

RESTAURANT CUSTOMERS' EMOTIONAL EXPERIENCES AND PERCEIVED
SWITCHING BARRIERS: A FULL-SERVICE RESTAURANT SETTING

by

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B.S., Dankook University, Seoul, Korea, 2000
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AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Hotel, Restaurant, Institution Management & Dietetics
College of Human Ecology

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

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Abstract

This study attempted to develop a multi-item scale that measures restaurant customers' emotional experiences and has desirable reliability and validity, and to examine the relationships among consumption emotions, customer satisfaction, switching barriers, and revisit intention in the full-service restaurant industry.

In the process of developing a consumption emotion measurement scale, this study followed Churchill's (1979) paradigm during the early stage and confirmatory factor analytic approach suggested by Gerbing and Anderson (1988) and Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) in the later stage. The scale development process began with a specification of domain of construct, generation of 40 items, and data collection. The collected data were subjected to item refinement (i.e., outlier detection, descriptive and reliability analysis, and exploratory factor analysis). Four underlying dimensions of consumption emotions with 32 refined items were identified from the data. A new sample of data was collected for additional testing (i.e., reliability and validity). A confirmatory factor analysis using the new data indicated that the finalized measure using categorical dimension approach was unidimensional, reliable, and valid. The results of structural equation modeling supported the criterion validity indicating that the finalized measure behaves as expected in relation to additional construct.

In study two, a theoretical framework for understanding the relationships among consumption emotions, customer satisfaction, switching barriers, and revisit intention was proposed and tested. A series of modeling comparisons provided a best fit model. A measurement model estimated on the basis of Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) approach tested validity of measures. The results of structural equation modeling using the data from a web-based survey addressed the effect of consumption emotions on satisfaction and revisit intention. The partial/full mediating impact of satisfaction was verified following Baron and Kenny's (1986) suggested process. The switching barriers, two positive (i.e., preference and relational investment) and two negative (i.e., switching costs and lack of alternatives), that restaurant customers are likely to perceive were identified through the qualitative approach, using the guidelines suggested by Maxwell (2005). The quantitative approach validated the scale

applicability. The moderating role of switching barriers in forming revisit intention was verified by testing for metric invariances. Grouping was done by using K-means cluster analysis. Measurement invariance tests supported full metric/partial metric invariances. Structural invariance tests and invariance tests for a hypothesized path provided the evidence of moderating effect of switching barriers. Finally, theoretical and managerial implications of the findings were discussed.

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CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

The study of post-purchase processes as central to consumers' decision to repurchase products/services has attracted increasing attention from consumer researchers (Oliver, 1993; Tse & Wilton, 1988; Westbrook, 1987). Previous studies have focused on the cognitive antecedents of the post-purchase process to identify ways to improve customer satisfaction and other consequences of satisfaction such as repurchase decisions. The traditional approach to studying customers' purchasing behaviors indicated that customer decision-making is principally the result of cognitive processes (Westbrook, 1987). This traditional cognitive-centered view has been changed to a more affect-centered view that sees affect, such as emotions, moods, and feelings, as major antecedent variables of satisfaction and its consequences (Oliver, 1997). A growing number of conceptual and empirical studies of affect indicate that affective processes may constitute a powerful source of human motivation and a major influence on information processing and choice (Hoffman, 1986; Isen, 1984). In addition, numerous analyses of product consumption experiences indicate that the post-purchase period involves a variety of emotional responses, such as joy, excitement, pride, anger, sadness, and guilt (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Holbrook et al., 1984). Yet, research about emotion in post-purchase processes has been relatively neglected in the restaurant industry. This study explains the formation of repurchase intention, focusing on emotions rather than cognition.

Consumption emotions can be viewed as affective/emotional responses produced specifically during product/service usage (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986; Phillips, 1999). The main reason for incorporating consumption emotions into satisfaction and repurchase intention models is that customers view goods in many different ways (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Ratchford, 1987) and evaluate the goods differently (Swan & Combs, 1976). There is growing empirical evidence that emotion, based on consumption, impacts a consumer's satisfaction judgment (Mano & Oliver, 1993; Oliver, 1993) and repeat patronage (Allen, Machleit, & Kleine, 1992; Laverie, Kleine, & Kleine, 1993). Emotional response based on consumption is regarded as a powerful predictor of both intention and brand attitude (Morris, Woo, Geason, & Kim, 2002). Measuring emotions and incorporating such emotions into satisfaction/repurchase intention models helps determine consumer satisfaction and customers' intentions in that the concept of

consumption emotion is the core of the post-purchase period (Allen, Machleit, & Kleine, 1992; Laverie, Kleine, & Kleine, 1993; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Oliver, 1993).

The present study attempts to extend this literature with the following additions to existing work. First, to better understand which emotional attributes have the most influence on customer satisfaction and repurchase intention, a multiple component perspective of emotions in restaurant operations was considered. While the two-dimension approach to explaining customer satisfaction and subsequent behaviors has predominated in marketing literature, mainly using the positive and negative subsets of basic emotions in the Izard (1977) typology (e.g., Oliver, 1993; Westbrook, 1987), the multiple dimensions of emotions, rather than simple positive and negative emotions, should be included to precisely assess more complex emotional experiences in consumption situations (Dube & Menon, 1998; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991).

Second, to understand the satisfaction and repurchase intention relationship better, additional insight into the link was provided by examining the moderating effects of switching barriers on this relationship. The empirical and theoretical focus in explaining the customer retention process has been predominantly on customer satisfaction. That is, the strong focus on customers' satisfaction is based on the implicit assumption that there is a strong positive relationship between customer satisfaction and behavioral intention (Homburg & Giering, 2001; Jones, Mothersbaugh, & Beatty, 2000). However, interestingly, the relationship between satisfaction and repurchase intention often shows considerable variability (Jones, Mothersbaugh, & Beatty, 2000; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003), which indicates that the linkage between customer satisfaction and repurchase intention is not that simple (Carroll & Rose, 1993; Evanschitzky & Wunderlich, 2006; Reinartz & Kumar, 2000). Such variability emphasizes the possibility that customer retention may be contingent on additional factors such as switching barriers, and the customer satisfaction and retention link may depend on switching barriers customers perceive in the context of service provision (Jones, Mothersbaugh, & Beatty, 2000; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003). Switching barriers can be described as inhibiting factors that make it difficult for customers to change their current service provider (Jones et al., 2000). Thus, although customers are not fully satisfied, service providers can still retain customers with high switching barriers (Jones et al., 2000; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003).

Statement of the Problem

Much of previous research has focused on identifying dominant dimensions of emotion responses and proposing an emotion scale that appropriately captures individuals' emotional states (e.g., Edell & Burke, 1987; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Izard, 1977; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Oh, 2005; Plutchik & Kellerman, 1974; Plutchik, 1980; Richins, 1997). However, emotion measures in previous studies are believed to be suitable in the contexts for which they were developed. The adequacy of these measures in the consumption context, particularly a restaurant sector, has rarely been examined. Specifically, part of these measures' validity remains uncertain since their reliability and validity have rarely been empirically tested in a consumption context. Most emotion measures have been based on definitions of emotions and such theories as cognitive theories involving situational and conceptual triggers of emotional reactions, motivational theories, evolutionary-based theories, and psychoanalytic theories, without applying a thorough scale development process (Pluchik, 2003). Moreover, measures may not be suitable for consumer behavior applications. In other words, consumer behavior research requires more information about the nature of emotions in the consumption situation and more appropriate ways to measure them (Richins, 1997).

In addition, while the main effects of consumption emotions on customer satisfaction and post-purchase behavior are quite apparent in the marketing and consumer literature, little research has been conducted to assess how consumption emotions affect satisfaction and revisit intention in the restaurant industry. Further, the specific role of switching barriers in understanding customer return behavior has rarely been examined. Recent research shows that the satisfaction and revisit intention linkage is dependent on the magnitude of present switching barriers (Jones et al., 2000; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003). Many dissatisfied customers still remain with their current service provider, and many customers satisfied with their service experience still seek a new alternative and occasionally change their provider (Kahn, 1995). That is, switching barriers decrease the likelihood of customer's switching intention even when other factors (e.g., dissatisfaction or low perceived quality) foster their switching. Despite their important role in determining revisit intention, surprisingly, there is a lack of empirical/theoretical research addressing the effect of switching barriers in the formation of revisit intention in the restaurant industry.

Purposes and Objectives

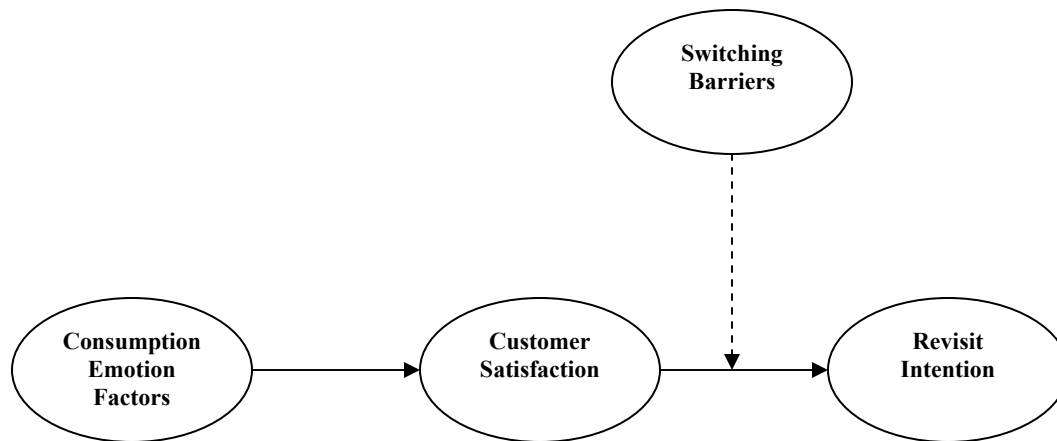
The purposes of this study were to develop a multi-item scale that measures restaurant customers' emotional experiences and that has desirable reliability and validity (Study 1), and to investigate the relationships among consumption emotion factors, customer satisfaction, switching barriers, and revisit intention in the full-service restaurant industry (Study 2). The specific objectives of this study were:

- 1) to develop a reliable and valid consumption emotion scale,
- 2) to uncover underlying dimensions of consumption emotions,
- 3) to address the impact of the uncovered emotion factors on customer satisfaction and revisit intention,
- 4) to investigate the mediating role of customer satisfaction in the relationship between the uncovered emotion factors and revisit intention,
- 5) to identify switching barriers that restaurant customers possibly perceive, and
- 6) to examine the moderating effect of the identified switching barriers on the relationship between customer satisfaction and revisit intention.

Conceptual Model and Hypotheses

The research model, shown in Figure 1.1, delineates the relationships among study variables in the full service restaurant industry, as based on a through review of the literature. The framework has two main features. First, it examines the links among consumption emotion factors, customer satisfaction, and revisit intention. Second, the framework examines the moderating role of perceived switching barriers in forming revisit intention.

Figure 1.1. A conceptual model showing the relationships among consumption emotions, customer satisfaction, switching barriers, and revisit intention



The objectives of this study were achieved by testing the following hypotheses:

H1: Multi-components of consumption emotions are significantly associated with customer satisfaction.

H2: Customer satisfaction is significantly associated with revisit intention.

H3: Customer satisfaction has a significant mediating role in the relationship between each emotion factor and revisit intention.

H4: Switching barriers have a significant moderating role in the relationship between customer satisfaction and revisit intention. Specifically, the relationship will be stronger for the low switching barrier group than for the high switching barrier group.

Significance of the Study

This study has significance for both scholars and marketers in the full-service restaurant industry. First, since this study represents the first attempt to develop a reliable and valid emotion scale that assesses restaurant customers' emotional experiences, this measurement can possibly be used to explain downstream variables (e.g., service quality, satisfaction, relationship quality, word-of-mouth, repurchase, and attitudes). That is, the developed scale would act as a

stimulus for additional research that develops more integrative theories in explaining restaurant consumer behavior. Second, the variety and nature of the emotional experiences cannot be adequately explained by summed positive and negative emotions (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). This study enables measurement of more complex restaurant customers' emotional experiences by uncovering greater dimensions of consumption emotions. Inducing customers' affective/emotional reactions is a good way to achieve a competitive advantage in deploying marketing strategies (Taylor, 2000). Mattila (2002) indicated that overall assessments of the service organization can be greatly influenced by a customer's emotional state. The uncovered multidimensions of consumption emotions may enable restaurant marketers to develop more sophisticated marketing/service strategies that lead to favorable assessments of the operation and explanation of repurchase behaviors. Third, this study provides further understanding of the relationships among consumption emotions, customer satisfaction, and revisit intention by considering the moderating role of switching barriers. While the effect of switching barriers has been investigated in the previous consumer literature, inhibiting factors of restaurant customer switching have not been well identified. Identification of switching barriers that moderate the satisfaction and revisit intention relationship would provide additional insights into retaining even dissatisfied customers.

Limitations of the Study

The major limitation of this study relates to generalizability. Web-based surveys were conducted to collect data only in full-service restaurants. Customers' emotional experiences and perceived level of switching barriers can differ based on the type of restaurant. Caution should be taken in interpreting and generalizing the results across other segments (e.g., quick-service restaurant or casual dining restaurant). Additional research in different types of restaurant settings is necessary to further examine the proposed relationships.

The impact of personal/situational factors in the formation of revisit intention is not considered in this study. The strength of the relationships among study constructs also can be influenced by both personal (e.g., customer personality traits, gender, ethnic background, income, and education) and situational characteristics (e.g., individual's plan/purpose for being in the environment) (Evanschitzky & Wunderlich, 2006; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Russell &

Snodgrass, 1987). Assessing the potential effects of personal and situational factors on the relationships among study variables could be an interesting extension of this study.

Definitions of Terms

- **Consumption Emotions:** Consumption emotions refer to affective/emotional responses generated based on consuming (Phillips, 1999).
- **Customer Satisfaction:** Customer satisfaction is defined as an overall judgment process of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectation and actual consumption experiences (Bitner & Hubbert, 1994; Kotler, 1991; Oliver, 1980).
- **Full-Service Restaurants:** This study adapts the description of full-service restaurants from Spears and Gregoire (2006).

Full-service restaurants provide waited table service for customers. Guests are greeted and seated by a host/hostess and orders taken and delivered by waitstaff. Payment occurs after the meal is completed. A tip is typically given for the service provided by the waitstaff member. The style and ambiance of full-service restaurants varies greatly from casual to fine dining (p. 13).

- **Switching Barriers:** Switching barriers refer to positive and negative switching barriers that dissuade restaurant customers from switching to another restaurant that provides comparable prices, services, or benefits.
- **Revisit Intention:** Revisit intention in this study can be described as an affirmed likelihood to revisit the restaurant in the future in both absence and presence of a positive attitude toward the restaurant.

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CHAPTER 2 - REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter provides a rationale for the development of a robust model for studying revisit intention by considering the moderating roles of switching barriers. Specifically, this chapter contains a review of the theoretical background of emotion, customer satisfaction, repurchase intention, and switching barriers. There is also a summary of research related to post-purchase processes and the reasoning behind this study with an explanation of conceptual background.

Conceptualization of Consumption Emotions

Emotion

Emotion has been variously defined in the literature because the term “emotion” is complex and often ambiguous (Plutchik, 2003). James (1884) defined emotion as “the bodily changes following directly the perception of the exciting fact, and that our feeling of the same changes as they occur is the emotion” (p. 204). This definition includes both the bodily states and the feeling of an emotion. He believed that the bodily changes (e.g., the increased beating of heart or the increased blood pressure) come first, and the feeling of emotion (e.g., fear or anger) is based largely on a person’s recognition of these changes. Damasio (1994), in differentiating between emotion and feeling, stated that emotion is a body state and feeling is a mental state. Gardner (1985) defined emotion as feelings related to a specific behavior. Plutchik (1980), based on a critical review of emotion research, stated that little consistency exists among the definitions of emotion and that many were not explicit enough to provide an idea of what an emotion actually is. Among the various definitions of emotion, the conceptualization that appears to have received the greatest support is the view that emotion is “a valenced reaction to events, agents or objects, with their particular nature being determined by the way in which the eliciting situation is constructed” (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988, p. 25). This definition implies that emotion includes a pleasant or unpleasant feeling (Plutchik, 2003). In these definitions, some emotion descriptors (e.g., anger and joy) were considered biological while others involve

cognitive processing. Bodily states (e.g., sleepy and droopy) and subjective evaluation of individuals (e.g., self-confident or feeling abandoned) were excluded. This definition focuses on the issue of interpretation of each event in that the special nature of each emotion is determined by the way that each event is interpreted (Ortony et al., 1988).

Emotion Elicited During Product Usage/Consumption Experiences

While emotional aspects of consumption experiences frequently occur to a greater or lesser degree in various consuming situations (Holbrook, 1986), relatively little empirical work has examined the characteristics of emotional responses/experiences in consumption situations. Consumption emotions can be described as the affective/emotional responses generated based on consuming (Phillips, 1999) and the set of emotional responses elicited specifically during product usage or consumption experiences (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986). These consumption emotions can be distinguished from other emotions that individuals experience in everyday life. Phillips (1999) indicated that compared to other emotions, consumption emotions are less intense. For example, “the positive emotion that a parent has when a child takes his or her first steps (e.g., joy) is much more intense than the positive emotion a consumer may have when trying out a new CD player (e.g., happiness)” (p. 22). He also pointed out that consumption emotions can be differentiated from other kinds of emotions in terms of characteristics. Specifically, the range of possible consumption emotions is more specific and narrower than the range of all possible emotional responses because consumption emotions are generated as a result of specific consumption and are likely directed at the specific consumption experience or the product/service. However, consumption emotions still have similar characteristics with other kinds of emotions in that customers simultaneously experience several emotions (e.g., fear and excitement) at the same time (Phillips, 1999).

Since mood states are a significant set of affective factors, a subcategory of feeling/emotional states, and are particularly pertinent to the service industry influencing consumer behaviors in many contexts (Gardner, 1985; Westbrook, 1980), the terms, moods and consumption emotions are often used indistinguishably. However, consumption emotions should be distinguished from the related affective phenomenon of mood (Gardner, 1985). Mood refers to feeling states that are quite transient and easily, but greatly, influenced by little things such as small aspects of marketer behavior (e.g., a salesperson’s smile) (Gardner, 1985; Isen et al.,

1985). In other words, these mood states are generally different from other affective factors that are relatively stable and long-lasting (Westbrook, 1980). Consumption emotions are usually described as having less transient and having more intensity, psychological urgency, motivational potency, and situational specificity than mood (Clark & Isen, 1982; Oliver, 1997; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991).

Consumption emotion and affect also can be differentiated. Oliver (1997) described affect as “the feeling side of consciousness, as opposed to thinking, which taps the cognitive domain” (p. 294). In her definition, feeling involves pleasure/displeasure, liking/disliking, and happiness/sadness, and the psychological/visceral sensations brought on by the neural-hormonal bodily systems (e.g., ecstasy). This affect is less cognitively involved than emotional responses (Oliver, 1997). For example, surprise, an emotion, is a fleeting sense of interruption of ongoing thought (Izard, 1977). However, since emotional responses include various forms of affect, the distinctions between consumption emotion and affect have become unclear. As an example, surprise, an emotional state, is commonly described as an affective state and included within a list of affects in numerous fields (Oliver, 1997). Specifically, lists of affects include consumption emotions, and lists of consumption emotions often include affect. In this regard, the terms, affect and emotion elicited specifically during product usage or consumption experiences, are frequently used interchangeably.

Review of Existing Measures of Emotional Responses

A considerable number of studies in psychology and marketing have proposed measures of customer emotions (e.g., Edell & Burke, 1987; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Izard, 1977; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Richins, 1997; Oh, 2005; Plutchik & Kellerman, 1974; Plutchik, 1980). Table 2.1 represents a summary of the emotion measures proposed in previous research. Plutchik and Kellerman (1974) developed the Emotions Profile Index (EPI) based on evolutionary psychology. Evolutionary psychology includes the notion that emotions are forms of communication signal that have adaptive or survival value, and the idea that there are certain basic/primary emotions that may interact to produce the huge varieties seen in social encounters (Plutchik, 2003). The EPI provides measures of eight basic emotions first postulated by Plutchik (1958), namely fear, anger, joy, sadness, acceptance, disgust, surprise, and expectancy. The EPI, which is also called a forced-choice test, contains a total of 62 emotion descriptor pairs (e.g.,

quarrelsome or shy). It is based on the idea that all interpersonal personality/emotional traits can be conceptualized as resulting from the mixture of primary/basic emotions.

Plutchik (1980) built up eight basic emotions more fully using the evolutionary perspective. He developed the Plutchik Circumplex that includes eight basic emotions (i.e., fear, anger, joy, sadness, acceptance, disgust, surprise, and anticipation). While the first seven emotions were the same as emotion components in the EPI, expectancy was replaced by anticipation. The Plutchik Circumplex also involves other specific emotions (e.g., love, submission, awe, disappointment, remorse, contempt, aggressiveness, and optimism) resulting from the adjacent combinations of eight basic emotions and from once/twice-removed emotions. Specifically, the adjacent categories of basic emotions (e.g., joy and acceptance) in the Circumplex produce another emotion, love, and the once-removed categories of basic emotions (e.g., joy and fear) produce a further emotion, guilt.

Based on identification of emotions that are universally experienced and identifiable in distinctive facial expressions, Izard (1977) proposed 10 fundamental/discrete emotions that coexist as separate responses available to individuals (i.e., interest, joy, anger, disgust, contempt, distress, fear, shame, guilt, and surprise). Izard's (1977) Differential Emotions Scale (DES) measures these 10 basic emotions. The further developed scale by Izard (1977), DES-II, contains 30 adjective items, three to measure each of these 10 fundamental emotions. This emotion measurement has been most frequently used by consumer researchers. It consists of 30 adjective items, and each of the 10 fundamental emotions is assessed by three adjectives.

Plutchik and Kellerman (1974), Plutchik (1980), and Izard (1977) attempted to order the universe of emotions by identifying a set of basic or fundamental emotions. While they insisted that more complex emotional states stem from the mixture of two or more basic emotions, emotional states (e.g., love, hate, envy, relief, pride, and other emotions individuals experience in their daily life) that can be identified through the use of the EPI or DES/DES-II have not been well clarified (Richins, 1997). In addition, many researchers pointed out the prevalence of emotions with negative nuance in Izard's (1977) scale and the need for a broader sampling of emotions (Laverie, Kleine, & Kleine, 1993; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Oliver, 1992). Further, based on an extensive review of the basic emotion literature, Ortony and Turner (1990) argued that "there is little agreement about how many emotions are basic, which emotions are basic, and why they are basic" (p. 315). For example, contempt, an emotion component of DES, is only

considered as a basic emotion by Izard (1977) and Tomkins (1984), and anticipation (or expectancy) is only believed to be a basic emotion by Plutchik (1980) and Plutchik and Kellerman (1974) (Ortony & Turner, 1990). Because of these issues, the reliance on basic emotions and the validity of measures founded on the notion of basic emotions are debatable (Richins, 1997).

Meharabian and Russell (1974) developed the Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD) scale to measure emotional states. The PAD is composed of 18 semantic differential items, with six items representing each dimension. Pleasure (e.g., pleased-annoyed) is a positive affect state that is felt to be distinguishable from preference, liking, positive reinforcement, and approach avoidance. Arousal (e.g., aroused-unaroused) refers to a feeling state that varies along a single dimension from sleep to frantic excitement. Finally, dominance (e.g., dominant-submissive) is based on the extent to which one feels unrestricted or free to act in a variety of ways. Three dimensions were considered to be independent of one another. The reduced set of items was used by Havlena and Holbrook (1986). They looked at how the PAD dimensions related to various consumption experiences by comparing PAD to another index of emotional response. The reduced set of the PAD is composed of 12 semantic differential items, and each dimension was represented by four items.

The PAD scale was initially developed to assess emotional reactions to one's environment or physical surrounding (e.g., artifacts and spatial layout) rather than to capture the entire domain of customers' emotional experiences. Thus, its reliance/validity in measuring emotional experiences associated with consumption activities can be uncertain (Richins, 1997). In addition, using the PAD, the existence of specific emotions, such as joy, anger, and fear, cannot be explicitly inferred.

Some studies measure emotion responses to advertising (e.g., Edell & Burke, 1987; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Oh, 2005). Holbrook and Batra (1987) designed the Standardized Emotional Profile (SEP) to create a parsimonious scale of multi-item indices that can be used to assess emotional reactions to advertising stimuli, such as television and print ads. The SEP consists of three dimensions (pleasure, arousal, and domination), nine subdimensions, and 27 items. Each dimension is represented by three subdimensions. In their study, pleasure refers to feelings, such as joy, affection, gratitude, and pride; arousal involves interest, activation, surprise, and involvement; and domination reflects a sense of helplessness, sadness, fear, and

distrust. Edell and Burke (1987) developed a scale about feelings toward ads. This scale is composed of three subdimensions, namely upbeat, warm, and negative feelings, and 65 items. Upbeat feelings includes 32 items, warm feelings involves 13 items, and negative feelings contains 20 items. They also used a later version of the feelings toward ads which consists of three subdimensions and 52 items. Oh (2005) conducted a scale development to measure affective reaction to print ads. She found that the unipolar categories of warm, negative, upbeat, sensual, and dull feelings effectively represent affective reactions to print ads. This scale includes 14 items. While each of the four categories of the scale is represented by three items, the last category, dull feeling, is represented by two items.

These measures all showed an acceptable level of reliability and evidence of validity when used to assess responses to advertising. However, the relevance of these measurements to consumption-based emotions is questionable because emotional responses to ads are vicarious. That is, unlike consumption-based emotions, such emotional responses are not directly experienced (Richins, 1997). In addition, emotions elicited by print or television ads differ from consumption emotions in that the intensity of such emotions tends to be lower than that for consumption emotions (Aaker, Stayman, & Vezina, 1988). Further, consumption emotions have a narrower and more restricted range than emotions elicited by advertising because advertising generally induces the entire range of feelings available to consumers (Richins, 1997). Accordingly, these emotion measures are effective in assessing the underlying dimensions of the emotion states elicited by advertising rather than assessing the specific emotion states experienced during consumption.

Lacking suitable emotion measures for consumption situations, Richins (1997) identified a set of consumption emotion descriptors, the Consumption Emotions Set (CES), using six empirical studies that assessed the domain of consumption-related emotions. She proposed a few versions of CES. The first version of CES included 16 identifiable clusters with 43 descriptors. The second version covered 16 identifiable clusters comprising 43 items as well as the category of other items not specified to an identifiable cluster. Nine more descriptors beyond those in the first two versions were included in the final version of the CES.

Comparing the usefulness of this descriptor set with the usefulness of other measures, such as DES, PAD, and Plutchik's (1980) scale, in assessing consumption emotions (e.g., DES, PAD, and Plutchik scale), Richins (1997) concluded that the Consumption Emotion Set (CES)

better represented the range of emotions consumers most frequently experience in consumption situations. However, since CES was designed to aim for a relatively broad coverage of consumption states, it cannot be applied in certain contexts. For example, some items in CES (e.g., love, scared, afraid, panicky, sexy, and worried, etc.) are unlikely to be experienced in a restaurant consumption situation. That is, it is quite improbable that restaurant consumption experiences will result in such extremes of emotional intensity. As another example, since a restaurant context involves various interpersonal relationships (e.g., customers to customers and customers to employees), some emotion states that are not included in CES also may be experienced during consumption. Richins (1997) also pointed out the limitation of the use of CES in some contexts, suggesting the need to develop the set of emotion descriptors that better present emotional aspects of consumer behavior in such contexts.

In summary, while the study of consumption emotions has increased in scope, the appropriate way to measure emotional experiences in consumption situations still remains unresolved (Oh, 2005; Richins, 1997). The existing measures are unsuited for measuring consumption-related emotions, particularly in the restaurant industry. Measures commonly used in previous research, such as EPI, the Plutchik measure, DES, PAD scale, SEP, the feelings toward ads, and CES are inadequate for some research purposes, particularly restaurant consumer behavior research, in that they may not properly represent numerous emotional aspects of restaurant consumer behavior and many emotion descriptors in such measures are unlikely to be experienced in a restaurant consumption situation due to extremes of intensity. Therefore, it is apparent that a reliable and valid emotion scale is needed to measure the range of emotions most frequently experienced by restaurant customers.

Table 2.1. A summary of the emotion measures in previous research

Authors	Terminology Used	Categories/Dimensions	No. of Descriptors (Subcategories)
Plutchik & Kellerman (1974)	Emotions Profile Index (EPI)	Fear Anger Joy Sadness Acceptance Disgust Surprise Expectancy	62 descriptor pairs
Meharabian & Russell (1974)	Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD)	Pleasure Arousal Dominance	18 semantic differential descriptors
Izard (1977)	Differential Emotions Scale (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 & Holbrook (1986)	Reduced set of the PAD	Pleasure Arousal Dominance	12 semantic differential descriptors
Edell & Burke (1987)	Feelings Toward Ads	Upbeat Warm Negative feeling	65 descriptors
Holbrook & Batra (1987)	Standardized Emotional Profile (SEP)	Pleasure Arousal Domination	27 descriptors (9 subcategories)
Richins (1997)	Consumption Emotion Set (CES)	Anger Discontent Worry Sadness Fear Shame Envy Loneliness Romantic love Love Peacefulness Contentment Optimism Joy Excitement Surprise	43 descriptors
Oh (2005)	Affective Reactions to Print Apparel Ads.	Warm Negative feeling Upbeat Sensual Bored	14 descriptors

Dimensionality (Categorical vs. Structural Dimension Approach)

Identifying the underlying dimensions/categories of a specific construct is essential for the development of a reliable and valid scale and for comprehending the nature of the construct. Many researchers have investigated the underlying dimensions/categories of various emotional reactions in numerous fields, recognizing the multidimensional nature of consumption emotions (e.g., Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Larsen & Diener, 1985; Mano, 1990; Meharian & Russell, 1974; Oliver, 1992; Westbrook, 1987). Identified dimensions/categories in these studies are quite varied. Typically, there are two types of approaches when discovering the dimensionality of consumption emotions, namely the categorical dimension approach and the structural dimension approach (Oh, 2005). Researchers in examining emotional aspects of consumer behaviors take one of these two approaches to illustrate the structure of emotional experiences.

In the categorical dimension approach, several independent mono-polar categories of emotional responses exist (Oh, 2005). Using this approach, researchers have categorized the wide variety of individuals' emotional states into a small set (e.g., Izard, 1977; Mano, 1990; Oliver, 1992; Plutchik, 1984; Westbrook, 1987). For example, Izard's (1977) 10 basic emotion categories and Plutchik's (1984) eight primary emotion categories were treated as a separate dimension although they still coexist. The relevance of these fundamental emotion categories in consumption situations have been supported in numerous consumer behavior studies (Holbrook & Westbrook, 1990; Mano, 1990; Westbrook, 1987). Generally, categories/dimensions of emotions are established by a factor analysis of a set of emotional variables in these studies (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991).

The structural dimension approach assumes that emotional states are related to one another in a systematic manner rather than independent of one another (Oh, 2005). The structural dimension approach is mostly characterized by a bipolar structure of measures (e.g., Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Larsen & Diener, 1985; Meharian & Russell, 1974). For instance, three dimensions of PAD paradigm involve the bipolar continuum of pleasure (e.g., pleased-annoyed), arousal (e.g., aroused-unaroused), and dominance (e.g., dominant-submissive). A two-dimensional approach that includes pleasantness and arousal dimensions was also proposed by Larsen and Diener (1985). Overall, based on the extensive review of the literature on related emotions, Oh (2005) and Plutchik (2003) concluded that the number of underlying categorical dimensions and structural dimensions differs study by study.

While many researchers have supported the categorical approach, providing empirical evidence, they argued that the structural dimension approach does not capture the more complex patterns of emotional reactions in a specific consumption situation (Holbrook & Westbrook, 1990; Oh, 2005; Richins, 1997; Westbrook, 1987; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Specifically, since the structural dimension approach quite simplifies representation of various emotional states elicited during product usage or consumption experiences, they are not sufficient to assess the entire domain of consumption-based emotional reactions. For instance, an emotional reaction, anger with poor restaurant service, is both a highly unpleasant and aroused feeling state, and cannot be distinguished by the pleasantness and arousal dimensions. An empirical finding also supports the superior prediction ability of the categorical dimension measures in a consumption situation. Machleit and Eroglu (2000) empirically compared the three emotions measures (i.e., DES, Plutchik measure, and PAD) using redundancy coefficients from a canonical correlation analysis in the shopping context. Their findings showed that the DES and Plutchik measure (a categorical dimension measure) provides a more representative assessment of the emotional responses than PAD (a structural dimension measure), and that the broad range of emotions varies across different retail environments. Accordingly, in this study, the categorical dimension approach was used to represent the nature of emotional experiences in a restaurant consumption situation.

Many studies adopting the categorical dimension approach provided evidence of two independent unipolar dimensions of consumption related emotions: positive and negative emotions (e.g., Abelson et al., 1982; Bradburn, 1969; Oliver, 1992; Westbrook, 1987). Abelson et al. (1982), in their examination of individuals' emotional experiences, indicated that the existence of two separate unipolar dimensions correspond to either positive or negative emotions. Westbrook (1987) examined consumer affective responses to consumption experiences and their relations to post-purchase behaviors. He found that emotional responses in explaining post-purchase processes can be described by independent unipolar dimensions of positive and negative emotions.

However, some researchers argued that the diversity and nature of the consumption experience cannot be adequately assessed by using the summed positive and negative emotion measures (Dube & Menon, 2000; Machleit & Eroglu, 2000; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Moreover, in their investigation of patterns of emotional response to product experience,

Westbrook and Oliver (1991) stated that while emotional experiences could be characterized by two separate dimensions in Westbrook's (1987) study, he adapted Izard's (1977) DES, which can be described as positive and negative subsets of basic emotions, for measuring emotional reactions. In other words, this insufficient measure may have worked as a constraint reducing the observed dimensionality of emotion space in his study (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Further, in their empirical study, Machleit and Eroglu (2000) pointed out the inadequacy of constructing summary dimensions (positive and negative) in a consumer research. Their study findings illustrated that while combining emotions types into summary factors (i.e., positive and negative factors) have the benefits of simplifying data analysis and reducing potential problems of multicollinearity among emotion types, the summary dimensions cannot be an appropriate representation of emotional responses. Overall, uncovering the greater number of dimensions of consumption emotions than the simple positive/negative dimensions enables assessment of the complexity of emotional experiences in a consumption situation (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991) and helps us further comprehend the role of various types of consumption-induced emotions in explaining consumer behaviors, especially in the context of service consumption (Dube & Menon, 2000). In the present study, multi-dimensions of emotional responses were uncovered and used to wholly capture the diversity and nature of consumption experiences in a restaurant.

Conceptualization of Customer Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction is an important concept in business and marketing as the notion of satisfying customers' needs and wants (Mittal & Lassar, 1998; Spreng, MacKenzie, & Olshavsky, 1996). It has long been regarded as a fundamental determinant of long-term consumer behavior, such as repeat-buy behavior (Oliver, 1980; Yi, 1990). Researchers agree that more satisfied customers mean greater retention (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Fornell, 1992). The positive word-of-mouth is generated by these customers (Schneider & Bowen, 1999), and the firms who serve them will benefit financially (Fornell et al., 1995). Thus, satisfying customers increasingly becomes the ultimate goal of every business. Recognizing its potential impact on retention and future profitability, organizations dedicate substantial energies to tracking customer satisfaction, which is also a fundamental measure of performance (Anderson, Fornell, & Lehmann, 1994).

Although the definitions of customer satisfaction vary in the literature, researchers generally agree that an essential element underlying customer satisfaction is an evaluation process (Back & Parks, 2003; Yi, 1990). Based on previous theoretical and empirical evidence, Day (1984) defined customer satisfaction as a post-choice evaluative judgment concerning a specific purchase selection. Bitner and Hubbert (1994) described customer satisfaction as an overall evaluation of performance based on prior experiences with a provider. Oliver (1980) stated that customer satisfaction results when customers experience a specific service and compare it with what was expected. Kotler (1991) defined customer satisfaction as the post-purchase evaluation of products or services given expectations before purchase. These conceptualizations implied that customer satisfaction is an overall judgment process of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectation and actual consumption experiences. Indeed, this evaluative process-oriented approach has been widely adapted by numerous researchers and is regarded as an effective way to measure the level of CS (Oliver, 1997; Yi, 1990). Table 2.2 provides a summary of the definitions of customer satisfaction as found in the consumer literature.

Customer satisfaction has frequently been conceptualized as an emotional response to direct product/consumption experiences. Specifically, satisfaction itself has been conceptualized as an emotional response to the judgmental disparity between product performance and a corresponding normative standard (Cadotte, Woodruff, & Jenkins, 1987; Halstead, Hartman, & Schmidt, 1994; Woodruff, Cadotte, & Jenkins, 1983). However, Hunt (1977) described satisfaction as “the evaluation rendered that the experience was at least as good as it was supposed to be, and it is not the pleasurable-ness of the (consumption) experience” (p. 459). He clearly distinguished satisfaction from emotional response. Westbrook (1987) further argued that satisfaction essentially integrates an evaluation of the emotional responses generated in consumption or the emotional aspects of the antecedent consumption emotions elicited by product usage. Further, Oliver (1997) suggested that satisfaction should be conceptualized as an evaluation involving both affective and cognitive components. In other words, for the cognitive constituent of the customer satisfaction judgment, the customer evaluates how well the product performance met expectation levels or needs.

Table 2.2. A summary of the definitions of customer satisfaction

References	Definitions	Key Words
Hunt (1977)	Evaluation rendered that the experience was at least as good as it was supposed to be	Evaluation
Oliver (1981)	Final psychological state resulting from the disconfirmed expectancy related to initial consumer expectations	Evaluation, Final psychological state
Swan, Trawick, & Carroll (1982)	Evaluation or cognitive opinion which analyses whether the product represents a satisfactory or poor result for its end users emotional response towards product	Evaluation/cognitive opinion, Emotional response
Labarbera & Mazursky (1983)	Subsequent evaluation of purchase evaluation of surprise derived from the purchase of a product or service	Evaluation
Day (1984)	Postchoice evaluative judgment concerning a specific purchase selection	Postchoice evaluative judgment
Tse & Wilton (1988)	Consumer response to the evaluation of the perceived difference between expectations and final result after consumption	Response made by evaluation
Kotler (1991)	Post-purchase evaluation of products or services given expectations before purchase	Post-purchase evaluation
Westbrook & Oliver (1991)	Subsequent evaluation opinion of choice relative to specific purchase	Evaluation opinion
Fornell (1992)	Overall evaluation after purchase	Overall evaluation
Bitner & Hubbert (1994)	Overall evaluation of performance based on prior experiences with a provider	Overall evaluation
Halstead, Hartman, & Schmidt (1994)	Emotional response associated with a specific transaction resulting from the comparison of the result of the product to some set standard prior to purchase	Emotional response
Oliver (1996)	Judgment of sufficient level of satisfaction offered by a product or service during consumption	Evaluation response of satisfaction level during consumption
Oliver (1997)	Fulfillment response, the degree to which the level of fulfillment is pleasant or unpleasant	Fulfillment response, Evaluation

Note. Part of the table contents (eight references) was adopted from Millan and Esteban (2004).

On the other hand, for the affective constituent of the customer satisfaction judgment, the customer evaluates the level of emotional benefits of the product. Consistent with Hunt (1977) and Westbrook's (1987) research, in Oliver's (1997) study, customer satisfaction was clearly described as an evaluation process rather than an emotional response to a specific consumption. Since satisfaction judgments differ along a hedonic continuum, one issue that possibly occurs is whether customer satisfaction is conceptually distinguishable from consumption emotions (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). On the basis of this theoretical support (e.g., Hunt, 1977; Oliver, 1997; Westbrook, 1987), customer satisfaction in this study involves an evaluation of the emotional responses to specific consumption and is a distinguishable theoretical construct from consumption emotions. Satisfied customers are likely to remain loyal to the product and engage in positive word of mouth (Oliver, 1997). According to Oliver (1997), remaining loyal to the product involves making repeat purchases of the product/service as well as intending to make repeat purchases of the product/service. Although satisfaction is not the only strategy for retaining customers, a key driver of retention is satisfaction. Customer satisfaction can be considered the most essential outcome of all marketing activities.

Multi-Components of Consumption Emotions and Customer Satisfaction

Early consumer research viewed customer satisfaction as being formed within a cognitive disconfirmation framework. Specifically, consumers make a comparison between expectation of a product/service and actual performance. Satisfaction occurs when actual performance is greater/equal to expectation, and dissatisfaction arises otherwise (e.g., Oliver, 1980; Yi, 1990). This traditional cognitive-centered view has been changed to a more affect-centered view that sees affect, such as emotions, moods, and feelings, as significant antecedent to satisfaction and as a necessary component to explaining the formation of satisfaction (Oliver, 1997). Many researchers have emphasized the significance of consumption emotions to satisfaction formation in numerous fields (Evrard & Aurier, 1994; Oliver, 1993; Westbrook, 1987). In an empirical approach, Westbrook (1987) explored the effect of emotions elicited in consumption on satisfaction, along with expectation and disconfirmation belief. He found that two distinct dimensions of emotions, namely positive and negative emotions, and positive/negative emotion affect positively/negatively customer satisfaction with cable television. Oliver (1993) expanded the determinants of overall satisfaction by including attribute satisfaction/dissatisfaction and

positive/negative affect as well as disconfirmation belief. The findings confirmed that disconfirmation effect and the effect of distinct dimensions of positive/negative affect overall satisfaction with automobiles. Similarly, in their examination of dimensions of emotion and their relation to satisfaction with the consumption of three movies, Evrard and Aurier (1994) found that positive and negative emotions separately relate to satisfaction. These empirical studies extended the early cognitive-centered notion of satisfaction formation by incorporating affective components in customer satisfaction processes. Findings in these studies indicated the importance of two dimensions of consumption emotions as significant contributors to customer satisfaction.

There is growing consensus, however, that the various components of emotions determine their relationship with customer satisfaction in different ways (Dube & Menon, 2000; Han & Back, 2007; Liljander & Strandvik, 1997; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). These researchers argue that a comprehensive understanding of the experience of emotions by identifying greater dimensionality than simple positive and negative emotions is necessary to better comprehend the consumption emotions and satisfaction relationship. They also indicated that while two separate dimensional views of consumption emotions in satisfaction formation could be characterized in early studies, such studies adapted Izard's (1977) DES, which can be described as positive and negative subsets of basic emotions for measuring emotional responses. In other words, this insufficient measure may have worked as a restraint, reducing the observed dimensionality of consumption emotion space in their study (Dube & Menon, 2000; Han & Back, 2007; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991).

Numerous studies in the consumer behavior literature support the adequacy of the multi-components approach to consumption emotions in illustrating satisfaction formation. Westbrook and Oliver (1991) investigated consumption emotion response patterns and their corresponding satisfaction evaluation. They identified various patterns of emotional experiences and found that satisfaction evaluation was correlated with these complex emotional experiences. In the context of extended service transaction, Dube and Menon (2000) proposed that the multiple components of emotional experiences differently affect satisfaction. According to their explanation, a two-dimensional view of emotions in satisfaction formation would not sufficiently explain the relationship between emotions and satisfaction in various extended service transactions. Post-purchase satisfaction may be determined by the retrospective overall emotional responses as well

as by the instant impact of in-process emotions on psychological and interpersonal antecedents of satisfaction in subsequent phases of the service process (Dube & Menon, 2000). In the service sector, Han and Back (2007) examined underlying dimensions of consumption emotions and their relationship with customer satisfaction. In their study, six of the seven dimensions identified were significantly associated with satisfaction, and different types of consumption emotions had different levels of effects on satisfaction. These studies with a multidimensional view verified the emotion-satisfaction relationship in greater detail than simple positive and negative emotions. This multi-dimensional approach to emotion in the satisfaction process enables precise assessment of complex emotional experiences in various consumption situations (Dube & Menon, 1998; Han & Back, 2007; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991) and helps us further understand the role of various types of consumption emotions in satisfaction formation, particularly in the context of service consumption (Dube & Menon, 2000). The diversity and complex nature of the consumption experience in illustrating satisfaction formation cannot be adequately assessed by combining emotions into separate positive and negative summary factors (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991).

H1: Multi-components of consumption emotions are significantly associated with customer satisfaction.

Revisit Intention

Retaining customers or enhancing repurchase intention is probably the most important concern in marketing because obtaining a new customer usually greatly exceeds the cost of keeping a current customer (Fornell, 1992; Spreng et al., 1995). Repurchase/revisit intention as a consequence of satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a critical factor affecting customers' future relationship with an organization, its profitability, and thereby its business success (Jones, 1998; Reichheld & Sasser, 1990; Weun, 1997). Customers frequently develop an attitude toward the provider based on product/service experiences. Oliver (1997) described this attitude as a fairly stable like/dislike of the product/service. She indicated that this attitude is strongly related to the customers' intentions to repatronize the service/product and to be engaged in word-of-mouth behaviors. In this sense, Oliver (1997) defined behavioral intentions (i.e., repurchase and word-of-mouth intentions) as "a stated likelihood to engage in a behavior" (p. 28). Numerous early

research studies consider repurchase/revisit intention to be at the heart of commitment or loyalty (Day 1969; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Jarvis & Wilcox, 1977). Nevertheless, while it is true that repurchase/revisit intention is a critical part of such attitudinal/behavioral constructs, it should not be wholly characterized by a positive attitude toward a provider (e.g., commitment and loyalty) because customers often are likely to engage in repeat purchasing behaviors in the absence of a psychological bond (e.g., loyalty and commitment) (Guiltinan, 1989; Jones, 1998). In this sense, revisit intention in this study is described as an affirmed likelihood to revisit the restaurant in the future in both the absence and presence of a positive attitude toward a provider.

Satisfaction and Revisit Intention

While satisfaction is not the only strategy, a fundamental approach to improving customer retention is enhancing customer satisfaction levels. Thus, a major component in any customer retention/loyalty program in the hospitality industry is satisfaction. The overwhelming numbers of studies of customer satisfaction outcomes in the service industry indicate a positive relationship between customer satisfaction and repurchase intention (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Getty & Thompson, 1994; Kivela, Inbakaran, & Reece, 1999; Soderlund & Ohman, 2005; Zeithaml et al., 1996). A study conducted by Cronin and Taylor (1992) in service sectors, such as casual dining, banking, pest control, and dry cleaning, showed that customer satisfaction has a significant impact on repurchase intention in those sectors. Anderson and Sullivan (1993) verified that a high level of customer satisfaction decreases the perceived benefits of service provider switching, thereby increasing customer repurchase intention. In addition, Getty and Thompson (1994), in investigating the relationship among service quality, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions, suggested that customer behavioral intentions to recommend and repurchase are positive functions of their perception of satisfaction and service quality. Moreover, Soderlund and Ohman (2005) assessed the role of intentions as a link between satisfaction and repatronizing behavior in a restaurant setting. Their findings showed that customer satisfaction is significantly related to two specific intention constructs: intentions as expectations and intentions as wants. Further, in their empirical investigation of the link between dining satisfaction and post-dining behavioral intentions, Kivela et al. (1999) found that dining satisfaction significantly influences behavioral intentions. These studies all provide empirical evidence of a positive relationship between customer satisfaction and revisit intention

in the restaurant industry. Satisfied customers are more likely to refuse competitive offers from competitors and repurchase the product or service from the current provider (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Zeithaml et al., 1996).

H2: Customer satisfaction is significantly associated with revisit intention.

Customer Satisfaction as a Mediator

Consumption-based emotions, which are antecedents of satisfaction, would be likely to influence intentions through customer satisfaction because overall satisfaction with a product/service experience is generally believed as a requisite for intentions to revisit, complain, and recommend. Indeed, some recent studies found the significant mediating role of customer satisfaction in the relationship between consumption emotions and behavioral intentions (Phillips, 1999; Han & Back, 2007). In his experimental study involving an alternative to the expectancy disconfirmation conceptualization, Phillips (1999) postulated and validated the mediating effect of satisfaction in the relationship between its antecedent variables (i.e., product performance, disconfirmation, and consumption emotion) and repurchase intention. Consistent with this finding, Han and Back (2007) verified the mediating effect of customer satisfaction. Specifically, in their empirical investigation of consumer behavior in the hospitality industry, they found emotional responses to consumption experiences influence on repeat visit intentions through customer satisfaction. Based on these findings, this study posited that customer satisfaction mediates the relationship between consumption emotions and revisit intention.

H3: Customer satisfaction has a significant mediating role in the relationship between each emotion factor and revisit intention.

Conceptualization of Switching Barriers

Researchers agree with the notions that satisfied customers do not necessarily remain with the current provider and dissatisfied customers do not always switch (Day, 1984; Hirschman, 1970; Rowley & Dawes, 2000). In other words, although some defections cause

dissatisfaction, consumers can simply remain inactive and take no action at all (Day, 1984; Gronhaug & Gilly, 1991). One rationale for such an occurrence is that the costs of changing to an alternative provider act as disincentives or obstacles to switching. These costs, which can be also described as switching barriers, help service providers prevent customer switching in a negative situation (e.g., a temporary decline in service quality or a service failure) (Tsai et al., 2006). These switching barriers give the service provider time to recover/rebuild adequate satisfaction levels before switching actions (Burnham et al., 2003). Switching barriers act as disincentives for customers to switch to a new potential service provider that offers comparable prices or benefits. Thus, in the current competitive environment, identifying alternative means of inhibiting customer switching, such as switching barriers, is particularly useful for retaining customers in the service industry (Bateson & Hoffman, 1999; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003).

Broadly, Jones et al. (2000) defined switching barriers as all factors that make it more difficult and costly for customers to change service providers. Similarly, Colgate and Lang (2001) indicated that switching barriers explain why customers who have seriously considered exiting the relationship with their current service provider, decide to stay with their provider. Thus, they viewed switching barriers as factors influencing customer retention. However, some researchers argued that switching barriers should be described as the degree to which customers experience a sense of being locked into a relationship with a provider based on the various costs (e.g., economic, social, or psychological costs) associated with exiting the relationship with a particular service provider (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Barnes, 1994; Bendapudi & Berry, 1997). These researchers focused mainly on the negative scope of switching barriers, viewing the relationship based on switching barriers as pseudo-relationships that make customers feel entrapped (Barnes, 1994; Jones et al., 2000). That is, customers remain with their current provider only because of high switching costs.

However, the positive scope of switching barriers should also be considered because some affirmative aspects of the barriers make it difficult for customers to leave a current service provider. For instance, relational benefits (e.g., social benefits, confidence benefits, and special treatment benefits), stemming from a valued long-term relationship with a provider, considered more important than service performance (Gwinner et al., 1998; Henning-Thurau et al., 2002), also work as constraints that prevent customer switching (Jones et al., 2000; Vazquez-Carrasco & Foxall, 2006). As another example, loyalty program benefits, such as hard benefits (e.g., point

accumulation) that build credibility and customer attention/information and soft benefits (e.g., reinforcement of the customers' sense of special status and involvement of special information) that build long-term loyalty, act as inhibiting factors of switching (Balabanis, Reynolds, & Simintiras, 2005).

Several researchers have provided theoretical support for a distinction between positive and negative switching barriers. Hirschman (1970) first differentiated “wanting to be” in a relationship from “having to be” in a relationship. In his distinction, “wanting to be” could be described as a positive reason for remaining in a relationship and “having to be” can be characterized as a negative reason for staying in a relationship. Consistent with this notion, Jones et al. (2000) stated that switching barriers can be seen as either positive or negative in nature. Egan (2001) indicated that while customers perceive some switching barriers as being coercive (e.g., financial switching costs), they perceive other switching barriers as acceptable because some are based on their own initiative (e.g., relational benefits or loyalty program benefits). In a similar way, in their empirical investigation of switching barriers and their influence on customer behaviors, Vazquez-Carrasco and Foxall (2006) distinguished positive from negative switching barriers. They found that positive (i.e., relational benefits) and negative switching barriers (i.e., switching costs and availability and attractiveness of alternatives) have a different level of importance in determining customer post-purchase behaviors. Specifically, positive switching barriers play a greater role in determining satisfaction and retention than negative switching barriers. Further, in two financial service industries, Colgate and Lang (2001) also identified four factors in switching barriers (e.g., negativity, service recovery, apathy, and relationship investment), and found that the factor containing somewhat negative reasons for customers staying with their current provider, namely negativity (e.g., switching costs), and the others have different roles in terms of explaining why customers stay even when they seriously consider switching. Despite the lack of a conceptual distinction between two types of switching barriers, numerous consumer behavior studies verified the significant role of either positive or negative switching barriers in explaining consumer behaviors (e.g., Colgate & Lang, 2001; Jones et al., 2000; Patterson, 2004; Patterson & Smith, 2003; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003; Sharma & Patterson, 2000; Vazquez-Carrasco & Foxall, 2006; Yanamandram & White, 2006). Thus, in line with Jones et al.'s (2000) broad perspective, switching barriers in this study indicates both positive and negative switching barriers that dissuade restaurant customers from switching to

another restaurant that provides comparable prices, services, or benefits. In particular, positive switching barriers refer to inhibiting factors that provide an affirmative reason to remain, reflecting wanting to be in a relationship, and negative switching barriers refer to inhibiting factors that provide a passive reason to stay, reflecting having to be in a relationship.

Switching Barriers in Consumer Research

In recent years, many studies have focused on inhibiting factors of customer switching decisions. Table 2.3 represents the switching barriers identified and used in the previous consumer literature. As shown in Table 2.3, the switching barriers can be easily divided into positive and negative. While positive switching barriers provide a positive reason to remain (wanting to be), negative barriers provide a negative reason to stay in a relationship (having to be). Most of their findings showed that these barriers generally reduce the likelihood of customer switching even when other factors (e.g., distrust, and low perceived quality) encourage switching decisions. Table 2.3 also reveals that barriers in the previous research could be generally organized into two negative categories (i.e., switching costs and lack of attractiveness of alternatives) and two positive categories (i.e., relational benefits and service recovery).

Switching Costs

Based on previous research, switching costs, which were the major category of switching barriers (Colgate & Lang, 2001; Jones et al., 2000), primarily consist of time/effort costs, psychological costs (e.g., unfamiliarity, uncertainty and undesirable consequences), and economic/financial costs. Porter (1980) described switching costs as the perception of the magnitude of the additional required costs, such as termination costs from the current relationship and joining costs with an alternative. Morgan and Hunt (1994) viewed switching cost as economic only. In contrast, Jackson (1985) categorized switching costs as psychological, physical, and economic in nature.

Table 2.3. Switching barriers identified/used in the previous consumer literature

Authors	Switching Barriers Identified/Used		Settings
	Negative Switching Barriers (components)	Positive Switching Barriers (components)	
Klemperer (1987)	Switching costs (learning, transaction, and artificial costs)		Financial market
Fornell (1992)	Search costs Transaction costs Learning costs Cognitive effort Customer habit Financial, social, psychological risks	Special treatment Emotional costs	28 service industries
Ping (1993)	Switching costs (Time and money costs) Alternative attractiveness	Relationship investment Uniqueness of investment	Hardware retailing industry
Dick & Basu (1994)	Switching costs (Monetary and Non-monetary costs)		
Sengupta, Krapfel, & Pusateri (1997)	Switching costs (Psychological, physical, and economic costs)		Customer account and selling firm
Bansal & Taylor (1999)	Switching costs (Perceived behavioral control)		Banking services
Jones, Mothersbaugh, & Beatty (2000)	Switching costs (Time, money, effort) Attractiveness of alternatives	Interpersonal relationships (Personal bonds)	Banking services Hairstyling/Barber services
Sharma & Patterson (2000)	Switching costs (Economic costs and psychological costs) Alternative attractiveness		Financial planning services
Colgate & Lang (2001)	Negativity (Switching costs) Apathy (Attractiveness of alternatives and uncertainty of outcomes)	Relational investment (Social bonds, confidence benefits, and special treatment benefits) Service recovery	Retail insurance industry Retail banking industry
Burnham, Frels, & Mahajan (2003)	Procedural switching costs Financial switching costs	Relational switching costs	Credit card industry Long distance industry
Holloway (2003)	Switching costs (Time, effort, money, inconvenience, and hassle) Attractiveness of available alternatives	Ongoing relationship quality (Satisfaction, trust, commitment)	Online stores

Patterson & Smith (2003)	Search costs Setup costs Functional risk Attractiveness of alternatives	Loss of social bonds Loss of special treatment benefits	Travel agencies Medical services Hairdressers
Ranaweera & Prabhu (2003)	Switching costs (Psychological costs, effort, and financial costs)		Fixed line telephone industry
Patterson (2004)	Search costs (Setup costs) Explain preference (Setup costs) Risk perceptions (Psychological costs)	Loss of relationship (Interpersonal relationship) Special privileges (Special treatment)	Dry cleaning agents Hairdressing Auto services
Balabanis, Reynolds, & Simintiras (2005)	Convenience barriers (Perceived hassle) Economic barriers (Financial costs-inferiority of alternative) Parity barriers (Comparability) Familiarity (Procedural costs) Unawareness (Procedural costs-search costs)	Emotional barriers (Relational costs) Speed barriers (Delivery time)	On-line retailing stores
Tsai, Huang, Jaw, & Chen (2006)	Continuance commitment (Lack of options, physical costs, lock in, and unfamiliarity)		On-line retailing store
Vasudevan, Gaur, & Shinde (2006)		Relational switching barriers (Interpersonal relationship)	Manufacturing industry
Vazquez-Carrasco & Foxall (2006)	Switching costs (Psychological, physical, and economic costs) Availability and attractiveness of other providers' offers	Relational benefits (Social benefits, confidence benefits, and special treatment benefits)	Hairdressers
Yanamandram & White (2006)	Impact of alternative providers Switching costs Inertia (Laziness and passiveness) Other barriers (Sales leads, reciprocal arrangement, legal issues, and back up option)	Interpersonal relationship Service recovery Other barriers (Better price, patriotism, good quality core product, recognition by service provider, and recognition by provider)	Business-to-business services context

While there is a lack of consistency and clarity regarding their appropriate conceptualization (Jones et al., 2000), researchers generally agree that switching costs involve both monetary and non-monetary costs (i.e., time, effort, and psychological costs) (Balabanis et al., 2006; Dick & Basu, 1994; Holloway, 2003; Patterson, 2004; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003; Sharma & Patterson, 2000). Monetary costs, which also are described as economic/financial costs in the literature (e.g., Balabanis et al., 2006; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003; Sharma & Patterson, 2000), can be regarded as a sunk cost that appears when customers switch their service provider (i.e., actual financial expenses and loss of financial benefits) (Aydin, Ozer, & Arasil, 2005; Klemperer, 1987). Non-monetary costs involve time/effort costs (e.g., search/setup costs and other physical costs) and psychological costs that can also be described as a perceived risk. A perceived risk is the consumers' perception of the unfamiliarity, uncertainty or undesirable consequences that attend buying a new product/service from an alternative (Dowling & Staelin, 1994). Changing from the current service provider to a new service provider requires an investment of time/effort and monetary expenses as well as a high degree of perceived risk (psychological costs) (Balabanis et al., 2006; Dick & Basu, 1994; Holloway, 2003; Patterson, 2004; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003; Sharma & Patterson, 2000). Thus, switching costs act as a significant switching barrier, preventing customers from leaving the current relationship (Colgate & Lang, 2001).

Lack of Attractive Alternatives

Previous research also indicated that a lack of attractive alternatives, as perceived by customers, is an essential component of switching barriers (Colgate & Lang, 2001; Holloway, 2003; Jones et al., 2000; Patterson & Smith, 2003; Vazquez-Carrasco & Foxall, 2006; Yanamandram & White, 2006). Jones et al. (2000) conceptualized attractiveness of alternatives as "customer perceptions regarding the extent to which viable competing alternatives are available in the marketplace" (p 262). In a similar manner, a lack of attractive alternatives can be described as the customers' perception of the magnitude of the lack of comparable/superior alternatives in the marketplace. When customers perceive a lack of superior alternatives or indifferent alternatives, the probability of terminating an existing relationship decreases (Bendapudi & Berry, 1997; Dube & Maute, 1998; Sharma & Patterson, 2000). Thus, a lack of attractive alternative offerings in the marketplace can be favorable by protecting a firm's customers from competitors (Ping, 1993).

Relational Benefits

Relationship benefits as positive switching barriers (Vazquez-Carrasco & Foxall, 2006), mainly stemming from a service provider's investment in the relationship with its customers, primarily include social, confidence, and special treatment (Colgate & Danaher, 2000; Jones et al., 2000; Patterson, 2004; Patterson & Smith, 2003; Vazquez-Carrasco & Foxall, 2006; Yanamandram & White, 2006). In recent years, there has been increasing recognition of relationship investments from practitioners and academics due to the potential benefits for organizations (i.e., customer retention or loyalty) and customers (i.e., confidence, social, and special treatment benefits) (Colgate & Danaher, 2000). Especially in the service industry, the intangible characteristics of the service and high degree of interaction between customers and their service provider boost the importance of relationship investment in enhancing customer-perceived relational benefits. Relational benefits through a service provider's investment/effort in a relationship with its customers could be an important reason customers continue the relationship with their current service provider (Berry & Parasuraman, 1991; Colgate & Danaher, 2000; Jones et al., 2000; Patterson, 2004; Patterson & Smith, 2003; Vazquez-Carrasco & Foxall, 2006; Yanamandram & White, 2006). Customers may lose such benefits as confidence, social, and special treatment by changing providers (Berry & Parasuraman, 1991), especially when a service provider offers its customers various resources, efforts, and attention specific to the relationship.

Service Recovery

The final category of switching barriers uncovered in the literature is service recovery. Although zero defection is an impossible goal in the service delivery process (Collie et al., 2000; Goodwin & Ross, 1992), most of the defections are largely controllable by a service provider (Hoffman & Kelly, 2000). Service recovery refers to "the actions of a service provider to mitigate and/or repair the damage to a customer that results from the provider's failure to deliver a service as is designed" (Johnston & Hewa, 1997, p. 467). In other words, it includes all of a provider's efforts and activities to restore/amend the loss experienced by customers following a service failure (Gronroos, 1988). While service failures are major causes of customer switching acts (Keaveney, 1995), it has been generally believed that well-executed recovery efforts can reverse dissatisfaction and help a provider to achieve even higher levels of satisfaction and retention rates from customers who received excellent recoveries than those who have not

experienced any problems (Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002; McCollough, 2000; McCollough & Bharadwaj, 1992; Michel, 2001). This phenomenon is described as the “service recovery paradox” (McCollough & Bharadwaj, 1992; Smith & Bolton, 1998). Good and effective service recovery prevents customer switching from the current service provider to another; thus, it is believed to be important to switching barriers (Colgate & Lang, 2001; Yanamandram & White, 2006).

In summary, this overview shows that both positive and negative switching barriers and their significant roles in retaining customers have been considered extensively. As shown in Table 2.2, factors inhibiting switching, particularly switching barriers in the restaurant industry, have not received much attention. Although Keaveney’s (1995) study improved understanding of switching behaviors in the service industry, including the restaurant sector, comprehensively explaining consumer behaviors across 25 different services together, his study ignored the possible differences among various types of service consumers. In addition, his study focused on influences on customers’ service switching behaviors rather than investigating barriers to prevent customer switching. While the importance of the roles of switching barriers in explaining consumer behaviors has been emphasized in numerous fields, and it is evident that the nature of switching barriers varies in different industries (Fornell, 1992), there has been virtually no work on switching barriers in the restaurant industry. Thus, this study identifies existing positive/negative switching barriers and examines their roles in a restaurant sector.

Moderating Effect of Switching Barriers

The strong focus on customer satisfaction in the literature is based on the implicit assumption that customer satisfaction and repurchase behavior have a strong positive relationship (Homburg & Giering, 2001). However, the existence of this relationship has been questioned by many researchers (Jones & Sasser, 1995; Reichheld, 1996). Although the notion about less satisfied customers being more likely to leave a current provider is generally believed in the literature, numerous recent studies indicate that dissatisfied customers do not always switch to another service provider, since switching barriers act as significant constraints to switching (Jones et al., 2000; Jones & Sasser, 1995). Specifically, these studies showed that the strength of the satisfaction and repurchase behavior link depend on these inhibiting factors of

switching. In the following section, the previous studies on the moderating effect of switching barriers (i.e., positive and negative) were reviewed.

During the past decade, numerous researchers have investigated the moderating role of switching barriers (i.e., positive and negative) in determining customer post-purchase behaviors (Anderson & Narus, 1990; Jones et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2001; Patterson, 2004; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003; Urbany, 1986). Lee et al. (2001) found that for the mobile phone sector, high switching barriers significantly moderated the customer satisfaction-customer retention relationship. Their study suggested that dissatisfied customers who perceived high switching barriers will not switch due to the perceptions that switching costs outweigh switching benefits. In this case, dissatisfied customers can be falsely regarded as loyal customers (Lee et al., 2001). This is consistent with Jackson's (1985) finding that when switching costs are high, dissatisfied customers are likely to remain with the current service provider and they feel trapped in the relationship with the service provider. Ranaweera and Prabhu's (2003) findings indicated that for a given level of customer satisfaction, the higher the level of perceived switching barriers, the higher the customer retention. Additionally, in a service industry setting (i.e., banking services and hairstyling/barber services), Jones et al. (2000) empirically verified that the relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions is often diminished by the effect of high perceived switching costs. In their study, it was also found that the satisfaction and repurchase intention relationship is contingent on the level of the alternatives' attractiveness. The association between satisfaction and repurchase intention diminishes as the perceived number of acceptable organizations from which to choose decreases (low attractiveness of alternatives). This result was consistent with Anderson and Narus's (1990) findings that customers tend to keep an existing relationship with a service provider although they are not satisfied due to a lack of alternatives or superior competition in the marketplace (Anderson & Narus, 1990). When customers perceive switching costs to be high or alternatives to be less attractive, the association between customer satisfaction and repurchase intention is weaker (Jones et al., 1998). In other words, customers have a high likelihood of repurchasing due to the high costs of changing their current service provider or a lack of comparable/superior alternatives. Jones et al.'s (2000) findings further showed that the effect of interpersonal relationships on the link between customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions needs to be revisited. Specifically, the relationship between satisfaction and repurchase intention was weak when there were strong

interpersonal relationships. Alternatively, the association was strong in situations with low interpersonal relationships. In other words, customers may continue to purchase a particular service based on interpersonal bonds despite a low/moderate level of satisfaction. In three service sectors, Patterson (2004) investigated the moderating effect of switching barriers on the satisfaction and repeat purchase link. His findings showed that the relationship between customer satisfaction and repeat purchase intention was stronger under conditions of low switching barriers than under conditions of high switching barriers. In his study, setup costs, psychological costs, and relational benefits (e.g., special treatment and interpersonal bonds) were used to assess switching barriers. These studies all support the moderating effect of positive (e.g., relational benefits) and negative (e.g., switching costs and lack of alternatives' attractiveness) switching barriers in determining customer revisit intention.

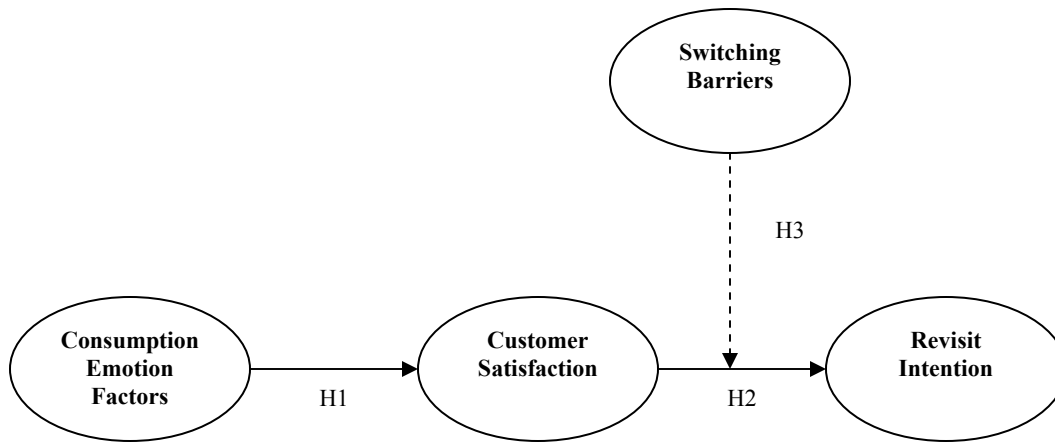
Several researchers found no significant moderating effects of negative switching barriers, specifically switching costs, and a lack of attractive alternatives (Holloway, 2003; Ruyter et al., 1998; Yang & Peterson, 2004). These conflicting results may be explained by the nature of the relationship between switching barriers and customer satisfaction (Balabanis et al., 2006). In particular, switching barriers are unlikely to be considered when customer satisfaction level is high. Customers tend to start considering switching barriers only when their satisfaction falls below a certain level (Jones et al., 2000). The intricate nature of this relationship between satisfaction and switching barriers may lead to inconsistent findings. Nevertheless, the main effects of switching barriers on the satisfaction and repurchase intention linkage have been empirically validated in a number of settings (Anderson & Narus, 1990; Jones et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2001; Patterson, 2004; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003; Urbany, 1986). Accordingly, it can be posited that both positive and negative switching barriers have a significant moderating role in the relationship between satisfaction and revisit intention in the restaurant industry. Specifically, the relationship will be weaker under the condition of high perceived switching barriers than under the condition of low perceived switching barriers.

H4: Switching barriers have a significant moderating role in the relationship between customer satisfaction and revisit intention. Specifically, the relationship will be stronger for low switching barrier group than for high switching barrier group.

Proposed Model

Figure 2.1 displays the proposed model. Consumption emotion factors are the exogenous variables, and customer satisfaction and revisit intention are endogenous variables. Switching barriers are the moderator variables for the study.

Figure 2.1. A Proposed model showing the hypothesized relationships



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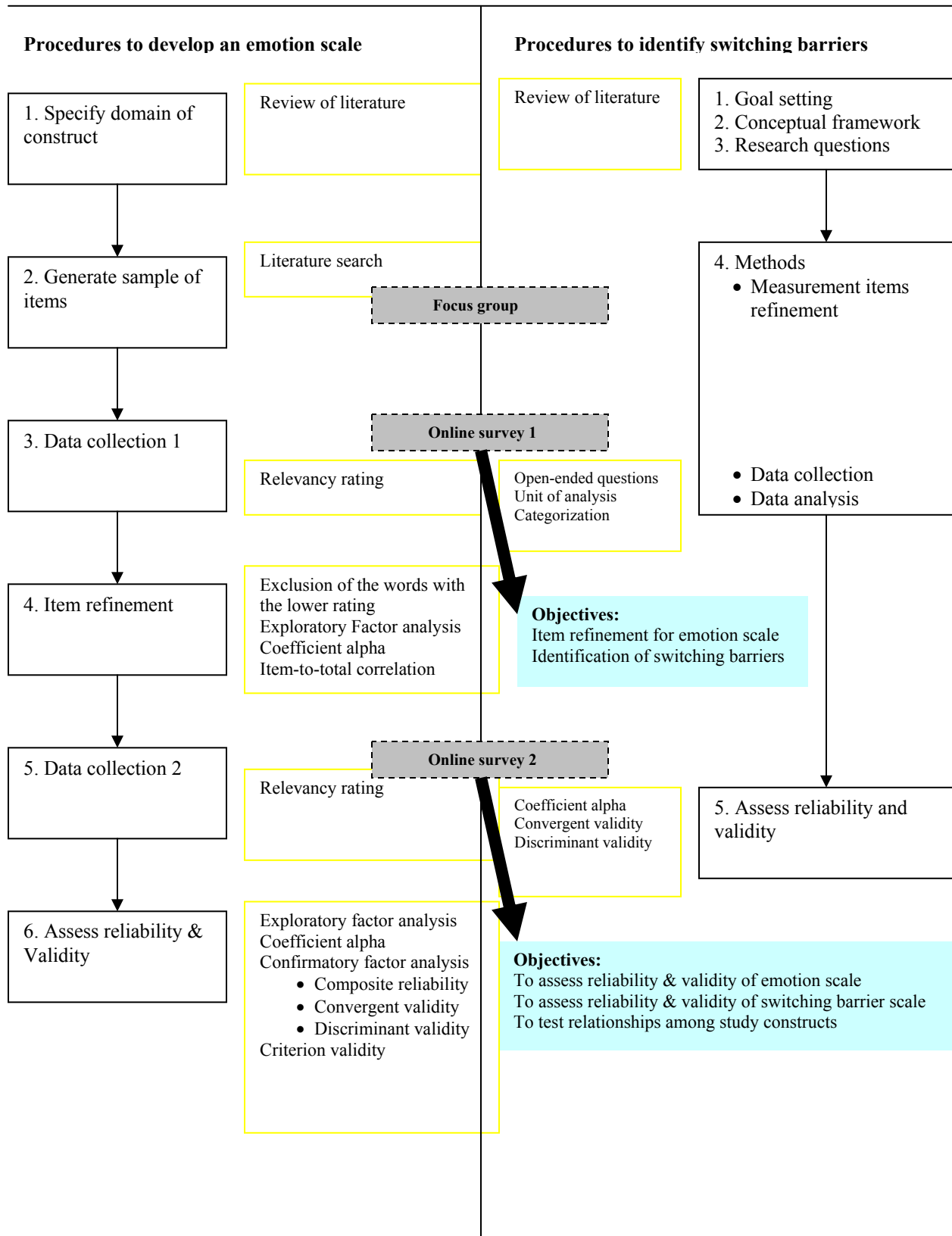
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CHAPTER 3 - METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the research design and the data analyses that were used to achieve the research objectives. The first section contains a description of the consumption emotion scale development process. The second section discusses the procedures used to identify switching barriers. The third section focuses on the measurement of variables. Descriptions of data collection and data analyses are then presented. The steps used to develop a consumption emotion scale and identify switching barriers are presented in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1. Procedures to develop a consumption emotion scale and to identify switching barriers



As shown in Figure 3.1, surveys were conducted twice to achieve the purposes of this study. The objectives of the first survey were for item refinement for the consumption emotion scale and for identification of switching barriers. The objectives of the second survey were to assess reliability and validity of the consumption emotion scale, to test reliability and validity of the switching barrier scale, and to test relationships among study variables. To achieve these objectives, the questionnaire for the second survey included questions for all study constructs.

Study 1. Consumption Emotion Scale Development

The emotion scale development process was based on Churchill's (1979), Gerbing and Anderson's (1988), and Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) guidelines, including confirmatory factor analysis and subsequent steps. The procedure used to develop a consumption emotion scale is summarized in Figure 3.1. Specifically, the following steps were followed:

Step 1: Specify Domain of Construct

The first step in the scale development involved specifying the domains of the construct, and a literature search as recommended by Churchill (1979). Emotional responses involve various affective reactions, such as a pleasant/unpleasant feeling, biological reaction (e.g., joy), and cognitive processing during the product/service usage (Ortony et al., 1988; Plutchik, 2000). Consistent with Ortony et al.'s (1988) criteria for emotions, it is inappropriate to include bodily states (e.g., sleepy), subjective evaluations (e.g., self-confident/stupid), behaviors (e.g., crying), and action tendency words (e.g., tempted) in the domain.

Step 2: Generate Sample of Items

The second step is item generation that captures the domain as specified, and a literature search and focus group are adequate techniques (Churchill, 1979; Selltitz et al., 1976). Thus, a preliminary list of emotion measurement items (about 100 items) was generated based on the review of the consumption emotion literature, and the list was presented to a focus group for the purpose of removing unusable items, excluding ambiguous/redundant items, and drawing additional emotion items that are likely to be experienced by restaurant customers. The group included managers of full-service restaurants, faculty members, and graduate students in hospitality management.

Step 3: Data Collection 1

An on-line survey was conducted to reduce the set of emotion items and item refinement (see Figure 3.1 – online survey 1). A pool of 40 emotion items retained through the focus group was included on the questionnaire (Appendix B). Faculty members and graduate students in hospitality management who are familiar with the topic area were asked to evaluate the measurement items to ensure high content validity. Further, a pretest with faculty members and graduate students was conducted to refine the research instrument. This process ensured that the survey questionnaire was acceptable. Survey participants included members of two professional academic associations and staff at a Midwestern university. The survey was electronically distributed to 1,040 people. They were asked to evaluate emotions relevant to their experience.

Step 4: Item Refinement

The collected data was subjected to exploratory factor analysis, item-to-total correlation, and coefficient alpha for item refinement (Churchill, 1979). Consumption emotions items that had a low mean rating, that were similarly loaded in two or more factors, that had low item-total correlation values, and had low internal consistency were excluded from further analyses.

Step 5: Data Collection 2

A new sample of data was collected for additional testing, including reliability (i.e., coefficient alpha and composite reliability) and validity assessment (i.e., construct validity and criterion validity) (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Churchill, 1979; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988) (see Figure 3.1 – online survey 2). New data collection and additional testing with the new data are recommended in the scale development procedure because this process provides more evidence for improving measures (Churchill, 1979).

Therefore, a web-based survey using e-Rewards (2007) was employed to collect data for the second survey to improve the measure. Prior to the data collection, content adequacy was assessed through pretest and expert review. The survey was electronically distributed to 3,500 randomly selected U.S. customers from e-Rewards list. Emotion items retained were included on the questionnaire (Appendix D) and were evaluated using a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (not at all) to 7 (extremely). Participants were also asked to respond to other items (i.e., items for loyalty) included for criterion validity testing.

Step 6: Assess Reliability and Validity

Following Gerbing and Anderson's (1988) suggestion, confirmatory factor analysis using the maximum likelihood method was conducted to establish unidimensionality and to test reliability and construct validity. Unidimensionality was assessed by determining whether a set of indicators shares only a single underlying construct. Coefficient alpha and composite reliability tests were conducted to ensure the usefulness of the scale. In addition, construct validity was tested. To test convergent and discriminant validity, average variance extracted (AVE), which reflects the overall amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent construct (Hair et al., 1998), was used. The final step of the scale development procedure was to examine whether the measure acted as expected in relation to other constructs (Churchill, 1979). As suggested by Churchill (1979), a criterion validity test was conducted to assess the ability of the developed measure to predict a certain construct that it should theoretically predict.

Study 2. Investigation of the Relationships Among Study Variables

Procedure to Identify Switching Barriers

A qualitative approach was used to identify restaurant customers' perceived switching barriers. Research methods and procedures followed Maxwell's (2005) recommended guidelines for qualitative research. Specifically, a total of five steps, including data collection, data analysis, and quality judgment, were used to identify switching barriers that restaurant customers frequently perceive (see Figure 3.1). The second section of the first survey questionnaire included open-ended questions to identify switching barriers developed based on the literature review and refined through the focus group (see Figure 3.1 – online survey 1). That is, the first data collection was to reduce and refine the set of emotion items and to identify restaurant customers' perceived switching barriers.

The survey was initiated with a brief and broadly stated explanation of the study. Following Yanamandram and White's (2006) approach, respondents were asked to indicate a full-service restaurant that they chose to revisit even if they were not fully satisfied on a previous visit. They were asked to answer the questions about this specific restaurant. Respondents also were asked to tell stories about their reasons for revisiting the restaurant (e.g., "Please tell us the

reason why you revisited the restaurant although you were not fully satisfied on a previous visit”).

The data collected through the open-ended survey was analyzed using unit of analysis and categorization. The first step in the data analysis was to determine the appropriate unit of analysis because respondents’ answers to the open-ended questions can refer to either overall stories or to discrete behaviors contained within the story. Two judges (i.e., two authors of this study) independently coded the responses. For example, if a participant stated, “I have a gift card, so I need to use it in this restaurant” when answering an open-ended question, it was coded as “gift card”. That is, “gift card” worked as a barrier to switch. Upon completing the unit of analysis coding task, the judges compared their decisions regarding the coding of each response, and resolved disagreements by discussion. The next step was to sort the units into categories (including subcategories if necessary). The essence of categorization is to identify a unit of data (e.g., a passage of text of any length) as belonging to, representing, or being an example of some more general phenomenon. Qualitative researchers usually define each sentence as a unit of analysis, and then categorize it into several predefined categories (Bergadaa, 1990; Spiggle, 1994). The judges independently developed categories based on the result of the unit of analysis and literature, and categorized the units. This procedure provided the categories of switching barriers that restaurant customers possibly perceive. Reliability and validity of the measurement scale developed through a qualitative approach were assessed using a quantitative method (see Figure 3.1 – online survey 2). A second survey questionnaire included questions for switching barriers (Appendix D). The questions were developed based on the previous literature and the participants’ description in the open-ended questions. The refinement of the questionnaire was made through hospitality academics’ review and pretest. Multi-items and a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1, “strongly disagree” to 7, “strongly agree” were used to measure switching barriers. Coefficient alpha was assessed to test reliability, and convergent and discriminant validity were tested using confirmatory factor analysis with the collected data. This procedure assured the adequateness of the developed measure for switching barriers.

Instrument

The second survey had three specific objectives (see Figure 3.1 – online survey 2). The first objective was to assess reliability and validity of consumption emotion scale; the second

objective was to test reliability and validity of switching barrier scale; and the last objective was to test relationships among study variables. To obtain these three objectives, the questionnaire for the second survey included three parts (Appendix D). The first part contained consumption emotion items. The second part consisted of satisfaction, perceived switching barrier, and revisit intention measures. In the last section participants provided demographic data (i.e., gender, age, ethnic background, and household income). As stated earlier, the questionnaire included questions about consumption emotions and switching barrier measurements identified through the scale development process. Customer satisfaction items were adapted from Oliver (1980) and Oliver and Swan (1989). Three items using seven-point Likert-type scale for customer satisfaction (e.g., “Overall, I am satisfied with my experience at this restaurant”) measured customer satisfaction. Customer loyalty was evaluated by assessing the respondents’ willingness to revisit and to recommend the restaurant to others. Revisit and recommendation intention measurements were adapted from Maxham and Netemeyer’s (2002) and Blodgett et al. (1997) and Zeithaml et al.’s (1996) scale. A 7-point Likert-type scale using six items measured revisit intention (e.g., “I would dine out at this restaurant in the future”) and recommendation intention (e.g., “I will recommend this restaurant to my friends and others”).

Data

The second web based survey provided the data for testing relationships among study constructs. The questionnaire for the second survey included measures for all study constructs (Appendix D). That is, the second data collection was to improve the consumption emotion measure, to assess reliability and validity of switching barriers scale, and to test relationships among consumption emotions, customer satisfaction, switching barriers, and revisit intention.

Data Analysis for Study Two

For the second study, the collected data was analyzed using SPSS for Window 11.0 and AMOS 5. Following Anderson and Gerbing’s (1988) two-step approach, a measurement model was estimated before the structural model. Confirmatory factor analysis including all study variables was first conducted to assess the measurement model and to test data quality including reliability and construct validity checks. In addition, prior to examining the structural model, modeling comparisons were conducted. The proposed full mediating model was compared to the nested model (partial mediating model). The direct paths from consumption emotion factors to

revisit intention were added because numerous researchers in marketing had verified the direct relationship between consumption emotions and revisit intention (Mano & Oliver, 1993; Oliver, 1993; Westbrook, 1987). The model that has a better fit with the data was retained for further analyses. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used to test hypothesized relationships among consumption emotions, customer satisfaction, and revisit intention. For more rigorous mediation analysis, the mediating role of customer satisfaction in the relationship between each consumption emotion factor and revisit intention was assessed. Following Baron and Kenny's (1986) guideline, a series of modeling comparisons between the original model and nested models was conducted. The hypothesized moderating role of perceived positive/negative switching barriers in determining revisit intention was assessed by using a series of modeling tests for metric invariance. The respondents were divided into low and high switching barrier groups (e.g., low vs. high switching costs groups; low vs. high relational investment groups) based on the responses to switching barriers. K-means cluster analysis was used to group each switching barrier. A confirmatory factor analysis was performed in the form of multiple sample analysis (nonrestricted model). Before comparing key paths across groups, the equality of the factor loading between the two groups was assessed (full metric invariance). The significance of the chi-square difference between the nonrestricted model and the full metric invariance model was assessed. The next step was to ensure the equality of path coefficients. The significance of the chi-square difference between the full metric invariance model and the coefficients invariance model was tested. This test showed whether each perceived switching barrier has a moderating effect on the relationship between customer satisfaction and revisit intention.

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CHAPTER 4 - A CONSUMPTION EMOTION MEASUREMENT DEVELOPMENT: A FULL-SERVICE RESTAURANT SETTING

Abstract

This paper contains a description of the development of a consumption emotion scale for the full-service restaurant industry. The current emotion measures used in consumer/marketing research are reviewed, along with conceptualization of consumption emotions. The adequacy of employing categorical approach in assessing restaurant customers' emotional responses is discussed. Moreover, the appropriate procedure of a scale development is described. Based on quantitative analyses, a multi-item scale that involves four dimensions of consumption emotions (excitement, comfort, annoyance, and romance) was produced. Further analyses provided strong evidence of the scale's unidimensionality, reliability, and validity. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed with study limitations and recommendations for future research.

Key words: Consumption Emotions, Scale Development, Excitement, Comfort, Annoyance, Romance, Full-Service Restaurant.

Introduction

While the traditional approach to explaining consumer behaviors, including the decision-making process, was generally based on cognitive processes (e.g., Bettman, 1979; Engel, Kollat, & Blackwell, 1968; Howard & Sheth, 1969), increasing acknowledgment is being accorded to the notion that customer emotions play a major role in customer purchasing and evaluation/decision making processes (e.g., Liljander & Strandvik, 1997; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Oliver, 1993, 1997; Smith & Bolton, 2002; Westbrook, 1987; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Over the recent two decades, a growing number of conceptual and empirical studies of emotion have indicated that satisfaction judgments and post-purchase processes are primarily influenced by consumers' emotional experiences (Barsky & Nash, 2002; Liljander & Strandvik, 1997; Mano & Oliver, 1993, 1997; Smith & Bolton, 2002; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Specifically, their findings showed that emotions play a significant role in the selection of a service provider, evaluation of service/product, return intent, loyalty enhancement, word-of-mouth generation, and overall assessment of the service organization (Barsky & Nash, 2002; Han & Back, 2007; Liljander & Strandvik, 1997; Oliver, 1997; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Mattila & Enz, 2002; Phillips, 1999; Westbrook, 1987; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Accordingly, researchers and practitioners are spending more time on the quest to understand customers' emotional experiences and their role in the decision-making process.

However, in these previous studies, researchers applied the framework of emotions developed by psychologists to understand consumer emotional experiences when consuming a product/service and their behaviors. Moreover, while much of the previous research has focused on identifying dominant dimensions of emotion responses and proposing an emotion scale that appropriately captures individuals' emotional states (e.g., Edell & Burke, 1987; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Izard, 1977; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Oh, 2005; Plutchik & Kellerman, 1974; Plutchik, 1980; Richins, 1997), these emotion measures are only suitable in the contexts for which they were proposed and developed. Specifically, the existing emotion measures contain the following issues for the use in a restaurant consumption situation:

- A thorough scale development process has not been adequately applied to the generation of existing emotion scales (Plutchik, 2003). In particular, the part of these measures'

validity remains uncertain since their reliability and validity have rarely been empirically tested in a consumption context.

- These measures may not be suitable in studies of customer behavior. Consumer behavior research requires more information about the nature of emotions in the consumption situation and more appropriate ways to measure them (Richins, 1997).
- Existing measures may not be adequate to assess restaurant customers' emotional experiences due to the tangible and intangible characteristics of restaurant services. For example, many emotion descriptors in previous studies are unlikely experienced in a restaurant consumption situation (e.g., guilty or offended).
- Finally, the multiple dimensions of emotions, rather than simple positive and negative emotions, should be considered to precisely assess more complex emotional experiences (Dube & Menon, 1998; Westbrook & Olivier, 1991).

Overall, researchers and practitioners in the restaurant industry need more information about restaurant consumption emotions and an adequate scale to assess customers' emotional experiences in order to better understand restaurant customer behaviors. This study attempted to fill this gap by addressing two specific objectives. The first objective was to develop a multi-item scale that measures customers' emotional experiences and that has desirable reliability and validity. The second was to identify underlying dimensions of consumption emotions in the full-service restaurant industry. The scale development process in this study used Churchill's (1979) guidelines at the early stage and Gerbing and Anderson (1988) and Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) procedures for the assessment of the unidimensionality of a set of scales and subsequent tests during the later stage.

Review of Literature

Conceptualization of Consumption Emotion

While emotional aspects of consumption experiences frequently occur in various consumption situations (Holbrook, 1986), relatively little empirical work has examined the characteristics of these emotional responses/experiences. Consumption emotions can be described as the affective/emotional responses generated based on consumption (Phillips, 1999)

and the set of emotional responses elicited specifically during product usage or consumption experiences (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986). These consumption emotions can be distinguished from other emotions that individuals experience in everyday life. Phillips (1999) indicated that compared to other emotions, consumption emotions are less intense. For example, “the positive emotion that a parent has when a child takes his or her first steps (e.g., joy) is much more intense than the positive emotion a consumer may have when trying a new CD player (e.g., happiness)” (p. 22). He also pointed out that consumption emotions can be differentiated from other kinds of emotions in terms of characteristics. Specifically, the range of possible consumption emotions is more specific and narrower than the range of all possible emotional responses because consumption emotions are generated as a result of specific consumption and are likely directed at the specific consumption experience or the product/service. However, consumption emotions still share characteristics with other types of emotions because customers simultaneously experience several emotions (e.g., fear and excitement) at the same time (Phillips, 1999).

Since mood states are a significant set of affective factors and a subcategory of feeling/emotional states, and are particularly pertinent to the service industry (influencing consumer behaviors in many contexts) (Gardner, 1985; Westbrook, 1980), the terms, moods and consumption emotions are often used indistinguishably. However, consumption emotions should be distinguished from the related affective phenomenon of mood (Gardner, 1985) because mood refers to feeling states that are quite transient and easily, but greatly, influenced by little things such as small aspects of the marketer’s behavior (e.g., a salesperson’s smile) (Gardner, 1985; Isen et al., 1985). In other words, these mood states are generally different from other affective factors that are relatively stable and long-lasting (Westbrook, 1980). Consumption emotions are usually described as being less transient and having more intensity, psychological urgency, motivational potency, and situational specificity than mood (Clark & Isen, 1982; Oliver, 1997; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991).

Consumption emotion and affect also can be differentiated. Oliver (1997) described affect as “the feeling side of consciousness, as opposed to thinking, which taps the cognitive domain” (p. 294). In her definition, feeling involves pleasure/displeasure, liking/disliking, and happiness/sadness, and the psychological/visceral sensations brought on by the neural-hormonal bodily systems (e.g., ecstasy). This affect is less cognitively involved than emotional responses (Oliver, 1997). For example, surprise, an emotion, is a fleeting sense of the interruption of

ongoing thought (Izard, 1977). However, since emotional responses include various forms of affect, the distinctions between consumption emotion and affect have become unclear. For example, surprise, an emotion, is commonly described as an affective state and is included within a list of affects in numerous fields (Oliver, 1997). Specifically, lists of affects include consumption emotions, and lists of consumption emotions often include affect. Therefore, the terms, affect and emotion elicited during product usage or consumption experiences, are frequently used interchangeably.

(Insert Table 4.1)

Review of Existing Measures of Emotional Responses

A considerable number of studies in psychology and marketing have proposed measures of customer emotions (e.g., Edell & Burke, 1987; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Izard, 1977; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Oh, 2005; Plutchik, 1980; Plutchik & Kellerman, 1974; Richins, 1997). Table 4.1 represents a summary of the emotion measures proposed in previous research. Plutchik and Kellerman (1974) developed the Emotions Profile Index (EPI) based on evolutionary psychology. Evolutionary psychology includes the notion that emotions are forms of communication signal that have adaptive or survival value and the idea that certain basic/primary emotions may interact to produce the huge varieties seen in social encounters (Plutchik, 2003). The EPI provides measures of eight basic emotions first postulated by Plutchik (1958), namely fear, anger, joy, sadness, acceptance, disgust, surprise, and expectancy. The EPI, which is also called a forced-choice test, contains a total of 62 emotion descriptor pairs (e.g., quarrelsome or shy). It is based on the idea that all interpersonal personality/emotional traits can be conceptualized as resulting from the mixture of primary/basic emotions.

Plutchik (1980) built up eight basic emotions more fully using the evolutionary perspective. He developed the Plutchik Circumplex that includes eight basic emotions (i.e., fear, anger, joy, sadness, acceptance, disgust, surprise, and anticipation). While the first seven emotions were the same as the emotion components in the EPI, expectancy was replaced by anticipation. The Plutchik Circumplex also includes other emotions (e.g., love, submission, awe, disappointment, remorse, contempt, aggressiveness, and optimism) that result from the adjacent combinations of eight basic emotions and from once/twice-removed emotions. Specifically, the

adjacent categories of basic emotions (e.g., joy and acceptance) in the Circumplex produce another emotion, love, and the once-removed categories of basic emotions (e.g., joy and fear) produce a further emotion, guilt.

Based on identification of emotions that are universally experienced and identifiable in distinctive facial expressions, Izard (1977) proposed 10 fundamental/discrete emotions that coexist as separate responses available to individuals (i.e., interest, joy, anger, disgust, contempt, distress, fear, shame, guilt, and surprise). Izard's (1977) Differential Emotions Scale (DES) measures these 10 basic emotions. Izard (1977) further developed the DES-II, which contains 30 adjective items. This emotion measurement has been most frequently used by consumer researchers where each of the 10 fundamental emotions is measured by three adjectives.

Plutchik and Kellerman (1974), Plutchik (1980), and Izard (1977) attempted to order the universe of emotions by identifying a set of basic or fundamental emotions. While they insisted that more complex emotional states stem from the mixture of two or more basic emotions, emotional states (e.g., love, hate, envy, relief, pride, and other emotions individuals experience in their daily life) that can be identified through the use of the EPI or DES/DES-II have not been well clarified (Richins, 1997). In addition, many researchers pointed out the prevalence of emotions with negative nuance in Izard's (1977) scale and the need for a broader sampling of emotions (Laverie, Kleine, & Kleine, 1993; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Oliver, 1992). Further, based on an extensive review of the basic emotion literature, Ortony and Turner (1990) argued that "there is little agreement about how many emotions are basic, which emotions are basic, and why they are basic" (p. 315). For example, contempt, an emotion component of DES, is only considered as a basic emotion by Izard (1977) and Tomkins (1984), and anticipation (or expectancy) is only believed to be a basic emotion by Plutchik (1980) and Plutchik and Kellerman (1974) (Ortony & Turner, 1990). Because of these issues, the reliance on basic emotions and the validity of measures founded on the notion of basic emotions are debatable (Richins, 1997).

Meharabian and Russell (1974) developed the Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD) scale to measure emotional states. The PAD is composed of 18 semantic differential items, with six items representing each dimension. Pleasure (e.g., pleased-annoyed) is a positive affect state that is felt to be distinguishable from preference, liking, positive reinforcement, and approach avoidance. Arousal (e.g., aroused-unaroused) refers to a feeling state that varies along a single

dimension from sleep to frantic excitement. Finally, dominance (e.g., dominant-submissive) is based on the extent to which one feels unrestricted or free to act in a variety of ways. Three dimensions were considered to be independent of one another. The reduced set of items was used by Havlena and Holbrook (1986). They looked at how the PAD dimensions related to various consumption experiences by comparing PAD to another index of emotional response. The reduced set of the PAD is composed of 12 semantic differential items, and each dimension was represented by four items.

The PAD scale was initially developed to assess emotional reactions to one's environment or physical surrounding (e.g., artifacts and spatial layout) rather than to capture the entire domain of customers' emotional experiences. Thus, its reliance/validity in measuring emotional experiences associated with consumption activities can be uncertain (Richins, 1997). In addition, using the PAD, the existence of specific emotions, such as joy, anger, and fear, cannot be explicitly inferred.

Some studies have measured emotion responses to advertising (e.g., Edell & Burke, 1987; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Oh, 2005). Holbrook and Batra (1987) designed the Standardized Emotional Profile (SEP) to create a parsimonious scale of multi-item indices that can be used to assess emotional reactions to advertising stimuli, such as television and print ads. The SEP consists of three dimensions (pleasure, arousal, and domination), nine subdimensions, and 27 items. Each dimension is represented by three subdimensions. In their study, pleasure refers to feelings, such as joy, affection, gratitude, and pride; arousal involves interest, activation, surprise, and involvement; and domination reflects a sense of helplessness, sadness, fear, and distrust. Edell and Burke (1987) developed a scale about feelings toward ads. This scale is composed of three subdimensions, namely upbeat, warm, and negative feelings, and 65 items. Upbeat feelings include 32 items, warm feelings involve 13 items, and negative feelings contain 20 items. They also used a later version of the feelings toward ads that consists of three subdimensions and 52 items. Oh (2005) conducted a scale development to measure affective reaction to print ads. She found that the unipolar categories of warm, negative, upbeat, sensual, and dull feelings effectively represented affective reactions to print ads. This scale includes 14 items. While each of the four categories of the scale is represented by three items, the last category, dull feeling, is represented by two items.

These measures all showed an acceptable level of reliability and evidence of validity when used to assess responses to advertising. However, the relevance of these measurements to consumption-based emotions is questionable because emotional responses to ads are vicarious. That is, unlike consumption-based emotions, such emotional responses are not directly experienced (Richins, 1997). In addition, emotions elicited by print or television ads differ from consumption emotions in that the intensity of such emotions tends to be lower than that for consumption emotions (Aaker, Stayman, & Vezina, 1988). Further, consumption emotions have a narrower and more restricted range than emotions elicited by advertising because advertising generally induces the entire range of feelings available to consumers (Richins, 1997). Accordingly, these emotion measures are effective in assessing the underlying dimensions of the emotion states elicited by advertising rather than assessing the specific emotion states experienced during consumption.

Lacking suitable emotion measures for consumption situations, Richins (1997) identified a set of consumption emotion descriptors, the Consumption Emotions Set (CES), using six empirical studies that assessed the domain of consumption-related emotions. She proposed a few versions of the CES. The first version of the CES includes 16 identifiable clusters with 43 descriptors. The second version covers 16 identifiable clusters comprising 43 items as well as the category of other items not specified to an identifiable cluster. Nine more descriptors beyond those in the first two versions were included in the final version of the CES.

Comparing the usefulness of this descriptor set with the usefulness of other measures, such as DES, PAD, and Plutchik's (1980) scale, in assessing consumption emotions (e.g., DES, PAD, and Plutchik scale), Richins (1997) concluded that the Consumption Emotion Set (CES) better represented the range of emotions consumers most frequently experience in consumption situations. However, since CES was designed to aim for a relatively broad coverage of consumption states, it cannot be applied in certain contexts. For example, some items in CES (e.g., love, scared, afraid, panicky, sexy, and worried, etc.) are not usually experienced in a restaurant consumption situation. That is, it is quite improbable that restaurant consumption experiences will result in such extremes of emotional intensity. As another example, since a restaurant context involves various interpersonal relationships (e.g., customers to customers and customers to employees), some emotion states that are not included in the CES may be experienced during consumption. Richins (1997) also pointed out the limitation in the use of

CES in some contexts, suggesting the need to develop the set of emotion descriptors that better present emotional aspects of consumer behavior in these contexts.

In summary, while the study of consumption emotions has increased in scope, the appropriate way to measure emotional experiences in consumption situations still remains unresolved (Oh, 2005; Richins, 1997). Measures commonly used in previous research, such as EPI, the Plutchik measure, DES, PAD scale, SEP, the feelings toward ads, and CES, are inadequate for some research purposes, particularly restaurant consumer behavior research, because they may not properly represent numerous emotional aspects of restaurant consumer behavior. Also, many emotion descriptors in such measures are unlikely to be experienced in a restaurant consumption situation due to extremes of intensity. Therefore, it was apparent that a reliable and valid emotion scale is needed to measure the range of emotions most frequently experienced by restaurant customers.

Dimensionality (Categorical vs. Structural Dimension Approach)

Identifying the underlying dimensions/categories of a specific construct is essential for the development of a reliable and valid scale and for comprehending the nature of the construct. Many researchers have investigated the underlying dimensions/categories of various emotional reactions in numerous fields, recognizing the multidimensional nature of consumption emotions (e.g., Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Larsen & Diener, 1985; Mano, 1990; Meharian & Russell, 1974; Oliver, 1992; Westbrook, 1987). Identified dimensions/categories in these studies are quite varied. Typically, two types of approaches are used when discovering the dimensionality of consumption emotions, namely the categorical dimension approach and the structural dimension approach (Oh, 2005). Researchers who examine the emotional aspects of consumer behaviors take one of these two approaches to illustrate the structure of emotional experiences.

In the categorical dimension approach, several independent mono-polar categories of emotional responses exist (Oh, 2005). Using this approach, researchers have categorized the wide variety of individuals' emotional states into a small set (e.g., Izard, 1977; Mano, 1990; Oliver, 1992; Plutchik, 1984; Westbrook, 1987). For example, Izard's (1977) 10 basic emotion categories and Plutchik's (1984) eight primary emotion categories were treated as a separate dimension, although they still coexist. The relevance of these fundamental emotion categories in consumption situations have been supported in numerous consumer behavior studies (Holbrook

& Westbrook, 1990; Mano, 1990; Westbrook, 1987). Generally, in these studies, categories/dimensions of emotions are established by a factor analysis of a set of emotional variables (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991).

The structural dimension approach assumes that emotional states are related to one another in a systematic manner rather than independent of one another (Oh, 2005). The structural dimension approach is mostly characterized by a bipolar structure of measures (e.g., Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Larsen & Diener, 1985; Meharian & Russell, 1974). For instance, three dimensions of PAD paradigm involve the bipolar continuum of pleasure (e.g., pleased-annoyed), arousal (e.g., aroused-unaroused), and dominance (e.g., dominant-submissive). A two-dimensional approach that includes pleasantness and arousal dimensions was also proposed by Larsen and Diener (1985). Overall, based on the extensive review of the literature on related emotions, Oh (2005) and Plutchik (2003) concluded that the number of underlying categorical dimensions and structural dimensions differ from study to study.

While many researchers have supported the categorical approach, providing empirical evidence, they argued that the structural dimension approach does not capture the more complex patterns of emotional reactions in a specific consumption situation (Holbrook & Westbrook, 1990; Oh, 2005; Richins, 1997; Westbrook, 1987; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Specifically, since the structural dimension approach simplifies representation of various emotional states elicited during product usage or consumption experiences, it is not sufficient to assess the entire domain of consumption-based emotional reactions. For instance, an emotional reaction, such as anger about poor service in a restaurant, is both a highly unpleasant and aroused feeling state, and cannot be distinguished by the pleasantness and arousal dimensions. An empirical finding also supports the superior prediction ability of the categorical dimension measures in a consumption situation. Machleit and Eroglu (2000) empirically compared the three emotions measures (i.e., DES, Plutchik measure, and PAD) using redundancy coefficients from a canonical correlation analysis in the shopping context. Their findings showed that the DES and Plutchik measure (a categorical dimension measure) provided a more representative assessment of the emotional responses than PAD (a structural dimension measure), and that the broad range of emotions varied across different retail environments. Accordingly, in this study, the categorical dimension approach was used to represent the nature of emotional experiences in a restaurant consumption situation.

Many studies adopting the categorical dimension approach provided evidence of two independent unipolar dimensions of consumption-related emotions—positive and negative emotions (e.g., Abelson et al., 1982; Bradburn, 1969; Oliver, 1992; Westbrook, 1987). Abelson et al. (1982), in their examination of individuals' emotional experiences, indicated that the existence of two separate unipolar dimensions correspond to either positive or negative emotions. Westbrook (1987) examined consumer affective responses to consumption experiences and their relations to post-purchase behaviors. He found that emotional responses to post-purchase processes can be described by independent unipolar dimensions of positive and negative emotions.

However, some researchers argued that the diversity and nature of the consumption experience cannot be adequately assessed by using the summed positive and negative emotion measures (Dube & Menon, 2000; Machleit & Eroglu, 2000; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Moreover, in their investigation of patterns of emotional response to product experience, Westbrook and Oliver (1991) stated that while emotional experiences could be characterized by two separate dimensions in Westbrook's (1987) study, he adapted Izard's (1977) DES, which can be described as positive and negative subsets of basic emotions, for measuring emotional reactions. In other words, this insufficient measure may have worked as a constraint, reducing the observed dimensionality of emotion space in his study (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Further, in their empirical study, Machleit and Eroglu (2000) pointed out the inadequacy of constructing summary dimensions (positive and negative) in consumer research. Their study findings illustrated that while combining emotion types into summary factors (i.e., positive and negative factors) may simplify data analysis and reduce potential problems of multicollinearity among the emotion types, the summary dimensions cannot be an appropriate representation of emotional responses. Overall, uncovering the greater number of dimensions of consumption emotions than the simple positive/negative dimensions enables assessment of the complexity of emotional experiences in a consumption situation (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991) and helps us further comprehend the role of various types of consumption-induced emotions in explaining consumer behaviors, especially in the context of service consumption (Dube & Menon, 2000). In the present study, multi-dimensions of emotional responses were uncovered and used to wholly capture the diversity and nature of consumption experiences in a full-service restaurant.

Scale Development Procedure

Although Churchill's (1979) procedure is one of the most widely used and accepted scale development processes, many researchers have argued the need to incorporate confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and subsequent steps (i.e., composite reliability and construct validity) into the procedure (e.g., Bentler, 1985; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1984). Specifically, Gerbing and Anderson (1988) developed an updated paradigm by including CFA in the assessment of unidimensionality in a set of scales. In their study, unidimensionality referred to the existence of a single trait underlying a set of measures (Hattie, 1985). A most critical and basic assumption of measurement theory is that a set of items of the measurement instrument all assess one thing (Hattie, 1985). Conducting CFA is a necessary step in establishing unidimensionality and in testing other subsequent steps (i.e., composite reliability and construct validity) suggested by Gerbing and Anderson (1988). Using CFA complements traditional procedures (i.e., exploratory factor analysis (EFA), item-total correlation, and coefficient alpha), which present preliminary scales by providing an alternative measure of internal consistency and by assessing the external consistency of the scale items (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988). Churchill (1979) also indicated that although the application of EFA may be adequate during the early stages of research, using a factor analysis in a confirmatory fashion would be better in later stages of the scale development process. Accordingly, in this study, the emotion scale development process was based on Churchill (1979), Gerbing and Anderson (1988), and Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) guidelines, including CFA and subsequent steps. The procedure that was employed to develop a consumption emotion scale is summarized in Figure 4.1.

(Insert Figure 4.1)

Specify Domain of Construct

The first step in the scale development procedure involves specifying the domain of the construct (Churchill, 1979). Churchill (1979) indicated that when conceptually specifying the construct, a researcher should be exacting in describing what is included and excluded in the domain. A literature search is the recommended technique in this step (Churchill, 1979). As discussed in the literature review, researchers generally agree that consumption emotions refer to

the emotional (or affective) responses generated based on consumption and involves the set of emotional responses elicited specifically during consumption experiences (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986; Phillips, 1999). In this description of consumption emotions, emotional responses involve various affective reactions, such as a pleasant/unpleasant feeling, biological reaction (e.g., joy), and cognitive processing during the product/service usage (Ortony et al., 1988; Plutchik, 2000). Consistent with Ortony et al.'s (1988) criteria for emotions, it is inappropriate to include bodily states (e.g., sleepy), subjective evaluations (e.g., self-confident/stupid), behaviors (e.g., crying), and action tendency words (e.g., tempted) in the domain.

Generate Sample of Items

The second step is item generation, which captures the domain as specified (Churchill, 1979). Researchers indicated that literature search and use of focus groups are adequate techniques in this step (Churchill, 1979; Selltiz et al., 1976). As suggested by Churchill (1979), a preliminary list of emotion measurement items was generated based on the review of the consumption emotion literature (e.g., Barsky & Nash, 2002; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Izard, 1977; Mudie et al., 2003; Oh, 2005; Plutchik, 1980; Plutchik & Kellerman, 1974; Richins, 1997; Smith & Bolton, 2002; Shaver et al., 1987). A total of 94 emotion items were generated. The list of emotion items was presented to a focus group for the purpose of removing unusable items, excluding ambiguous/redundant items, and drawing additional emotion items that may be experienced by restaurant customers. A focus group can be used to advantage at this stage (Churchill, 1979; Selltiz et al., 1976) and the recommended size of the focus group is nine people (Krathwohl, 1998). The group was composed of managers of full-service restaurants, faculty members, and graduate students in hospitality management. A pool of 40 consumption emotion items was retained through this focus group.

Data Collection One

An on-line survey was conducted to reduce the set of emotion items and enable item refinement. A pool of 40 emotion items was included on the questionnaire. Before the survey was sent, faculty members in hospitality management who were familiar with the topic evaluated the measurement to ensure content validity, and a pretest with graduate students was conducted to refine the instrument. Survey participants included members of two professional academic

associations and staff at a Midwestern university. The survey was electronically distributed to 1,040 people. A brief description of the study was stated and survey participants were requested to write about a full-service restaurant that they had visited most recently. Afterward, they were asked to indicate how relevant 40 emotions were to their experiences with the restaurant they named, using a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 (not at all) to 7 (extremely).

A total of 164 people completed the questionnaire. The response rate was 15.77%. Among the respondents, female customers represented 64.60%. Their average age was 45.24 years old, and a majority of participants were Caucasian/White (84.50%) and Asian (11.20%). All participants reported having dined in a full-service restaurant within the last six months. Specifically, 87.80% reported their dining experience within the last two months.

Item Refinement

EFA, item-to-total correlation, and coefficient alpha for item refinement are suggested techniques at this stage (Churchill, 1979). The purpose of the item refinement step is to improve and purify the measurement scale by identifying/excluding ineffective items that cause confusion and that inadequately discriminate individuals' different positions on a measured construct (Churchill, 1979). First, a test for multivariate outliers was performed. Researchers agree that few unusual patterns of scores can cause a threat to validity/reliability of a scale, disproportionately influencing the results (Kang et al., 1996; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). Four extreme outliers (Mahalanobis' $D(40) > 73.40, p < .001$) were detected and excluded, leaving 160 cases for further analysis. Based on survey participants' responses, emotion items not relevant to the restaurant consumption situation were excluded to reduce the set of items. Specifically, consumption emotion items that had low mean ratings were eliminated (embarrassed, disgust, and offended). EFA was performed to eliminate items that did not discriminate discrete categories. Emotion items that were similarly loaded on two or more different factors were removed because such items do not adequately discriminate among different categories (envious and appreciated). The suggested way to test the internal consistency of each set of items and to assess the quality of the instrument is coefficient alpha (Churchill, 1979; Nunnally, 1978). Low alpha indicates that some items do not share equally in the common core. Churchill (1979) suggested that such items should be eliminated. Thus, a reliability test was conducted, and an emotion item that produces low internal consistency was

excluded (guilty). Item-to-total correlation for each set of items that represent a dimension within consumption emotions was examined. Items with a low item-total correlation value were producing error and unreliability (Churchill, 1979; Nunnally, 1978). Thus, consumption emotion items that had a lower item-to-total correlation value than .50 and that generated a sudden drop in the item-to-total correlation were eliminated (anxious and bored) (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003). A second EFA was conducted with the remaining 32 items to determine scale dimensions underlying the construct as a preliminary step. Table 4.2 shows the results of the second EFA. The values of the Bartlett Test of Sphericity (3825.91, $p < .00$) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (.94) indicated the adequateness of using factor analysis (George & Mallery, 2001; Hair et al., 1998). The second EFA using a principle component analysis identified four factors with Eigen-values greater than 1.0. An orthogonal rotation (Varimax) assisted in interpreting the factors. About 65.34% of the total variance was captured by these four factors. The first factor (excitement) explained 44.60% of the variance and included 14 items. A total of 10 items were loaded to the second factor (comfort) that explained 11.89% of the variance. The third factor (annoyance), containing items with a negative nuance, captured 5.36% of the variance. Finally, three items were loaded to the fourth factor (romance) which explained 3.50% of the variance. Coefficient Alphas for the four dimensions, ranged from .82 to .95 and were acceptable (Nunnally, 1978).

(Insert Table 4.2)

Data Collection Two

A desirable outcome occurs when the sets of measurement items produce a satisfactory level of coefficient alphas (Churchill, 1979). Once the acceptable reliability for each set of items is achieved, a new sample of data should be collected for additional testing, such as reliability with the new data (i.e., coefficient alpha and composite reliability) and validity assessment (i.e., construct validity and criterion validity) (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Churchill, 1979; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988). New data collection and additional testing with the new data are recommended during the scale development procedure because this process provides more evidence for improving measures (Churchill, 1979). Accordingly, a web-based survey was employed to collect data. Content adequacy was assessed through pretest and expert review.

The survey was electronically distributed to 3,500 randomly selected U.S. customers from e-Rewards (2007) list. The survey was initiated with a brief and broadly stated explanation of the study. Respondents were asked to indicate a full-service restaurant that they visited most recently, and to answer questions with respect to this specific restaurant. Emotion items retained from the previous stage were on the questionnaire. They were evaluated using a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (not at all) to 7 (extremely) (e.g., “indicate how relevant emotion descriptors are to your experience in this restaurant”). Participants were also asked to respond to other items (i.e., items for loyalty) included for criterion validity testing.

A total of 452 responses were collected, representing a response rate of 12.91%. Of these responses, 406 provided complete data on the emotion items. Five respondents indicated that they had not visited the restaurant on which they based their answers in the past six months. Since their experiences were not considered to be recent enough to reliably recall, their responses were removed. Finally, 401 responses were used in the data analysis. As Table 4.3 shows, 46.1% of the respondents were male and 53.9% were female. Their average age was 43.23 years old. Most of the respondents were Caucasian/White (69.3%) and college graduates (43.9%). While 42.3% of the survey participants indicated their household income was less than \$70,000, 57.6% earned more than \$70,000. About half of the respondents (56.9%) visited the restaurant they indicated within the last week; 91.8% described their most recent visit in the past month. In terms of frequency of visitation, 16.2% stated that it was their first visit and 21.7% visited the restaurant they indicated at least once a month.

(Insert Table 4.3)

Assess Reliability and Validity

Prior to analysis, tests for multivariate outliers were conducted. This test revealed six significant cases (Mahalanobis' $D(32) > 59.70, p < .001$). These cases were eliminated, leaving a final sample of 395 cases. EFA was conducted to ascertain whether there was homogeneity among the dimensions and their components underlying consumption emotions between the previous data and the new data. Consistent with the results of the first survey, the four dimensions were found in the new data. In addition, the categories explored from the new data had the same loaded pattern as the dimensions found in the first data. Four factors explained

72.08% of the total variance. This result provided the evidence needed to support the claim about the adequateness of the four dimensions underlying consumption emotions.

Following Gerbing and Anderson (1988) and Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) suggestion, CFA using the maximum likelihood method was conducted to establish unidimensionality and to test composite reliability and construct validity via AMOS 5. Unidimensionality was assessed. The items in each scale loaded highly on a single factor with minimal cross-loadings. As shown in Table 4.4, the standardized loadings for the items on the latent construct met the minimal criterion of .40 (Ford et al., 1986). In addition, the *t* value related to each of the loadings ranged from 12.60 to 41.87. These values exceeded the critical value of 3.29 for the significance level of .001, indicating that all variables were significantly associated with their specified constructs. The values of goodness-of-fit indices were acceptable. Specifically, the Chi-square value of the model ($\chi^2 = 1323.69$, $df = 451$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 2.94$) and other goodness-of-fit indices (RMSEA = 0.07; CFI = 0.98; NFI = 0.96) showed an excellent fit with the data. This evidence supported the unidimensionality of each scale.

Reliability was examined using coefficient alpha and composite reliability. Coefficient alpha and composite reliability ensure the usefulness of a scale after the establishment of an acceptable unidimensionality. The values of the coefficient alpha ranged from .90 to .96, exceeding the minimal acceptable level of .70 (Nunnally, 1978). The composite reliabilities of each of four constructs (i.e., excitement, comfort, annoyance, and romance) were .95, .96, .94, and .90, respectively. These values were greater than the minimum acceptable reliability of .60 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988).

(Insert Table 4.4)

Construct validity was assessed. Convergent and discriminant validity are considered subcategories of construct validity. While convergent validity involves the degree of agreement in measures of a specific construct, discriminant validity concerns the extent to which measures of distinct constructs differ (Churchill, 1979). To test convergent and discriminant validity, average variance extracted (AVE), which reflects the overall amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent construct (Hair et al., 1998), was used. Hair et al. (1998) asserted that higher AVE values occur when the indicators are truly representative of the latent construct and

suggested the AVE value .50 as the threshold for the convergent validity. As shown in Table 4.5, AVE values ranged from .56 to .75, exceeding the minimum criterion of .50. Thus, convergent validity was satisfied. Discriminant validity was assessed by comparing AVE with the squared correlation between two constructs. The results indicated that discriminant validity existed because the proportion of variance extracted in each construct exceeded the square of the coefficient representing its correlation with other constructs (see Table 4.5) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Figure 4.2 shows the CFA model. This model included four underlying latent factors of consumption emotions along with standardized loadings for the 32 items.

(Insert Table 4.5)

(Insert Figure 4.2)

The final step of the measurement development procedure is to examine whether the measure acts as expected in relation to other constructs (Churchill, 1979). As suggested, a criterion validity test was conducted to assess the ability of the developed measure to predict a certain construct that it should theoretically be able to predict. Empirical evidence in numerous previous studies has shown that consumption emotions have a significant influence on customer loyalty (Barsky & Nash, 2002; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Oliver, 1993; Ontes et al., 1997; Westbrook, 1987). A customer loyalty measure adapted from Taylor and Baker (1994) and Maxham and Netemeyer (2002) was included in the survey questionnaire. It was evaluated by assessing customer intentions to revisit and recommend the restaurant using four items and a 7-point Likert type scale. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to test the relationship among four dimensions of consumption emotions and loyalty. The results of the SEM showed a reasonable fit with the data ($\chi^2 = 2002.43$, $df = 581$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 3.447$, RMSEA = 0.08, CFI = 0.97, NFI = 0.95). Criterion validity was supported in that the relationships between each component of consumption emotions and loyalty were all significant. These four components accounted for 64% of variance in loyalty. Specifically, comfort was the most significant predictor of loyalty ($\gamma_{12} = .60$, $t = 12.07$) among three dimensions, followed by annoyance ($\gamma_{13} = -.51$, $t = -11.76$), excitement ($\gamma_{11} = .12$, $t = 3.44$), and romance ($\gamma_{14} = .08$, $t = 2.27$). These findings demonstrated that identifying categories of emotional responses is useful to better understanding the role of consumption emotions in forming restaurant customer loyalty.

Discussion

The objectives of this study were to develop a reliable and valid consumption emotion measure and to discover the dimensionality of consumption emotions in the restaurant industry. To achieve these objectives, this study followed Churchill's (1979) paradigm at the early stage and the confirmatory factor analytic approach suggested by Gerbing and Anderson (1988) and Anderson and Gerbing (1988) at a later stage. The scale development process started with a specification of the domain of construct, generation of 40 items, and data collection. The collected data were subjected to item refinement (i.e., outlier detection, descriptive and reliability analysis, and EFA). Four underlying dimensions of consumption emotions with 32 refined items were identified from the data. A new sample of data was collected for additional testing (i.e., reliability and validity). The results of CFA using the new data indicated that the finalized measure using the categorical dimension approach was unidimensional, reliable, and valid. In addition, the results of SEM supported the criterion validity, indicating that the finalized measure behaves as expected in relation to additional constructs.

This study has implications for both scholars and marketers in the full-service restaurant industry. First, since this study represents the first attempt to develop a reliable and valid emotion scale that assesses customers' emotional experiences in the restaurant industry, particularly for full-service restaurants, this measurement can possibly be used to explain downstream variables (e.g., service quality, price/value, satisfaction, relationship quality, word-of-mouth, repurchase, and attitudes). That is, the developed scale would act as a stimulus for additional research that develops more integrative theories in explaining restaurant customer behavior.

Second, this study enables proper assessment of more complex restaurant customers' emotional experiences by uncovering greater dimensions of emotions based on consumption. As Machleit and Eroglu (2000) indicated, using summed dimensions (positive and negative) may have advantages that include simplification of data analysis and reduction of potential problems related to multicollinearity among the emotion types. However, the variety and nature of the emotional experiences cannot be adequately explained by summed positive and negative emotions (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). The findings illustrated that multi-dimensions are

adequate to capture the range in the emotional responses in the restaurant industry. Therefore, for restaurant researchers/theorists, using the multi-dimensions of consumption emotion is strongly recommended when conducting research related to emotions. Yet, if it is requisite, they may should be careful to use the summary factors (positive and negative), and should test the adequacy of summary factors using exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. From practical perspectives, inducing customers' affective/emotional reactions is a good means of achieving a competitive advantage in deploying marketing strategies (Taylor, 2000). Mattila (2002) indicated that overall assessments of the service organization can be greatly influenced by a customer's emotional state. The uncovered multi-dimensions of consumption emotions may enable restaurant marketers to understand customers' emotional experiences more precisely in their operations and to develop more sophisticated marketing/service strategies that lead to favorable assessments of the restaurant firm and repurchase behaviors. For example, restaurant operators should enhance such restaurant attributes as food (e.g., presentation/tastiness of food, nutritious food, or menu item variety), service (e.g., friendly/helpful staff or efficient service), physical surroundings (e.g., adequate temperature, good appearance of the restaurant, excellent ambience condition, or cleanliness of the dining area), and convenience (e.g., parking convenience, little waiting time, or convenient reservation). These efforts would contribute to improving customers' favorable emotional factors (e.g., comfort or excitement) and diminishing annoyance states, thus enhancing dining experiences/satisfaction and ensuring repeat patronage.

Third, there is little evidence that consumption emotions explain customer loyalty in the restaurant industry. These findings also indicated the significant relationships between identified emotion factors (i.e., comfort, annoyance, excitement, and romance) and customer loyalty. Customers' emotional responses are often influenced by whether the service provider meets minimum standards of courtesy/additional consideration (Price, Arnould, & Deibler, 1995). Therefore, recognizing the importance of customers' emotional experiences, managers and operators should pay close attention to characteristics of the service encounter and provide extra consideration for their customers to please them and meet their minimum expectations. These efforts may contribute to the generation of favorable emotional experiences, thereby increasing customer loyalty levels. Further, since service-staff's complementary responses would be appropriate for relieving customers' emotional anger/frustrated state (Menon & Dube, 2000) and facilitating their favorable emotional state, restaurant management may need to develop wait-

staff communication and response strategies. This will help a restaurant differentiate its services from others.

As with all research, the current study is not without limitations. First, the sample population was customers who have dined at a full-service restaurant. That is, the scale was developed based on their description of experiences in a full-service restaurant. While some emotion items not presented in the developed scale may be imperative in other segments of the restaurant industry (e.g., quick-service, fast-casual, cafeteria, or buffet), some items in the scale may be important in these types of restaurants. Thus, generalizing the findings to other segments of the restaurant industry should be done cautiously. In future research, it would be desirable to replicate the current research in different settings.

Second, in their description of full-service restaurants, Spears and Gregoire (2006) indicated that:

Full-service restaurants provide waited table service for customers. Guests are greeted and seated by a host/hostess and orders taken and delivered by waitstaff. Payment occurs after the meal is completed. A tip is typically given for the service provided by the waitstaff member. The style and ambiance of full-service restaurants varies greatly from casual to fine dining (p. 13).

In other words, the scope of the full-service restaurant involves a broad range of restaurants (e.g., casual, family, upscale, or fine dining). This study attempted to generate a scale that broadly but not exhaustively covered consumption emotional states in the full-service restaurant industry. Future research on the applicability of this scale to a specific segment of the full-service restaurant industry should revise this scale to ensure adequacy in the segment.

Third, two web-based surveys were employed in this study. About 65.9% of the respondents to the first survey and 91.8% to the second survey described their experiences within the last month. While Keaveney (1995) indicated that a six-month time frame is recent enough to reliably recall their service experiences, emotional responses are not always completely recallable (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). Thus, future studies should involve restaurant customers in actual consumption situations. This will contribute to achieving a higher external validity of the study results. Finally, further research is recommended for validation assessment of the

developed scale by continuously examining the scale's ability to explain other outcome variables, and to ensure the generalizability of the assessment of the identified dimensions with different samples and settings.

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Table 4.1. A Summary of the Emotion Measures in Previous Research

Authors	Terminology Used	Categories/Dimensions	No. of Descriptors (Subcategories)
Plutchik & Kellerman (1974)	Emotions Profile Index (EPI)	Fear Anger Joy Sadness Acceptance Disgust Surprise Expectancy	62 descriptor pairs
Meharabian & Russell (1974)	Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD)	Pleasure Arousal Dominance	18 semantic differential descriptors
Izard (1977)	Differential Emotions Scale (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 & Holbrook (1986)	Reduced set of the PAD	Pleasure Arousal Dominance	12 semantic differential descriptors
Edell & Burke (1987)	Feelings Toward Ads	Upbeat Warm Negative feeling	65 descriptors
Holbrook & Batra (1987)	Standardized Emotional Profile (SEP)	Pleasure Arousal Domination	27 descriptors (9 subcategories)
Richins (1997)	Consumption Emotion Set (CES)	Anger Discontent Worry Sadness Fear Shame Envy Loneliness Romantic love Love Peacefulness Contentment Optimism Joy Excitement Surprise	43 descriptors
Oh (2005)	Affective Reactions to Print Apparel Ads.	Warm Negative feeling Upbeat Sensual Bored	14 descriptors

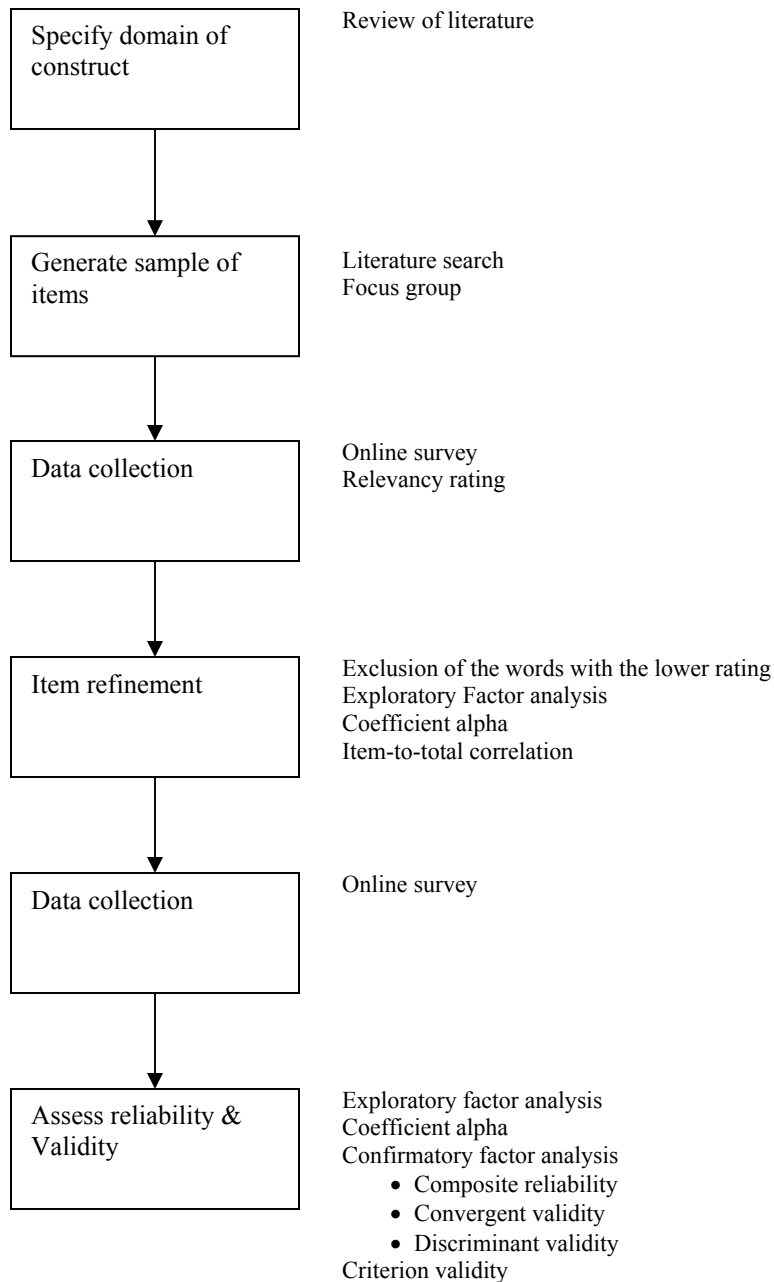


Figure 4.1. Procedure to Develop a Consumption Emotion Scale

Table 4.2. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

Emotion Factors (Coefficient Alphas)	Factor Loadings	% of Variance (Eigenvalues)	Total Item Means
F1: Excitement (.95)		44.60% (14.27)	3.34
Excited	.80		
Surprised	.77		
Amazed	.75		
Curious	.74		
Sophisticated	.73		
Interested	.73		
Hopeful	.69		
Thrilled	.68		
Grateful	.63		
Passionate	.63		
Entertained	.62		
Enthusiastic	.61		
Aroused	.52		
Pampered	.51		
F2: Comfort (.93)		11.89% (3.80)	4.91
Comfortable	.81		
Contented	.80		
Friendly	.79		
Relaxed	.76		
Pleased	.73		
Respected	.72		
Happy	.70		
Fulfilled	.67		
Warm	.60		
Secure	.55		
F3: Annoyance (.82)		5.36% (1.71)	1.75
Irritated	.85		
Frustrated	.83		
Disappointed	.75		
Anger	.68		
Skeptical	.61		
F4: Romance (.83)		3.50% (1.12)	2.65
Romantic	.78		
Love	.56		
Sentimental	.54		
		Total Variance Explained: 65.34%	

Table 4.3. Demographic Characteristics of Samples (N=401)

Characteristic	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	185	46.1
Female	216	53.9
Age		
20 – 29	72	18.0
30 – 39	102	25.4
40 – 49	93	23.2
50 – 59	70	17.5
Over 60	64	15.9
Ethnic background		
African American	42	10.6
Asian	11	2.8
Hispanic	56	14.1
Caucasian/White	275	69.3
Other	13	3.3
Household income		
Under \$24,999	24	6.4
\$25,000 - \$39,999	31	8.3
\$40,000 - \$54,999	38	10.2
\$55,000 - \$69,999	65	17.4
\$70,000 - \$84,999	49	13.1
\$85,000 - \$99,999	41	11.0
Over \$100,000	125	33.5
Education		
Less than high school degree	0	0
High school degree	13	3.3
Some college	92	23.4
College graduate	173	43.9
Graduate degree	116	29.4
Area of residence		
Northeast	84	21.1
Mid-Atlantic	20	5.0
Midwest	94	23.6
Southwest	45	11.3
Southeast	76	19.0
West	65	16.3
Other	15	3.7
Date to visit		
Within the last 1 week	228	56.9
Within the last 2 week	81	20.2
Within the last 1 month	59	14.7
Within the last 2 months	18	4.5
Within the last 3 – 4 months	9	2.2
Within the last 5 – 6 months	6	1.5
Frequency of visitation		
First-time visit	65	16.2
Less than once a month	154	38.4
Once a month	87	21.7
2 – 3 times a month	73	18.2
4 – 7 times a month	16	4.0
More than 8 times a month	6	1.5

Table 4.4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results (N=395)

Latent Variables (Coefficient Alphas) / Items	Standardized Loadings	t Value	Composite Reliability
Excitement (.95)			.95
Excited	.78	–	
Surprised	.62	12.74	
Amazed	.76	16.48	
Curious	.61	12.60	
Sophisticated	.73	15.58	
Interested	.81	17.67	
Hopeful	.68	14.22	
Thrilled	.88	19.67	
Grateful	.76	16.26	
Passionate	.84	18.53	
Entertained	.73	15.62	
Enthusiastic	.80	17.51	
Aroused	.71	14.96	
Pampered	.75	16.15	
Comfort (.96)			.96
Comfortable	.82	–	
Contented	.83	26.42	
Friendly	.89	22.64	
Relaxed	.81	19.50	
Pleased	.90	23.13	
Respected	.85	21.24	
Happy	.92	24.01	
Fulfilled	.86	21.76	
Warm	.84	20.62	
Secure	.74	17.10	
Annoyance (.94)			.94
Irritated	.93	–	
Frustrated	.98	41.87	
Disappointed	.89	30.56	
Anger	.79	22.61	
Skeptical	.70	18.08	
Romance (.90)			.90
Romantic	.86	–	
Love	.90	22.58	
Sentimental	.84	20.61	

Note. Goodness-of-fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 1323.69$, $df = 451$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 2.94$, RMSEA = 0.07; CFI = .98; NFI = .96

Table 4.5. Measure Correlations, the Squared Correlations, and AVE

Measure	Correlations Among Latent Constructs (Squared)^A				AVE
	Excitement	Comfort	Annoyance	Romance	
Excitement	1.00				.56
Comfort	.61(.37)	1.00			.72
Annoyance	-.21(.33)	-.58(.34)	1.00		.75
Romance	.59(.35)	.27(.07)	-.02(.00)	1.00	.75

a. Correlation coefficients are estimates from AMOS 5. All were significant at .001 level. Model measurement fit: $\chi^2 = 1323.69$ ($df = 451$, $p < .001$), RMSEA = 0.07, CFI = 0.98, NFI = 0.96

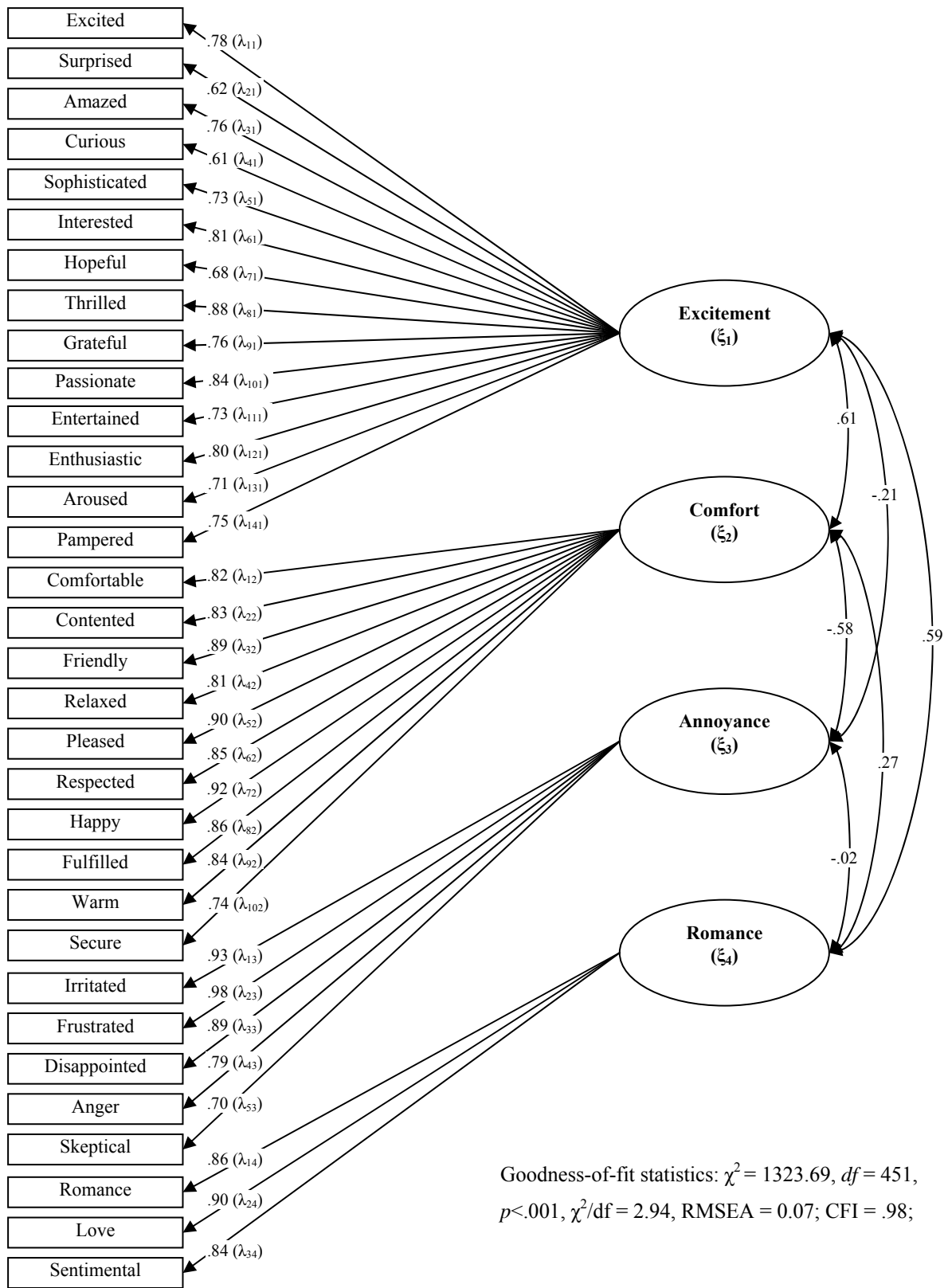


Figure 4.2. Standardized CFA Model Relating Four Dimensions of Consumption Emotions

CHAPTER 5 - FACTORS AFFECTING REVISIT INTENTION IN FULL-SERVICE RESTAURANTS: THE ROLE OF SWITCHING BARRIERS

Abstract

This study was designed to examine the relationships among consumption emotions, customer satisfaction, switching barriers, and revisit intention. Four positive and negative categories of switching barriers (preference, switching costs, relational investment, and lack of alternatives) were identified through a qualitative approach. Using structural equation analysis, the proposed relationships were tested in a full-service restaurant setting. The results showed that multi-components of consumption emotions significantly affected customer satisfaction; customer satisfaction had a significant impact on revisit intention; and satisfaction completely/partially mediated the effect of emotion factors on revisit intention. The findings from the tests for metric invariances also indicated that the strength of the relationship between satisfaction and revisit intention were different across high and low switching barrier groups. In particular, the satisfaction-revisit intention relationship was stronger in each low switching barrier group than in each high switching barrier group. Implications of the findings are discussed.

Key Words: Switching Barriers, Consumption Emotions, Customer Satisfaction, Revisit Intention, Full-Service Restaurant.

Introduction

For many years, researchers and practitioners have increasingly been concerned about customer retention and switching. Researchers have found that the total cost of bringing a new customer to the comparable level of profitability as the lost customer is approximately sixteen times greater (Lindgreen, Davis, Brodie, & Buchanan-Oliver, 2000), and customer switching has deleterious effects on organizations' market share, profitability, viability, and future revenue stream in today's competitive marketplace (Ganesh, Arnold, & Reynolds, 2000; Keaveney, 1995; Reichheld & Sasser, 1990; Rust, Zahorik, & Keiningham, 1995). Given this evidence and the situational facts in a mature restaurant market (e.g., competition is severe; product differentiation is low; and customers are sophisticated and demanding) (Mack, Mueller, Crotts, & Broderick, 2000), it is no surprise that a priority of restaurants is to retain customers by implementing customer loyalty/retention programs. Increasing customer retention by exploring and enhancing the influence of its major determinants may contribute to long-term success for restaurants.

Numerous researchers have investigated the influencing factors of customer retention. Researchers generally agree that major determinants of long-term consumer behavior are consumption emotion and satisfaction (Allen, Machleit, Kleine, & Notani, 2003; Allen, Machleit, & Kleine, 1992; Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Cronin & Taylor, 1992). Specifically, there is growing empirical evidence that customer's emotional states, based on consumption, impact their service evaluation and repeat patronage (e.g., Allen et al., 2003; Allen et al., 1992; Laverie, Kleine, & Kleine, 1993; Smith & Bolton, 2002), and that customer satisfaction is a powerful predictor of retention (e.g., Barsky, 1992; Dube, Renaghan, & Miller, 1994; Kivela, Inbakaran, & Reece, 1999). These studies stressed the significance of consumption emotion and satisfaction in explaining customer post-purchase behaviors.

The present study attempted to extend this literature with the following additions to existing work. First, to better understand which emotional attributes have the most influence on customer satisfaction and revisit intention, a multiple component perspective of emotions in the restaurant context was considered by using the emotion scale developed in chapter 4. While the two-dimension approach to explaining customer satisfaction and subsequent behaviors has predominated in marketing literature, mainly using the positive and negative subsets of basic emotions in the Izard (1977) typology (e.g., Westbrook, 1987), the multiple dimensions of

emotions have rarely been used to explain customer behaviors. In this study, a multiple component perspective of emotions was included to precisely assess more complex emotional experiences in restaurant consumption situations (Dube & Menon, 1998; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991).

Second, to understand the satisfaction and revisit intention relationship better, additional insight into the link was provided by examining the moderating effects of switching barriers on this relationship. The empirical and theoretical focus in explaining the customer retention process has been predominantly on customer satisfaction. That is, the strong focus on customer satisfaction is based on the implicit assumption that there is a strong positive relationship between customer satisfaction and behavioral intention (Homburg & Giering, 2001; Jones, Mothersbaugh, & Beatty, 2000). However, interestingly, the relationship between satisfaction and repurchase intention often shows considerable variability (Jones et al., 2000; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003), which indicates that the linkage between customer satisfaction and repurchase intention is not as simple as it may seem (Evanschitzky & Wunderlich, 2006). Such variability emphasizes the possibility that customer retention may be contingent on additional factors such as switching barriers, and the customer satisfaction and retention link may depend on switching barriers customers perceive in the context of service provision (Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003). Indeed, recent research indicated that the satisfaction and revisit intention linkage is dependent on the magnitude of present switching barriers (Jones et al., 2000; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003). Despite the important role of switching barriers in determining revisit intention, there is a lack of empirical/theoretical research addressing their effect on the formation of the revisit intention in the restaurant industry. In this study, the role of switching barriers was investigated to better understand the formation of restaurant customers' revisit intention.

Overall, the purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships among consumption emotion factors, customer satisfaction, switching barriers, and revisit intention in the full-service restaurant industry. The specific objectives of this study were to address the impact of consumption emotions on customer satisfaction and revisit intention, to investigate the mediating role of customer satisfaction in the relationship between consumption emotions and revisit intention, to identify switching barriers that restaurant customers possibly perceive, and to examine the moderating effect of the identified switching barriers on the relationship between customer satisfaction and revisit intention.

Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

Customer Satisfaction and Revisit Intention

Customers frequently develop an attitude about a provider based on their product/service experiences. Oliver (1997) described this attitude as a fairly stable like/dislike of the product/service. She indicated that this attitude is strongly related to the customers' intentions to repatronize the service/product and to use word-of-mouth behaviors. In this sense, Oliver (1997) defined behavioral intentions (i.e., repurchase and word-of-mouth intentions) as "a stated likelihood to engage in a behavior" (p. 28). Early studies considered repurchase/revisit intention to be at the heart of commitment or loyalty (Day 1969; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Jarvis & Wilcox, 1977). While it is true that repurchase/revisit intention is a critical part of such attitudinal/behavioral constructs, it should not only be characterized by a positive attitude toward a provider (e.g., commitment and loyalty) because customers often engage in repeat purchasing behaviors when there is no psychological bond (e.g., loyalty and commitment) (Guiltinan, 1989; Jones, 1998). Thus, in this study, revisit intention is described as an affirmed likelihood to revisit the restaurant in both the absence and presence of a positive attitude toward the provider.

Although the definitions of customer satisfaction vary in the literature, researchers generally agree that an essential element underlying customer satisfaction is an evaluation process (Back & Parks, 2003; Yi, 1990). Based on previous theoretical and empirical evidence, Day (1984) defined customer satisfaction as a post-choice evaluative judgment about a specific purchase selection. Bitner and Hubbert (1994) described customer satisfaction as an overall evaluation of performance based on prior experiences with a provider. Oliver (1980) stated that customer satisfaction results when customers experience a specific service and compare it with what was expected. Kotler (1991) defined customer satisfaction as the post-purchase evaluation of products or services given expectations before purchase. These conceptualizations imply that customer satisfaction is an overall judgment process of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectation and actual consumption experiences. Indeed, this evaluative process-oriented approach has been widely adapted by numerous researchers and is regarded as an effective way to measure the level of customer satisfaction (Oliver, 1997; Yi, 1990).

The overwhelming numbers of studies of customer satisfaction outcomes in the service industry indicate a positive relationship between customer satisfaction and repurchase intention

(Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Getty & Thompson, 1994; Kivela, Inbakaran, & Reece, 1999; Soderlund & Ohman, 2005; Zeithaml et al., 1996). A study conducted by Cronin and Taylor (1992) in service sectors, such as casual dining, banking, pest control, and dry cleaning, showed that customer satisfaction has a significant impact on repurchase intention. Anderson and Sullivan (1993) verified that a high level of customer satisfaction decreases the perceived benefits of service provider switching, thereby increasing customer repurchase intention. In addition, Getty and Thompson (1994), in investigating the relationship among service quality, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions, suggested that customer behavioral intentions to recommend and repurchase are positive functions of their perception of satisfaction and service quality. Soderlund and Ohman (2005) assessed the role of intentions as a link between satisfaction and repatronizing behavior in a restaurant setting, and found that customer satisfaction is significantly related to two specific intention constructs: intentions as expectations and intentions as wants. Further, in their empirical investigation of the link between dining satisfaction and post-dining behavioral intentions, Kivela et al. (1999) indicated that dining satisfaction significantly influences behavioral intentions. These studies all provide empirical evidence of a positive relationship between customer satisfaction and revisit intention in the restaurant industry. Satisfied customers are more likely to refuse competitive offers and repurchase the product or service from the current provider (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Zeithaml et al., 1996).

Consumption Emotions as Antecedents of Customer Satisfaction

Plutchik (1980), based on a critical review of emotion research, stated that little consistency exists among the definitions of emotion and that many were not explicit enough to provide an idea of what an emotion actually is. Among the various definitions of emotion, the conceptualization that appears to have received the greatest support is the view that emotion is “a valenced reaction to events, agents or objects, with their particular nature being determined by the way in which the eliciting situation is constructed” (Ortony, Clore, & Collins, 1988, p. 25). This definition focuses on the issue of interpretation of each event because the special nature of each emotion is determined by the way that each event is interpreted (Ortony et al., 1988). Unlike the definition of emotion, consumption emotions can be described as the affective/emotional responses generated specifically during product usage or consumption

experiences (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986). Consumption emotions have both similar and dissimilar characteristics to other emotions. In a dissimilar point of view, compared to other emotional responses, consumption emotions are less intense, more specific, and narrower in terms of characteristics because they are elicited as a result of specific product/service consumption (Phillips, 1999). In a similar point of view, consumers can experience several emotions at the same time (Phillips, 1999). For example, they can concurrently feel fear, excitement, or thrill when trying an amusement-park ride.

Many researchers have emphasized the significance of consumption emotions to satisfaction formation in numerous fields (Evrard & Aurier, 1994; Oliver, 1993; Westbrook, 1987). In an empirical approach, Westbrook (1987) explored the effect of emotions elicited in consumption on satisfaction, along with expectation and disconfirmation belief. He found that two distinct dimensions of emotions, positive and negative emotions, affect customer satisfaction with cable television. Oliver (1993) expanded the determinants of overall satisfaction by including attribute satisfaction/dissatisfaction and positive/negative affect as well as disconfirmation belief. The findings indicated that disconfirmation effect and the effect of distinct dimensions of positive/negative affect overall satisfaction with automobiles. Similarly, in their examination of dimensions of emotion and their relation to satisfaction with the consumption of three movies, Evrard and Aurier (1994) found that positive and negative emotions separately relate to satisfaction. These empirical studies extended the early cognitive-centered notion of satisfaction formation by incorporating affective components in customer satisfaction processes. Findings in these studies indicated the importance of two dimensions of consumption emotions as significant contributors to customer satisfaction.

There is growing consensus, however, that the various components of emotions determine their relationship with customer satisfaction in different ways (Dube & Menon, 2000; Han & Back, 2007; Liljander & Strandvik, 1997; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). These researchers argued that a comprehensive understanding of the experience of emotions by identifying greater dimensionality than simple positive and negative emotions is necessary to better comprehend the consumption emotions and satisfaction relationship. They also indicated that while two separate dimensional views of consumption emotions in satisfaction formation could be characterized in early studies, such studies adapted Izard's (1977) DES, which can be described as positive and negative subsets of basic emotions, for measuring emotional responses. In other words, this

insufficient measure may have worked as a restraint, reducing the observed dimensionality of consumption emotion space (Dube & Menon, 2000; Han & Back, 2007; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991).

Numerous studies in the consumer behavior literature support the adequacy of the multi-components approach to consumption emotions in illustrating satisfaction formation. Westbrook and Oliver (1991) investigated consumption emotion response patterns and their corresponding satisfaction evaluation. They identified various patterns of emotional experiences and found that satisfaction evaluation was correlated with these complex emotional experiences. For extended service transactions, Dube and Menon (2000) proposed that the multiple components of emotional experiences differently affect satisfaction. According to their explanation, a two-dimensional view of emotions in satisfaction formation would not sufficiently explain the relationship between emotions and satisfaction in various extended service transactions. Post-purchase satisfaction may be determined by the retrospective overall emotional responses as well as by the instant impact of in-process emotions on psychological and interpersonal antecedents of satisfaction in subsequent phases of the service process (Dube & Menon, 2000). In the lodging sector, Han and Back (2007) examined underlying dimensions of consumption emotions and their relationship with customer satisfaction. In their study, six of the seven dimensions identified were significantly associated with satisfaction, and several types of consumption emotions had different levels of effects on satisfaction. These studies with a multi-dimensional view verified the emotion-satisfaction relationship in greater detail than simple positive and negative emotions. This multi-dimensional approach to emotion in the satisfaction process enables precise assessment of complex emotional experiences in various consumption situations (Dube & Menon, 1998; Han & Back, 2007; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991) and helps us further understand the role of various types of consumption emotions in satisfaction formation, particularly in the context of service consumption (Dube & Menon, 2000). The diversity and complex nature of the consumption experience in illustrating satisfaction formation cannot be adequately assessed by combining emotions into separate positive and negative summary factors (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991).

Mediating Effect of Customer Satisfaction

Consumption-based emotions, which are antecedents of satisfaction, would likely influence intentions through customer satisfaction because overall satisfaction with a product/service experience is generally believed as a requisite for intentions to revisit, complain, and recommend. Indeed, some recent studies found the significant mediating role of customer satisfaction in the relationship between consumption emotions and behavioral intentions (Phillips, 1999; Han & Back, 2007). In his experimental study involving an alternative to the expectancy disconfirmation conceptualization, Phillips (1999) postulated and validated the mediating effect of satisfaction in the relationship between its antecedent variables (i.e., product performance, disconfirmation, and consumption emotion) and repurchase intention. Consistent with this finding, Han and Back (2007) verified the mediating effect of customer satisfaction. Specifically, in their empirical investigation of consumer behavior in the hospitality industry, they found emotional responses to consumption experiences influence on repeat visit intentions through customer satisfaction. These findings suggest that customer satisfaction mediates the relationship between emotions and revisit intention.

Moderating Effect of Switching Barriers

Some researchers focused mainly on the negative scope of switching barriers, stating that customers experience a sense of being locked into a relationship with a service provider due to the various costs associated with leaving the relationship (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Barnes, 1994; Bendapudi & Berry, 1997). In contrast, some researchers argued that factors such as relational benefits/investments and loyalty program benefits also act as inhibiting factors of switching, suggesting the need to consider the positive scope of switching barriers (Henning-Thurau et al., 2002; Jones et al., 2000; Vazquez-Carrasco & Foxall, 2006). In a broad manner, Colgate and Lang (2001) described that switching barriers explain why customers who have seriously considered leaving their current service provider, decide to stay. In a similar way, Jones et al. (2000) indicated that switching barriers are factors that make it more difficult/costly for customers to leave their current service provider. These descriptions imply that switching barriers can be seen as either positive (e.g., interpersonal relationships or relational investment) or negative (e.g., perceived switching costs or lack of alternatives' attractiveness) in nature. In line with Jones et al. (2000) and Colgate and Lang's (2001) broad perspective, switching barriers

in this study indicates both positive inhibiting factors, which provide an affirmative reason to remain, and negative inhibiting factors, which provide a passive reason to stay (Hirschman, 1970; Vazquez-Carrasco & Foxall, 2006).

The strong focus on customer satisfaction in the literature is based on the implicit assumption that customer satisfaction and repurchase behavior have a strong positive relationship (Homburg & Giering, 2001). However, the existence of this relationship has been questioned by many researchers (Jones & Sasser, 1995; Reichheld, 1996). Although the notion about less satisfied customers being more likely to leave a current provider is generally believed in the literature, current studies indicate that dissatisfied customers do not always switch to another service provider because switching barriers act as significant constraints to switching (Jones et al., 2000; Jones & Sasser, 1995). Specifically, these studies showed that the strength of the satisfaction and repurchase behavior link depend on these inhibiting factors of switching. In the following paragraphs, the previous studies on the moderating effect of switching barriers (i.e., positive and negative) are reviewed.

During the past decade, numerous researchers have investigated the moderating role of switching barriers in determining customer post-purchase behaviors (Anderson & Narus, 1990; Jones et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2001; Patterson, 2004; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003; Urbany, 1986). Lee et al. (2001) found that for the mobile phone sector, high switching barriers significantly moderated the customer satisfaction-customer retention relationship. Their study suggested that dissatisfied customers who perceived high switching barriers will not switch due to the perceptions that switching costs outweigh switching benefits. In this case, dissatisfied customers can be falsely regarded as loyal customers (Lee et al., 2001). This is consistent with Jackson's (1985) finding that when switching costs are high, dissatisfied customers are likely to remain with the current service provider and feel trapped in the relationship with the service provider. Ranaweera and Prabhu's (2003) findings indicated that for a given level of customer satisfaction, the higher the level of perceived switching barriers, the higher the customer retention. Additionally, in a service industry setting (i.e., banking services and hairstyling/barber services), Jones et al. (2000) empirically verified that the relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions is often diminished by the effect of high perceived switching costs. In their study, it was also found that the satisfaction and repurchase intention relationship is contingent on the level of the alternatives' attractiveness. The association between satisfaction and repurchase

intention diminishes as the perceived number of acceptable firms from which to choose decreases (low attractiveness of alternatives). This result was consistent with Anderson and Narus's (1990) findings that customers tend to keep an existing relationship with a service provider although they are not satisfied due to a lack of alternatives or superior competition in the marketplace (Anderson & Narus, 1990). When customers perceive switching costs to be high or alternatives to be less attractive, the association between customer satisfaction and repurchase intention is weaker (Jones et al., 1998). In other words, customers have a high likelihood of repurchasing due to the high costs of changing their current service provider or a lack of comparable/superior alternatives. Jones et al.'s (2000) findings further showed that the effect of interpersonal relationships on the link between customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions needs to be revisited. Specifically, the relationship between satisfaction and repurchase intention was weak when there were strong interpersonal relationships, and the association was strong in situations with weak interpersonal relationships. In other words, customers may continue to purchase a particular service based on interpersonal bonds despite a low/moderate level of satisfaction. In three service sectors, Patterson (2004) investigated the moderating effect of switching barriers on the satisfaction and repeat purchase link. His findings showed that the relationship between customer satisfaction and repeat purchase intention was stronger with low switching barriers than with high switching barriers. In his study, setup costs, psychological costs, and relational benefits (e.g., special treatment and interpersonal bonds) were used to assess switching barriers. These studies all support the moderating effect of positive (e.g., relational benefits) and negative (e.g., switching costs and lack of alternatives' attractiveness) switching barriers in determining customer revisit intention.

Several researchers found no significant moderating effects of negative switching barriers, specifically switching costs, and a lack of attractive alternatives (Holloway, 2003; Ruyter et al., 1998; Yang & Peterson, 2004). These conflicting results may be explained by the nature of the relationship between switching barriers and customer satisfaction (Balabanis et al., 2006). In particular, switching barriers are unlikely to be considered when customer satisfaction level is high. Customers tend to start considering switching barriers only when their satisfaction falls below a certain level (Jones et al., 2000). The intricate nature of this relationship between satisfaction and switching barriers may lead to inconsistent findings. Nevertheless, the main effects of switching barriers on the satisfaction and repurchase intention linkage have been

empirically validated in a number of settings (Anderson & Narus, 1990; Jones et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2001; Patterson, 2004; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003; Urbany, 1986). Accordingly, it can be posited that both positive and negative switching barriers have a significant moderating role in the relationship between satisfaction and revisit intention in the restaurant industry. Specifically, the relationship will be weaker under the condition of high perceived switching barriers than under the condition of low perceived switching barriers.

Hypotheses

Based on the above-mentioned theoretical relationships among study variables, this research proposed the following four hypotheses:

H1: Multi-components of consumption emotions uncovered in the first phase of this study are significantly associated with customer satisfaction.

H2: Customer satisfaction is significantly associated with revisit intention.

H3: Customer satisfaction has a significant mediating role in the relationship between each emotion factor and revisit intention.

H4: Switching barriers have a significant moderating role in the relationship between customer satisfaction and revisit intention. Specifically, the relationship will be stronger for the low switching barrier group than for the high switching barrier group.

Method

Qualitative Research Phase

While numerous studies have investigated inhibiting factors of customer switching decision in the marketing and consumer behavior literature, barriers, which reduce the likelihood of customer switching even when other factors (e.g., low perceived quality) encourage switching decisions, have not been well identified in the restaurant industry. Thus, a qualitative approach using open-ended questions was used to identify restaurant customers' perceived switching barriers. Research methods and procedures followed Maxwell's (2005) recommended guidelines for qualitative research. A focus group was conducted to refine the questionnaire. This group

included managers of full-service restaurants, faculty members and graduate students in hospitality management who were familiar with the topic area and who frequently dined at full-service restaurants. After the focus group, an online survey was conducted. Following Yanamandram and White's (2006) approach, respondents were asked to indicate a specific full-service restaurant that they chose to revisit even if they were not fully satisfied on a previous visit. Respondents were asked to describe their reasons for revisiting the restaurant, which helped them easily explain their reasons (Bitner et al., 1990; Keaveney, 1995; Nyquist & Booms, 1987). The questionnaires were electronically distributed to 1,040 randomly selected members of two professional academic organizations and staff at a Midwestern university. Of the 164 completed, 148 participants precisely described their experiences. Unit of analysis and categorization were used in data analysis because these techniques are believed to be adequate with open-ended questions (Bergadaa, 1990; Spiggle, 1994). Two judges (i.e., two authors of this study) independently coded the responses as an appropriate unit. Upon completing the unit of analysis coding task, the judges compared their coding about each response, and resolved disagreements through discussions. As a next step, the judges independently sorted the units into categories developed based on the result of the unit of analysis and literature review. This procedure provided four categories of switching barriers: preference (personal preference of food/menu/physical surroundings and family/friends/others' preference), switching costs (monetary and non-monetary costs), relational investment (confidence benefits, social/special treatment benefits, and reliable benefit programs/services), and lack of alternatives (lack of availability of alternatives and lack of alternatives' attractiveness). Supporting Jones et al. (2000) and Colgate and Lang's (2001) broad perspective, barriers in restaurants involved both positive and negative characteristics. Specifically, two (preference and relational investment) can be considered as positive barriers, and the others (switching costs and lack of alternatives) regarded as negative barriers. Again, disagreement between the judges was resolved through discussion. The value of Perreault and Leigh's (1989) coefficient ($I_r = .92$) was estimated by considering the observed proportion of agreement between judges and the total number of categories developed. This was greater than .90, which indicated a high level of interjudge reliability (Perreault & Leigh, 1989).

Measures

The questionnaire for the primary survey was comprised of three sections; the first contained consumption emotion items, the second consisted of satisfaction, switching barriers, and revisit intention measures, and in the third, participants were asked to provide demographic information. Multi-item scales were used to assess all variables to adequately capture the domain of constructs (Churchill, 1979; Nunnally, 1978). All constructs were measured using a 7-point Likert-type scale. The consumption emotion scale developed in Chapter four was used. Specifically, a list of 32 items for four dimensions (excitement, comfort, annoyance, and romance) was employed to assess restaurant customers' emotional experiences. A multi-item measure, comprised of all identified components of perceived switching barriers through the qualitative approach, was developed based on the literature (Burnham et al., 2003; Colgate & Lang, 2001; Gwinner et al., 1998; Jones et al., 2000; Yang & Peterson, 2004) and the participants' descriptions in the open-ended questions. The scale for customer satisfaction was adapted from Oliver (1980) and Oliver and Swan (1989). Finally, the revisit intention scale was based on Blodgett et al. (1997) and Maxham and Netemeyer (2002). The refinement of the questionnaire was made through hospitality academics' review and pretest.

Data Collection

An online survey was conducted to test the theoretical framework. The sample population was general U.S. restaurant customers. Of the 3,500 questionnaires electronically distributed by e-Rewards (2007), 406 complete responses were received. Recency bias theory indicates that more recent events (or memories) are easier to discriminate (Crowder, 1976). Thus, among them, 401 responses from participants who dined in a full-service restaurant within the last six months were only used in the data analysis. A valid response rate was 11.46%. While 53.9% of the respondents were female, 46.1% were male. Survey participants' average age was 43.23 years. Most of the respondents (56.9%) described their experiences at the restaurant they visited within the past week.

Data Analysis

The collected data were analyzed using SPSS for Windows 11.0 and AMOS 5. A two-step approach was used in this study. Thus, a measurement model was estimated before the structural model to test the internal and external consistency of the measures, and then the

structural model was used to assess the relationships among study constructs. The mediating role of customer satisfaction was tested by investigating indirect effect of consumption emotions on revisit intention. Finally, a test for metric invariances (i.e., measurement and structural invariances) was employed to examine the impact of switching barriers on the relationship between satisfaction and revisit intention.

Results

Data Screening

Before conducting data analysis, data screening determined if there were any violations of the assumptions for the general linear model. The results of the evaluation of assumptions using univariate tests of normality revealed that while deviations from normality for most of the variables were within acceptable limits, several variables had a significant negative skewness. These variables were transformed using the square root transformation that gave the best results. Tests for multivariate outliers found six significant cases (Mahalanobis' $D(55) > 93.14, p < .001$). These extreme cases were removed from further analyses.

Analysis for the Switching Barrier Measures

The reliability and validity of the four dimensions of switching barriers through the qualitative approach were assessed. Results of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) offered an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 323.81, df = 112, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 2.89, RMSEA = 0.07; CFI = 0.99; NFI = 0.98$), indicating the adequateness of a four-dimensional structure of switching barriers. Values of the Coefficient alpha ranged from .71 to .86, which exceeded Nunnally's (1978) recommended minimum level of .70. Convergent validity was established because VIF values for all constructs (individual/others preference = .53; switching costs = .55; relational investment = .52; lack of alternatives = .50) were greater or equal to .50 (Hair et al., 1998). All factor loadings, which ranged from .50 to .92, met the minimum criterion of .40 and were highly significant ($p < .001$) (Ford et al., 1986). Discriminant validity also was established because all AVE values were greater than the square of the correlations between the related constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). This procedure assured the four factor structures of switching barriers.

Measurement Model

As a next step, a measurement model including all study variables was estimated before the structural equation modeling (SEM) to evaluate the data quality (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The 17 items for switching barriers also were included at this stage to ascertain whether four switching barrier constructs were adequately discriminated from other study variables. Table 5.1 shows the results of CFA. All 55 items were loaded at least .50 on their assigned factors, and all loadings were statistically significant ($p < .01$). The coefficient alpha ranged from .71 for lack of alternatives to .98 for revisit intention, indicating the internal consistency of the items for each construct (Nunnally, 1978). All AVE values exceeded the suggested cutoff of .50, thus supporting the convergent validity. All proportions of variance extracted in each construct exceeded the squared correlation between two constructs, showing evidence of discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Examination of the correlation matrices revealed no presence of a multicollinearity problem. As Table 5.1 shows, all correlations among study constructs were below the problematic level of .80 (Hair et al., 1998).

(Insert Table 5.1)

Test of the Structural Model

The results for the SEM are summarized in Table 5.2. The overall fit was adequate ($\chi^2 = 2110.04$, $df = 653$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 3.23$, RMSEA = 0.075; CFI = .97; NFI = .96). Four consumption emotion factors explained about 65% of the total variance in customer satisfaction. Customer satisfaction explained more than half (51%) of the variance in revisit intention. Hypothesis one was tested. The relationship between excitement and customer satisfaction was significant ($\gamma_{11} = .13$, $t = 3.75$, $p < .01$). The effect of comfort on satisfaction was significant ($\gamma_{12} = .61$, $t = 15.21$, $p < .01$). Annoyance was negatively associated with customer satisfaction ($\gamma_{13} = -.51$, $t = -14.60$, $p < .01$). Further, the link between romance and satisfaction was positive and significant ($\gamma_{14} = .08$, $t = 2.43$, $p < .05$). Since these paths were all significant, hypothesis one was supported. These findings indicated that the four consumption emotion factors are important predictors of customer satisfaction.

The statistical difference between the strengths of the paths may not be sufficiently verified by simply comparing the standardized correlations coefficients or t-values.

Accordingly, the Fisher test, which is an intensive way to compare paths in terms of strength, was used to determine whether standardized coefficients (γ_{11} , γ_{12} , γ_{13} , and γ_{14}) have statistically different strengths. Two standardized correlation coefficients among four were compared using Fisher's Z transformation in sequence. The results indicated that the paths from comfort to satisfaction and from annoyance to satisfaction had a significantly different strength from the other two paths ($p < .01$). Further, the correlation coefficients and t -values for these paths ($\gamma_{12} = .61$, $t = 15.21$; $\gamma_{13} = -.51$, $t = -14.60$) were greater than the others ($\gamma_{11} = .13$, $t = 3.75$; $\gamma_{14} = .08$, $t = 2.43$). Accordingly, it can be concluded that comfort and annoyance were the two most significant predictors of customer satisfaction among the four consumption emotion factors. Two correlation coefficients (comfort \rightarrow satisfaction vs. annoyance \rightarrow satisfaction) revealed no significant differences in strength ($p > .05$).

Hypothesis two was tested. As expected, the regression path from satisfaction to revisit intention was significant ($\beta_{21} = .71$, $t = 17.58$, $p < .01$), supporting hypothesis two. This finding indicated that customer satisfaction is a positive function of the revisit intention.

The hypothesized mediating effect of customer satisfaction was tested by examining indirect effect of consumption emotion factors on revisit intention. The results showed that all consumption emotion factors significantly affected revisit intention through customer satisfaction ($\beta_{\text{Excitement-CS-RVI}} = .09$, $t = 3.67$, $p < .01$; $\beta_{\text{Comfort-CS-RVI}} = .43$, $t = 11.50$, $p < .01$; $\beta_{\text{Annoyance-CS-RVI}} = -.37$, $t = 11.23$, $p < .01$; $\beta_{\text{Romance-CS-RVI}} = .06$, $t = 2.40$, $p < .05$). These findings indicated that customer satisfaction has a significant mediating role in the relationship between consumption emotions and revisit intention, supporting hypothesis three.

(Insert Figure 5.1)

(Insert Table 5.2)

Empirical Testing of Hypothesized Moderating Effect of Switching Barriers

Grouping

To test the moderating role of switching barriers, the respondents were divided into high and low groups based on the responses to positive and negative switching barriers. K-means cluster analysis was used in grouping because the user can specify the number of clusters; this analysis is useful when the sample size is large (200 or more cases) (Hair et al., 1998; SPSS,

1999). The number of cases using the responses for each component of switching barriers was split into two groups in sequence. Specifically, the cases were divided into high (225 cases) and low preference groups (170 cases); high (138 cases) and low switching costs groups (257 cases); high (195 cases) and low relational investment groups (200 cases); and high (135 cases) and low lack of alternatives groups (260 cases).

(Insert Table 5.3)

Measurement Invariance

According to Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998), if the measurement model is not supported, findings from the structural invariance test are mistaken. Therefore, prior to the structural invariance test, measurement invariance was assessed to determine if a measurement models across groups were invariant. The general method of assessing measurement invariance is the chi-square difference test. The measurement models are invariant when the chi-square does not show a significant difference (Yoo, 2002). A non-restricted model using confirmatory factor analysis was first assessed, and then the equality of the factor loadings across groups (full metric invariance of the CFA model) was assessed. Table 5.3 shows the results of the measurement invariance. Since the chi-square differences between the non-restricted model and the full metric invariance model were not significant, the full metric invariances for preference groups ($\Delta\chi^2(31) = 45.99, p > .01$), switching costs groups ($\Delta\chi^2(31) = 37.48, p > .01$), and lack of alternatives groups ($\Delta\chi^2(31) = 43.60, p > .01$) were supported. These findings indicated that factor loadings across groups for preference, switching costs, and lack of alternatives were equivalent. Accordingly, the full metric invariance models were used in subsequent analyses. All non-restricted CFA models and full metric invariance models showed an excellent fit to the data (see Table 5.3). For relational investment groups, there was a significant chi-square difference between the non-restricted model and the full metric invariance model ($\Delta\chi^2(31) = 57.86, p < .01$), not supporting full metric invariance. This finding indicated that factor loadings between two high and low relational investment groups were not similar. Therefore, following Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998) and Yoo's (2002) recommended procedure, a partial metric invariance test was conducted. Based on modification indices and expected parameter changes, the invariance constraints across two groups were relaxed step by step. A partial metric invariance model with four items invariance constraints relaxed was supported ($\Delta\chi^2(27) = 43.75, p > .01$), and

used in further analyses. As Table 5.3 shows, both the non-restricted model and the partial metric invariance of the CFA model fit the data well.

(Insert Table 5.4)

Structural Invariance

As a next step, structural invariance was tested. The baseline models (full/partial metric invariance of structural models) were generated by running the entire structural models which were rooted in the full/partial metric invariance models. In addition, the constrained models (full path invariance models) in which all causal paths were fixed to be invariant across groups were generated (see Table 5.4). All models showed satisfactory fits. Tests for chi-square differences between the baseline models and the constrained models were conducted to ensure the equality of path coefficients (Yoo, 2002). The results showed that since the chi-square differences between the baseline models and the constrained models were all significant, full structural invariances were not supported for preference groups ($\Delta\chi^2(5) = 51.43, p < .01$), switching costs groups ($\Delta\chi^2(5) = 11.09, p < .05$), relational investment groups ($\Delta\chi^2(5) = 69.12, p < .01$), and lack of alternatives groups ($\Delta\chi^2(5) = 32.23, p < .01$). These findings indicated that paths across groups differed or at least some of the paths were not equivalent.

(Insert Table 5.5)

Invariance Test for the Path from Satisfaction and Revisit Intention

A more rigorous test was performed to assess the invariance of a specific path because the overall cross-group invariance test of the structural model did not allow us to examine invariance in the specific parameter of interest across groups. The particular parameter of interest (satisfaction \rightarrow revisit intention) in the nested models was constrained to be equal across groups, and all paths in the baseline models were able to be freely estimated. Findings for the invariance test for the specific path are presented in Table 5.5. As expected, significant chi-square differences across groups for preference ($\Delta\chi^2 = 39.80, \Delta df = 1, p < .1$), switching costs ($\Delta\chi^2 = 6.52, \Delta df = 1, p < .5$), relational investment ($\Delta\chi^2 = 38.42, \Delta df = 1, p < .1$), and lack of alternatives ($\Delta\chi^2 = 22.47, \Delta df = 1, p < .1$) were found, indicating both positive and negative components of switching barriers have a significant moderating role in the relationship between

customer satisfaction and revisit intention. The coefficient values of high switching barrier groups (preference: $\beta_{21} = .57$, $t = 9.31$, $p < .01$; switching costs: $\beta_{21} = .60$, $t = 7.97$, $p < .01$; relational investment: $\beta_{21} = .41$, $t = 5.88$, $p < .01$; lack of alternatives: $\beta_{21} = .59$, $t = 7.91$, $p < .01$) were lower than the values of low switching barrier groups (preference: $\beta_{21} = .71$, $t = 11.76$, $p < .01$; switching costs: $\beta_{21} = .73$, $t = 14.71$, $p < .01$; relational investment: $\beta_{21} = .70$, $t = 12.30$, $p < .01$; lack of alternatives: $\beta_{21} = .74$, $t = 15.64$, $p < .01$). This result supported hypothesis four.

Discussion

The current research proposed and tested a theoretical framework for understanding the relationships among consumption emotions, customer satisfaction, switching barriers, and revisit intention. A measurement model estimated on the basis of Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) approach tested validity of measures. The results of structural equation modeling using the data from a web-based survey addressed the effect of consumption emotions on satisfaction and revisit intention. The proposed mediating impact of satisfaction was verified by examining the indirect effect of consumption emotions on revisit intention. The switching barriers, two positive and two negative switching barriers, that are likely to be perceived by restaurant customers were identified through the qualitative approach, specifically using the guidelines suggested by Maxwell (2005). Scale applicability was validated using the quantitative approach. The moderating role of switching barriers in forming revisit intention was verified by testing for metric invariances. In particular, grouping was done by using K-means cluster analysis. Measurement invariance tests supported full metric/partial metric invariances. Structural invariance tests and invariance tests for a hypothesized path provided the evidence of moderating effect of switching barriers. Overall, all objectives were successfully achieved through these procedures.

This study has implications for scholars as well as practitioners. First, in the theoretical point of view, a considerable body of research has tested the main effect of emotions and satisfaction in forming behavioral intention (e.g., Allen, Machleit, Kleine, & Notani, 2003; Allen, Machleit, & Kleine, 1992; Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Cronin & Taylor, 1992). The current research extended the previous framework of behavioral intention formation by incorporating switching barriers into this framework. No other study has examined the effect of various types of switching barriers in forming revisit intention in the restaurant industry. The

study results revealed that both positive and negative components of switching barriers had significant impacts on the satisfaction and revisit intention link, which was consistent with the previous research in other settings (Anderson & Narus, 1990; Jones et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2001; Patterson, 2004; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003; Urbany, 1986). In particular, the strength of the relationship was greater for low switching barrier groups than for high switching barrier groups in a given framework. These findings imply that while customers are not fully satisfied because of unfavorable emotional experiences in a restaurant, they are still willing to revisit the restaurant due to preference (e.g., they personally prefer the food/menu/atmosphere of the restaurant, or their family/friends/others prefer to eat at the restaurant), monetary (e.g., they have a gift-certificate to use) and non-monetary switching costs (e.g., it's convenient), relational investment (e.g., they have confidence the restaurant provides the best deal), and lack of alternatives (e.g., they perceive no comparable/superior restaurant exists nearby). In other words, this research indicated why customers stay with their current restaurant despite unfavorable emotional experiences and low levels of satisfaction, and also showed why variability exists between antecedent variables and repurchase behavior. Restaurant researchers should consider the integration of switching barriers beyond emotions/satisfaction into the model of post-purchase behaviors in further restaurant research to better understand the formation of post-purchase behaviors. From a practical perspective, first, since the results supported the significance of switching barriers in forming revisit intention, the use of switching barriers can be an acceptable approach in the customer retention process. As Jones et al. (2000) and Tax et al. (1998) stated, switching barriers ensure against unavoidable service defection. Building up various switching barriers may help to retain existing customers who have had even unfavorable dining experiences at a restaurant, so the restaurant may have another chance to provide the favorable emotional and satisfactory dining experiences. However, they should be cautious in relying too much on the negative components of switching barriers, which normally provide a passive reason to stay, to averting the situation in which restaurant customers remain only due to high switching costs and lack of other restaurants' attractiveness. That is, dissatisfaction should not be the ongoing phenomenon because it may lead to negative word-of-mouth and disloyalty (Jones et al., 2000; Jones et al., 2007). In this regard, the active use of positive components of switching barriers, such as developing superior menu items, providing a selection of foods, presenting a clean/attractive dining area, providing reliable benefit programs and services,

building up relational bonds, and treating customers in a special manner are strongly recommended to restaurant operators.

Second, switching barriers in previous research could be generally organized into four categories: switching costs and lack of alternatives (negative) and relational investment and service recovery (positive) (Colgate & Lang, 2001; Jones et al., 2000; Patterson & Smith, 2003; Sharma & Patterson, 2000; Yanamandram & White, 2006). These research findings were partially consistent with them. Specifically, the results of the unit of analysis and categorization revealed four categories of switching barriers. While two (preference and relational investment) were positive, the others were negative switching barriers (switching costs and lack of alternatives). Although studies in the previous literature indicated that service recovery prevents customer switching (Colgate & Lang, 2001; Yanamandram & White, 2006), this factor was not included in the dimensions. Yet, preference (personal preference of the food/menu/physical surrounding and family/friends/others' preference of the restaurant) was included as a category because it was mentioned by a majority of survey participants (45.8%). Although it was a part of this research project, it was the first trial to identify switching barriers in the restaurant industry. Findings from the CFA indicated that the four identified dimensional scales of switching barriers had adequate levels of reliability and validity. Researchers can use this measure for additional research through the thorough test of its applicability in the restaurant industry. Moreover, the identified positive and negative barriers may enable restaurant marketers to understand inhibiting factors of customer switching more precisely and to develop better customer retention strategies.

Third, this research investigated the influence of consumption emotions on downstream variables, but moved beyond prior research (Evrard & Aurier, 1994; Oliver, 1993; Westbrook, 1987) by adopting a multi-dimensional view of emotional experiences. Early consumer research that used the summary factors of emotions (positive and negative) was unable to precisely assess complex emotional experiences and capture the diversity and intricate nature of emotions in various service consumption situations (Dube & Menon, 2000; Han & Back, 2007). Our findings indicated that the multi-dimensions of consumption emotions are powerful predictors of customer satisfaction in the restaurant industry, thus supporting past research that demonstrates the need for a multi-dimensional approach (Dube & Menon, 2000; Han & Back, 2007; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Restaurant researchers should employ this multi-dimensional view to more precisely explain customers' emotional experiences and to more accurately illustrate

customers' post-purchase behaviors in the restaurant industry. For practitioners, fulfilling these multi-dimensional factors through a closer investigation of customers' intricate emotional experiences is recommended to intensify satisfaction level and revisit intention. In particular, the results of the Fisher test found that two emotion factors (comfort and annoyance) had a stronger effect than other variables on satisfaction. Restaurant operators should enhance significant restaurant attributes (e.g., food, service, or atmosphere) to elicit a higher level of comfort and decrease annoyance states. Specifically, they should offer an excellent dining experience and food/service of a consistent standard, so customers feel comfortable rather than annoyed.

Finally, the mediation test revealed that customer satisfaction significantly mediated the effect of consumption emotion factors on revisit intention. This result was consistent with the findings from previous research (Han & Back, 2006; Phillips, 1999). It is recommended that researchers use caution in considering all dimensions of consumption emotions as a direct driving force in increasing revisit intentions in theory development. From a practical perspective, managers should focus on boosting customer satisfaction level, thereby magnifying the impact of consumption emotion factors on the revisit intention.

This study is subject to several limitations that offer opportunities for future research. First, the current research was based on survey participants' description of their experiences at a full-service restaurant. Caution is needed when generalizing the findings to other segments of the restaurant industry (e.g., the quick-service or quick-casual segments). Replications of these findings in other segments are strongly recommended in future research. Second, a web-based survey was used in this research. Approximately 91.8% of the respondents completed the questionnaire based on their experiences within the last month. While customers can reliably recall their service experiences within the past six months (Keaveney, 1995), as Donovan and Rossiter (1982) indicated, their emotional experiences are not always perfectly recallable. It is recommended that restaurant customers in actual consumption situations be used in future research. Third, switching barriers were identified based on the responses of two professional academic organizations' members and staff at a Midwestern university. They are important current/future restaurant customers, and they will describe their experiences more precisely when filling out the open-ended question. Yet, they do not represent all purchasing decisions in restaurants. The usability of the research outcomes could be diminished due to this limitation. In future studies, the use of a wider sampling range that better represents the population is

recommended. Finally, previous research found that affective/emotional responses are influenced by cognitive assessment of objects in the customer decision-making process (Oliver, 1997; Stern & Krakover, 1993). In addition, recent research showed that customers' personal characteristics (e.g., gender, age, income, or education) have a moderating effect on retention (Homburg & Giering, 2001; Mittal & Kamakura, 2001). In future research, more comprehensive models should be developed by considering the impact of cognitive antecedent variables (e.g., image, belief, image congruence) on emotions and its downstream variables and the impact of potential moderators such as personal characteristics on the retention process.

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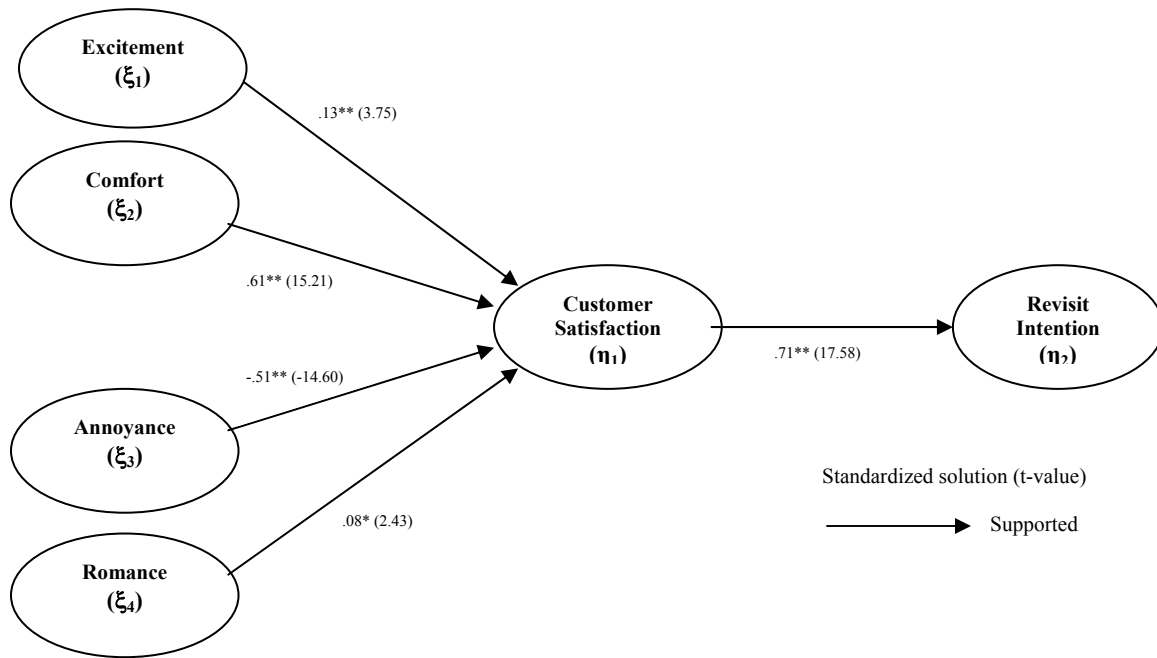
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Table 5.1. Measure Correlations, the Squared Correlations, and AVE

Correlations among latent constructs (squared) ^a												
Measure	Excitement	Comfort	Annoyance	Romance	CS	PF	SC	RI	LA	RVI	AVE	Alpha
Excitement	1.00										.57	.95
Comfort	.60 (.36)	1.00									.72	.96
Annoyance	-.21 (.04)	-.58 (.34)	1.00								.75	.94
Romance	.59 (.35)	.27 (.07)	-.02 (.00)	1.00							.75	.90
CS	.51 (.26)	.79 (.62)	-.68 (.46)	.26 (.07)	1.00						.92	.97
PF	.55 (.30)	.69 (.48)	-.40 (.16)	.33 (.11)	.68 (.46)	1.00					.53	.86
SC	.33 (.11)	.26 (.07)	-.09 (.01)	.22 (.05)	.21 (.04)	.30 (.09)	1.00				.55	.80
RI	.67 (.45)	.65 (.42)	-.37 (.14)	.47 (.22)	.59 (.35)	.69 (.48)	.56 (.31)	1.00			.53	.80
LA	.44 (.19)	.33 (.11)	-.14 (.02)	.30 (.09)	.32 (.10)	.50 (.25)	.67 (.45)	.66 (.44)	1.00		.51	.71
RVI	.38 (.14)	.68 (.46)	-.57 (.32)	.20 (.04)	.69 (.48)	.68 (.46)	.17 (.03)	.49 (.24)	.30 (.09)	1.00	.95	.98
Mean	3.60	5.27	1.62	2.43	5.76	4.71	2.50	3.41	2.75	6.06		
SD	1.32	1.17	1.09	1.54	1.35	1.27	1.39	1.41	1.50	1.37		

Note. CS: Customer Satisfaction, PF: Preference, SC: Switching Costs, RI: Relational Investment, LA: Lack of Alternatives, RVI: Revisit Intention.

a. Correlation coefficients are estimates from AMOS 5. All were significant at .01 level. Model measurement fit: $\chi^2 = 3161.59$ ($df = 1379$, $p < .001$), RMSEA = 0.057, CFI = 0.97, NFI = 0.95



* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Note. Switching barriers were included in the figure as a moderator; preference, switching costs, relational investment, and lack of alternatives.

Figure 5.1. Results of Structural Equation Model

Table 5.2. Standardized Maximum-Likelihood Parameter Estimates (N=395)

Paths	Coefficient	t-value
Excitement → Customer Satisfaction	.13**	3.75
Comfort → Customer Satisfaction	.61**	15.21
Annoyance → Customer Satisfaction	-.51**	-14.60
Romance → Customer Satisfaction	.08*	2.43
Customer satisfaction → Revisit Intention	.71**	17.58

R² (Customer Satisfaction) = .65

R² (Revisit Intention) = .51

Goodness-of-fit statistics:

$\chi^2 = 2110.04$, $df = 653$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 3.23$, RMSEA = 0.075; CFI = .97; NFI = .96

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 5.3. Measurement Invariance

	Models	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NFI
Measurement Invariance for preference groups	Nonrestricted Model	2483.43	1286	.049	.98	.95
	Full Metric Invariance of CFA Model (L(X)Y=IN*) ^a	2529.42	1317	.048	.98	.95
Measurement Invariance for switching costs groups	Nonrestricted Model	2505.56	1286	.049	.97	.95
	Full Metric Invariance of CFA Model (L(X)Y=IN) ^b	2543.04	1317	.049	.97	.95
Measurement Invariance for relational investment groups	Nonrestricted Model	2423.00	1286	.047	.98	.95
	Full Metric Invariance of CFA Model (L(X)Y=IN) ^c	2480.86	1317	.047	.98	.95
	Partial Metric Invariance of CFA ^d	2466.75	1313	.047	.98	.95
Measurement Invariance for lack of alternatives groups	Nonrestricted Model	2547.37	1286	.047	.97	.95
	Full Metric Invariance of CFA Model (L(X)Y=IN) ^e	2590.97	1317	.050	.97	.95

Note. * IN = Invariance

^a Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2(31) = 45.99$, $p > .01$ (insignificant), thus Full metric invariance is supported.

^b Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2(31) = 37.48$, $p > .01$ (insignificant), thus Full metric invariance is supported.

^c Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2(31) = 57.86$, $p < .01$ (significant), thus Full metric invariance is not supported.

^d Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2(27) = 43.75$, $p > .01$ (insignificant), thus partial metric invariance is supported (with four items of invariance constraints relaxed).

^e Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2(31) = 43.60$, $p > .01$ (insignificant), thus Full metric invariance is supported.

Table 5.4. Structural Invariance

	Models	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	NFI
Structural Invariance for preference groups	Full Metric Invariance of Structural Model (L(X)Y=IN*)	2908.17	1337	.055	.97	.94
	Full Path Invariance ^a (L(X)Y=IN, GA=IN, BE=IN)	2959.60	1342	.055	.97	.94
Structural Invariance for switching costs groups	Full Metric Invariance of Structural Model (L(X)Y=IN)	3011.70	1337	.057	.97	.94
	Full Path Invariance ^b (L(X)Y=IN, GA=IN, BE=IN)	3022.79	1342	.056	.97	.94
Structural Invariance for relational investment groups	Partial Metric Invariance of Structural Model (L(X)Y=IN)	2764.75	1333	.052	.97	.94
	Full Path Invariance ^c (L(X)Y=IN, GA=IN, BE=IN)	2833.83	1338	.053	.97	.94
Structural Invariance for lack of alternatives groups	Full Metric Invariance of Structural Model (L(X)Y=IN)	3055.99	1337	.057	.96	.94
	Full Path Invariance ^d (L(X)Y=IN, GA=IN, BE=IN)	3088.22	1342	.058	.96	.94

Note. * IN = Invariance

^a Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2(5) = 51.43$, $p < .01$ (significant), thus full structural invariance is not supported, and paths across two groups are different.

^b Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2(5) = 11.09$, $p < .05$ (significant), thus full structural invariance is not supported, and paths across two groups are different.

^c Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2(5) = 69.12$, $p < .01$ (significant), thus full structural invariance is not supported, and paths across two groups are different.

^d Chi-square difference test: $\Delta\chi^2(5) = 32.23$, $p < .01$ (significant), thus full structural invariance is not supported, and paths across two groups are different.

Table 5.5. Invariance Test of Path for Hypothesized Moderation

	Paths	Fit of the Model with the Path		Test of Invariance
		Baseline Model (Freely Estimated)	Nested Model (Constrained to be Equal)	Chi-square difference test
Preference	CS→RVI	$\chi^2(1337) = 2908.17$	$\chi^2(1338) = 2947.97$	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 39.80^{**}$
Switching Costs	CS→RVI	$\chi^2(1337) = 3011.70$	$\chi^2(1338) = 3018.22$	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 6.52^*$
Relational Investment	CS→RVI	$\chi^2(1333) = 2764.75$	$\chi^2(1334) = 2803.17$	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 38.42^{**}$
Lack of Alternatives	CS→RVI	$\chi^2(1337) = 3055.99$	$\chi^2(1338) = 3078.46$	$\Delta\chi^2(1) = 22.47^{**}$

CHAPTER 6 - SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

While previous studies have focused on identifying dominant dimensions of emotion responses and proposing an emotion scale that adequately captures individuals' emotional states (e.g., Edell & Burke, 1987; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Izard, 1977; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Oh, 2005; Plutchik, 1980; Plutchik & Kellerman, 1974; Richins, 1997), the appropriateness of these measures in the consumption context, particularly a restaurant sector, has rarely been examined. In particular, part of these measures' validity remains uncertain since their reliability and validity have rarely been empirically tested in a consumption context. Therefore, consumer behavior research requires more information about the nature of emotions in the consumption situation and more appropriate ways to measure them (Richins, 1997). Additionally, while the main effects of consumption emotions on customer satisfaction and post-purchase behavior are quite apparent in the marketing/consumer literature, little research has been conducted to assess how consumption emotions affect satisfaction and revisit intention in the restaurant industry, particularly for full-service restaurants. Further, the specific role of perceived switching barriers in understanding customer return behavior has rarely been examined. Recent research shows that the satisfaction and revisit intention linkage is dependent on the magnitude of present switching barriers (Jones et al., 2000; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003). Many dissatisfied customers still remain with their current service provider, and many customers satisfied with their service experience still seek a new alternative and occasionally change their provider (Kahn, 1995). That is, switching barriers decrease the likelihood of customer switching intention even when other factors (e.g., unfavorable assessment of restaurant attributes or dissatisfaction) foster their switching. Despite their important role in determining revisit intention, no existing studies have addressed the effect of switching barriers on the retention process in the restaurant industry.

The purposes of this study were to develop a reliable and valid multi-item scale that measures restaurant customers' emotional experience, and to examine the relationships among consumption emotions, customer satisfaction, switching barriers, and revisit intention in the full-service restaurant industry. To achieve these purposes, a reliable and valid multi-item scale of consumption emotions was developed in Study 1. Using this consumption emotions scale, the

relationships among consumption emotions, customer satisfaction, perceived switching barriers, and revisit intention were examined in Study 2. Major findings included the following: the impact of uncovered emotion factors on customer satisfaction and revisit intention; the mediating role of customer satisfaction in the relationship between consumption emotions and revisit intention; and the moderating effect of switching barriers on the relationship between customer satisfaction and revisit intention using identified positive and negative switching barriers perceived by restaurant customers. Major findings, including the research procedures, are discussed in the next section.

Major Findings

Scale Development (Study 1)

A reliable and valid consumption emotion scale with four dimensions was established in the first phase of the study. Study 1 followed Churchill's (1979) paradigm in the early stages and the confirmatory factor analytic approach suggested by Gerbing and Anderson (1988) and Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) in the later stages. The scale development process began with specification of the construct domain and item generation. A total of 94 emotion adjectives were generated from the review of the emotion literature. The list of emotion items was presented to a focus group who was asked to remove unusable items, exclude ambiguous/redundant items, and draw additional emotion items as these may be experienced by restaurant customers. A pool of 40 consumption emotion items was retained. A web based survey was conducted to reduce the set of emotion items and item refinement. The collected data were subjected to item refinement. Four extreme outliers (Mahalanobis' $D(40) > 73.40, p < .001$) were excluded, leaving 160 cases for further analysis. A total of eight items were excluded based on the results of item refinement (i.e., descriptive analysis, exploratory factor analysis, and reliability test). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted with the remaining items. Principal component analysis with a varimax rotation identified four factors that explained 65.34% of the total variance. The first factor ("Excitement") explained 44.60% of the variance, including 14 items. A total of 10 items were loaded to the second factor ("Comfort") that explained 11.89% of the variance. The third factor ("Annoyance"), containing items with a negative nuance, captured 5.36% of the variance. Three items were loaded to the fourth factor ("Romance") which explained 3.50% of the

variance. Coefficient Alphas for the four dimensions, ranging from .82 to .95, were acceptable (Nunnally, 1978).

A new sample of data was collected for additional testing, to ensure reliability (i.e., coefficient alpha and composite reliability) and validity (i.e., construct validity and criterion validity) (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Churchill, 1979; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988). The collected data (406 complete responses) were subjected to reliability and validity assessment. Prior to analysis, six extreme cases were eliminated (Mahalanobis' $D(32) > 59.70, p < .001$). Using AMOS 5, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with 32 items representing a four-dimension model was estimated to assess unidimensionality and composite reliability and construct validity. The values of goodness-of-fit indices were acceptable. Specifically, the Chi-square value of the model ($\chi^2 = 1323.69, df = 451, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 2.94$) and other goodness-of-fit indices (RMSEA = 0.07; CFI = 0.98; NFI = 0.96) were an excellent fit with the data. The items for each scale loaded on a single factor with minimal cross-loadings. The standardized loadings of the items on the latent construct met the minimal criterion of .40 (Ford et al., 1986). In addition, the t value related to each of the loadings ranged from 12.60 to 41.87. These values exceeded the critical value of 3.29 for the significance level of .001, indicating that all variables were significantly associated with their specified constructs. This evidence supported the unidimensionality of each scale. Values for the coefficient alpha ranged from .90 to .96, exceeding the minimal acceptable level of .70 (Nunnally, 1978). The composite reliabilities of each of the four constructs (i.e., "Excitement", "Comfort", "Annoyance", and "Romance") were .95, .96, .94, and .90, respectively. These values were greater than the minimum acceptable reliability of .60 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Afterward, construct validity was assessed; AVE values ranged from .56 to .75, exceeding the minimum criterion of .50; and convergent validity was satisfied. In addition, discriminant validity existed because the proportion of variance extracted in each construct exceeded the square of the coefficient representing its correlation with other constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Finally, a criterion validity test of the measure was verified because the results of the structural equation modeling revealed that the relationships between each component of consumption emotions and loyalty were all significant (comfort: $\gamma_{12} = .60, t = 12.07$; annoyance: $\gamma_{13} = -.51, t = -11.76$; excitement: $\gamma_{11} = .12, t = 3.44$; romance: $\gamma_{14} = .08, t = 2.27$), indicating that the finalized measure behaves as expected in relation to an additional construct (Churchill, 1979). Overall, these procedures provided evidence that the

finalized measure, using the categorical dimension approach, was unidimensional, reliable, and valid.

Relationships Among Study Constructs (Study 2)

In study two, four hypotheses were proposed. Prior to investigating the hypothesized relationships, switching barriers were identified. A qualitative approach using open-ended questions based on Maxwell's (2005) guidelines generated four categories of switching barriers (preference, switching costs, relational investment, and lack of alternatives). The value of Perreault and Leigh's (1989) coefficient ($I_r = .92$), was greater than .90, showing a high level of interjudge reliability (Perreault & Leigh, 1989). The adequacy of four-dimensional structures with 17 items was verified using CFA ($\chi^2 = 323.81$, $df = 112$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 2.89$, RMSEA = 0.07; CFI = 0.99; NFI = 0.98). The values of the Coefficient alpha ranged from .71 to .86, which easily exceeded Nunnally's (1978) recommended minimum level of .70. Convergent validity was established because VIF values for all constructs (individual/others preference = .53; switching costs = .55; relational investment = .52; lack of alternatives = .50) were greater than .50 (Hair et al., 1998). Discriminant validity was also established in that all AVE values were greater than the square of the correlations between the related constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). This procedure assured the four-factor structure of switching barriers in the full-service restaurant industry.

To test the hypotheses, a conceptual model was developed and tested using structural equation modeling (SEM) and the test for metric invariances. The letter "S" indicates the hypothesis was supported.

- H1: Multi-components of consumption emotions uncovered in the first phase of this study are significantly associated with customer satisfaction. (S)
- H2: Customer satisfaction is significantly associated with revisit intention. (S)
- H3: Customer satisfaction has a significant mediating role in the relationship between each emotion factor and revisit intention. (S)
- H4: Switching barriers have a significant moderating role in the relationship between customer satisfaction and revisit intention. Specifically, the relationship will be stronger for the low switching barrier group than for the high switching barrier group. (S)

The results of the SEM showed that the estimates of the standardized path coefficients between consumption emotion factors and customer satisfaction were all significant (excitement → CS: $\gamma_{11} = .13$, $t = 3.75$, $p < .01$; comfort → CS: $\gamma_{12} = .61$, $t = 15.21$, $p < .01$; annoyance → CS: $\gamma_{13} = -.51$, $t = -14.60$, $p < .01$; romance → CS: $\gamma_{14} = .08$, $t = 2.43$, $p < .05$), supporting hypothesis one. The results of Fisher's test indicated that the paths from comfort to satisfaction and from annoyance to satisfaction had a significantly different strength than the other two paths ($p < .01$). The regression path from satisfaction to revisit intention was significant ($\beta_{21} = .71$, $t = 17.58$, $p < .01$), supporting hypothesis two. The hypothesized mediating effect of customer satisfaction was tested by examining indirect effect of consumption emotion factors on revisit intention. The results showed that all consumption emotion factors significantly affected revisit intention through customer satisfaction ($\beta_{\text{Excitement-CS-RVI}} = .09$, $t = 3.67$, $p < .01$; $\beta_{\text{Comfort-CS-RVI}} = .43$, $t = 11.50$, $p < .01$; $\beta_{\text{Annoyance-CS-RVI}} = -.37$, $t = 11.23$, $p < .01$; $\beta_{\text{Romance-CS-RVI}} = .06$, $t = 2.40$, $p < .05$). Thus, hypothesis three was supported.

Finally, findings for the invariance test for the specific path showed the significant chi-square differences across groups for preference ($\Delta\chi^2 = 39.80$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .1$), switching costs ($\Delta\chi^2 = 6.52$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .5$), relational investment ($\Delta\chi^2 = 38.42$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .1$), and lack of alternatives ($\Delta\chi^2 = 22.47$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .1$), indicating that both positive and negative components of switching barriers have a significant moderating role in the relationship between customer satisfaction and revisit intention. The coefficient values of high switching barrier groups (preference: $\beta_{21} = .57$, $t = 9.31$, $p < .01$; switching costs: $\beta_{21} = .60$, $t = 7.97$, $p < .01$; relational investment: $\beta_{21} = .41$, $t = 5.88$, $p < .01$; lack of alternatives: $\beta_{21} = .59$, $t = 7.91$, $p < .01$) were lower than the values of low switching barrier groups (preference: $\beta_{21} = .71$, $t = 11.76$, $p < .01$; switching costs: $\beta_{21} = .73$, $t = 14.71$, $p < .01$; relational investment: $\beta_{21} = .70$, $t = 12.30$, $p < .01$; lack of alternatives: $\beta_{21} = .74$, $t = 15.64$, $p < .01$). This findings supported hypothesis four.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

This study represents the first attempt to develop a reliable and valid emotion scale that may be used to assess customers' emotional experiences in the restaurant industry, particularly in full-service restaurants. This measurement may be used to explain downstream variables (e.g., service quality, price/value, satisfaction, relationship quality, word-of-mouth, repurchase, and

attitudes). That is, the developed scale would act as a stimulus for additional research that develops more integrative theories in explaining restaurant customer behavior. Furthermore, this study enables proper assessment of more complex restaurant customers' emotional experiences by uncovering greater dimensions of emotions based on consumption. As Machleit and Eroglu (2000) indicated, using summed dimensions (positive and negative) may have such advantages as simplification of data analysis and reduction of potential problems related to multicollinearity among the emotion types. However, the variety and nature of the emotional experiences cannot be adequately explained by summed positive and negative emotions (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). The findings illustrated that multi-dimensions are adequate to capture the range of emotional responses toward the restaurant industry. Therefore, restaurant researchers/theorists may want to use the multi-dimensions of consumption emotion when conducting research related to emotions.

The study extended the previous framework of behavioral intention formation by incorporating switching barriers. Numerous researchers have examined the impact effect of emotions and satisfaction in forming behavioral intention (e.g., Allen et al., 2003; Allen et al., 1992; Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Cronin & Taylor, 1992). However, no study has examined the effect of various types of switching barriers in forming revisit intention in the restaurant industry. The results showed that both positive and negative components of switching barriers had significant impacts on the satisfaction and revisit intention link. This finding was consistent with previous research in a number of other settings (Anderson & Narus, 1990; Jones et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2001; Patterson, 2004; Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003; Urbany, 1986). Specifically, the strength of the relationship was greater for low switching barrier groups than for high switching barrier groups in a given framework. This result implies that while customers are not fully satisfied due to unfavorable emotional experiences in a restaurant, they still are willing to revisit the restaurant because of preference (e.g., they personally prefer the food/menu/atmosphere of the restaurant, or their family/friends/others prefer to eat at the restaurant), monetary (e.g., they have a gift-certificate to use) and non-monetary switching costs (e.g., it's convenient), relational investment (e.g., they are confident that the restaurant will provide the best deal), and lack of alternatives (e.g., they perceive no comparable/superior restaurant exist nearby). The research provides: 1) evidence that explains why customers stay with the current restaurant despite unfavorable emotional experiences and low levels of

satisfaction, and 2) the reasons for the variability between antecedent variables and repurchase behavior. Restaurant researchers may want to consider integrating switching barriers beyond emotions/satisfaction into the model of post-purchase behaviors in further restaurant research to understand the formation of post-purchase behaviors.

The results of the unit of analysis and categorization revealed a total of four categories of switching barriers. Two (preference and relational investment) may be considered positive switching barriers, and the others negative switching barriers (switching costs and lack of alternatives). This research finding was partially consistent with the previous literature (Colgate & Lang, 2001; Jones et al., 2000; Patterson & Smith, 2003; Sharma & Patterson, 2000; Yanamandram & White, 2006). Although studies described in the literature indicated that service recovery prevents customer switching (Colgate & Lang, 2001; Yanamandram & White, 2006), this factor was not included in the dimensions. Yet, preference (personal preference for the food/menu/physical surroundings and family/friends/others' preference for the restaurant) was included as a category because it was mentioned by a majority of survey participants (45.8%). While it was a part of this research project, it was the first trial to identify switching barriers in the restaurant industry. Findings from the CFA indicated that the four identified dimensional scale of switching barriers had an adequate level of reliability and validity. Researchers may use this measure in additional research after a thorough test for its applicability in the restaurant industry. Moreover, the identified barriers may enable restaurant marketers to understand inhibiting factors that enable them to switch more precisely in their operations and to develop better customer retention strategies.

This study examined the influence of consumption emotions on downstream variables, but moved beyond prior research (Evrard & Aurier, 1994; Oliver, 1993; Westbrook, 1987) by adopting a multi-dimensional view of emotional experiences. The findings indicated that multi-dimensions of consumption emotions are powerful predictors of customer satisfaction in the restaurant industry, thus supporting past research that emphasizes the need for a multi-dimensional approach (Dube & Menon, 2000; Han & Back, 2007; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Restaurant researchers could employ this multi-dimensional view in explaining customer emotional experiences and in accurately illustrating customers' post-purchase behaviors in the restaurant industry.

The mediation test showed evidence that customer satisfaction significantly mediated the effect of emotion factors on revisit intention. This result was consistent with the findings from previous research (Han & Back, 2007; Phillips, 1999). During theory development, researchers should use caution in considering all dimensions of consumption emotions as a direct driving force in restaurant customers' increased revisit intention. From a practical perspective, managers should focus on boosting customer satisfaction levels, and thereby magnify the impact of consumption emotion factors on revisit intention.

The results supported the significance of switching barriers in forming revisit intention. Thus, the use of switching barriers can be an acceptable approach in the customer retention process. As Jones et al. (2000) and Tax et al. (1998) stated, switching barriers ensure that customers will not engage in service defection. Building up various switching barriers may contribute to retaining existing customers who have had an unfavorable dining experience, giving the restaurant another chance to provide favorable emotional experiences and satisfactory dining experiences. However, they should cautiously rely on the negative components of switching barriers, which normally provide a passive reason to remain, averting those occasions in which restaurant customers remain only due to high switching costs and lack of other attractive restaurants. That is, dissatisfaction should not be an ongoing phenomenon because it may lead to negative word-of-mouth and disloyalty (Jones et al., 2000; Jones Reynolds, Mothersgbaugh, & Beatty, 2007). The active use of positive components of switching barriers, which provide an affirmative reason to stay (such as developing superior menu items, providing a variety of food selections, presenting comfortable/exciting décor and atmosphere, providing reliable benefit programs and services, building up relational bonds, and treating customers in a special manner) are recommended for restaurant operators.

The results of the Fisher test showed that two emotion factors (comfort and annoyance) had a stronger effect than other variables on satisfaction. Thus, for practitioners, fulfilling emotion factors through a closer investigation of customers' intricate emotional experiences is recommended to intensify satisfaction levels and revisit intentions. Restaurant operators should enhance significant restaurant attributes (e.g., food, service, or atmosphere) to elicit a higher level of comfort and decrease annoyance states. Specifically, they should offer an excellent dining experience and food/service of a consistent standard, so customers feel comfortable eating at their restaurants.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Study

Despite best intentions, the present study has several limitations that offer opportunities for future study. First, the sample population was customers who have dined at a full-service restaurant. The scale was developed based on their description of experiences in a full-service restaurant. Some emotion items not presented in the developed scale may be important in other segments of the restaurant industry, such as quick-service and fast-casual. Thus, findings should be generalized cautiously to other segments of the restaurant sector. In future research, it would be desirable to replicate the current research in different settings. Moreover, further research is recommended that validates assessment of the developed scale by continuously examining the scale's ability to explain other outcome variables, and by conducting a generalizability assessment of the identified dimensions with different samples and settings.

Second, this study's scope included all types of full-service restaurants (e.g., casual, family, upscale, or fine dining). This study attempted to generate a scale that broadly but not exhaustively covered consumption emotional states in the full-service restaurant industry. Future research on the applicability of this scale in a specific segment of the full-service restaurant industry should revise this scale to meet the needs of that segment. Further, findings should be generalized cautiously to other segments of the restaurant sector.

Third, a web-based survey was used in this study. About 65.9% of the respondents to the first survey and 91.8% to the second survey described their experiences within the last month. While customers can reliably recall their service experiences within the past six months (Keaveney, 1995), as Donovan and Rossiter (1982) indicated, their emotional experiences are not always perfectly recallable. Thus, future studies should use restaurant customers in actual consumption situations. This will contribute to achieving a higher external validity of the study results.

Fourth, switching barriers were identified based on the responses of members of two professional academic organizations and staff at a Midwestern university. They are important current/future restaurant customers, and they would describe their experiences more precisely when completing the open-ended question. Yet, they do not represent all of those engaging in purchasing decisions in restaurants. The usability of the research outcomes can be diminished due to this limitation. In future studies, the use of a wider sampling range that better represents the population is recommended.

Finally, previous research findings showed that affective/emotional responses are influenced by cognitive assessment of objects in the customer decision-making process (Gartner, 1993; Oliver, 1997; Stern & Krakover, 1993). In addition, recent research found that customers' personal characteristics (e.g., gender, age, income, or education) have a moderating effect on retention (Homburg & Giering, 2001; Mittal & Kamakura, 2001). In future research, more comprehensive models could be developed to consider the impact of cognitive antecedent variables (e.g., image, belief, image congruence) on emotions and its downstream variables and the impact of potential moderators such as personal characteristics on the retention process.

Summary for Industry Managers

Findings of this study indicated that it is best for restaurants to provide comfortable, exciting, and romantic experiences to ensure customer satisfaction. Restaurant operators should train their employees to better understand the appropriate service and communication because it is their service and friendly communication that customers enjoy most about their meal and makes them want to return. In addition, a warm and comfortable atmosphere, relaxing/pleasing music, enticing aroma, comfortable seating arrangements, attractive menu design, and visually appealing decor improves the customer's dining experience.

Inconsistent service will make customers unhappy about a restaurant and as a result they may switch to another restaurant in the future. It is best for restaurant operators to make every effort to prevent customers from "switching" to another restaurant by providing reasons for the customer to return. Findings of this study indicated that if restaurateurs ensure the following in their operation, customer "switching" will be minimized.

- Increasing food quality
- Including a variety of menu items
- Developing special menus
- Keeping the dining area attractive and clean
- Minimizing customers' waiting time through adequate employee scheduling
- Arranging tables and seating areas for customers' convenience
- Using gift certificates or discounts for promotion strategies
- Providing reliable service by well-trained employees

- Treating all customers special
- Building a positive relationship with customers
- Always being better than other restaurants in the area

Among these, building a close relationship with the customer may be the most important factor in retaining customers. Once a restaurant's employees or managers treat their customers as friends and/or family, they will build a strong relationship. Customers will share their positive experiences, keep returning to the restaurant and bring their family and friends.

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Appendix A - Cover Letter for First Survey Questionnaire

Greetings Restaurant-goers!

Do you love good food and service? Are you passionate about how you feel about your favorite restaurants? Have you ever had a good or bad experience in a restaurant that you shared with others? If so, we warmly invite you share your feelings with us as well!

My name is Heesup Han, a graduate student in the Department of Hotel, Restaurant, Institution Management and Dietetics at Kansas State University. We are interested in customer emotions and feelings associated with dining experiences in a full-service restaurant. The results of this study will help restaurants develop better marketing and service strategies for retaining customers.

We greatly value your opinions – in fact, they are essential to the success of this study. Would you be willing to please take about 10 minutes to complete a questionnaire? Your participation is voluntary; refusal to participate will involve no penalty. However, we ask that you be at least 18 years of age to participate. All of your responses will remain confidential and anonymous. None of your individual responses will be reported; only aggregate (group) responses.

Your cooperation and contribution to this study are greatly appreciated! If you have any questions at all about this study, please contact Heesup Han at (785) 532-2213 or Betsy Barrett at (785) 532-2208. If you have any questions about your individual rights in this study or about the way it is conducted, you may contact the K-State Research Compliance Office at 785-532-3244.

GREAT! If you are willing and ready to share your dining experiences with us, then please click on the Web address (URL) below:

<https://surveys.ksu.edu/TS?offeringId=XXXXX>

WE REALLY APPRECIATE YOUR PARTICIPATION – Thank you in advance!

Sincerely,

Heesup Han
Ph.D. Candidate

Betsy Barrett
Co-Major Professor

Ki-Joon Back
Co-Major Professor

Appendix B - First Survey Questionnaire

AXIO SURVEY

RESTAURANT CUSTOMERS' EMOTIONAL EXPERIENCES AND PERCEIVED SWITCHING BARRIERS: A FULL-SERVICE RESTAURANT SETTING

Opening Instructions

Dear Participants:

We are conducting a research to understand customer emotions and feelings associated with dining experiences in a full-service restaurant and to determine what factors affect decisions to revisit a restaurant. The results of this study will help restaurant operators develop better marketing and service strategies for retaining customers.

Your help is important to the success of this study. Please take about 10 minutes to complete this questionnaire. Your cooperation and contribution to this study are greatly appreciated and critical to its success.

Sincerely,

Heesup Han
Graduate Teaching Assistant
Hotel, Restaurant, Institutional Management & Dietetics
Kansas State University
heesup@ksu.edu

Question 1 ** required **

SECTION 1: YOUR EMOTIONAL EXPERIENCE WITH A RESTAURANT

INSTRUCTION: In this section, please rate the items that describe how you feel about dining at a specific full-service restaurant. Even though some of the questions may seem similar, you need to respond to all of them. There are no “right” or “wrong” answers. Your opinions are valuable for the study.

Please indicate the name of **a full service restaurant** you visited most recently. (**A full service restaurant:** the restaurant where you are seated, order from a menu, and pay your server for the meal. Thus, a fast-food restaurant, a cafeteria, or a buffet would not be appropriate).

Name of the restaurant:

Question 2 ** required **

Approximately when did you visit the restaurant?

ex) March/2007 => 03/2007

Question 3 ** required **

How often do you dine at this restaurant?

ex) 3 times per month => 3/m

3 times per year => 3/y

Question 4 ** required **

The following statements are related to your emotional responses based on the experience with **the restaurant you named**. Please read each of the following adjectives carefully and indicate **how relevant they are to your experience with the restaurant**.

1 - Not at all | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 - . | 6 - . | 7 - Extremely

4.1 Anger	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.2 Amazed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.3 Anxious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.4 Appreciative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.5 Aroused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.6 Bored	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.7 Comfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4.8 Contented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.9 Curious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.10 Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.11 Disgust	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.12 Embarrassed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.13 Entertained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.14 Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.15 Envious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.16 Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.17 Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.18 Frustrated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.19 Fulfilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.20 Grateful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.21 Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.22 Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.23 Hopeful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.24 Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.25 Irritated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.26 Love	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.27 Offended	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.28 Pampered	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.29 Passionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.30 Pleased	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.31 Relaxed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.32 Respected	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.33 Romantic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.34 Secure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.35 Sentimental	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.36 Skeptical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.37 Sophisticated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.38 Surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.39 Thrilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Question 5 ** required ****SECTION 2: YOUR REASON FOR MAKING A REVISIT DECISION**

Please indicate the name of **a full service restaurant** that you recently chose to **revisit even though you were not fully satisfied on a previous visit.**

Name of the restaurant:

Question 6 ** required **

When did you **revisit** the restaurant?

ex) March, 2007 => 03/2007

Question 7 ** required **

Approximately how long have you been a customer of this restaurant?

ex) 2 years and 3 months => 2y3m

6 months => 6m

Question 8

We are interested in the reasons that you were **not satisfied with the experiences at the restaurant on a previous visit.** Please check all that apply.

- Quality of food - food cold, did not taste good, etc.
- Ambient conditions - lighting, noise, seating, etc.
- Physical environment - dirty, unsanitary, etc.
- Service - unsatisfactory
- Long waiting time to be seated

Other:

Question 9 ** required **

Please tell us the reason why you **revisited** the restaurant although you were not fully satisfied on a previous visit.

SECTION 3: INFORMATION ABOUT YOURSELF

Question 10

What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

Question 11 **** required ****

What is your age?

Question 12

What is your ethnic background?

- African American
- Asian
- Hispanic
- Caucasian/White
- Other:

Question 13

Which categories describe your household income level, before taxes?

- Under \$24,999
- \$25,000-\$39,999
- \$40,000-\$54,999
- \$55,000-\$69,999
- \$70,000-\$84,999
- \$85,000-\$99,999
- Over \$100,000

Question 14

What is your highest level of education?

- Less than high school degree
- High school degree
- Some college
- College graduate
- Graduate degree

Closing Message

Thanks for your time and participation!!

If you would like to know the results of this study, please send us an e-mail (heesup@ksu.edu).

- End of Survey -

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Appendix C - Cover Letter for Second Survey Questionnaire

Dear Participants:

We are conducting a study to understand customers' feelings associated with dining experiences in a full-service restaurant. The results of this study will help restaurant operators develop better marketing and service strategies for retaining customers.

Your help is important to the success of this study. Please take about 10 minutes to complete this questionnaire. Your participation is voluntary; refusal to participate will involve no penalty. Also, you must be at least 18 years of age to participate. All responses will remain confidential and anonymous. No individual responses will be reported; only aggregate responses will be reported.

Your cooperation and contribution to this study are greatly appreciated and critical to its success. Should you have any questions about this study, please contact Heesup Han at (785) 532-2213 or Betsy Barrett at (785) 532-2208. If you have questions about the rights of individuals in this study or about the way it is conducted, you may contact the K-State Research Compliance Office at (785) 532-3244.

Sincerely,

Heesup Han
Graduate student
Hotel, Restaurant Institution Management and Dietetics
Kansas State University

Betsy Barrett
Associate Professor
Hotel, Restaurant Institution Management and Dietetics
Kansas State University

Ki-Joon Back
Associate Professor
Hotel and Restaurant Management
University of Houston

Appendix D - Second Survey Questionnaire

AXIO SURVEY

Restaurant Lovers Survey II

Question 1 ** required **

Please paste (or enter) the PIN number issued by e-Rewards.

Question 2 ** required **

Please indicate the name of **a full service restaurant** you visited most recently. (**A full service restaurant**: the restaurant where you were seated, ordered from a menu, and paid your server for the meal. Thus, a fast-food restaurant, a cafeteria, or a buffet would not be appropriate).

Name of the restaurant:

Question 3 ** required **

When was the last time you visited this restaurant?

- Within the last 1 week
- Within the last 2 weeks
- Within the last 1 month
- Within the last 2 months
- Within the last 3-4 months
- Within the last 5-6 months
- Within the last 1 year

Question 4 ** required **

Which statement best describes how often you dine at this restaurant *per month*?

- First-time visit
- Less than once a month
- Once a month
- 2-3 times a month
- 4-7 times a month
- 8+ times a month

Question 5 ** required **

The following statements are related to emotional responses based on your experiences with **the restaurant you named**. Please read each of the following adjectives carefully and indicate **how relevant they are to your experiences with this restaurant**.

1 - Not at all | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 - . | 6 - . | 7 - Extremely

5.1 Excited

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

5.2 Surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.3 Amazed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.4 Curious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.5 Sophisticated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.6 Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.7 Hopeful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.8 Thrilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.9 Grateful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.10 Passionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.11 Entertained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.12 Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.13 Aroused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.14 Pampered	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.15 Comfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.16 Contented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.17 Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.18 Relaxed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.19 Pleased	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.20 Respected	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.21 Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.22 Fulfilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.23 Warm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.24 Secure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.25 Irritated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.26 Frustrated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.27 Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.28 Anger	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.29 Skeptical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.30 Romantic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.31 Love	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.32 Sentimental	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Question 6 ** required **

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

1 - Strongly Disagree | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 - . | 6 - . | 7 - Strongly Agree

6.1 Overall, I am satisfied with my experience at this restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.2 My decision to dine at this restaurant was a wise one.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.3 As a whole, I really enjoyed myself at this restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Question 7 ** required **

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

1 - Strongly Disagree | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 - . | 6 - . | 7 - Strongly Agree

7.1 If I switch to a new restaurant, I could not use the services and benefits of this restaurant, such as membership services and gift certificates.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.2 Switching to another restaurant will increase monetary costs, such as paying a higher price for food or drinks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.3 For me, the costs in time and effort to switch to another restaurant are high.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.4 In general, it would be inconvenient and a hassle to switch to another restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.5 Compared to this restaurant, there are not many other restaurants that satisfy me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.6 If I need to switch, there are not many good restaurants to choose from.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.7 There are no other similar types of restaurants in this community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Question 8 ** required **

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

1 - Strongly Disagree | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 - . | 6 - . | 7 - Strongly Agree

8.1 I have confidence that this restaurant provides the best deal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.2 I feel like there is a bond between this restaurant and me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.3 This restaurant provides me reliable benefit programs and services.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.4 I feel staff at this restaurant treat me special.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Question 9 ** required **

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

1 - Strongly Disagree | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 - . | 6 - . | 7 - Strongly Agree

9.1 My family member(s) prefer(s) to eat at this restaurant when dining out.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.2 My friend(s) whom I often (or occasionally) dine with like(s) to eat at this restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.3 If someone whom I dine with wants to eat at this restaurant, I would follow his/her decision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.4 I am partial to a particular menu item this restaurant serves.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.5 I like the menu and food selections at this restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.6 Overall, I prefer the décor and atmosphere of this restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Question 10 ** required **

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

1 - Strongly Disagree | 2 - . | 3 - . | 4 - . | 5 - . | 6 - . | 7 - Strongly Agree

10.1 I would dine at this restaurant in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.2 There is a likelihood that I would dine at this restaurant in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.3 I would come back to this restaurant in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.4 I will recommend this restaurant to my family, friends, or others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.5 I will say positive things about this restaurant to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Question 11 ** required **

What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

Question 12 ** required **

What is your age?

Question 13 ** required **

What is your ethnic background?

- African American
- Asian
- Hispanic
- Caucasian/White

Other:

Question 14 * required *****

Area of residence

- Northeast
- Mid-Atlantic
- Midwest
- Southwest
- Southeast
- West

Other:

Question 15

Which categories describe your household income level, before taxes?

- Under \$24,999
- \$25,000-\$39,999
- \$40,000-\$54,999
- \$55,000-\$69,999
- \$70,000-\$84,999
- \$85,000-\$99,999
- Over \$100,000

Question 16 * required *****

What is your highest level of education?

- Less than high school degree
- High school degree
- Some college
- College graduate
- Graduate degree

Closing Message

Thanks for your time and participation!!

If you would like to know the results of this study, please send us an e-mail (heesup@ksu.edu).

- End of Survey -