explained these steps as followed:

1. Specify the model.
2. Evaluate model identification (if not identified, go back to step 1).
3. Select the measures (operationalize the constructs) and collect, prepare, and screen the data.
4. Estimate the model:
  - a. Evaluate model fit (if poor, skip to step 5).
  - b. Interpret parameter estimates.
  - c. Consider equivalent or near-equivalent models (skip to step 6)
5. Re-specify the model (return to step 4).
6. Report the results.

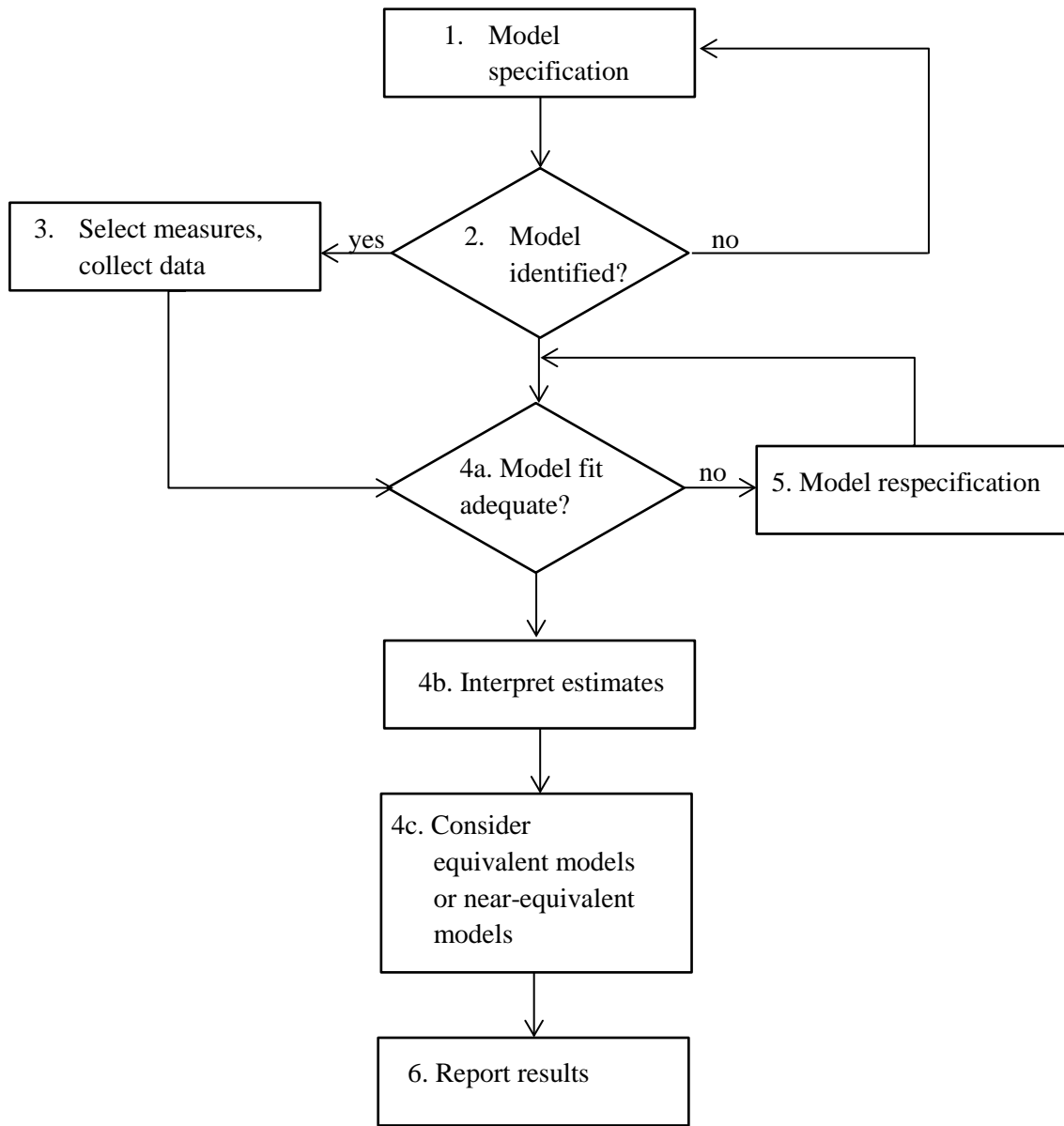


Figure 3. Flowchart of the basic steps of SEM

Source: Kline , 2011, pg. 92

## 1. Model specification

According to Kline (2011), specification is the procedure that describes the representation of a study's hypothesis in the form of a structural equation model. Two constructs comprise the structural equation model: exogenous and endogenous. Independent variables are indicated as exogenous variables, whereas dependent variables are referred to as endogenous variables (Kline, 2011; Hair et al., 2006). The present study included two exogenous variables (i.e., promotion focus and prevention focus), and seven endogenous variables (i.e., hedonic and utilitarian values, positive and negative emotions, satisfaction, revisit intention, and word-of-mouth intention).

## 2. Model identification

Kline (2011) explained, "a model is identified if it is *theoretically* possible for the computer to derive a unique estimate of every model parameter. Otherwise, the model is not identified. The word "theoretically" emphasized identification as a property of the model and not of the data." (p. 93). Every study must meet the following general requirements to satisfy model identification.

1. The model degrees of freedom must be at least zero ( $df_M \geq 0$ ).
2. Every latent variable (including the residual terms) must be assigned a scale (matrix). (p. 124)

Basically, SEM is a set of equations involving the estimated parameters. If each of the estimated parameters can be solved uniquely, then the model can be considered an "identified" model. If the model is not identified, then it should be respecified (Kline, 2011). Each model's matrix can be calculated as  $\frac{m(m+1)}{2}$ , where  $m$  is the number of observed variables. The number of variance and covariance variables in the present matrix equals the number of parameters to be estimated (i.e., 45), so the model proposed by this study can be regarded as "just identified."

### 3. Measure selection and data collection

The primary motivation for using SEM analysis is to simultaneously test structural paths between or among a set of latent variables (Kline, 2011). The current study developed structural paths to examine the strength (i.e., path coefficients) and the direction of the linear relationships among nine latent variables to verify which variables played significant roles in determining consumer satisfaction and loyalty. Therefore, SEM was selected as the most useful method to assess the proposed model, and the maximum likelihood estimation method was selected for the estimation algorithm.

During the step of measure selection and data collection, an ideal sample size should be determined. For this study, 450 or more responses (i.e., 30 x 15) were determined as an expected sample size, given the 15:1 ratio suggested by Steven (2009).

Next, collected data should be screened to check for any missing or unengaged responses and outliers. Furthermore, the researcher should verify whether the data satisfies the multivariate normality and multicollinearity assumptions of the SEM by using skewness, kurtosis, and variance inflation factors (VIF).

### 4. Estimation

#### ***Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)***

According to Hair et al. (2006), estimating a structural model involves verifying goodness of fit and assessing the validity and reliability of the measurement model using a CFA. The authors argued that the structural model can be tested only after sufficient measurement fit and construct validity are achieved. Before conducting SEM analysis, therefore, the author conducted CFA first to verify the reliability of individual measurement items, factors, and the overall instrument (Doll, Xia, Hall, & Torkzadeh, 1994). During CFA, various goodness-of-fit indices, which indicate the validity of the measurement model, were reviewed, including Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ), comparative fit index (CFI), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit



index, normed fit index (NFI), root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardized root mean square (SRMR). Table 7 provides a summary of the goodness-of-fit index and each recommended criteria.

Table 7. Goodness-of-fit indices and recommended criteria

Fit index	Recommended criteria	Source
CMIN (( $\chi^2$ )/df)	$\leq 5.0$	Arbuckle and Wothke (1995)
GFI	$\geq 0.9$	Chau and Hu (2001)
AGFI	$\geq 0.8$	Chau and Hu (2001)
NFI	$\geq 0.9$	Bagozzi and Yi (1988)
CFI	$\geq 0.9$	Bagozzi and Yi (1988)
RMSEA	<0.05 to 0.08	Segars and Grover (1993)
SRMR	<0.08	Hu and Bentler (1999)

Source: Nejati and Moghaddam (2013) and Hu and Bentler (1999)

Convergent validity and discriminant validity

Using average variance extracted (AVE), convergent validity and discriminant validity were evaluated for a confirmatory assessment of their construct validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Convergent validity indicates “the extent to which indicators of a specific construct converge or share a high proportion of variance in common” (Hair et al., 2006). Researchers can use three measures to assess convergent validity: factor loadings, AVE, and construct reliability (CR). All factor loadings should be significant to at least 0.5 and preferably to 0.7 or higher for the researcher to assume adequate convergent validity. AVE values of 0.5 or higher for each construct are accepted as a sufficient convergent validity. AVE can be calculated as the sum of the squared standardized factor loadings ( $\lambda_i$ ) divided by the number of items, as shown in the formula below.

$$AVE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^2}{n} \quad CR = \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i)^2 + (\sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i)}$$

CR can be computed from the sum of factor loadings ( $\lambda_i$ ) which squared for each latent construct and the sum of the error variance terms for a construct ( $\delta_i$ ) (See the formula above). The minimum criterion of CR estimates is 0.7 or higher. An adequate CR value indicates that the measurement items are consistently representing latent constructs and thus producing adequate convergence or internal consistency.

Discriminant validity indicates “the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs” (Hair et al., 2006). Hair et al. (2006) explained that all construct AVE estimates should be greater than the square of the correlation estimate between corresponding constructs. Adequate discriminant validity provides evidence that the measured variables have more in common with the construct to which they are related than they have with other constructs.

### ***Structural equation modeling (SEM)***

After evaluating the measurement model using CFA, the structural model can be tested. Kline (2011) points out that conducting SEM involves several steps: (1) evaluating the model fit of the structural model, (2) interpreting the parameter estimates, and (3) considering equivalent models or near-equivalent models (i.e., competing models of the intended model).

The researcher should begin the estimation by rechecking the model fit of the structural model, although the fit of the measurement model is already evaluated in the procedure of CFA. To check the statistical significance of the overall model fit, one can apply various fit indices and recommended criteria used in CFA, such as GFI, NFI, CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR (See Table 7). During the next step, researchers should interpret the parameter estimates for particular causal effects (Kline, 2011). In the final step of SEM, researchers should consider equivalent models or near-equivalent models to confirm that there is no better fitting model for the given data (Hair et al., 2006).

## 5. Respecification

The step of respecification should be considered if the model fit of the initial model is not within the acceptable range based on the recommended criteria, because poor model fit indicates that the model proposed by the researcher is not correct.

## 6. Reporting the results

In the final step, the researcher should report accurately and completely the analysis in written form based on the results of estimations.

## CHAPTER IV

### FINDINGS

#### **Data screening**

Prior to data analysis, the data were screened to check for missing data or variables, or unengaged response. There were no missing data or unengaged responses among the responses. Then, outliers were identified through the Mahalanobis distance approach (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In this procedure, fourteen outliers (Mahalanobis'  $D(39) > 72.055, p < .001$ ) were detected and removed from the original data set, leaving a final valid sample of 435 responses.

#### **Demographic profile**

Table 8 shows the demographic characteristics of the respondents. Among the total 435 respondents, 49.2% ( $n=214$ ) were male and 50.8% ( $n=221$ ) were female. Approximately 70% of the respondents were 45 years or older (71.3%). Regarding education, most respondents had received two-year college education or higher (91.5%), and only 8.5% of respondents had a high school education or less. In addition, a little less than one third of the respondents reported an annual household income of \$100,000 or more (30.1%). The second largest group (21.8%) reported an annual income between \$40,000 and \$59,999. In terms of ethnicity, the majority of the respondents were Caucasian (68.5%), followed by African American (11.0%) and Asian American (9.4%). More than half of the respondents reported that they recently visited a Chinese

restaurant (51.7%), followed by a Thai restaurant (15.6%) and a Japanese restaurant (14.0%). In addition, 44.4% of the respondents were visiting a particular Asian restaurant at least once a month, and 19.5% of them were visiting a particular establishment at least once every two months. In terms of Asian restaurants in general, 62.1% of the respondents visited any Asian restaurant at least once a month, followed by at least once every two months (19.8%).

Ethnic restaurant patrons are more likely to search for authentic or exotic experiences than general restaurant patrons when they dine out. Due to this reason, the demographic characteristics of ethnic restaurant consumers revealed that they are a relatively well-educated, high-income group compared to patrons of other restaurants (Clemes, Gan, & Sriwongrat, 2013; Turgeon & Pastinelli, 2002). The demographic profile of the present study shows a similar pattern to what previous studies discovered. Generally, the majority of respondents of this study was well-educated and had high annual household income. Overall, it can be concluded that the respondents in this study reflect regular ethnic restaurant consumers.

Table 8. Demographic and dining characteristics of respondents (*n*=435)

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	214	49.2
Female	221	50.8
<b>Age</b>		
18-24	7	1.6
25-34	44	10.1
35-44	74	17.0
45-54	102	23.4
55-64	104	23.9
65 years or above	104	23.9
<b>Education</b>		
Less than high school	1	0.2
High school	36	8.3
2-year College	77	17.7
4-year College/University	146	33.6
Master degree	130	29.9
PhD degree	45	10.3
<b>Income</b>		
less than \$20,000	28	6.4
\$20,000 to \$39,999	51	11.7
\$40,000 to \$59,999	95	21.8
\$60,000 to \$79,999	76	17.5
\$80,000 to \$99,999	54	12.4
\$100,000 or more	131	30.1
<b>Ethnicity</b>		
Caucasian	298	68.5
Hispanic	16	3.7
African American	48	11.0
Native American	3	0.7
Asian	41	9.4
Other	29	6.7
<b>Frequency of visit</b>		
First time	45	10.3
At least once a month	193	44.4
At least once every two months	85	19.5
At least once every three months	60	13.8
At least once every four months or less	52	12.0
<b>Restaurant Type</b>		
Chinese	225	51.7
Japanese	61	14.0
Korean	19	4.4
Indian	24	5.5
Thai	68	15.6
Vietnamese	25	5.7
Other	13	3.0

### **Confirmatory factor analysis**

Prior to conducting the confirmatory factor analysis, the author investigated the data to discover whether they satisfied the multivariate normality and multicollinearity assumptions of the SEM. To test multivariate normality concerns, skewness and kurtosis were examined, using each minimum criteria for indicating normal distribution (i.e., Kurtosis <10; skewness <3). Results showed that the multivariate normality for all variables in the model is sufficiently normal (Kline, 2011). Furthermore, multicollinearity was also checked by variance inflation factors (VIF) with its cut-off value of 10 (i.e., VIF <10) (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013). Based on the results, one item was eliminated from the dataset due to high VIF value (>10), which was NE1, “When I think of eating out at this restaurant, I feel upset” (VIF=10.581). After excluding this item, multicollinearity did not appear to be a major concern in the current study.

CFA was conducted to assess the measurement model using the maximum likelihood estimation method. For purposes of CFA, a covariance matrix was utilized via AMOS 21.0. Initially, a total of 37 items were included in the measurement for CFA: promotion focus (4 items), prevention focus (4 items), hedonic value (5 items), utilitarian value (5 items), positive emotions (4 items), negative emotions (3 items), satisfaction (3 items), revisit intention (3 items), word-of-mouth intention (3 items), and switching intention (3 items). Based on the results of the CFA, five items were eliminated before conducting further data analysis because of their low factor loadings and low squared multiple correlations. Specifically, the removed items were UV1 (“The cost of food was reasonable in this restaurant”), UV5 (“I liked the healthy food options in this restaurant.”), PV1 (“I frequently think about how I can prevent failures in my life.”), PV4 (“In general, I am focused on preventing negative events in my life.”), and SI1 (“I do not want to go back to this restaurant.”). Furthermore, SI2 (“I will choose another Asian restaurant when I want to eat Asian foods”) and SI3 (“I will look for other types of ethnic restaurants instead of this restaurant.”) were also excluded from the dataset because the latent variable of switching intention (SI) was revealed to have insufficient construct reliability (CR=.60) and discriminant

validity (AVE=.37) (Hair et al., 2006). As a result of data refinement, the remaining 30 items were subjected to CFA. The model fit for the measurement model was acceptable ( $\chi^2/df=1.790$ ,  $p=.000$  RMSEA=.044, SRMR=.0409, GFI=.91, CFI=.98, NFI=.95), and this measurement model fit improved significantly after refinement ( $\Delta\chi^2=635.102$ ,  $\Delta df=222$ ,  $p<.001$ ). All standardized factor loadings were greater than the minimum criterion of .50. Table 9 shows the results of the measurement model, indicating that the CFA supported the measurement model's acceptable fit.

To ascertain the internal consistency of the multiple measurement items for each construct, reliability testing was conducted using Cronbach's alpha. A scale is internally consistent when it has a threshold value of at least .70 (Nunnally, 1978). The Cronbach's alpha values for the scales were between .76 and .98 (Table 9), so the scales used in this study are reliable for measuring each construct.

Furthermore, convergent validity was tested using the standardized factor loadings of each item, construct reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE). All of the standardized factor loadings of items were significant at  $p<.05$ , the CR estimates exceeded the minimum criterion value of .70 (Bagozzi, 1980) and were greater than AVE, and all AVE estimates were greater than the threshold value of .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). These estimates indicate that the measurement model has acceptable convergent validity. Moreover, the AVE value of each construct was greater than the squared correlation between any pair of constructs (i.e.,  $\Phi^2$ ), revealing evidence of supporting discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In sum, the overall model fit for the measurement model was acceptable, and the measurement model shows good reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity.



Table 9. The results of the measurement model

Attributes	Std. loading	SMC	CR	AVE
<b>Promotion focus</b> ( $\alpha=.89$ )			.89	.66
PM1	.85	.72		
PM2	.88	.77		
PM3	.80	.65		
PM4	.71	.50		
<b>Prevention focus</b> ( $\alpha=.76$ )			.76	.61
PV2	.76	.58		
PV3	.80	.64		
<b>Hedonic value</b> ( $\alpha=.88$ )			.87	.58
HV1	.72	.52		
HV2	.67	.45		
HV3	.77	.59		
HV4	.84	.70		
HV5	.81	.66		
<b>Utilitarian value</b> ( $\alpha=.83$ )			.82	.61
UV2	.90	.81		
UV3	.76	.58		
UV4	.65	.42		
<b>Positive emotion</b> ( $\alpha=.90$ )			.88	.65
PE1	.85	.73		
PE2	.82	.67		
PE3	.77	.89		
PE4	.79	.62		
<b>Negative emotion</b> ( $\alpha=.94$ )			.95	.86
NE2	.96	.93		
NE3	.95	.90		
NE4	.86	.74		
<b>Satisfaction</b> ( $\alpha=.94$ )			.95	.87
SAT1	.89	.79		
SAT2	.94	.89		
SAT3	.96	.93		
<b>Revisit intention</b> ( $\alpha=.96$ )			.97	.91
RI1	.97	.94		
RI2	.93	.86		
RI3	.97	.94		
<b>Word-of-mouth intention</b> ( $\alpha=.98$ )			.98	.95
WOM1	.99	.97		
WOM2	.98	.96		
WOM3	.95	.91		

**Model fit:**  $\chi^2 = 639.01$ ,  $df=357$ ,  $p=.000$ ,  $\chi^2/df=1.79$ ,  $RMSEA=.044$ ,  $SRMR=.0409$ ,  $GFI=.91$ ,  $AGFI=.88$ ,  $CFI=.98$ ,  $NFI=.95$

**Notes:** All factor loadings are significant at  $p < 0.05$

Table 10. Discriminant validity among constructs

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Promotion focus	<b>.813</b>								
2. Prevention focus	.058	<b>.781</b>							
3. Hedonic value	.268	.075	<b>.763</b>						
4. Utilitarian value	.437	-.007	.323	<b>.778</b>					
5. Positive emotion	.482	.075	.657	.617	<b>.806</b>				
6. Negative emotion	-.154	.177	-.144	-.422	-.315	<b>.924</b>			
7. Satisfaction	.291	-.066	.419	.757	.668	-.509	<b>.932</b>		
8. Revisit intention	.252	-.037	.325	.754	.586	-.499	.818	<b>.953</b>	
9. WOM intention	.273	-.003	.361	.730	.588	-.474	.802	.909	<b>.973</b>

Note: Square root of the AVE is on the diagonal. Squared correlations of paired constructs are on the off-diagonal. All squared correlations are significant at  $p < .05$ .

### Structural model

The structural model was estimated using the maximum likelihood estimation method.

The chi-square value of the model ( $\chi^2=705.161$ ,  $df=372$ ,  $p=.000$ ) and other model fit indices ( $\chi^2/df=1.896$ ,  $RMSEA=.047$ ,  $CFI=.97$ ,  $NFI=.94$ ,  $SRMR=.0488$ ,  $GFI=.90$ ) revealed that the model fit was acceptable. Table 11 provides the summary of the fit indices for both the measurement model and the structural model along with each criterion value.

Table 11. Summary of fit indices of measurement and structural model

Fit indices	Measurement model (CFA)	Structural model (SEM)	Acceptable range
$\chi^2/df$	1.79	1.90	$\leq 5.0$
GFI (Goodness of fit)	.91	.90	$\geq .9$
NFI (Normed fit index)	.95	.94	$\geq .9$
CFI (Comparative fit index)	.98	.97	$\geq .9$
RMSEA (Root-mean-square error of approximation)	.044	.047	$< .05$ to $.08$
SRMR (Standardized root mean square)	.0409	.0488	$< .08$

Based on the standardized estimate of the structural coefficients and the estimate's  $t$ -value, the proposed hypotheses were tested (See Table 12). The current study investigated the structural model with two exogenous constructs (i.e. promotion focus and prevention focus) and six endogenous constructs (i.e. hedonic value, utilitarian value, positive emotion, negative

emotion, satisfaction, and loyalty). Thus, the proposed structural model tested eight Gamma paths and eleven Beta paths.

The relationships between promotion focus and hedonic value (H1a) was supported ( $r_{11}=.26, p<.001$ ), indicating that the promotion focus is significantly related to hedonic value. However, H1b, which hypothesized no significant relationship between promotion focus and utilitarian value, was not supported, because the result showed a significant relationship between these two variables ( $r_{12}=.42, p<.001$ ). These results reveal that the promotion focus significantly affects not only hedonic value but also utilitarian value.

As predicted, there was no significant relationship between prevention focus and hedonic value, supporting H2a ( $r_{21}=-.04, p=.45$ ). Nevertheless, no significant result appeared on the relationship between prevention focus and utilitarian value as well ( $r_{22}=-.06, p=.28$ ). Thus, H2b is not supported. These results represent that the prevention focus did not significantly influence either the utilitarian value or the hedonic value.

In terms of the relationship between regulatory focus and emotions, there was a significant effect on the relationship between promotion focus and positive emotion ( $r_{31}=.18, p<.001$ ), whereas no significant effect was found between promotion focus and negative emotions ( $r_{32}=.02, p=.73$ ). Thus, H3a and H3b were supported. In addition, the prevention focus significantly affected negative emotions ( $r_{41}=.17, p<.01$ ), whereas it did not significantly influence positive emotions ( $r_{42}=.06, p=.17$ ), supporting H4a and H4b.

In regard to the relationships between the perceived value and emotional responses, both hedonic and utilitarian values significantly influenced positive emotions ( $\beta_{51}=.48, p<.001$ ;  $\beta_{52}=.39, p<.001$ ), supporting H5a and H5b. Furthermore, utilitarian value significantly affected negative emotions as well (H6b,  $\beta_{62}=-.42, p<.001$ ), supporting H6b. However, hedonic value did not significantly influence negative emotion ( $\beta_{61}=-.005, p=.918$ ), refuting H6a.

In terms of the relationship between emotion and satisfaction, both H7a and H7b were supported. These results indicated that both positive and negative emotions significantly affected

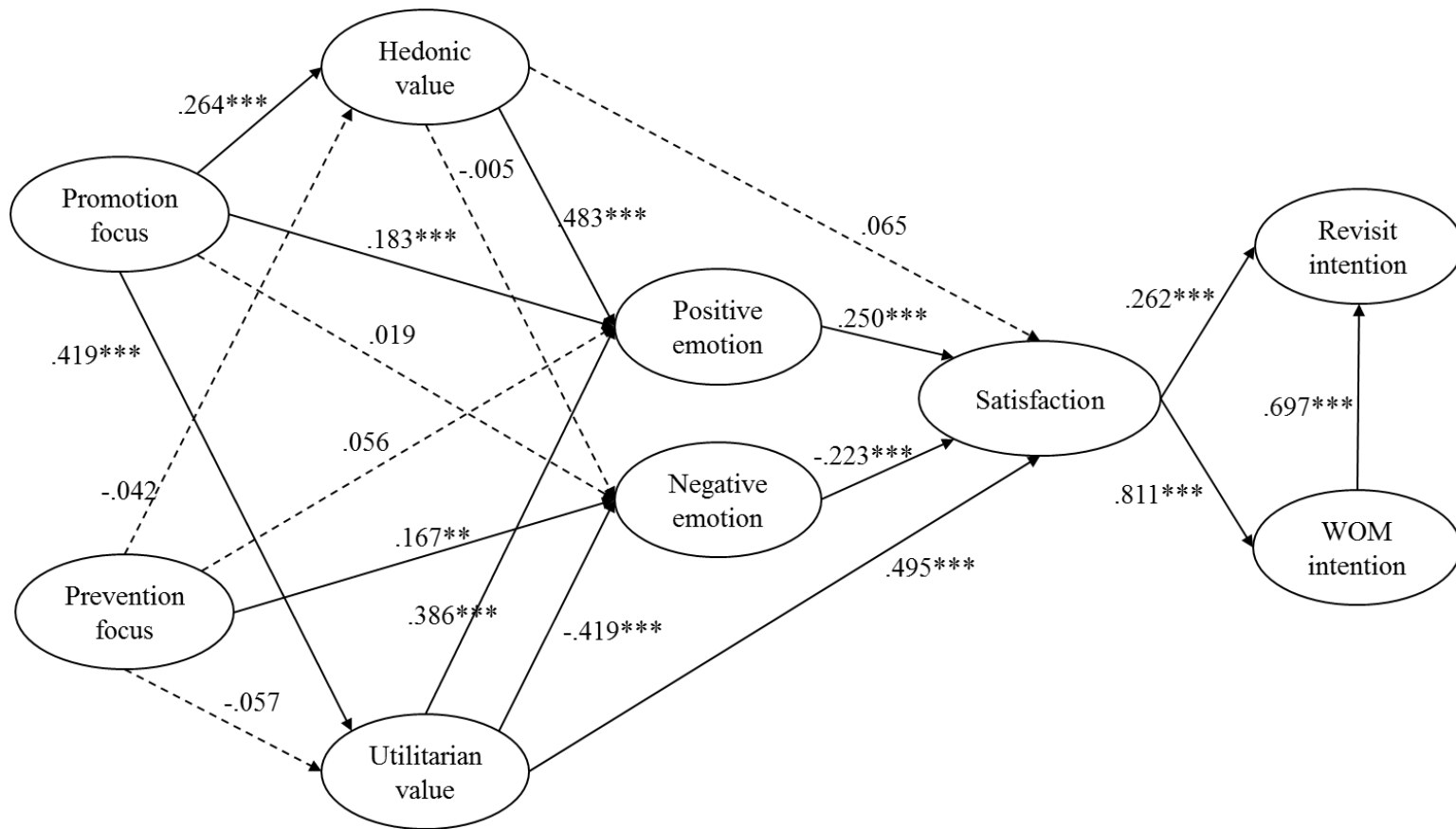
the level of satisfaction ( $\beta_{71} = .25, p < .001$ ;  $\beta_{72} = -.22, p < .001$ ). Next, for the relationship between perceived value and satisfaction, the results revealed that utilitarian value had a significant positive effect on consumer satisfaction ( $\beta_{82} = .50, p < .001$ ), supporting H8b, whereas hedonic value had no significant direct effects on consumer satisfaction ( $\beta_{81} = .065, p = .19$ ). Although hedonic value did not have direct effects on consumer satisfaction, its statistically significant indirect effects on the relationship between perceived value and satisfaction were found. The details of this mediation were discussed in the following section. Regarding the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty, both H9a and H9b were supported, which indicates that satisfaction positively influenced intentions of revisit and word-of-mouth ( $\beta_{91} = .26, p < .001$ ;  $\beta_{92} = .81, p < .001$ ). Furthermore, the result showed that word-of-mouth intention significantly impacted revisit intention, supporting H10 ( $\beta_{10} = .70, p < .001$ ).

Table 13 represents a summary of the structural model estimate, and Figure 4 shows the structural diagram, indicating the strength and the direction of the linear relationship among the observed variables through the standardized path coefficients. In addition, the correlations among observed variables are provided in Table 13.

Table 12. Structural parameter estimates

Hypothesized Path	Standardized estimate	<i>t</i> -value	Hypothesis Testing Result
<b><i>r</i> paths</b>			
H1a: Promotion focus → Hedonic value (+)	.264	4.60***	Supported
H1b: Promotion focus → Utilitarian value (n.r.)	.419	7.23***	Not Supported
H2a: Prevention focus → Hedonic value (n.r.)	-.042	-.75	Supported
H2b: Prevention focus → Utilitarian value (+)	-.057	-1.07	Not Supported
H3a: Promotion focus → Positive emotion (+)	.183	3.82***	Supported
H3b: Promotion focus → Negative emotion (n.r.)	.019	.34	Supported
H4a: Prevention focus → Positive emotion (n.r.)	.056	1.38	Supported
H4b: Prevention focus → Negative emotion (+)	.167	3.24**	Supported
<b><i>β</i> paths</b>			
H5a: Hedonic value → Positive emotion (+)	.483	8.57***	Supported
H5b: Utilitarian value → Positive emotion (+)	.386	7.37***	Supported
H6a: Hedonic value → Negative emotion (-)	-.005	-.10	Not Supported
H6b: Utilitarian value → Negative emotion (-)	-.419	-6.80***	Supported
H7a: Positive emotion → Satisfaction (+)	.250	3.83***	Supported
H7b: Negative emotion → Satisfaction (-)	-.223	-6.02***	Supported
H8a: Hedonic value → Satisfaction (+)	.065	1.31	Not Supported
H8b: Utilitarian value → Satisfaction (+)	.495	8.79***	Supported
H9a: Satisfaction → Revisit intention (+)	.262	6.73***	Supported
H9b: Satisfaction → WOM intention (+)	.811	21.37***	Supported
H10: WOM intention → Revisit intention (+)	.697	17.91***	Supported

Note: n.r.= no relationship  
 \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$



**Notes:** Numbers are standardized path coefficients.  
 \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* $p < .001$

Figure 4. Structural results of the proposed model

Table 13. Pearson correlations among variables ( $n=435$ )

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Promotion focus	5.58	1.14	1								
2. Prevention focus	3.27	1.52	.039	1							
3. Hedonic value	4.38	1.25	.237**	.007	1						
4. Utilitarian value	6.20	0.80	.371**	-.029	.299**	1					
5. Positive emotion	5.04	1.09	.422**	.063	.569	.513**	1				
6. Negative emotion	2.04	1.22	-.141**	.154**	-.149**	-.380**	-.297**	1			
7. Satisfaction	6.03	0.91	.244**	-.042	.367**	.643**	.589**	-.495**	1		
8. Revisit intention	6.23	0.99	.241**	-.023	.300**	.654**	.535**	-.489**	.802**	1	
9. Word-of-mouth intention	6.14	1.01	.257**	.004	.340**	.629**	.534**	-.470**	.780**	.893**	1

Note: All items are 7-point Likert scale. \*\* $p < .01$

## Competing model

A better fitting model than the proposed one might exist for the same variables in this study (Kline, 2011), so a competing model was tested to determine whether the proposed model is the best fitting model. The chi-square difference was used for this test. If the chi-square difference test reveals no significance, then a more constrained model is supported and vice versa.

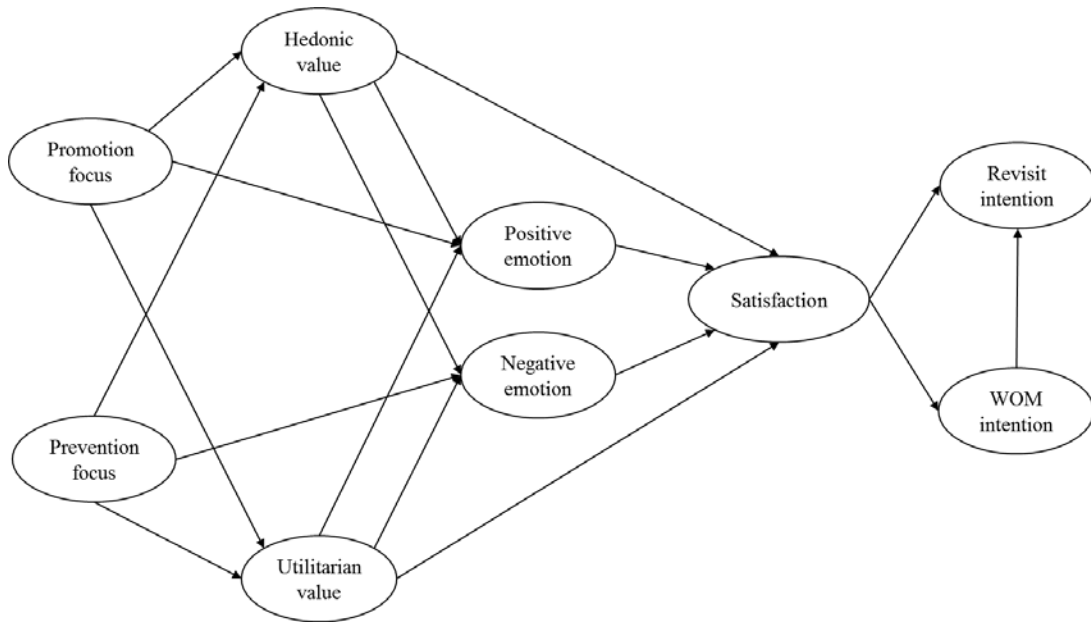
In this study, one competing models was proposed to compare with the initially proposed model. The competing model was developed by deleting the path between 1) hedonic value and negative emotion (H6b) and 2) hedonic value and satisfaction (H8a). First, the direct effect of hedonic value on negative emotion was too weak ( $\beta_{61} = -.005, p = .918$ ). Thus, this path was deleted to improve the model fit of the proposed model. Second, the direct effect of hedonic value on satisfaction appeared to be very weak and insignificant ( $\beta_{81} = .065, p = .19$ ). However, its indirect effect on satisfaction through positive emotions was significant in the proposed model. Therefore, it was reasonable to delete the path between hedonic value and satisfaction to enhance the initial model fit.

As shown in Table 14, the competing model as well as the original model reasonably fit the data, thus comparison between these two models can be considered using the chi-square difference statistic. Consequently, an insignificant result was observed ( $\Delta\chi^2 = 1.552, \Delta df = 2, p = .46$ , critical value of  $\chi^2$  at  $df = 1$  is 709.00), which indicates that the competing model is supported. Figure 5 represents the results of the chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) difference test.

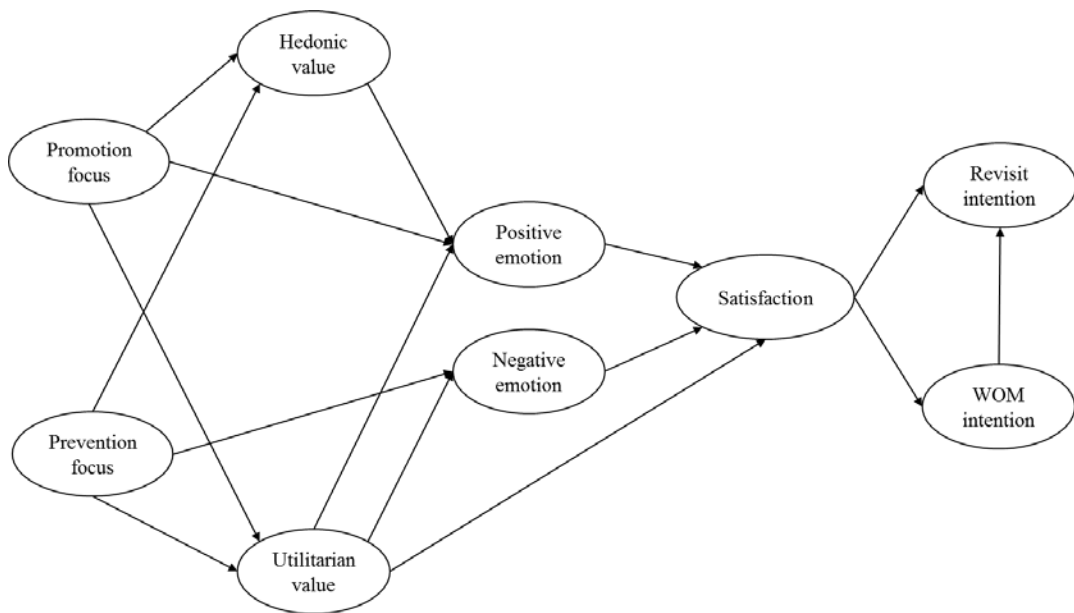


Table 14. A summary of model fit statistics for model comparison

Fit indices	Original model	Competing model
$\chi^2$ (Chi-square)	705.161	706.713
$df$ (Degree of freedom)	372	374
$\Delta\chi^2$	–	1.552
$\Delta df$	–	2
GFI (Goodness of fit)	.90	.90
AGFI (Adjusted goodness of fit)	.87	.87
NFI (Normed fit index)	.94	.94
CFI (Comparative fit index)	.97	.97
RMSEA (Root-mean square error of approximation)	.047	.047
SRMR (Standardized root mean square)	.0488	.0490



Original model ( $df = 372, \chi^2 = 705.161$ )



Competing model ( $df = 374, \chi^2 = 706.713$ )

Figure 5. The results of the chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) difference test

### **The mediating role of consumption emotion**

Further analysis was conducted to identify the mediating role of consumption emotions between each consumer value and satisfaction. In order to meet the first three of Baron and Kenny's (1986) four conditions for testing mediation, the author exempted the mediating effect of negative emotion between hedonic value and satisfaction from the testing due to its insignificant result. Therefore, a total of three mediating effects of emotions were tested: 1) positive emotion between hedonic value and satisfaction, 2) positive emotion between utilitarian value and satisfaction, and 3) negative emotion between utilitarian value and satisfaction. The fourth condition would be satisfied if the parameter estimate between consumer value and satisfaction in the proposed model (mediating model) had been insignificant (full mediator) or if its strength had dropped compared to the parameter estimate in the constrained model (partial mediator). Full mediator indicates that consumer values affect satisfaction only through emotion, whereas partial mediator means that consumer values influence satisfaction indirectly as well as directly through emotion (Ha and Jang, 2012). For the mediation tests, the chi-square difference test was conducted to confirm whether the proposed model (mediating model) fit is better than the constrained model. The constrained model was developed by constraining the direct path from each emotion to satisfaction (set to zero). Comparing this constrained model ( $\chi^2 = 529.328$ ,  $df=231$ ) to the mediating model ( $\chi^2 = 481.821$ ,  $df=229$ ), produced a significant difference in the chi-square ( $\Delta\chi^2=47.507$ ,  $\Delta df=2$ ,  $p=.000$ ), reflecting that the mediating model fit was significantly better than the constrained model (Jang & Namkung, 2009).

First, the mediating role of positive emotion between hedonic value and satisfaction was tested. When the direct path from positive emotion to satisfaction was constrained to zero, hedonic value appeared to be significant to satisfaction at  $p<.001$  ( $\beta=.176$ ,  $t=4.37$ ). In contrast, hedonic value had no significant effect on satisfaction in the mediating model ( $\beta_{81}=.050$ ,  $p=.311$ ), indicating the full mediating role of positive emotion between hedonic value and satisfaction.

Second, the path between utilitarian value and satisfaction in the constrained model was significant ( $\beta=.703, t=15.26, p=.000$ ). In addition the direct path from utilitarian value and satisfaction in the constrained model was stronger than the path in each mediating model ( $\beta_{82 \text{ with PE}}=.512, t=9.11, p=.000$ ;  $\beta_{82 \text{ with NE}}=.536, t=10.54, p=.000$ ), so both positive and negative emotions can be regarded as a partial mediator in the relationship between utilitarian value and satisfaction.

In sum, the current study found through Baron and Kenny (1986)'s approach the full mediating effect of positive emotion on the relationship between hedonic value and satisfaction as well as the partial mediating effects of both types of emotions on the relationship between utilitarian value and satisfaction (See Table 15). The results of further investigation of the indirect effects of emotions on the relationship between value and satisfaction appeared to be significant at  $p<.05$ ; therefore, the full or partial mediating role of emotions was confirmed (Bonney-Claudet & Ghantous, 2013) (See Table 16).

Table 15. The results of mediating effects

Relationship	Constrained model	Mediating model	Result
Hedonic value → Positive emotion → Satisfaction	.192***	.050 ( $p=.311$ )	Full mediation
Utilitarian value → Positive emotion → Satisfaction	.703***	.512***	Partial mediation
Utilitarian value → Negative emotion → Satisfaction	.703***	.536***	Partial mediation

Note: Numbers are standardized path coefficients.

\* $p<.05$ ; \*\* $p<.01$ ; \*\*\* $p<.001$

Table 16. Standardized direct, indirect, and total effects of latent variables

Variables	Positive emotion			Negative emotion			Satisfaction		
	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total
Hedonic value	0.51	-	0.51	-	-	-	0.05	0.14	0.19
Utilitarian value	0.45	-	0.45	-0.42	-	-0.42	0.49	0.21	0.70

**Notes:** All effects are significant at least at  $p < 0.05$ , except for the direct effect of HV-SAT link ( $p = .38$ ).

## **Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)**

One-way ANOVA test was conducted to examine whether there were any significant differences in the mean values of the different types of ethnic cuisine restaurants among perceived value, emotions, and satisfaction, which play important roles in determining consumer loyalty (See Table 17). According to the four development stages of ethnic cuisines in the U.S., Chinese (mainstream), Thai (expanding), and Japanese (narrow) restaurant were selected for this ANOVA test (Ha & Jang, 2010a; Sloan, 2001). No restaurant classified as exotic stage was used for this test due to a lack of sample size.

As shown in Table 16, the One-way ANOVA test revealed that significant mean differences exist in utilitarian value, positive emotion, and satisfaction among Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants, supporting H11b, H12a, and H13. No significant mean differences were found in hedonic value and negative emotion according to the types of ethnic restaurants. Thus, H11a and H12b were not supported. Firstly, in terms of utilitarian value, the results of the ANOVA test showed that there were significant mean differences for the items “food price” [F(2, 351)=6.93;  $p=.001$ ], “food tastiness” [F(2, 351)=3.97;  $p=.020$ ], and “healthy food options” [F(2, 351)=2.85;  $p=.059$ ]. Tukey’s HSD post hoc test revealed that the Chinese (M=5.74; SD=1.6) and Thai (M=5.72; SD=1.0) restaurant groups had higher mean scores than did the Japanese restaurant group (M=5.16; SD=1.3) for the item “food price.” For the item “food tastiness,” the Thai restaurant group (M=6.37; SD=0.9) had a higher mean score than did the Chinese restaurant group (M=6.05; SD=1.0). Similarly, for the item “healthy food options,” the Thai restaurant group (M=5.76; SD=1.3) had a higher mean score than the Chinese restaurant group had (M=5.29; SD=1.5).

Next, in terms of positive emotion, the results of the ANOVA test indicate that the mean scores of the items “joy” [F(2, 351)=6.00;  $p=.003$ ], “excitement” [F(2, 351)=3.26;  $p=.040$ ], and “refreshment” [F(2, 351)=3.48;  $p=.032$ ] were significantly different among the types of ethnic cuisine groups. Tukey’s HSD post hoc test revealed that the Thai (M=5.26; SD=1.2) and Japanese

restaurant groups ( $M=5.46$ ;  $SD=1.2$ ) have higher mean scores than does the Chinese restaurant group ( $M=4.86$ ;  $SD=1.4$ ) in term of the item “joy”. For the item “excitement”, the Japanese restaurant group ( $M=5.03$ ;  $SD=1.4$ ) was rated as the highest mean score. The highest mean score for the item “refreshment” was also reported in the Japanese restaurant group ( $M=5.07$ ;  $SD=1.3$ ), and is considerably higher than it is in the Chinese ( $M=4.62$ ;  $SD=1.4$ ) and Thai restaurant groups ( $M=4.91$ ;  $SD=1.1$ ).

Lastly, as Table 17 showed, all items for the variable of satisfaction were significantly different across the types of ethnic cuisine. The results of the ANOVA tests were as follows: “My choice was a wise one” [ $F(2, 351)=3.55$ ;  $p=.030$ ], “I was happy with the dining experience” [ $F(2, 351)=3.54$ ;  $p=.030$ ], and “Overall, I was satisfied with the dining experience” [ $F(2, 351)=5.90$ ;  $p=.003$ ]. For this variable, Tukey’s HSD post hoc test was also conducted to obtain more specific information for the mean differences among the different types of ethnic restaurants. For the item, “My choice was a wise one,” the Thai restaurant group ( $M=6.00$ ;  $SD=1.1$ ) has a higher mean score than does the Chinese restaurant group ( $M=5.65$ ;  $SD=1.1$ ). For the item, “I was happy with the dining experience,” the Japanese restaurant group ( $M=6.15$ ;  $SD=0.9$ ) has a higher mean score than does the Chinese restaurant group ( $M=5.83$ ;  $SD=1.1$ ). For the item, “Overall, I was satisfied with the dining experience,” the Thai restaurant group ( $M=6.15$ ;  $SD=0.9$ ) has a higher mean score than does the Chinese restaurant group ( $M=5.84$ ;  $SD=1.9$ ). Overall, the mean scores of satisfaction for the Chinese restaurant group appeared to be lower than those of the other restaurant groups.

Table 17. One-way ANOVA by the types of the ethnic cuisine

Latent variables & Items	Chinese(Group1) M(SD)	Thai(Group2) M(SD)	Japanese(Group3) M(SD)	F-value	Post hoc Tukey Test
<b>Hedonic value</b>					
HV1	4.69(1.556)	4.75(1.331)	4.89(1.404)	0.421	-
HV2	4.17(1.679)	4.41(1.427)	3.93(1.448)	1.443	-
HV3	4.43(1.616)	4.60(1.517)	4.69(1.649)	0.764	-
HV4	3.80(1.644)	4.21(1.462)	4.05(1.465)	1.915	-
HV5	4.10(1.639)	4.35(1.504)	4.31(1.348)	0.937	-
<b>Utilitarian value</b>					
UV1	5.74(1.604)b	5.72(.960)b	5.16(1.293)a	6.930***	1,2>3
UV2	6.05(1.025)a	6.37(.862)b	6.33(.747)ab	3.972**	2>1
UV3	6.22(.956)	6.28(.878)	6.08(1.215)	0.692	-
UV4	6.06(1.080)	6.24(.994)	6.05(.973)	0.78	-
UV5	5.29(1.470)a	5.76(1.340)b	5.41(1.430)ab	2.854*	2>1
<b>Positive emotion</b>					
PE1	4.86(1.426)a	5.26(1.180)ab	5.46(1.177)b	6.004***	2,3>1
PE2	4.53(1.392)a	4.68(1.275)ab	5.03(1.402)b	3.259**	3>1
PE3	5.07(1.350)	5.26(1.031)	5.20(1.222)	0.742	-
PE4	4.62(1.365)a	4.91(1.116)ab	5.07(1.250)b	3.481**	3>1
<b>Negative emotion</b>					
NE1	1.61(1.113)	1.53(.985)	1.54(1.089)	0.216	-
NE2	1.67(1.133)	1.59(1.109)	1.59(1.116)	0.217	-
NE3	1.60(1.130)	1.56(1.073)	1.49(1.000)	0.291	-
NE4	1.80(1.228)	1.70(1.027)	1.70(1.256)	0.966	-
<b>Satisfaction</b>					
SAT1	5.65(1.112)a	6.00(1.051)b	5.93(.998)ab	3.550**	2>1
SAT2	5.83(1.109)a	6.13(1.006)ab	6.15(.853)b	3.540**	3>1
SAT3	5.84(1.907)a	6.29(.947)b	6.15(.853)ab	5.901***	2>1

\* $p < .10$ ; \*\* $p < .05$ ; \*\*\* $p < .01$



## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

There were two main purposes for this study. First, it attempted to test empirically a proposed model that investigates the role of consumers' cognitive evaluations (i.e., hedonic and utilitarian values) and their affective responses (i.e., positive and negative emotions) in determining consumers' satisfaction and loyalty. Simultaneously, this study examined the effects of regulatory focus (i.e., promotion and prevention focus), which reflects individual differences that affect values and emotions consumers perceive, on the proposed model. Second, this study sought to provide practical recommendations to ethnic restaurant marketers, particularly in the Asian restaurant sector, in order to attract more American consumers. This chapter summarizes the major findings under the objectives of the study, and discusses the theoretical and managerial implications of this study. Finally, it provides the limitations and future study suggestions.

**Objective 1: Relationships between perceived value and emotions, satisfaction, and loyalty**

Overall, the results of this study indicate that perceived value and emotional responses play significant roles in determining consumers' satisfaction and loyalty (i.e., revisit intention and word-of-mouth intention) in an ethnic restaurant context. Specifically, the findings uncovered that utilitarian value induces American consumers' satisfaction and loyalty more than hedonic value does. This result is consistent with previous literature (Ha and Jang, 2010; Ryu et al, 2010).

Regarding perceived utilitarian value, it directly or indirectly affected consumer satisfaction and loyalty, which represents that American consumers are possibly more satisfied and exhibit enhanced loyalty toward particular Asian restaurants when they perceive sufficient utilitarian value from those restaurants, such as tasty foods, enough food portions, and a variety of menu choices. This finding confirms Ha and Jang (2010b)'s and Ryu et al. (2010)'s conclusions that perceived utilitarian value has a significant impact on satisfaction and behavioral intentions, which reflect consumer loyalty. However, unlike their findings that hedonic value as well as utilitarian value was also significant factors that influence consumer satisfaction and future behavioral intention, the current study observed perceived hedonic value affected only positive emotions, and it did not directly influence satisfaction. This finding suggests that hedonic value itself does not amplify satisfaction, which in turn influences consumer loyalty, enough to make significant changes in consumer behavior. Instead, consumers' satisfaction and loyalty were strengthened only when American consumers experienced heightened positive emotions through those hedonic components of dining services, such as traditionally designed interior or traditional aspects of food. Generally, hedonic value is generated from pleasure-oriented consumption attributes. Thus, it seems plausible that pleasant feelings are the prerequisite for inducing consumers' satisfaction through hedonic attributes of dining services. Or, it could be suspected that hedonic value itself might not influence consumers' satisfaction without a satisfactory utilitarian value from the dining experience. Moreover, the findings of this study suggest that

although American consumers were not satisfied with the hedonic aspects of the ethnic restaurant, they might be able to become satisfied and build favorable loyalty toward the restaurant if they were content with utilitarian aspects of the dining services. Therefore, it should be noted that the impact of perceived utilitarian value was more influential than hedonic value on consumers' level of satisfaction and loyalty.

In regards to the relationships between perceived values and emotional responses, the findings indicate that utilitarian value is more strongly associated with negative emotions than positive emotions, whereas hedonic value was only related to positive emotions. This association exists probably because hedonic value is often created from pleasure-oriented dining attributes, while utilitarian value is created from necessity-oriented, functional attributes of consumption experiences (Chernev, 2004). Generally, pleasure-oriented dining attributes offer a maximal value characterized as a "hope-to-meet", whereas necessity-oriented attributes operate a minimal value characterized as a "must-meet" in consumption experiences. Considering that people are unwilling to concede "must-meet" value in their consumption, the failure to satisfy desired utilitarian value would lead to intense negative emotions. Compared to this minimal value, people are more willing to compromise on "hope-to-meet" value; thus, the failure to meet desired hedonic value would evoke relatively less intense negative emotions. Moreover, this study also revealed that positive emotions have a stronger impact on satisfaction, which in turn influences consumer loyalty, than negative emotions (Jang et al., 2011). In this respect, it is advisable not to ignore the importance of hedonic aspects of consumer values as well as utilitarian value, although hedonic value appeared not to directly affect consumer satisfaction.

Lastly, consumer satisfaction had a significant role in determining consumer loyalty in an ethnic restaurant. In addition, the strongest effect on consumer satisfaction was observed for utilitarian value, followed by positive emotions and negative emotions. The findings indicate that when American consumers perceived more utilitarian value and felt positive emotions (did not

feel negative emotions) from their dining experiences, increased satisfaction might be expected, resulting in a higher consumer loyalty.

**Objective 2: The mediating role of emotions between perceived value and consumer satisfaction**

Upon examining the mediating role of emotions, we uncovered the significant mediating effect of emotions (at least partial effect) on the relationship between perceived value and satisfaction. Firstly, this study found the partial mediating effect of both types of emotions between utilitarian value and satisfaction, which indicate that utilitarian value is not only an indicator of consumer satisfaction, but also affect consumers' positive and negative emotions. In other words, consumers' perceptions of utilitarian value have not only a direct but also an indirect impact on positive and negative emotions, which affects enhancing the level of consumer satisfaction.

Considering the hedonic value, the findings support the full mediating effect, indicating that hedonic value affected satisfaction only indirectly through positive emotions. The result suggests that only when American consumers feel positive emotions from hedonic aspects of dining attributes, their perceptions of hedonic value influence the level of satisfaction. Since no significant effect of hedonic value was discovered on consumers' negative emotion, negative emotion was not considered for the mediating effect.

Taken together, the present study suggests that consumers' perceived values are a critical factor for enhancing the level of satisfaction as well as a key component for inducing more positive emotions or less negative emotions that ultimately influence consumers' satisfaction. That is, when American consumers perceive that they gain value for their money spent at Asian restaurants, they would be satisfied and/or feel positive emotions from their dining experiences. On the contrary, the less the consumers perceive value from their consumptions, the lesser satisfaction and/or more negative emotions they are probably experiencing. To build positive loyalty with consumers, therefore, efforts for maximizing positive emotion and for minimizing

negative emotion through offering greater value to the consumers are important for Asian restaurants.

***Objective 3: Consumer satisfaction and loyalty***

In regard to the relationship between consumer satisfaction and loyalty (i.e., revisit intention and word-of-mouth intention), strong effects were found, as predicted. This finding comports well with a number of previous studies that found consumer satisfaction to be a key determinant of consumer loyalty (Chen & Tsai, 2008; Gounaris et al., 2007; Han & Ryu, 2009). It appears that the more satisfaction consumers experience, the greater consumer loyalty they might have.

***Objective 4: The effects of regulatory focus as antecedent of perceived value and emotions***

The current study acknowledges the fact that each individual can evaluate even the same dining experience differently and might feel distinct emotions from these consumption experiences. In this respect, this study attempted to identify how different psychological aspects of individuals influence consumers' perceived value and their emotional responses. In an attempt to explain this variance between individuals, the regulatory focus theory was adapted to understand why consumers choose the particular Asian restaurant and how they regulate emotions.

Since regulatory focus theory contains relatively new concepts in the service industry, further study is necessary in order to provide new insights into consumer behavior (Sun, 2011). Reflecting this aspect of the theory, the current study hypothesized and tested a total of eight paths (2x2x2) regarding every relationship between regulatory foci (i.e., promotion focus and prevention focus), perceived values (i.e., hedonic and utilitarian values) and emotions (i.e., positive and negative emotions) beyond a general suggestion related to these variables. The previous literature has suggested that promotion focus is associated with the hedonic value,

whereas prevention focus is related to the utilitarian value (Chernev, 2004; Arnold and Reynolds, 2009). However, the results of the present study are only partially consistent with this suggestion.

First, this study discovered that the promotion focus affected utilitarian value as well as hedonic value. As discussed earlier, promotion-focused individuals are sensitive to the presence or absence of positive outcomes (e.g., gains and nongains), whereas prevention-focused individuals are more sensitive to the presence or absence of negative outcomes (e.g., losses and nonlosses) (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Moreover, the marketing literature has often proposed that utilitarian value potentially involves both losses and gains, and hedonic value includes only gains (Arnold and Reynolds, 2009). This means that positive outcomes (gains), which promotion-focused people are more sensitive to, are provided by not only hedonic value but also utilitarian value. Therefore, it is reasonable that the promotion focus affects both hedonic and utilitarian values. Furthermore, this study revealed that the promotion focus influences only positive emotions. Promotion-focused consumers may feel relatively more intense positive emotions in the event of achievement, because such consumers tend to put more weight on positive outcomes than negative outcomes. This finding of the study implies that consumers with a stronger promotion focus were more willing to evaluate positively both the hedonic and utilitarian values they experienced, and they generated more intense positive emotions (Arnold & Reynolds, 2009).

Second, the results show that the prevention focus did not significantly influence any value dimensions, indicating that consumers' motivational characteristics related to prevention focus did not affect their evaluations of hedonic or utilitarian aspects of dining attributes. One potential explanation of this insignificant result could be seen that relative to promotion-focused individuals, prevention-focused individuals seem to be more analytical in their judgments and decision making process ( Arnold and Reynolds, 2009). Thus, prevention-focused consumers are more likely to assess their dining experiences carefully in explicit details. Given this characteristic of prevention-focused consumers, evaluating of utilitarian and hedonic values may vary according to specific services that they were experiencing rather than their regulatory focus.

With regard to emotions, a prevention focus had significant effects on negative emotions. This result explains that consumers with stronger prevention focus (relative to promotion-focused consumers) felt more intense negative emotions than positive emotions. This finding is consistent with previous literature, which observed that prevention-focused people are more concerned with negative outcomes and were less satisfied with positive outcomes compared to promotion-focused people (Trudel et al., 2012). Thus, it might be easier for consumers who are closer to the prevention focus to feel negative emotions for a given dining service, because they tend to focus more on negative outcomes, whereas the reverse was true with the promotion focus.

Previous suggestions related to the relationship between regulatory focus theory and perceived value need to be reexamined due to inconsistent results of prior studies (Aaker & Lee, 2006). In the midst of the lack of evidence to confirm the true relationships between regulatory focus and perceived value, this study contributes to the relevant literature with the finding that the promotion focus affected both types of perceived values, whereas the prevention focus did not significantly impact consumer value. Furthermore, the current study also revealed that the emotions that hold the greatest influence over consumers' decisions and choices varies according to their regulatory focus. In short, the promotion focus is more associated with positive emotions, whereas the prevention focus is more related to negative emotions.

**Objective 5: Effects of ethnic cuisine types (i.e., Chinese, Thai, and Japanese restaurants) on antecedents of consumer loyalty (i.e., hedonic and utilitarian values, positive and negative emotions, and satisfaction)**

As ethnic cuisine becomes more familiar to local consumers, the relative effects of hedonic and utilitarian values seems to differ in terms of the development stages of each ethnic cuisine. For example, the role of authenticity has lessened among ethnic restaurants in the mainstream stage, such as Chinese, Italian, and Mexican restaurants (Jang et al., 2012). In contrast, the hedonic aspects of dining service were revealed to play an important role in inducing

favorable consumption outcomes among ethnic restaurants in the emerging or exotic stage, such as Japanese and Korean restaurants. Along with the consumer value, other significant antecedents of consumer loyalty, such as emotions and satisfaction, were also examined to verify whether there was any significant difference according to the different types of ethnic restaurants. For this test, the current study classified Chinese cuisine as being in the mainstream stage, Thai cuisine as being in the expanding stage, and Japanese foods as being in the narrow stage (Sloan, 2001; Jang and Ha, 2009; Jang et al., 2012).

The statistical results support the assumption that significant differential effects of ethnic restaurant types exist in utilitarian value, positive emotions, and satisfaction. This result demonstrates that American consumers respond to utilitarian value and positive emotions differently according to ethnic food types. Specifically, American consumers perceived that the food prices of Chinese and Thai restaurants are more reasonable than the prices of Japanese restaurants. They also perceived that Thai restaurants offer a greater number of tasty and healthy menu items than do Chinese restaurants. Moreover, American consumers were more likely to feel positive emotions, such as joy, excitement, and refreshment, when they think of their dining experiences at Japanese restaurants than at Chinese restaurants. As a result, American diners who visited Thai or Japanese restaurants seemed to be more satisfied with their dining experiences than those who dined out at Chinese restaurants.

A particularly revealing finding is that American consumers perceived Thai restaurants as offering greater utilitarian values and Japanese restaurants as providing more pleasant dining experiences that generally arise from hedonic value than from utilitarian value. Restaurant marketers should consider these perceptions of their services while striving to improve the level of satisfaction, which in turn influences consumer loyalty, such as revisiting the restaurant or spreading positive word-of-mouth descriptions about the restaurant. However, these greater mean scores do not necessarily suggest that the rest of the consumer values are not important for Thai or Japanese restaurants. For example, this study found that perceptions of American consumers



toward utilitarian value and positive emotions between Thai and Japanese restaurants were not greatly distinguished from one another, except for the item “food price.” Therefore, Thai and Japanese restaurants must offer good quality in both utilitarian value and hedonic value in order to appeal to more American consumers.

In addition, American consumers who chose Chinese restaurants were less satisfied than those who dined out at Thai or Japanese restaurants. Although they responded that the food prices of Chinese restaurants are more reasonable than the prices in Japanese restaurants, they perceived fewer utilitarian values at the Chinese restaurants, such as food tastiness and healthy menu items. Moreover, American consumers were less likely to have positive emotions from their dining experiences at Chinese restaurants compared to the other two types of ethnic restaurants. Thus, the conclusion that lower mean scores of satisfaction with Chinese restaurants are caused by lower perceived utilitarian value and fewer positive emotions seems plausible.

In sum, any ethnic restaurant managers whose restaurants fall within the narrow stage (e.g., Japanese restaurants) should bear in mind that their consumers look for unique and exotic dining experiences (i.e., hedonic value) that lead to positive emotions. On the other hand, ethnic restaurant managers in the expanding stage (e.g., Thai restaurants) should understand that their consumers are more likely to consider the utilitarian aspects of their dining attributes.

### **Theoretical implications**

This study proposed and tested an integrative model of consumer choice behavior in ethnic restaurants by adding the effects of individual differences on perceived value and emotions that affect consumer satisfaction and loyalty. To incorporate the psychological differences of individuals, this study adopted a regulatory focus theory. As discussed earlier, the regulatory focus theory contains a relatively new concept (Sun, 2011). To date, there exist very limited empirical evidences, especially in the service industry sector. Therefore, the author hopes that the

regulatory focus theory has aided in providing empirical evidence that will help to establish the critical factors of consumer loyalty.

The current study argues that consumers with stronger promotion focus weigh the consumer values and positive emotions more intensely than they weigh the negative emotions. Consequently, such consumers provide higher evaluations on both perceived values and feel stronger positive emotions in terms of their dining experiences than do consumers with a stronger prevention focus. Conversely, consumers with a stronger prevention focus tend to weigh negative emotions more heavily than their perceived values and positive emotions, indicating that such consumers more easily generate negative emotions when dining out than consumers with a stronger promotion focus. This result is consistent with previous studies, which argued that prevention-focused individuals show a conservative bias in judgments (Higgins, 1997; Trudel et al., 2012). The current study failed to support H8b, which held that the prevention focus is positively related to utilitarian value. One potential explanation is that the participants of this study are limited to Americans. Researchers have extensively documented that people from collectivist cultures like East Asians (e.g., China) seem more prevention-focused, whereas peoples from individualist cultures like Westerners (e.g., USA) tend to behave with more promotion focus (Trudel et al., 2012). The majority of the participants in this study appeared to be closer to the promotion focus ( $n=371$ ) than prevention focus ( $n=78$ ). Thus, the results related to prevention focus might be biased.

### **Managerial implications**

In addition to theoretical implications, this study has important managerial implications for Asian restaurant managers. As pointed out by Yang et al. (2013), despite interesting theoretical findings, individual factors make limited contributions in reality. For example, managers struggle to distinguish their consumers into two regulatory foci and therefore struggle to provide more appropriate services depending on a regulatory focus. Nevertheless, we might

consider viewing individuals on a spectrum, presuming that all people have promotion and prevention systems and that one of these systems becomes predominant over one another through the socialization experiences in their respective cultures (Yang et al., 2013). As mentioned above, Asian people are closer to the prevention focus, whereas Western people seem to have a more promotion-focus orientation (Trudel et al., 2012). Therefore, managers might be able to encounter their clientele more relevantly based on the consumers' cultural background. For example, if the consumers are of Asian origin, the managers should learn how to respond appropriately when any service failure occurs in order to avoid inducing negative emotions. Thus, western managers would probably need to instill cultural understanding of their clientele of Asian origin if they comprised the majority of the consumers, especially if their employees have different cultural origins from their consumers. Furthermore, if the consumers are of Western origin, then managers should focus on enhancing positive emotions. In the latter case, building more positive relationships with consumers might be one effective way to increase positive affects when considering consumers with stronger promotion focus.

Although the hedonic components of dining services revealed as important factors in inducing consumers' positive emotions, the utilitarian aspects of consumer value appeared to be stronger antecedents of consumer satisfaction along with both types of emotions. For instance, American consumers considered tasty food and healthy food options as the most important functional components in Asian restaurants. Over the past two decades, awareness of health and nutrition has dramatically increased among American people due to an aging Baby Bumpers, the chronic problem of obesity, improved quality of life, and so forth. Reflecting this trend, American consumers are now willing to spend more money for higher quality, healthier food when they dine out, which supports the results of this study. Thus, Asian restaurant managers must understand why healthy food options are important to American consumers and pay extra attention to developing tasty and healthy menu items consistently. Furthermore, this result could provide more insightful information that Asian restaurant managers can utilize for establishing

promotion strategies (e.g., advertisement). For example, they might appeal to more Americans by using the healthy images of Asian foods than by using an authentic facility layout or interior.

It is also important to note that consumer satisfaction and loyalty were generated through positive emotions when American consumers perceived higher hedonic values of dining services. For example, American consumers felt positive emotions if they were satisfied with traditional aspects of foods, authentic layout, and traditional music. It seemed that American consumers wanted to perceive that they were escaping from ordinary life through their dining experience at an Asian restaurant. The traditional aspects of foods include not only taste but also the presentation of foods or the way they are served. Therefore, Asian managers should consider unique decorations of foods reflecting the corresponding culture. For example, decorating foods using particular ingredients or serving foods on the authentically designed dishes or tableware could be regarded as some ways to provide hedonic value in order to strengthen consumers' positive emotions. Moreover, serving foods in an authentic manner (e.g., cooking in front of the consumers as soon as they order or allowing the consumers to grill BBQ by themselves at the table) also could enhance consumers' perceptions of hedonic value and maximize positive emotions, which in turn, increase consumer satisfaction and loyalty. In terms of the relationship between emotions and satisfaction, the results verified that American consumers were more satisfied when they felt the feelings of joy or refreshment. Related to this, comfortable dining furniture (tables and chairs) and the types of music playing should be carefully selected to heighten these positive emotions.

In addition to positive emotions, negative emotions also influenced consumers' judgment of satisfaction. Therefore, restaurant managers should recognize that minimizing negative emotions is as important as maximizing positive emotions. The results indicated that these negative emotions were evoked from insufficient utilitarian aspects of consumer value. American consumers seemed to have negative feelings of upset, disappointment, and boredom when they failed to obtain satisfactory utilitarian value from ethnic restaurant experiences. The primary

factor that results in negative emotions was food taste. All restaurants must offer food that clients perceive to be delicious in order to be successful, and Asian restaurants are no exception. In doing so, they not only heighten positive emotions but also prevent negative emotions.

This study also provided specific evidence of service strategies for different ethnic themes, such as Chinese, Thai, and Japanese. As discussed earlier, the results of the study suggested that American consumers who visited Japanese restaurants rated higher scores on positive emotions than the other restaurant types. This result suggests that more pleasant dining experiences are expected among those who dine out at Japanese restaurants. Therefore, Japanese restaurant managers should consider chiefly the hedonic attributes of consumer value to elicit their consumers' positive emotions, which, in turn, provide them greater satisfaction. For example, American consumers might feel more positive emotions through watching some cultural-related or country-related films (or pictures) or listening to contemporary Japanese music while they are eating. Also, because consumers perceived that the price of Japanese cuisines is less reasonable than Chinese and Thai cuisine, they might hesitate trying to dine out at Japanese restaurants. With this point in view, we suggest a food tasting event to the restaurant managers in the narrow or exotic stage so that potential consumers, who are unfamiliar with and hesitate trying to visit the restaurants, can assure of food tastiness. It would be one effective promotion strategy for the ethnic restaurant in those stages to attract new consumers. Next, American consumers who chose Thai restaurant rated higher scores on utilitarian value. Therefore, Thai restaurant managers should be more concerned with utilitarian value, such as the taste of their food and healthy menu options. Among Americans, Thai cuisine is recognized as healthy food due to its perceived nutritional excellences (Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007). By wielding this image of Thai cuisine reflecting healthy foods, Thai restaurant managers could attract more new American consumers. For example, if consumers realized that the foods in the Thai restaurant are nutritious and prepared with high quality, fresh ingredients, they may be less likely to have negative emotions even when their utilitarian value go unfulfilled, such as small food portions or higher prices, but

rather could contribute to higher satisfaction and loyalty. In the case of Chinese restaurants, the reasonable food price was only items that showed a higher mean score than other restaurant types. Thus, Chinese restaurant managers should be careful in increasing the food price because if their consumers perceive that the food price is no longer reasonable, they would never revisit the restaurants or talk negative things about the restaurants.

### **Limitations and future research suggestions**

There are several limitations in this study. First, the results might be biased, because an online-based survey is designed to rely on the respondents' memories of their experiences to respond to the survey questionnaire. For example, the respondents may not be able to recall the specific emotions they have felt during their dining experiences in the last month. It is also difficult to ensure that the respondents were referring to one of Asian restaurants under investigation rather than other types of ethnic restaurants. Despite its advantages, the online survey method can lead to biased results.

Second, a low response rate could be another limitation related to the online survey method. The average response rate revealed only 0.14 percent, indicating even less than the expected average rate of 0.3 percent in regard to the results of previous similar studies using the same data set. This low response rate could result in a non-response bias, because non-respondents might have different perceptions or opinions than the responders would have had. Therefore, the results should be interpreted with caution.

Third, respondents were forced to choose an answer from a limited choice set by closed-ended questions. Although survey items were adopted from previous studies that have confirmed the reliability and validity of those items, it is still possible that the author could have overlooked items that significantly improve the predictive power of consumers' decision behavior. In this regard, qualitative research design, such as an in-depth interview with a focus group or an

individual, could be utilized to prepare more comprehensive survey items for a better understanding of the respondents' decisions in Asian restaurants.

Fourth, this study inquired after respondents' perceptions and emotions toward their dining experiences regardless of the dining segment of Asian restaurants. Thus, the findings of each Asian restaurant should be interpreted and generalized cautiously depending on the segment (i.e., fast service, fast casual dining, casual dining, or fine dining restaurants). Moreover, the findings of this study can only apply to Asian restaurant in the US rather than Asian restaurants in other countries. A future study may expand this research by considering different segment and/or types of ethnic cuisine either in the US or other countries' restaurant industry.

Finally, it is important to note the fact that more than half of the responses were based on respondents' dining experiences at Chinese restaurants (51.7%), which could result in a response bias that would limit the generalizability of the study's findings.

The present study investigated the important role of consumption emotions on the relationship between perceived value and satisfaction. In the tourism industry, consumers' emotions are particularly important due to its experience based consumption characteristics. Thus, future studies can use the proposed model in this study to examine the value dimensions that intensify positive emotions from travel experience and how these emotions lead to tourists' satisfaction and future behavioral intentions.

Lastly, regarding the two distinguished regulatory foci as an individual factor (Sun, 2011), future research could examine how these individual differences affect tourists' choice of destination, preferred information, or their use of information or tourism related technology. Moreover, the regulatory focus can be used to compare the cultural differences in terms of understanding tourists or consumers' behavior, taking into consideration that Asian people are more likely to show a prevention-oriented personality while westerners are more likely to have a promotion focus.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A.

#### SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRES

**Have you visited Asian restaurants (for example, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Indian, Thai, Vietnamese, or any other local Asian cuisine restaurant) within the past 3 months?**

If **yes**, please continue with the survey.

If **no**, please stop the survey. Thank you for your attention.

**Part 1: DINING EXPERIENCES AT ASIAN RESTAURANTS**

Please answer the following questions about **your most recent** dining experiences at an Asian restaurant.

1. Generally, how often do you visit **Asian restaurant**?

- 1 First time
- 2 At least once a month
- 3 At least once every two months
- 4 At least once every three months
- 5 At least once every four months or less

2. Please choose the Asian restaurant that you most recently visited and referred in this survey.

- 1 Chinese
- 2 Japanese
- 3 Korean
- 4 Indian
- 5 Thai
- 6 Vietnamese
- 7 Others (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

3. How often do you visit **this restaurant**?

- 1 First time
- 2 At least once a month
- 3 At least once every two months
- 4 At least once every three months
- 5 At least once every four months or less

**Part 2: GENERAL PERSONALITY**

Please click the circle that is associated with the number that best describes your personality.

	Not at all true of me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very true of me
1. I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
2. I typically focus on the success I hope to achieve in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
3. I often imagine myself experiencing good things that I hope will happen to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
4. In general, I am focused on achieving positive outcomes in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
5. I frequently think about how I can prevent failures in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
6. I am anxious that I will fall short of my responsibilities and obligations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
7. I often imagine myself experiencing bad things that I fear might happen to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
8. In general, I am focused on preventing negative events in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

9. Overall, I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure.

1 Yes       2 No

10. Overall, I am more oriented toward preventing losses than I am toward achieving gains.

1 Yes       2 No

### Part 3: OPINIONS ABOUT YOUR EXPERIENCE AT THE ASIAN RESTAURANT

Please click the circle that is associated with the number that best indicates your opinion about **your most recent dining experience** at an Asian restaurant.

#### Perceived value

	Strongly Disagree  Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. The interior design of this restaurant made me feel Asian culture and I enjoyed it.							
2. The music that they played in this restaurant entertained me.							
3. The traditional aspects of the foods made me feel like I was escaping from ordinary life.							
4. The mood of this restaurant made me feel like I was in an exotic place.							
5. The layout, facilities, and aesthetics of this restaurant were fun and unique to me.							
6. The cost of food was reasonable in this restaurant.							
7. The foods I had were tasty, so I enjoyed them.							
8. The food portion in this restaurant was enough and satisfied.							
9. I liked a variety of menu choices in this restaurant.							
10. I liked the healthy food options in this restaurant.							

#### Emotions

	Strongly Disagree  Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. When I think of dining experiences at this restaurant, I feel <i>joy</i> .							
2. When I think of dining experiences at this restaurant, I feel <i>excited</i> .							
3. When I think of dining experiences at this restaurant, I feel <i>relaxed</i> .							
4. When I think of dining experiences at this restaurant, I feel <i>refreshed</i> .							
5. When I think of dining experiences at this restaurant, I feel <i>upset</i> .							
6. When I think of dining experiences at this restaurant, I feel <i>disappointed</i> .							
7. When I think of dining experiences at this restaurant, I feel <i>regret</i> .							
8. When I think of dining experiences at this restaurant, I feel <i>bored</i> .							

### Satisfaction

	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Agree
1. My choice to dine at this restaurant was a wise one.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I was happy with the dining experience in this restaurant.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Overall, I was satisfied with the dining experience in this restaurant.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### Revisit intention

	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Agree
1. I would like to dine out at this restaurant again.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I would like to return to this restaurant when I want to eat Asian foods.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I would absolutely consider coming back to this restaurant.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### Positive word-of-mouth intention

	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Agree
1. I would recommend this restaurant to my friends or relatives.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I would refer this restaurant to other people.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I would recommend this restaurant to those who are planning to dine out.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### Switching intention

	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Agree
1. I do not want to go back to this restaurant.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I will choose another Asian restaurant when I want to eat Asian foods.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I will look for other types of ethnic restaurants instead of this restaurant.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Part 4: INFORMATION ABOUT YOURSELF**

Please respond to the following questions to provide information about yourself.

1. What is your gender?

**1** Male

**2** Female

2. What age group are you in?

**1** 18-24

**2** 25-34

**3** 35-44

**4** 45-54

**5** 55-64

**6** 65 years or above

3. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

**1** Less than high school

**2** High school

**3** 2-year College

**4** 4-year College/University

**5** Master degree

**6** PhD degree

4. What is the average of your annual household income?

**1** less than \$20,000

**2** \$20,000 to \$39,999

**3** \$40,000 to \$59,999

**4** \$60,000 to \$79,999

**5** \$80,000 to \$99,999

**6** \$100,000 or more

5. What is your ethnicity origin?

**1** Caucasian

**2** Hispanic

**3** African American

**4** Native American

**5** Asian

**6** Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

APPENDIX B.

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB) APPROVAL

**Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board**

Date: Wednesday, April 02, 2014  
IRB Application No HE1421  
Proposal Title: The Role of Perceived Value, Emotion, and Satisfaction in Determining Consumer Loyalty: A Case of Asian Restaurants

Reviewed and Exempt  
Processed as:

**Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved Protocol Expires: 4/1/2017**

Principal Investigator(s):

Jahyun Song	Hailin Qu
4701 N Washington St Apt 11	148 HES
Stillwater, OK 74075	Stillwater, OK 74078

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The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are attached to this letter. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval. Protocol modifications requiring approval may include changes to the title, PI advisor, funding status or sponsor, subject population composition or size, recruitment, inclusion/exclusion criteria, research site, research procedures and consent/assent process or forms
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of the research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Dawnnett Watkins 219 Cordell North (phone: 405-744-5700, dawnnett.watkins@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

  
Shelia Kennison, Chair  
Institutional Review Board

**VITA**

**SONG, JAHYUN (LEENA)**

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED VALUE AND EMOTION IN DETERMINING  
CONSUMER SATISFACTION AND LOYALTY: A CASE OF ASIAN  
RESTAURANTS

Major Field: HUMAN SCIENCES

Biographical:

Education:

Completed the requirements for the Master of Science in Hotel and Restaurant Administration at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in July, 2014.

Completed the requirements for the Master of Arts in Teaching English as a Second Language at Oklahoma City University, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma in December, 2004.

Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Business Administration in International Trade at Chung-Ang University, South Korea in 2002.

Experience:

Research Assistant in the Center for Hospitality and Tourism Research at Oklahoma State University (January 2013 to May 2014)

Professional Memberships:

Member of The Honor Society of Phi Kappa Phi (2013-2014)

The 18<sup>th</sup> & 19<sup>th</sup> Annual Graduate Student Research Conference in Hospitality and Tourism in 2013 and in 2014.

International Council of on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education (ICHIRE), 2013.