

CONSUMERS' CHOICE FACTORS OF AN UPSCALE ETHNIC RESTAURANT

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ABSTRACT

Abstract of a thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of M.C. M.

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Globally, there is a growing demand for food away from home as a result of higher incomes, changes in consumption patterns, changes in household composition, and the time pressures created by dual-working families. The foodservice industry has become highly competitive as the number of foodservice outlets has increased to meet the demand. In order to succeed in such a competitive industry, restaurant operators need to understand the factors (and their relative importance) that influence restaurant patrons' decision when selecting a restaurant.

The demand for ethnic foods has also increased, in New Zealand and worldwide, due to the influences of ethnic diversity, overseas food and cultural experiences, and media exposure. Despite the importance of restaurant choice criteria and a growth in popularity of ethnic foods, published research on consumers' restaurant selection behaviour that focuses on the ethnic segment is relatively limited. Furthermore, there are no published empirical studies on ethnic restaurant choice behaviour in New Zealand. This research aims to fill these gaps in the literature by empirically identifying the factors that influence a decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant, their relative importance, as well as their relationships with dining occasion and consumer characteristics.

Focus group discussions and the literature review helped identify a set of restaurant choice factors. A mail survey was used to collect the data. Factor analysis was used to refine the restaurant choice factors, and logistic regression analysis identified the five

significant factors that influence consumers' decision. These are: Dining Experience, Social Status, Service Quality, Food Quality, and Value for Money, listed in order of their importance. The results of t-tests and ANOVA suggested that consumers perceived the restaurant choice factors differently based on their demographic characteristics.

The results of this study contribute to the marketing theory by providing an empirical framework of consumer selection behaviour in New Zealand upscale ethnic dining establishments. The study will also assist marketing practitioners and operators of ethnic restaurants to develop their strategies and offer the attributes that attract and retain customers.

Key words: Upscale Ethnic Restaurant, Ethnic Foods, Foodservice Industry, Restaurant Choice Factor, Consumer Selection Behaviour, Logistic Regression.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	2
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	4
TABLE OF CONTENTS	5
LIST OF TABLES	9
LIST OF FIGURES	11
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Problem Setting	1
1.2 New Zealand Foods	2
1.3 The New Zealand Dining Out Market	4
1.4 Definitions of Ethnic Food and Upscale Ethnic Restaurants	5
1.5 Research Objectives	6
1.6 Research Contribution	7
1.7 Thesis Overview	7
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW	8
2.1 Introduction	8
2.2 Consumers and Services	8
2.2.1 Intangibility	8
2.2.2 Variability	9
2.2.3 Inseparability	9
2.2.4 Perishability	9
2.2.5 Lack of Ownership	10
2.3 The Consumer Decision-Making Process Model	10
2.3.1 Need Recognition	10
2.3.2 Information Search	11
2.3.3 Evaluation of Alternatives	11
2.3.4 Service Purchase and Consumption	11
2.3.5 Postpurchase Evaluation	12
2.4 Studies on Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour	12
2.5 Food Quality, Service Quality, Customer Satisfaction, and Behavioural Intentions	13

2.6	Factors Influencing Restaurant Decisions	14
2.6.1	Food Quality	14
2.6.2	Service Quality	16
2.6.3	Word of Mouth (Reputation)	16
2.6.4	Marketing Communications	17
2.6.5	Cultural Learning	18
2.6.6	Image and Social Status	19
2.6.7	Different Experience	20
2.6.8	Value for Money	20
2.7	Dining Occasion	20
2.8	Demographic Characteristics	21
2.9	Relative Importance of Restaurant Choice Factors	22
2.10	Chapter Summary	22
CHAPTER 3 MODEL AND HYPOTHESES		23
3.1	Introduction	23
3.2	Conceptual Gaps	23
3.3	The Conceptual Research Model	24
3.4	The Research Model Based on the Factor Analysis	26
3.5	Hypothesis Development	28
3.6	Hypotheses Relating to Research Objective One	28
3.6.1	Service Quality	28
3.6.2	Food Quality	28
3.6.3	Dining Experience	29
3.6.4	Social Status	29
3.6.5	Marketing Communications	30
3.6.6	Religious Food Options	30
3.6.7	Restaurant Décor	31
3.6.8	Value for Money	31
3.7	Hypotheses Relating to Research Objective Two and Three	31
3.8	Chapter Summary	32

CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	33
4.1 Introduction	33
4.2 Sampling Method	33
4.3 Sample Size	33
4.4 Questionnaire Development	34
4.4.1 Construct Operationalisation	34
4.4.2 Questionnaire Format	35
4.4.3 Pre-testing Procedures	36
4.5 Data Collection Procedures	36
4.6 Data Analysis Techniques	37
4.6.1 Factor Analysis	37
4.6.2 Summated Scale	44
4.6.3 Logistic Regression Analysis	45
4.6.4 T-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)	55
4.7 Chapter Summary	57
CHAPTER 5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	58
5.1 Introduction	58
5.2 Sample and Response Rate	58
5.3 Descriptive Statistics	58
5.4 Assessment of the Data Set	59
5.4.1 Statistical Assumptions for Factor Analysis: Goer Group	59
5.4.2 Factor Analysis Results	61
5.4.3 Assessment of Summated Scales	63
5.4.4 Statistical Assumptions for Logistic Regression	64
5.4.5 Cross-Tabulation and Chi-square Tests	65
5.5 Results Relating to Research Objective One	66
5.6 Results Relating to Research Objective Two	68
5.6.1 Interpretation of the Marginal Effect	68
5.7 Results Relating to Research Objective Three	69
5.7.1 Gender Relating to Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour	70
5.7.2 Ethnicity Relating to Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour	70
5.7.3 Age Relating to Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour	70
5.7.4 Qualification Relating to Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour	71

5.7.5 Occupation Relating to Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour	71
5.7.6 Household Composition Relating to Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour	71
5.7.7 Household Income Relating to Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour	71
5.8 Chapter Summary	72
CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS	73
6.1 Introduction	73
6.2 Conclusions Relating to Research Objective One	73
6.3 Conclusions Relating to Research Objective Two	74
6.4 Conclusions Relating to Research Objective Three	75
6.5 Theoretical Implications	77
6.6 Managerial Implications	78
6.7 Limitations	81
6.8 Avenues for Future Research	82
REFERENCES	83
APPENDICES	128

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: Modes of Factor Analysis	38
Table 4.2: Guidelines for Identifying Significant Factor Loadings Based on Sample Size	44
Table 5.1: Descriptive Statistics of the Segmentation Characteristics	91
Table 5.2: Profile of Consumer Segmentation Characteristics	92
Table 5.3: The Correlation Matrix for Goer	95
Table 5.4: The Anti-Image Correlation Matrix for Goer	97
Table 5.5: Factor Extraction	100
Table 5.6: VARIMAX Rotation Results (Goer)	101
Table 5.7: OBLIMIN Rotation Results (Goer)	102
Table 5.8: VARIMAX Rotation with Descriptions of Variables	103
Table 5.9: The Reliability Test for the Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Goer	104
Table 5.10: The Reliability Test for the Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Non-goer	106
Table 5.11: Pearson Correlation Matrix (Goer)	108
Table 5.12: Chi-square Tests for Demographic Characteristics and a Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	109
Table 5.13: Cross-tabulation for Gender	110
Table 5.14: Cross-tabulation for Age	111
Table 5.15: Cross-tabulation for Ethnicity	112
Table 5.16: Cross-tabulation for Qualification	113
Table 5.17: Cross-tabulation for Occupation	114
Table 5.18: Cross-tabulation for Household Composition	115
Table 5.19: Cross-tabulation for Household Income	116
Table 5.20: Classification Table for Choice of Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	66
Table 5.21: Hypotheses 1 through 11 Test Results Summary	66
Table 5.22: The Significant Logistic Regression Results	67
Table 5.23: Marginal Effects of Consumers' Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	68
Table 5.24: T-tests Results Relating to Gender	117
Table 5.25: T-tests Results Relating to Ethnicity	117

Table 5.26: ANOVA (F-tests) Results Relating to Age	118
Table 5.27: ANOVA (F-tests) Results Relating to Qualification	119
Table 5.28: ANOVA (F-tests) Results Relating to Occupation	120
Table 5.29: ANOVA (F-tests) Results Relating to Household Composition	121
Table 5.30: ANOVA (F-tests) Results Relating to Household Income	122
Table 5.31: The Scheffe Output for Age	123
Table 5.32: The Scheffe Output for Qualification	124
Table 5.33: The Scheffe Output for Occupation	125
Table 5.34: The Scheffe Output for Household Composition	126
Table 5.35: The Scheffe Output for Household Income	127

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1: The Conceptual Research Model	25
Figure 3.2: The Consumers' Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Choice Factors Model	27
Figure 5.1: The Scree Plot	62

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Problem Setting

The demand for food away from home is dramatically increasing. According to the 2003/04 New Zealand Household Economic Survey, the average weekly household expenditure on meals away from home increased from \$13.80 in 2000/01 to \$19.20 in 2003/04 (Ministry of Health, 2006). The growth of demand for food has prompted an expansion of the New Zealand foodservice industry. The national foodservice industry annual sales rose from \$3,176 million in 2002 to \$4,800 million in 2007- a nominal growth of 51 percent. There was also an analogous trend from 2002 to 2006 in the increase of the number of food service outlets and employees from 8,368 to 10,681 and 59,700 to 78,540 respectively (Restaurant Association of New Zealand, 2007). The expansion of the number of foodservice outlets has lead to an intensely competitive foodservice industry in New Zealand (Restaurant Association of New Zealand, 2006).

Restaurant operators must understand and satisfy consumers' needs, wants, and demands to be successful in the competitive foodservice industry (Gregoire, Shanklin, & Greathouse, 1995; Kotler, Bowen, & Makens, 1998). The findings from several studies show that restaurant consumers use different criteria when making restaurant decisions (Johns & Pine, 2002; Koo, Tao, & Yeung, 1999). Examples of these criteria are: food quality, service quality, restaurant physical settings, and variety of choice on the menu. The criteria also vary according to the type of restaurant (Elder et al., 1999; Heung, Wong, & Qu, 2000; Lewis, 1981) and dining occasion (Auty, 1992; June & Smith, 1987; Koo et al., 1999). In addition, a number of studies suggest that restaurant diners often view a restaurant meal as only a part of the total package of a dining experience, and that diners use a bundle of attributes, rather than a single attribute, when making restaurant decisions (Campbell-Smith, 1967; Kivela, 1997; Koo et al., 1999; Lewis, 1981; Pun & Ho, 2001).

There is a need to understand the choice factors and their relative importance that influence restaurant patrons' decision so that restaurateurs can supply their offerings and develop strategies accordingly (Elder et al., 1999). It is also crucial that restaurant operators understand the effects of consumer characteristics on restaurant choice behaviour as this information can guide them in their target marketing (Goldman, 1993).

Previous studies have highlighted the growing interest in ethnic food trends worldwide. The expansion of interest and acceptance of ethnic foods reflect the increasing diversity of contemporary society (Josiam & Monteiro, 2004). Ethnic restaurants are facing increasingly sophisticated consumers and an intensely competitive restaurant industry. Consumers who go to upscale dining establishments do not only demand good food but also a complete dining experience (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2002). A deeper understanding of consumers' selection criteria will provide ethnic restaurant operators with valuable information and insights which enable them to attract and retain more consumers (Qu, 1997).

However, there is only limited published research available on the consumer decision-making process and restaurant choice behaviour that focuses on the ethnic segment. For example, see Qu (1997) and Josiam and Monteiro (2004). Despite the importance of restaurant choice criteria and a growth in popularity of ethnic foods in New Zealand, there are no published empirical studies on ethnic restaurant choice behaviour in New Zealand. The findings of studies on the ethnic restaurant choice factors conducted in other countries may not be directly applicable to New Zealand. This study aims to contribute to the limited research in this area and provide insights into the consumer decision-making process specifically for the New Zealand foodservice industry.

1.2 New Zealand Foods

The major influence on New Zealand foods has come from Europe, especially from the British settlers, as they were the first group of European immigrants who brought with them their conventional foods of meat, potatoes and dairy (Ray Bailey & Earle,

1993). D. Burton (1982, p. xii) commented, “New Zealand cooking is, after all, the cookery of immigrants, beginning with the first Māori canoes. However, it was undoubtedly the nineteenth-century immigrants from England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales who have most influenced our eating patterns.”

A typical meal for New Zealanders introduced by the British food culture was meat and a lot of potatoes with limited types of other vegetables (Ray Bailey & Earle, 1993). Traditionally, the most popular New Zealand takeaway meal was fish and chips which were available at most neighbourhood food bars and dairy shops (van Ameyde & Brodie, 1984).

From the outset of European settlers, New Zealand has become a multicultural society with immigrants from different ethnic backgrounds. According to the New Zealand census (2006a), 22.9 percent of New Zealand residents were born overseas, compared with 19.5 percent in 2001 and 17.5 percent in 1991. The ethnic diversity in New Zealand is projected to increase in the future with the Asian population growing at the fastest rate, followed by the Pacific Island and Māori populations. In contrast, the European population is projected to drop from 79 percent in 2001 to 70 percent in 2021 (Statistics New Zealand, 2006b).

Ethnic immigrants generally like to maintain the cooking and eating habits that they had in their home countries (Mennell, Murcott, & Otterloo, 1992). They often establish their own shops making food or selling food ingredients and other food products imported from their home countries. For example, a group of Dutch-Indonesian immigrants established their own bakeries making several different types of bread, instead of only the brown and white loaves traditionally made by New Zealanders (D. Burton, 1982).

Contemporary New Zealand cuisine, at the restaurant-industry and the home-cooking levels, has been shaped by the different influences of European food and a mixture of ethnic foods (Ray Bailey & Earle, 1993; D. Burton, 1982; Simpson, 1999). Ethnic foods have become more widely accepted since 1970 when the cookery books published in New Zealand offering ethnic foods recipes started to grow in popularity (Ray Bailey & Earle, 1993).

The trend towards ethnic foods preferences has not only come from the growth of cultural and ethnic diversity but also has been fuelled by the demand of New Zealand tourists who travelled overseas and were exposed to different foods and cultures (D. Burton, 1982; Mitchell, 2003; Nimmo-Bell Company Ltd, 2002). New Zealanders who went overseas and tried the other cuisines brought back with them many new ideas for food preparation (D. Burton, 1982). These diners sometimes choose to go to the restaurants serving cuisines of the countries they have been, as they like those foods and/or to recall their overseas experiences (Monteiro, 2000). Furthermore, worldwide and national media have contributed to a rise in the interest in ethnic foods and this has stimulated the demand (Robinson, 2007).

The New Zealand ethnic food market has expanded considerably in response to the growth in the popularity of ethnic foods. The number of ethnic restaurants has increased remarkably with a greater selection of ethnic restaurants than in the past few decades. A study of ethnic restaurants in Auckland by Withers (2000) showed a considerable increase of ethnic restaurants and their diversified ethnic origins, from 41 restaurants with ten cuisines in 1972 to 281 restaurants with 24 cuisines in 1999. Additionally, the major supermarkets are now stocking ethnic food products and ingredients that once were found only in specialty or ethnic food shops, and extensive collections of cook books are now offering recipes featuring different ethnic cuisines (Withers, 2000).

1.3 The New Zealand Dining Out Market

Dining out is an important part of the lifestyles of New Zealanders (Lawson, Todd, & Evans, 2006). The New Zealand Food Market Monitoring Report 2002/03 showed an increasing trend for dining out as a result of higher incomes, an increase in the number of working women, changes in consumption patterns, and changes in household size and composition (Nimmo-Bell Company Ltd, 2002). New Zealanders are also facing the pressures of time, particularly in those households with women in the workforce (Nimmo-Bell Company Ltd, 2002).

van Ameyde and Brodie (1984) reported that New Zealanders who dined out more frequently at restaurants were in the younger age group, had smaller or childless families, and were in the professional, managerial and clerical worker families group. Takeaways were popular among young people and families with young children (van Ameyde & Brodie, 1984).

Individuals also dine out for different reasons (Lundberg & Walker, 1993). The findings from a study of Auckland consumers on restaurant selection suggested that the majority of Aucklanders dined out for social and special occasions. The dining out habits of several segments were studied, and the group that dined out most frequently were people in the high income, middle aged group (Rammaniya, 1998).

1.4 Definitions of Ethnic Food and Upscale Ethnic Restaurants

The term “ethnic food” has been defined differently in various studies. The Food Marketing Institute (1998) defines ethnic food as a product that a particular ethnic (racial, national) or cultural group favours. Utami (2004) defines ethnic food as a regional specific cuisine that tends to reflect the particular characteristics of its local origin. Food is usually considered ethnic by people who are in a different area from its origin (Utami, 2004). “Ethnic food” can also describe the cuisine of the minority immigrants in multicultural societies (Utami, 2004).

Turgeon and Pastinelli (2002, p. 252) refers “ethnic” to outsiders or people who come from another land and are foreign to the mainstream culture. The authors define “an ethnic restaurant” as “a restaurant whose signboard or publicity clearly promises the national or regional cuisine of another land”. Similarly, Olsen, Warde, and Martens (2000) studied the dining out market in the United Kingdom and identified all non-British restaurants as “ethnic” restaurants.

Based on the definition by Turgeon and Pastinelli (2002) and the restaurant segmentation concept from Olsen et al. (2000), an “ethnic restaurant” in this study is defined as a full-service restaurant serving dishes of foreign origin rather than typical

New Zealand food. Examples of ethnic restaurants are: Chinese, Greek, Italian, Indian, Japanese, Thai, Mexican, and Spanish.

Goldman (1993) classifies the upscale restaurant as the restaurant segment that offers a wide variety of restaurant concepts, including an ethnic concept. An upscale restaurant is characterised by offering a full menu, full table service, quality food made with fresh ingredients, and personalised service. The upscale restaurant segment includes not only high-check but also casual-dining and moderate-check restaurants. The upper end of this segment is a fine-dining restaurant which generally offers high quality food, décor and service and charges high prices (Goldman, 1993). For the purpose of this study, upscale ethnic restaurants include both casual and fine dining establishments with a table service provided, which have an average main course of at least \$ 20.00.

Several studies suggest that restaurant selection factors differ by the type of restaurant (Elder et al., 1999; Goldman, 1993; Heung et al., 2000; Lewis, 1981). This study aims to identify the factors that specifically influence the selection by consumers of upscale ethnic restaurants. The focus on the upscale restaurant segment in the context of this study is to standardise the factors to only those that apply to a full-service, upscale dining establishment. Fast food, takeaway and low-price ethnic restaurants are not included in this research as these types of restaurants normally focus on convenience, speed and price factors.

1.5 Research Objectives

The main objectives of this research are:

1. To identify the factors that influence the decisions of consumers to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant.
2. To determine the most important factors that affect consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.
3. To examine if consumers perceive a difference on upscale ethnic restaurant choice factors based on their demographic characteristics and dining occasion.

1.6 Research Contribution

This research aims to provide a better understanding of the consumer decision-making process for upscale ethnic restaurants in New Zealand. Understanding restaurant choice behaviour can assist upscale ethnic restaurant marketers and practitioners when they develop marketing strategies and enable them to select the most salient attributes to attract and retain customers. Furthermore, a theoretical model of restaurant selection behaviour in New Zealand developed in this study will help to provide a useful framework for future research regarding consumer behaviour in the restaurant industry. This contribution is particularly important due to the limited empirical studies on consumers' restaurant selection behaviour in New Zealand.

1.7 Thesis Overview

This research consists of six chapters in order to meet the research objectives outlined in Section 1.5.

Chapter Two reviews the services marketing literature, the literature on the consumer decision-making process, and the criteria that influence restaurant selection behaviour. Chapter Three presents the conceptual model based on the review of the literature and the focus group discussions, the research model based on the results of the factor analysis, and the development of the eleven hypotheses. Chapter Four details the methodology used to test the hypotheses. Chapter Five presents and discusses the results of the analyses undertaken in this study. Finally, Chapter Six offers conclusions and recommendations based on the results and discussions presented in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This research investigates consumer behaviour using the consumer decision-making process as a framework and identifies the factors that influence the decisions of consumers in the upscale, ethnic segment of the foodservice industry. This chapter reviews the relevant literature about consumers and services, the consumer decision-making process model, and previous studies in consumers' restaurant selection behaviour. Furthermore, the interrelationships between customer satisfaction, food quality, service quality and behavioural intentions are discussed. Lastly, the restaurant choice factors, dining occasion, and demographic characteristics are reviewed.

2.2 Consumers and Services

Service providers need to understand how consumers choose and evaluate their offerings (Zeithaml, 1981). Consumers cannot choose and evaluate services in the same manner they do to physical goods as services have distinctive characteristics and are high in experience quality. Therefore, consumers find it more difficult to evaluate services when compared to physical goods. Several studies (e.g., Kotler et al., 1998; Zeithaml, 1981; 2003) suggest that the main characteristics that make services different from physical goods are: intangibility, variability, inseparability, perishability, and lack of ownership.

2.2.1 Intangibility

The intangible quality of services is that services constitute performances and they often cannot be seen, felt, tasted, or touched like physical goods (Zeithaml, 1981). Rammaniya (1998) asserted that, when making restaurant choice decisions, consumers used both tangible and intangible factors. The intangible factors are primarily: food quality, service quality, and value for money (Auty, 1992; Soriano,

2002). The intangible characteristic of services makes these factors difficult to evaluate prior to the actual purchase. Accordingly, restaurant patrons often rely on tangible clues such as restaurant facilities, décor, and atmosphere to guide them in forming expectations about the restaurants (Bitner, 1990; Wall & Berry, 2007).

2.2.2 Variability

Services are highly variable. The performance of a given service may vary across service providers, service employees, consumers, and service encounters (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2003). The heterogeneity of services makes it difficult for consumers to frame decision criteria towards one service provider, or from one service provider to another (S. Burton, 1990). Restaurant operators; on the other hand, usually face challenges in maintaining consistent performance levels of food quality and service quality (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988). For example, a restaurant waitress may have provided an excellent service until the diners at one table make a destructive complaint. The waitress could then feel pressured and provide a poor service performance thereafter (Kotler et al., 1998).

2.2.3 Inseparability

Most services are not produced and consumed until after they are sold. The production and consumption of a service experience is usually a simultaneous process (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2003). A restaurant service has a high level of contact between diners and service employees. Accordingly, the skills and performance of restaurant staff are vital to diners' perception of restaurant experience (Kotler et al., 1998).

2.2.4 Perishability

Services cannot be stored. In contrast to physical goods that can be stored and sold at a later time, services cease to exist if they are not sold when they become available (Hoffman & Bateson, 2001). For instance, a customer who does not show up for a reserved table in the restaurant will cause the restaurateur to turn down the chance to serve other diners if the restaurant is full (Kotler et al., 1998). Service providers often find it difficult to balance the supply and demand of services, given the unpredictable nature of consumer demand for services (Hoffman & Bateson, 2001).

2.2.5 Lack of Ownership

Services are an experience. Consumers pay to get access to and experience a service but do not get a tangible ownership of that service (Clemes, Mollenkopf, & Burn, 2000). Accordingly, consumers may feel a lack of control in the purchase of services (Cowell, 1989).

2.3 The Consumer Decision-Making Process Model

There are many different versions of models of the consumer decision-making process. The model discussed in this study illustrates the steps consumers typically use when making purchase decisions for services. Given the unique characteristics of services, the consumer decision-making process for services is different from that for goods. The consumer decision-making process for services consists of five stages: problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase and consumption, and postpurchase evaluation (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2003).

2.3.1 Need Recognition

The consumer decision-making process starts from the consumers recognising that a need exists. They view this need as a problem and prepare to find a solution to solve the problem (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2003). The structure of human basic needs is proposed by Abraham Maslow as the motivation theory, ranging in a hierarchical manner in order of importance from least at the bottom to most at the top of the pyramid. These needs include physiological, safety, belongingness, esteem, and self-actualisation needs (Maslow, 1970).

In a restaurant context, Finkelstein (1989) emphasised that contemporary restaurant dining had as much to do with psychological desires as objective desires. Restaurant patrons associated their dining out with the presentation of social status and belongingness. They wanted to be seen dining out in the place that could reflect their self-images and include them as a part of social trends (Finkelstein, 1989).

2.3.2 Information Search

Once the need is recognised, consumers usually search for information about a service that can fill their need. Consumers may seek information from both personal sources (e.g. friends or experts) and nonpersonal sources (e.g. mass or selective media) as a way to reduce the perceived risks that are associated with purchasing services (Zeithaml, 1981).

Zeithaml (1981) noted that restaurant meals were considered to be high in experience qualities as they could not be evaluated prior to the purchase. The risk from the selection of the restaurant was therefore perceived to be high. For this reason, consumers primarily relied on personal sources like word-of-mouth from friends as their source of information for restaurant attributes (Ladhari, Brun, & Morales, 2008; Sweeney, Johnson, & Armstrong, 1992).

2.3.3 Evaluation of Alternatives

Once the consumers have enough information, they tend to form an evoked set of alternatives. The evoked set of alternatives is the group of options considered acceptable by a consumer in a given category of product or service (Zeithaml, 1981). Consumers evaluate these alternatives by identifying a bundle of attributes relating to their needs. They attach different degrees of importance to each of the attributes and are likely to choose the service provider that offers the attributes that are most important to them (Kotler et al., 1998). For instance, one out of two restaurants offering comparable food and service may get selected only because the restaurant offers a lower price or other extra attributes (Brookes, 2004).

2.3.4 Service Purchase and Consumption

After comparing the alternatives in the evoked set, consumers finally decide to make a purchase from their chosen service provider. In the case of a restaurant choice, consumers make a decision to dine at a particular restaurant. This stage of service purchase and the consumption of restaurant service experience happens simultaneously (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2003).

2.3.5 Postpurchase Evaluation

Consumers tend to evaluate the experience by determining if the service has met their expectations. The marketing literature notes that satisfied consumers are likely to have favourable post-dining behavioural intentions such as loyalty, recommendation, and willingness to pay more (Ladhari et al., 2008).

Understanding the process of consumers' decision-making helps restaurateurs to identify the factors that contribute to consumer behaviour in each stage. Restaurateurs can then use these factors to plan strategies in order to influence the behaviour of their customers (Monteiro, 2000).

2.4 Studies on Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour

Previous studies on consumer behaviour in the restaurant context have identified a number of factors that consumers consider important in their restaurant selection. Following are examples of these studies:

Lewis (1981) investigated the influence of the benefit features of advertising on consumers' decision to go to a restaurant. Three types of restaurants: family/popular, atmosphere, and gourmet were analysed. Food quality was found as the most important feature determining patronage intentions to any type of restaurant. However, the range of importance of the other features differed by the type of restaurant.

Auty (1992) identified the choice factors in the restaurant decision process based on four occasions: a celebration, social occasion, convenience/quick meal, and business meal. Food type, food quality and value for money were found as the most important choice variables for consumers when choosing a restaurant. The order of these choice criteria varied according to dining occasions. The author further suggested that if the consumers perceived that restaurants provide comparable food type, food quality and price, they would take image and atmosphere of the restaurants into account when making a final decision.

Kivela (1997) examined the main choice variables of restaurant selection in four different types of restaurants, including fine dining/gourmet, theme/atmosphere, family/popular, and convenience/fast-food restaurants. The Kivela's (1997) results showed that the relative importance of the restaurant choice factors differed considerably by restaurant type, dining occasion, age, and occupation.

The studies of consumer behaviour in ethnic restaurants are relatively limited. Previous ethnic restaurant studies have focused on consumers' perceptions and attitudes (e.g., Raymond Bailey & Tian, 2002; Josiam & Monteiro, 2004; Verbeke & López, 2005) or on a particular cuisine (e.g., Josiam & Monteiro, 2004; Qu, 1997; Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007). Among these studies, the unique characteristics of ethnic cuisine are commonly discussed. However, ethnic restaurateurs cannot compete simply on the uniqueness of the cuisine. The results of past studies have emphasised that, in order to succeed, restaurant operators need to pay attention to the attributes that have the highest regard in relation to consumers' selection behaviour.

The next section will examine the relationships between important constructs: food quality, service quality, customer satisfaction, and behavioural intentions.

2.5 Food Quality, Service Quality, Customer Satisfaction, and Behavioural Intentions

The services marketing literature has shown evidence of interrelationships between food quality, service quality, customer satisfaction and repeat patronage. Overall food quality was found to significantly affect customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Namkung & Jang, 2007). Similarly, it has been well established by a number of studies that service quality is an antecedent of customer satisfaction (Chow, Lau, Lo, Sha, & Yun, 2007), which in turn leads to favourable behavioural intentions such as repurchase and recommendation to others (Cheng, 2006; Dube, Renaghan, & Miller, 1994; Ladhari et al., 2008).

Because of the correlations between customer satisfaction and food quality, and between customer satisfaction and service quality, the variable 'customer satisfaction'

will not be included in the research model developed for this study. High correlations between the independent variables need to be avoided to prevent multicollinearity problem in the data analysis stage. Therefore, this study analyses food quality and service quality separately as factors that have an impact on consumers' decisions when selecting a restaurant.

2.6 Factors Influencing Restaurant Decisions

Consumers select their restaurants based on many factors. Several published studies have investigated the key criteria used by consumers in selecting a restaurant and have presented a number of different choice factors. The factors that have been found to influence restaurant decisions are as follows:

2.6.1 Food Quality

Food quality is rated as the most important attribute influencing restaurant decisions in many studies on consumers' restaurant selection behaviour (e.g., Auty, 1992; Lewis, 1981; Soriano, 2002; Sulek & Hensley, 2004). The elements that constitute food quality proposed in this study are unique tastes and ingredients, menu variety, appearance and presentation, healthy food options, and familiar food.

2.6.1.1 Unique Tastes and Ingredients

Tastes and ingredients play an important role for consumers when selecting a restaurant. Food taste is regarded as the most important element of food attributes in several restaurant studies (see Josiam & Monteiro, 2004; Tunzi, 2000). Unique food tastes and ingredients are particularly important in the case of ethnic restaurant dining as Bannerman (1998, as cited in Robinson, 2007, p. 80) noted, "the obvious attraction of ethnic restaurants was getting food you couldn't cook at home". The results of a study by Sukalakamala and Boyce (2007) indicated that consumers of Thai restaurants considered unique tastes and authentic ingredients as the most important components of their authentic dining experience.

2.6.1.2 Menu Variety

Restaurateurs frequently develop new menus and offer a selection of different menu items to attract customers (Namkung & Jang, 2007). Kivela, Inbakaram & Reece (2000) identified menu variety as a significant attribute of food quality in determining customer satisfaction in theme/atmosphere restaurants.

2.6.1.3 Appearance and Presentation

Appearance and presentation refers to the way food is decorated (Namkung & Jang, 2007). Namkung and Jang (2007) found that presentation was the most important contributor among food quality attributes in determining customer satisfaction in restaurants.

2.6.1.4 Healthy Food Options

Nowadays, consumers are more concerned with their health and are therefore driving a growing demand for healthy food choices (Sulek & Hensley, 2004). The findings of Namkung and Jang (2007) showed a significant relationship between healthy food options and behavioural intentions. The National Restaurant Association (USA) reported that a large number of restaurants are adding items and adjusting their menus to accommodate and attract consumers who are concerned about health and nutritional value of a meal (as cited in Mill, 2007).

Previous studies have found evidence of consumers' beliefs that particular ethnic foods are healthy. For example, Bailey and Tian (2002) reported that consumers of Indian restaurant in the United States of America viewed Indian food as much healthier than American food. Similarly, health was the most important value of eating Indian food for English consumers in the United Kingdom (White & Kokotsaki, 2004).

2.6.1.5 Familiar Food

Tian (2001, p. 127) stated, "food consumption habits and patterns are components of culture that make an important contribution to the food decision consumers make". In some cases, foods of other cultures are accepted if they have familiar ingredients and

preparation styles (Raymond Bailey & Tian, 2002). This study proposes that consumers go to an ethnic restaurant that serves food they are familiar with.

2.6.2 Service Quality

Service quality is found to be a salient factor of restaurant selection in numerous studies. Previous studies have presented inconsistent sets and number of choice attributes of service quality in the restaurant (Tucci & Talaga, 2000). The dimensions of service quality proposed in this study are physical environment and service staff behaviour.

2.6.2.1 Physical Environment

The marketing literature has provided evidence of how the physical environment influences consumer behaviour (e.g., Bitner, 1992; Wall & Berry, 2007). The physical environment of the restaurant such as restaurant's atmosphere, ambience, décor, furniture, and other facilities can have a great impact on the dining experience (Sloan, 2004) and behavioural intentions (Ryu & Jang, 2007). Previous studies demonstrated that, because of the unique nature of the restaurant service, physical environments could guide consumers in evaluating a restaurant experience (Wall & Berry, 2007).

2.6.2.2 Service Staff Behaviour

The importance of service staff to the service operators is widely recognised in the service marketing literature (Cowell, 1989). Wall and Berry (2007) indicated that service staff behaviour was particularly important when the other mechanic clues such as restaurant atmosphere were perceived negatively. In this situation, humanic clues such as impressive employee behaviour could help level up consumers' perception of dining experience. Consumers generally expect restaurant service employees to be attentive, courteous and possess a good knowledge of the menu (Heung et al., 2000; Pratten, 2003; Sulek & Hensley, 2004).

2.6.3 Word of Mouth (Reputation)

Word-of-mouth is a critical source of information for a restaurant service if uncertainty and risk are perceived to be high (Sweeney et al., 1992). A

recommendation from a friend can greatly contribute to a decision to try a restaurant. Unlike advertising, a suggestion from a friend is not usually based on any gain or profit. Thus, consumers place more trust on their friends' recommendation when making a restaurant choice (Mill, 2007). Besides, consumers can find out about restaurant experience qualities, which are usually difficult to judge through the other non-personal sources, from their friends' personal experience (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2003).

According to Mangold, Miller, and Brockway (1999), satisfied customers tell an average of five people, while dissatisfied customers share their bad experiences with nine other people. Research by Bailey and Tian (2002) also discussed the role of recommendations from friends and family in influencing consumers' decision to dine at an Indian restaurant. Knowing that their peers enjoyed the ethnic food culture at a restaurant helped diners to feel more comfortable when choosing to dine at a restaurant with a culture they are not familiar with (Raymond Bailey & Tian, 2002).

2.6.4 Marketing Communications

Services operators use marketing communications as the way to inform, persuade, and remind customers (Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker, 1998). The marketing communications employed by restaurateurs are advertising, sales promotion, and publicity (Mill, 2007).

2.6.4.1 Advertising

Advertising includes "any paid form of nonpersonal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods, or services by an identified sponsor" (Mill, 2007, p. 83). Advertising may come in the form of television, newspaper, radio, magazines, yellow pages, and internet (Mill, 2007).

Pedraja and Yague (2001) argued that consumers used information from advertising, and the information provided at the restaurant when searching for external sources of information. The information from the advertising was used as a source to reduce perceived risk and uncertainty (Pedraja & Yague, 2001).

2.6.4.2 Sales Promotion

Sales promotions, such as special offers and discounts, can act as short-term incentives motivating consumers to choose a particular service provider (Mill, 2007). According to Jackson, Titz, and DeFranco (2004), high-price restaurants benefited from coupon promotions to a greater extent than lower price restaurants. This finding suggests that patronage of consumers in upscale establishments can be motivated by sales promotions.

2.6.4.3 Publicity

Publicity refers to non-paid communications such as a press release and press conference (Mill, 2007). Publicity provides more credibility for consumers as the company (in this context- a restaurant) does not usually have control over critics like it does with paid advertising (Burnett & Moriarty, 1998). Therefore, publicity has the advantage of being able to reach consumers who are particularly cynical about advertising (Kotler et al., 1998).

Positive media relations can create a positive image for a restaurant and thus may be used as another effective marketing communications tool (J. Miller, 1993). Robinson (2007) argued that a growth of interest and demand in ethnic cuisines was partly from the influence of the media. This contention implies that publicity is another influential factor of ethnic restaurant patronage.

2.6.5 Cultural Learning

Eating in an authentic ethnic restaurant is a way to experience another culture, as Van den Berghe (1984, as cited in Withers, 2000) postulated:

What more accessible and friendlier arena of inter-ethnic contact could be devised than the ethnic restaurant? What easier way to experience vicariously another culture than to share its food? As an outsider consuming an exotic cuisine, one is literally 'taking in' the foreign culture.

The whole experience consumers receive from patronizing an ethnic restaurant, including ethnic wait staff, and flavour of the cuisine, brings them closer to that

particular culture and helps them recall the memories of their overseas trips to the country (Verbeke & López, 2005).

Yüksel and Yüksel (2002) studied the segmentation of tourist consumers and their restaurant choice and found that tourists in the adventure seekers group would try local cuisine in order to learn about the traditions and culture of the host country. Similarly, the findings by Tian (2001) and Sukalakamala and Boyce (2007) confirmed that diners viewed an ethnic restaurant patronage as a way to learn about a different culture.

2.6.6 Image and Social Status

Finkelstein (1989) claimed that restaurant dining helped to satisfy diners' deeper emotional desires for social status, image, and belongingness. Some restaurants were regarded as higher in status than others, which was reflected through images the restaurateurs try to communicate with their consumers (Finkelstein, 1989). For example, Cheng (2006) investigated the differences in consumer behaviours of diners from different classes of restaurants in Taiwan. Restaurants were classed as "fancy restaurant" and "ordinary restaurant" mainly based on their price level. The findings showed that a fancy restaurant attracted more diners with stable jobs such as government employees and teachers, and an ordinary restaurant's main consumers were students (Cheng, 2006). The patronage of certain groups of consumers at different classes of restaurant implies that consumers may choose a restaurant based on the restaurant image, as they relate the restaurant experience to their social status.

Additionally, Peters (2005) studied the reason and motivation of going to fine restaurants in Sao Paulo, Brazil using face-to-face interviews and found that fine restaurant patrons were of high rank and income whose motives included needs of a social and self-esteem nature. The diners generally felt superior in the fine dining environment as they were well looked after, and they claimed that the ambience and style suited their esteem need (Peters, 2005).

2.6.7 Different Experience

Novelty has specific appeal, and consumers are known to be curious for novelties including experiencing a new food and the new ambience of a restaurant (Peters, 2005). A new experience emerges as a determinant influencing some consumers to dine at an ethnic restaurant, as they consider such variety of experiences a value in itself (Martens & Warde, 1998). Patrons of ethnic restaurants often seek an authentic experience that is different from their everyday meals at home (Turgeon & Pastinelli, 2002).

Dining at ethnic restaurants also offers diners the opportunity to have the similar emotional and symbolic experience of a vacation, without even leaving home, as Zelinsky (1987, p. 31) posited:

The diners at ethnic restaurants don't go just for the food. They also hunger for an exotic dining experience. Ethnic restaurants offer an effortless journey to a distant land where the waiter recites a menu of alien delights in charmingly accented English. The patrons of ethnic restaurants are gastronomic tourists.

2.6.8 Value for Money

Value for money is another factor restaurant patrons take into account when selecting a restaurant. If they perceive that the value received is less than the price paid, they are likely to evaluate the dining experience negatively (Mill, 2007). Muller and Woods (1994) asserted that restaurant consumers use price as a measure for the quality of the restaurant, assuming that an expensive restaurant serves better food and offers better quality. Similarly, Sweeny et al. (1992) commented that a low price may increase the probability of choosing a particular restaurant, while a low price may also decrease consumer perceptions of restaurant quality.

2.7 Dining Occasion

Much research on restaurant consumer behaviour includes dining occasion as one of the variables determining dining behaviour. For example, Kivela, Inbakaran, and Reece (1999a) argued that dining occasion was an important factor that aroused the

need to dine out and lead to different restaurant behaviours. Sweeney et al. (1992) found different patterns of importance of restaurant selection criteria based on two different dining situations: dinner with a friend and dinner with a group of friends. Similarly, June and Smith (1987) proposed a model of consumers' choice of a restaurant according to four different meal contexts: an intimate dinner, a birthday celebration, a business lunch and a family dinner. The authors found that consumers place different level of importance on each restaurant attribute depending on the dining occasion.

This study does not include dining occasion as an upscale ethnic restaurant choice factor. This is because dining occasion in this study is only applicable to one group of consumers, upscale ethnic restaurant goers, whereas the study collects the data from both upscale ethnic restaurant goers and non-goers. However, the study determines if consumers in the goer group perceive upscale ethnic restaurant choice factors differently.

2.8 Demographic Characteristics

Demographic variations are used in numerous studies to differentiate the market segments of consumers. The findings of past research demonstrate how different demographic characteristics affect restaurant patronage behaviours. For example, Olsen et al. (2000) reported evidence of niche markets for ethnic restaurants mainly based on education level, age, and income. The authors stated that the likelihood of attending ethnic restaurants decreased with age (Olsen et al., 2000).

Moreover, the restaurant selection behaviour was found to vary according to gender (Mohsin, 2005); ethnic and cultural groups (Josiam & Monteiro, 2004; Verma, Pullman, & Goodale, 1999); age groups (Auty, 1992; Kivela, 1997; Mohsin, 2005); occupation (Kivela, 1997); income (Auty, 1992); and benefit seeking behaviour (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2002). The common demographic groups that were found to relate to ethnic restaurants patronage behaviour were the well educated and high income groups (Turgeon & Pastinelli, 2002).

Based on the review of the literature on the foodservice industry, this study examines if the following demographic characteristics: gender, age, ethnicity, qualification, occupation, household composition, and household income affect restaurant choice.

2.9 Relative Importance of Restaurant Choice Factors

Several researchers have explained that it is essential that restaurant operators find out the relative importance of each choice factor as consumers make decisions based on the degree of importance they attach to each choice factor (Kivela et al., 1999a; Koo et al., 1999; Qu, 1997). Several studies suggest that the relative importance of different attributes is subject to the dining situation (Auty, 1992; Dube et al., 1994; Kivela, 1997; Koo et al., 1999; Sweeney et al., 1992) and consumer demographic characteristics (Kivela et al., 2000; Olsen et al., 2000; Soriano, 2002; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2002).

Given limited resources and an indefinite list of choice factors demanded by consumers, an understanding of the relative importance of factors can guide restaurateurs to prioritise their offerings (Dube et al., 1994; Soriano, 2002). Thus, restaurant managers can pay attention and allocate their resources to the attributes that are most important to restaurant consumers in their dining decisions (Sulek & Hensley, 2004).

2.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the relevant literature regarding consumers and services, the consumer decision-making process model, and the restaurant choice factors. The literature supports the contention that food quality, service quality, word-of-mouth, marketing communications, cultural learning, image and social status, different experience, and value for money influence the restaurant selection behaviour.

CHAPTER 3

MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the conceptual gaps identified in the literature review presented in Chapter Two. A conceptual model of upscale ethnic restaurant choice factors is presented, and the eleven hypotheses proposed in this study are discussed. The testing of the hypotheses will also address the following three research objectives:

1. To identify the factors that influence the decisions of consumers to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant.
2. To determine the most important factors that affect consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.
3. To examine if consumers perceive a difference on upscale ethnic restaurant choice factors based on their demographic characteristics and dining occasion.

3.2 Conceptual Gaps

By reviewing the literature on consumers' restaurant selection behaviour, the following conceptual gaps have been identified:

Firstly, the topic of consumer behaviour regarding restaurant decision has received relatively little research attention. Additionally, only a limited number of the empirical studies have included or focused on the ethnic restaurant segment. Furthermore, many of the previous studies on ethnic restaurants tend to focus on consumers' perceptions and attitudes towards ethnic foods rather than the restaurant choice factors.

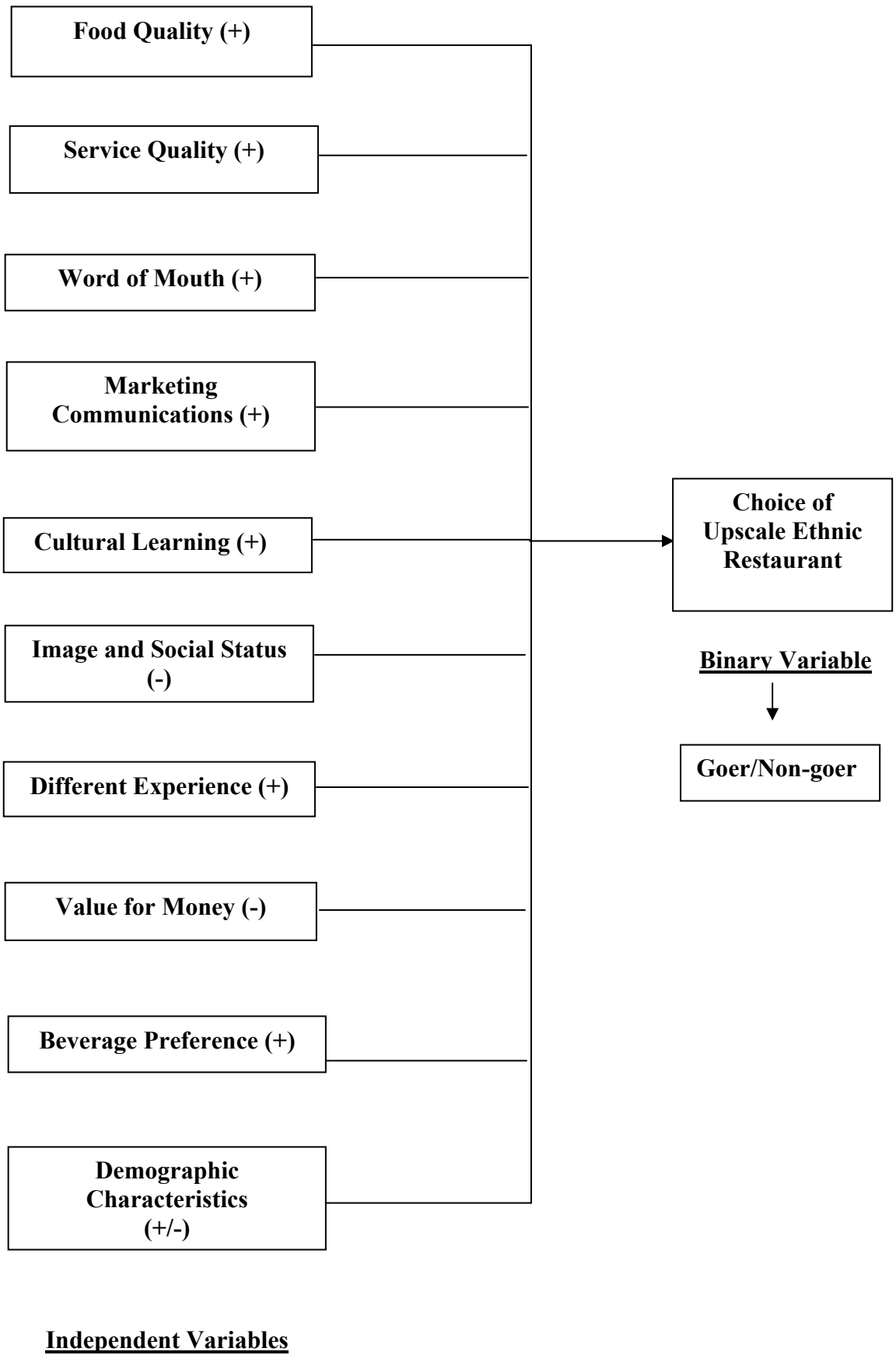
Secondly, to date, there is no empirical research related to consumer choice factors for the ethnic segment of the restaurant industry conducted specifically in New Zealand. The ethnic restaurant choice factors that have been analysed in other countries may vary from the factors that influence New Zealand consumers due to the differences in consumer characteristics and their decision-making behaviour.

The third gap relates to a lack of research pertaining to the restaurant choice factors that consumers perceive to be more or less important. This gap is important as ethnic restaurant management needs to know how to prioritise their efforts and resources to attract and retain more diners.

3.3 The Conceptual Research Model

The conceptual model (see Figure 3.1) developed in this study was based on the review of the literature in Chapter Two and the focus group discussions (see Section 4.4.1). The research model suggests that consumers make a decision on an upscale ethnic restaurant based on nine factors: food quality, service quality, word-of-mouth, marketing communications, cultural learning, image and social status, different experience, value for money, and beverage preference, and demographic characteristics including: gender, age, ethnicity, qualification, occupation, household composition, and household income, when selecting a restaurant.

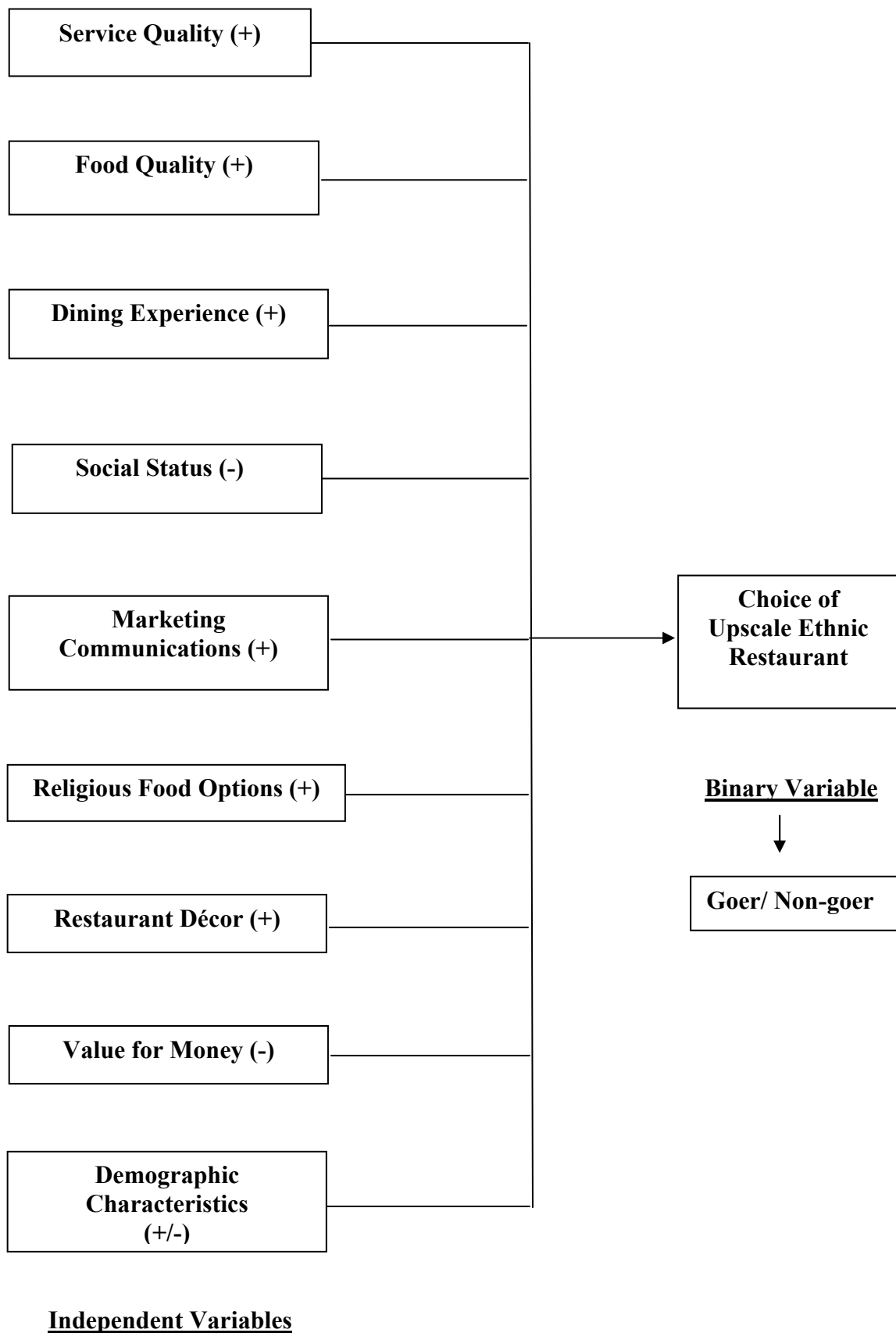
Figure 3.1: The Conceptual Research Model



3.4 The Research Model Based on the Factor Analysis

Due to the exploratory nature of this study, an exploratory factor analysis was performed (see Section 5.4.2) to obtain a robust and reliable factor structure. After deleting one factor which did not meet the reliability measure, eight factors were selected to improve the research model and develop the hypotheses used in this study. The eight factors are service quality, food quality, dining experience, social status, marketing communications, religious food options, restaurant décor, and value for money. Furthermore, the demographic characteristics: gender, age, ethnicity, qualification, occupation, household composition, and household income, are retained in the model. The final version of research model is presented in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: The Consumers' Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Choice Factors Model



3.5 Hypothesis Development

The hypotheses developed for this study were based on the factor structure derived from the exploratory factor analysis. Eleven hypotheses are established to satisfy the three research objectives. Hypothesis 1 to Hypothesis 8 address Research Objective One; and Hypothesis 9 to Hypothesis 11 address Research Objective Two and Three.

3.6 Hypotheses Relating to Research Objective One

3.6.1 Service Quality

Previous studies on consumer behaviour in a restaurant setting (e.g., Chow et al., 2007; Johns & Pine, 2002; Sweeney et al., 1992) suggest that service quality significantly influences consumers' decision on a restaurant. For example, Sweeney et al. (1992) studied the influence of various cues on the perceptions of service quality for a restaurant and found that manner of staff was the most important cue consumers used in selecting a restaurant. In addition, waiting time (Sulek & Hensley, 2004) and billing accuracy (Kelly & Carvell, 1987) can affect the perceived dining experience of restaurant consumers. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: Service quality has a positive effect on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.

3.6.2 Food Quality

Food quality is clearly a fundamental element of a restaurant experience (Namkung & Jang, 2007; Sulek & Hensley, 2004). Sulek and Hensley (2004) investigated the relative importance of food quality, physical environment, and service quality in a full-service restaurant and found that food quality was the most important determining factor of overall dining experience and repeat patronage. Similarly, Auty (1992) and Kivela (1997) studied the restaurant selection factors for different restaurant types and dining occasions and found that food type and food quality were the most influential factors of a restaurant selection, regardless of restaurant type or occasion. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H2: Food quality has a positive effect on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.

3.6.3 Dining Experience

Dining experience, in this study, includes different dining experiences, cultural learning, restaurant atmosphere, and authentic restaurant design. The composition of these elements of a dining experience conforms to the unique aspects of an ethnic restaurant dining experience. Consumers go to an ethnic restaurant not only for food and service but also for a different dining experience and cultural experience (Tian, 2001; Turgeon & Pastinelli, 2002). This explanation is consistent with the study of Sukalakamala and Boyce (2007) who suggested that authentic ethnic cuisines experience, cultural learning, and different experience were among the main important preferences of consumers' perception of dining at ethnic restaurants. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: Dining experience has a positive effect on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.

3.6.4 Social Status

The items that constitute social status in this study are social class, image and beverage preference. The constitution of this variable is unique to this study which may be partly explained by the drinking culture of New Zealand. New Zealand diners may associate their drinking and dining out as being a part of their lifestyle. As Simpson (1999) commented, "New Zealand is a drinking nation". In addition, a study of the Christchurch and New Zealand dining out markets by van Ameyde and Brodie (1984) pointed out that New Zealand patrons dined out more at licensed restaurants than unlicensed restaurants. Further, previous studies have suggested that diners selected a restaurant based on the restaurant image which was often associated with their social status (Cheng, 2006; Peters, 2005). An upscale restaurant, in particular, has been associated with esteem and status (Mill, 2007). Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4: Low social status has a negative effect on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.

3.6.5 Marketing Communications

As discussed in the literature, marketing communications is used by service firms to inform, persuade and remind consumers (Lovelock et al., 1998). The importance of word-of-mouth for service firms has been well established in the marketing literature (Mangold et al., 1999). Marketing communications, including word-of-mouth, advertising, and promotion was found to be a significant factor influencing customer loyalty for international restaurants in Saudi Arabia (Tunsi, 2000). Additionally, positive publicity can create a positive image for a restaurant and thus may be used as another effective marketing communications tool (J. Miller, 1993). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H5: Marketing communications has a positive impact on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.

3.6.6 Religious Food Options

Religious beliefs play an important role in food selection for consumers of several religions groups (Asp, 1999; Dugan, 1994). For example, Muslims are forbidden to consume pork and alcohol and only allowed to eat the meat of animals that are slaughtered according to the 'halal' rules of Islam. These religious requirements prevent them from going to restaurants that do not offer 'halal' food (Hassan & Hall, 2004). Therefore, the restaurants that offer food choices that are prepared according to religious beliefs are likely to attract wider groups of consumers (Dugan, 1994). Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H6: Religious food options have a positive impact on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.

3.6.7 Restaurant Décor

Restaurant décor is also recognised as an important aspect of a dining experience. The decoration in a restaurant including furniture style, lighting, comfort of seating, paintings, and other facilities can have an impact on how diners perceive and rate the restaurant (Sloan, 2004). Ryu and Jang (2007) empirically found a positive relationship between restaurant facility aesthetics, which included restaurant décor, and behavioural intentions, moderated by pleasure. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H7: An appealing restaurant décor has a positive impact on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.

3.6.8 Value for Money

Restaurant consumers consider the value for money of a restaurant by comparing what they get from the restaurant (e.g. food and service) and what they have to sacrifice by patronizing that restaurant (e.g. price) (Oh, 2000). In general, consumers recognise a good value for money when they perceive that the quality of the products and service they receive are worth as much, or more than, the price they pay. Soriano (2002) and Oh (2000) identified value for money as an important variable when consumers make a decision on a restaurant. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H8: Low value for money has a negative effect on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.

3.7 Hypotheses Relating to Research Objective Two and Three

As discussed in Section 2.6 to Section 2.8, previous research has emphasised that restaurant consumers attached a different level of importance when evaluating restaurant choice factors and the importance of the choice factors varied, depending on dining occasion (e.g., Auty, 1992; Dube et al., 1994; Kivela, 1997; Koo et al.,

1999) and consumers' demographic characteristics (e.g., E. Kim & Geistfeld, 2003; Kivela et al., 2000; Koo et al., 1999; Olsen et al., 2000). The following hypotheses are thus proposed:

- H9: Consumers attach different degrees of importance to the restaurant choice factors when making a decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant.
- H10: Consumers perceive restaurant choice factors differently based on their dining occasion (normal dining out, business- or work-related, gathering with friends/family, special occasion and celebration, and dating/intimate dining).
- H11: Consumers perceive restaurant choice factors differently based on their demographic characteristics (gender, age, ethnicity, qualification, occupation, household composition, and household income).

3.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter identified three gaps in the literature pertaining to restaurant selection behaviour. A conceptual research model and a research model based on the factor analysis were presented, along with eleven testable hypotheses.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research methodology used to test the eleven hypotheses, stated in Section 3.6 and Section 3.7, and to satisfy the three research objectives, stated in Section 3.1.

The sample derivation and expected sample size are explained, as well as the methods of data collection. Subsequently, the questionnaire design is discussed. Lastly, the data analysis techniques used in this study, such as factor analysis and logistic regression analysis, are discussed.

4.2 Sampling Method

The data was collected by a mail survey of Christchurch residents. The data was collected from respondents 18 years and older. A systematic sampling method was employed in this research. The systematic sampling method is common for consumer attitude surveys as the method is suitable when the population frame is large (Sekaran, 2003). First, number 7 was chosen from a list of random numbers that were generated using a Microsoft Excel Spreadsheet. Subsequently, the sample was drawn systematically from the 2007/08 Christchurch Telecom White Pages.

4.3 Sample Size

A precise sample size should be met in order to make generalisations with confidence about the constructs under investigation. Therefore, the sample statistics can reflect the population parameters as accurately as possible with only a narrow margin of error (Sekaran, 2003). This study used the Christchurch population as the target population. According to the 2006 New Zealand census, the population of Christchurch city was

348,435. The sample size required to achieve a 95% level of confidence was estimated as 384¹. The expected response rate was 30 percent, thus 1,300 survey questionnaires were mailed out.

4.4 Questionnaire Development

The lack of published research relating to ethnic restaurant choice factors in New Zealand made it necessary to collect primary data to test the eleven hypotheses and satisfy the research objectives of this study. The questionnaire was designed specifically for this study. Because this research is exploratory, an extensive review of the literature and focus group discussions were used to help identify the consumer choice criteria for dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant. Initially, the factors derived from the literature review and the focus group discussions were used to assist in developing the questionnaire.

4.4.1 Construct Operationalisation

The extensive review of the literature presented in Chapter Two identified the proposed factors that influence a decision to dine at a restaurant. However, only limited studies relate to ethnic restaurants (e.g., Tunsi, 2000; Turgeon & Pastinelli, 2002; Utami, 2004; Verbeke & López, 2005; Withers, 2000) and restaurants of particular ethnic cuisine (Raymond Bailey & Tian, 2002; Josiam & Monteiro, 2004; Qu, 1997; Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007). Therefore, in order to provide additional insights into the factors influencing ethnic restaurant dining and to help develop a questionnaire specifically for the New Zealand foodservice market, it was necessary to conduct focus group interviews.

Focus group research has been used to “reveal consumer’s hidden needs, wants, attitudes, feelings, behaviours, perceptions, and motives regarding services, products, or practices” (Hair, Bush, & Ortinau, 2000, p. 223). In addition, Greenbaum (1998) noted that focus group interviews were most popular with attitude research, such as

¹ Sample Size Formula: finite population without replacement: $n = \frac{NZ^2\alpha/2pq}{(N-1)e^2 + Z^2\alpha/2pq}$ (Adapted from Mendenhall, Reinmuth & Beaver, 1993)

service quality evaluations. When combined with quantitative methods such as questionnaire surveys, focus group interviews are described as critical for developing and creating reliable measurement scales (Hair et al., 2000).

According to Greenbaum (1998), a mini focus group consisting of four to six participants is the most efficient size for focus group research. Two focus groups of six participants were conducted for this study. The participants were randomly selected on a convenience basis. Participants in both groups were males and females 18 years and older, who had or had not dined at an upscale ethnic restaurant in the past twelve months.

The participants were asked to identify the factors that influence their decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant. The groups were encouraged to discuss any factors they could think of and also to comment on any factors mentioned by other participants. Subsequently, the participants were asked to determine the factors that were most important to them when choosing an upscale ethnic restaurant. The focus group discussions lasted for approximately 45 minutes for each group. They were recorded and transcribed.

In addition to the factors derived from the literature review, the focus group discussions have revealed the following factors: religious food options (sub-factor of food quality), waiting time and accuracy of billing (sub-factors of service quality), and beverage preference. These factors and the factors derived from the literature review (see Section 2.6) were used in the analysis.

4.4.2 Questionnaire Format

The questionnaire contained four sections. For clarification purposes, the focus and definition of an upscale ethnic restaurant in this study were stated on the first page of the questionnaire. Section One consisted of three questions regarding attendance, frequency of dining, and occasion of dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant. Respondents who had not dined at an upscale ethnic restaurant in the past twelve months were asked to skip the frequency of dining and occasion of dining questions. Section Two was for the respondents who were upscale ethnic restaurant goers. It

consisted of 37 statements relating to food quality, service quality, word of mouth, marketing communications, cultural learning, image and social status, different experience, value for money, and beverage preference. Likewise, Section Three contained 37 statements for the upscale ethnic restaurant non-goers (respondents who had not dined at an upscale ethnic restaurant in the past twelve months). Section Four contained questions regarding demographic characteristics.

All items in Section Two and Section Three were positively worded. Respondents were asked to express their agreement to the 37 statements in either section, depending if they were an upscale ethnic restaurant goer or non-goer. The statements were measured using a seven-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Agree (1) to Strongly Disagree (7). The statements were randomly placed in the questionnaire to reduce systematic biases in the responses as recommended by Sekaran (2003).

4.4.3 Pre-testing Procedures

To assess the reliability and validity of the questionnaire, a pre-test was conducted. As the questionnaire was developed specifically for this research, pre-testing helped to clarify the questions and statements. 30 questionnaires were randomly distributed to restaurant consumers 18 years and older. The respondents were encouraged to comment on any questions or statements that they thought were ambiguous or unclear. Some minor wording modifications to the questionnaire were made as a result of this process. The final version of the questionnaire is in Appendix B.

4.5 Data Collection Procedures

1,300 questionnaires were distributed to the randomly selected respondents. The data collection procedures were based on the guidelines recommended by Dillman (2007). A prepaid self-addressed envelop and a cover letter (see Appendix A) were attached to the survey. Respondents were requested to return the completed surveys within 15 days after receiving them.

4.6 Data Analysis Techniques

Due to the limited empirical studies on ethnic restaurant choice factors, exploratory factor analysis was used to validate the decision factors suggested from the focus group discussions and the literature review. Subsequently, logistic regression analysis was used to identify the significant factors that influence a decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant in order to satisfy Research Objective One. The Sensitivity analysis was used to satisfy Research Objective Two. The marginal effect for each of the estimated coefficients in the model was calculated to determine the most important factors influencing a choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant. Furthermore, T-tests and ANOVA were used to satisfy Research Objective Three.

4.6.1 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical technique used to form a structure within a set of observed variables (Stewart, 1981). It is an interdependence technique in which all variables are simultaneously considered (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Factor analysis has three general functions: (1) minimising the number of variables while the amount of information in the analysis is maximised; (2) searching qualitative and quantitative data distinctions when the data is too large; (3) testing hypotheses about the number of distinctions or factors underlying a set of data (Stewart, 1981).

The following sections will overview different types of factor analysis, assumptions of factor analysis, factor rotation, and interpretation of the resulting factors.

4.6.1.1 Modes of Factor Analysis

There are a number of modes of factor analysis (see Table 4.1) which all provide information about the dimensional structure of data (Stewart, 1981). The appropriate mode of factor analysis depends on the objectives of the research (Hair et al., 1998). In this study, a set of variables were collected at the same time from a number of individuals. Therefore, R factor analysis was used in this study.

Table 4.1: Modes of Factor Analysis (Stewart, 1981, p. 53)

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4.6.1.2 Types of Factor Analysis

There are two common types of factor analysis; exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis (Stewart, 1981). The selection of either technique depends on the purpose of the analysis. Exploratory factor analysis is used when the underlying structure of a data set are unknown, while confirmatory factor analysis is common for theory building by testing hypotheses about the structure of a data set that has been formed by prior research (Stewart, 1981).

As the underlying structure of the data set is unknown in this exploratory research, exploratory factor analysis was used in this study.

There are two choices of commonly used models to obtain factor solutions; common factor analysis and component analysis (Hair et al., 1998). The exact method is chosen on a basis of the objectives of factor analysis and the amount of prior knowledge about the variance of the variables (Hair et al., 1998).

The common factor model is most appropriate when the objective of the research is to identify the latent dimensions or constructs represented in the original variables, and the researcher has little knowledge regarding either specific or error variances (Hair et al., 1998). However, several problems are associated with the use of common factor analysis, and for this reason, component analysis has become a more widely used technique. Component factor analysis is appropriate if the concern of the research is prediction, or minimum number of factors are needed to account for the maximum portion of the variance, and when prior knowledge suggests that specific and error variance represents a relatively small proportion of the total variance (Hair et al.,

1998). Component factor analysis was considered more appropriate for the data analysis required in this study.

4.6.1.3 Statistical Assumptions for Factor Analysis

Hair et al. (1998) identified several critical conceptual and statistical assumptions for factor analysis. These issues are discussed below:

No Selection Bias/Proper Specification:

Factor analysis can be used to explore data whose structure is unknown. Factor analysis is not suitable for determining the appropriateness of data other than the correlation among variables (Hair et al., 1998). Garson (2008a) noted that if the relevant variables are excluded and irrelevant variables are included in the correlation matrix, the factors which are uncovered will be affected substantially. Consequently, researchers must ensure that, when using factor analysis, the observed patterns are conceptually valid and appropriate for the study (Hair et al., 1998).

Linearity:

Factor analysis is a linear procedure, the smaller the sample size, the more important it is to screen the data for linearity (Garson, 2008a).

Normality:

Screening data for normality is vital if a statistical test is applied to the significance of the factors (Hair et al., 1998). Nevertheless, multicollinearity is also required to some degree, as factor analysis is used to form interrelated sets of variables (Hair et al., 1998).

Homoscedasticity:

Factor analysis assumes homoscedasticity of the relationship among measured variables. However, this is not considered a critical assumption (Garson, 2008a).

Adequate Sample Size:

Hair et al (1998) recommended at least 50 and preferably 100 or larger sample for factor analysis. The authors also noted that the highest cases-per-variable ratio is

desirable to assure that the significance in factor analysis does not happen by chance (Hair et al., 1998).

However, if the data matrix has sufficient correlations to justify the application of factor analysis, the assumptions of linearity, normality, and homoscedasticity do not necessarily have to be met (Hair et al., 1998). The approaches to justify sufficient correlations for factor analysis are discussed in the following section.

4.6.1.4 Tests for Determining Appropriateness of Factor Analysis

Hair et al. (1998) suggested that there are several methods to determine whether factor analysis is appropriate to be applied to a set of data. These are:

- (i) Examination of the Correlation Matrix;
- (ii) Inspection of the Anti-Image Correlation Matrix
- (iii) Bartlett's Test of Sphericity;
- (iv) Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.

Examination of the Correlation Matrix:

An examination of the correlation matrix is a simple method of determining the appropriateness of factor analysis. As factor analysis is concerned with the homogeneity of items, low correlations throughout the correlation matrix would suggest the inappropriateness (Stewart, 1981). According to Hair et al. (1998), the values of correlations in the correlation matrix are expected to be greater than .30 for the factor analysis to be appropriate.

Inspection of the Anti-Image Correlation Matrix:

The correlations among variables in the data matrix can also be determined by inspection of the anti-image correlation matrix. This represents the negative value of the partial correlations (Hair et al., 1998). If variables share common factors, the partial correlation coefficient between pairs of variables should be small, and the correlation matrix should be near diagonal when the linear effects are eliminated.

Therefore, if the anti-image matrix has many non-zero off-diagonal entries, the correlation matrix is not appropriate for factoring (Stewart, 1981).

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity:

The Bartlett's test of sphericity is another widely used technique to test the correlations in a data matrix. It provides the statistical probability that the correlation matrix has significant correlations among at least some of the variables (Hair et al., 1998). The correlation matrix is hypothesised to come from a population of variables that are independent. Rejection of the hypothesis indicates that the data are appropriate for factor analysis (Stewart, 1981).

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy:

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy determines the degree of interrelations among the variables (Stewart, 1981). The index ranges from 0 to 1, reaching 1 when each variable is perfectly predicted without error by the other variables (Hair et al., 1998). Kaiser and Rice (1974, cited in Stewart, 1981) identified the level of appropriateness as: .90+ = marvellous, .80+ = meritorious, .70+ = middling, .60+ = mediocre, .50+ = miserable, and below .50 = unacceptable.

4.6.1.5 Factor Extraction in Principal Components Analysis

For a large set of variables, factor extraction starts by extracting the combinations of variables that explain the greatest amount of variance. The extraction then proceeds to the combinations that account for smaller amounts of variance and so on (Hair et al., 1998). The two criteria, latent root criterion and scree plot, used in determining the number of factors to extract and when to cease extracting are discussed by Stewart (1981) and Hair et al. (1998).

Latent Root Criterion:

The latent root criterion is the most commonly used technique (Hair et al., 1998). The condition is that a factor should account for the variance of at least a single variable if it is to be retained for interpretation. Each variable contributes a value of 1 to the total eigenvalue (Hair et al., 1998). The factors that have latent roots or eigenvalues greater than 1 are considered significant; other factors with lower eigenvalues can be

removed (Hair et al., 1998; Stewart, 1981). This method is most reliable when the number of variables in the factor analysis is between 20 and 50 (Hair et al., 1998).

Scree Test Criterion:

The Scree test can be obtained by plotting the latent roots against the number of factors in their order of extraction, and the shape of the resulting curve can determine the cut off point (Hair et al., 1998). A large break in the plot is taken to indicate the point where factoring should stop (Stewart, 1981). The procedure is as follows:

A straight edge is laid across the bottom portion of the roots to see where they form an approximately straight line. The point where the factors curve above the straight line gives the number of factors, the last factor being the one whose eigenvalue immediately proceeds the straight line (Stewart, 1981, p. 58).

4.6.1.6 Factor Rotation

Factor loadings are used to interpret the role each variable plays in defining each factor (Hair et al., 1998). The loadings indicate the degree of correspondence between the variable and the factor. The higher loadings show the higher degree the variable represents the factor (Hair et al., 1998). Computation of factor matrix can be orthogonally rotated or obliquely rotated.

Orthogonal rotation:

Orthogonal rotation is the simplest case of rotation which the axes are maintained at 90 degrees (Hair et al., 1998). The orthogonal rotations have three major approaches including VARIMAX, QUARMAX, and EQUIMAX.

VARIMAX is the most common rotation procedure (Hair et al., 1998; Stewart, 1981). VARIMAX method aims to maximise the variance of the squared loadings of a factor on all the variables in a factor matrix which, in return, differentiating the original variables by extracted factor (Garson, 2008a). When the correlation is close to +1 or -1, it can be interpreted as a high positive or negative association between the variable and the factor; when the correlation is close to 0, it indicates a lack of association (Hair et al., 1998). QUARMAX is an alternative orthogonal method which focuses on

rotating the initial factor so that a variable loads high on one factor and as low as possible on all other factors (Hair et al., 1998).

EQUIMAX method is a combination of both the VARIMAX method, which simplifies the factors, and the QUARTIMAX method, which simplifies the variables. The EQUIMAX method has yet to gain widespread acceptance and is used infrequently (Hair et al., 1998). The VARIMAX rotation was used in this study.

Oblique rotation:

Oblique rotation is similar to orthogonal rotation, except that oblique rotations allow correlated factors instead of maintaining independence between the rotated factors (Hair et al., 1998). Stewart (1981) found that oblique rotations are particularly useful in theory building, and that they play a significant role in the development of consumer behaviour theories. Two common approaches for oblique rotation are OBLIMIN and PROMAX.

OBLIMIN is the standard method when a non-orthogonal solution is required. This method allows the correlation of the factors. OBLIMIN can produce higher eigenvalues; however, the interpretability of the factors will be lessened (Garson, 2008a). PROMAX can compute faster than OBLIMIN and therefore is sometimes used for datasets that are extensively large (Garson, 2008a).

Realistically, very few factors are uncorrelated (Hair et al., 1998). Correlated factors and hierarchical factor solutions are noted to be intuitively attractive and theoretically justified in many marketing applications (Stewart, 1981). Stewart (1981) recommended that both an oblique rotation and an orthogonal rotation be performed, particularly in exploratory research. Therefore, both the VARIMAX orthogonal rotation and OBLIMIN oblique rotation were conducted in this study.

4.6.1.7 Interpretation of Factors

When interpreting factors, decisions must be made regarding which factor loadings are worth considering. The significance of factor loadings is dependent on the sample size (see Table 4.2). In general, the larger factor loadings are desirable in interpreting

the factor matrix (Hair et al., 1998). Three criteria are required for identifying the significance of factor loadings (Hair et al., 1998):

- (1) The larger the sample size, the smaller the loading to be considered significant.
- (2) The larger the number of variables being analysed, the smaller the loading to be considered significant.
- (3) The larger the number of factors, the larger the size of the loadings on later factors to be considered significant for interpretation.

Table 4.2: Guidelines for Identifying Significant Factor Loadings Based on Sample Size (Hair et al., 1998, p. 112)

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As it is common that many variables have moderate-size significant loadings on more than one factor, it becomes difficult to structure a factor matrix (Hair et al., 1998).

The factor solution is obtained when all significant loadings for variables load on a factor (Hair et al., 1998). By examining all the underlined variables for a particular factor, the researcher needs to assign a name or label for a factor, based on the underlying variables for each factor. The variables with the highest factor loadings are also considered more important, and this relationship should be reflected in the process (Hair et al., 1998).

4.6.2 Summated Scale

Hair et al. (1998) recommended summated scale as an instrument for decreasing the measurement error from the reliance on a single response. A summated scale is

formed by combining all the variables loadings highly on a factor and summing or averaging them to create a new variable (Hair et al., 1998). As the summated scale will represent the multiple aspects of concept in a single measure, the requirements of content validity, dimensionality and reliability must be met (Hair et al., 1998).

4.6.2.1 Content Validity

Content validity² is a subjective measurement used to ensure that the summated scales are assessing the correspondence between individual items and the concept (Hair et al., 1998). A display of content validity indicates that the items are adequate and are representative of the concept they are intended to measure (Churchill, 1979).

4.6.2.2 Dimensionality

Each summated scale has a condition to be unidimensional, meaning that they are strongly associated with each other and represent a single concept. The summated scale is unidimensional if its items load highly on a single factor (Hair et al., 1998).

4.6.2.3 Reliability

Reliability scale measures the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable (Hair et al., 1998). A common measure of reliability is internal consistency, which is used to test if the individual items or indicators of the scale measuring the same construct and thus be highly intercorrelated (Hair et al., 1998).

The most widely used measure to assess the internal consistency of the scale is Cronbach's alpha (Churchill, 1979). Churchill (1979) recommended that a Cronbach coefficient alpha of .60 or greater is adequate for a newly developed questionnaire.

4.6.3 Logistic Regression Analysis

After performing the factor analysis and creating summated scales, the derived factors can be used for subsequent statistical analyses. Since the dependent variable in this study, choice of upscale ethnic restaurant, is modelled as a discrete variable, the

² Also known as face validity

following sub-sections overview the model which was designed to explain qualitative choice analysis.

4.6.3.1 Qualitative Choice Analysis

Qualitative choice analysis³ is widely used in describing decision-makers' choices in areas such as banking, transportation, housing and telecommunications. Qualitative response models are synonymous with quantal, categorical, qualitative choice or discrete models. The construction of models of qualitative choice in which the dependent variable takes on a dichotomous or polychotomous character is of interest to economic, business and marketing analysis (Greene, 2003). Generally, the purpose of qualitative response models is to determine the probability (or likelihood) that a decision maker, with a given set of attributes, makes one choice rather than the alternative (Liao, 1994).

Amemiya (1981) indicated that qualitative choice modelling has become more important in economic and behavioural studies because they include a number of discrete variables. Economic agents often make a decision between activities rather than choices of levels of participation in markets. As a result, qualitative choice models have been used in analysing participation in a variety of activities (Amemiya, 1981).

For example, Ennew and Binks (1996) used a simple logit model to identify factors affecting bank customer retention and defection. The authors found that functional quality, technical quality, customer relationship, and certain product and firm specific characteristics were important to retain customers' loyalty to a bank.

Hardy and Shuey (2000) utilized two logit models in their study. The two logit models were used to identify (1) if the employees participated in employer-sponsored programs, and (2) whether respondents spent or saved their cash settlement respectively. The findings from the first logit model indicated that women were less likely to have participated in employer-sponsored pension plans. The results from the second logit model identified that women were more likely to save the settlement.

³ Qualitative choice analysis adapted from Ben-Akiva and Lerman (1985) and Train (1986). References were also made from Greene (2003).

Furthermore, Gan, Clemes, Limsombunchai and Weng (2006) used a logit analysis to examine the consumers' choice of banking channels in New Zealand. The authors found that service quality dimensions, perceived risk factors, user input factors, occupation and education significantly affected consumers' choice of electronic or non-electronic banking.

A qualitative choice situation is defined as one in which a decision-maker faces a choice among a set of alternatives which satisfy the following criteria:

- a. The number of alternatives in the set is finite;
- b. The alternatives are mutually exclusive; that is, the person's choosing one alternative in the set necessarily implies that the person does not choose another alternative; and
- c. The set of alternatives is exhaustive: that is, all possible alternatives are included, and so the person necessarily chooses one alternative from the set.

Models for determining discrete choices such as whether to participate or not to participate in state or local government programs, or to favour or not to favour a particular political party are known as qualitative response models. Therefore, the decision to dine or not dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant falls into the realm of qualitative choice. Qualitative response models determine the probability (or likelihood) that a decision-maker, with a given set of attributes, makes one choice rather than the alternative (Liao, 1994).

However, a qualitative choice model cannot be applied to a situation in which a decision or choice is represented by a continuous variable. Generally, qualitative choice models assign a class of models, such as logit and probit, which attempt to relate the probability of making a particular choice to various explanatory factors and calculate the probability that the decision-maker will choose a particular choice or decision from a set of choices or decisions (J_n), given data observed by the researcher. This choice probability (P_{in}) depends on the observed characteristics of alternative i (z_{in}) compared with all other alternatives (z_{jn} , for all j in J_n and $j \neq i$) and

on the observed characteristics of the decision-maker (s_n). The choice probability can be specified as a parametric function of the general form:

$$P_{in} = f(z_{in}, z_{jn}, s_n, \beta) \quad (4.1)$$

where f is the function relating the observed data to the choice probabilities specified up to some vector of parameters, β . By relating qualitative choice models to utility theory, a clear meaning of the choice probabilities emerges from the derivation of probabilities from utility theory. The utility from each alternative depends on various factors, including the characteristics of the decision-maker. By labelling the vector of all relevant characteristics of person n as r_n and the vector of all characteristics of alternative i chosen by person n as x_{in} , utility is a function of these factors,

$$U_{in} = U(x_{in}, r_n) \quad (4.2)$$

for all i in J_n , the set of alternatives.

Based on Marshall's consumer demand theory of utility maximisation, the decision-maker therefore chooses the alternative from which he derives the greatest utility. His choice can be said to be deterministic, and he will choose i ($i \in J_n$) if $U(x_{in}, r_n) \geq U(x_{jn}, r_n)$, for ($i, j \in J_n$ and $j \neq i$). To specify the choice probability in qualitative choice models, $U(x_{in}, r_n)$ for each i in J_n can be divided into two sub functions, a systematic component that depends only on factors that the researcher observes and another that represents all factors and aspects of utility that are unknown or excluded by the researcher, labelled ε_{in} . Thus,

$$U_{in} = U(x_{in}, r_n) = V(Z_{in}, s_n) + \varepsilon_{in} \quad (4.3)$$

where Z_{in} are the observed attributes of alternative i and s_n are the observable characteristics of decision-maker n .

$$P_{in} = P(U_{in} \geq U_{jn}) \quad \forall \quad i, j \in J_n \text{ and } i \neq j, \quad (4.4)$$

hence,
$$P_{in} = P (V_{in} - V_{jn} \geq \varepsilon_{jn} - \varepsilon_{in}) \quad \forall \quad i, j \in J_n \text{ and } i \neq j. \quad (4.5)$$

Qualitative choice models are used to predict probabilities of choices being made, and they attempt to relate the probability of making a particular choice to various explanatory factors (Sellar, Chavas, & Stoll, 1982). Probabilities must be between zero and one. Estimation of parameters to maximize the probability of the choice $Y_i = 1$ by use of a linear probability model and ordinary least squares (OLS) is not acceptable due to the return of probabilities outside the unit interval (Stynes & Peterson, 1984). In addition, the use of a linear probability model results in heteroscedastic errors and as a result, t-tests of significance are not valid (J. R. Miller & Hay, 1981). For these reasons, it is preferable to use either a logit or probit model.

Different qualitative choice models are obtained by specifying different distributions of the unknown component of utility, ε_{in} , and deriving functions for the choice probabilities (Ben-Akiva & Lerman, 1985; Train, 1986). If the error term is assumed to be Gumbel-distributed, then the above represents the standard binary logit model. However, if the error term is assumed to be normally distributed, then the model becomes the binary probit model (Ben-Akiva & Lerman, 1985; Greene, 2003; Maddala, 1993). The logit model will be used in this research because of the binary nature of the approach, and the differences between the two models are slight (Maddala, 1993). The model will be estimated by the maximum likelihood method used in LIMDEP version 7.0 software.

Thus, the choice probabilities can then be expressed as

$$P_{in} = e^{\mu V_{in}} / \sum_{j \in J_n} e^{\mu V_{jn}} \quad \forall \quad i, j \in J_n, \mu = \text{positive scale parameter, i.e. } \mu > 0.$$

or,
$$P_{in} = 1 / (1 + e^{-\mu[V_{in} - V_{jn}]}) \quad (4.6)$$

Under relatively general conditions, the maximum likelihood estimator is consistent, asymptotically efficient⁴ and asymptotically normal⁵.

⁴ Asymptotically efficient means that for large n, no other consistent estimator has a smaller variance.

For example, consumers who are considering an upscale ethnic restaurant are faced with a simple binary choice situation; to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant, or not to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant. The consumer's utility associated with dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant is denoted as U_{in} and the utility associated with not dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant denoted as U_{0n} , which is represented as:

$$U_{in} = V_{in} + \varepsilon_{in} \quad \forall \quad i \in J_n \text{ and } J_n = \{0,1\} \quad (4.7)$$

The consumer will choose to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant if $U_{in} > U_{0n}$, and the utility of each choice depends on the vector of observable attributes of the choices and the vector of observable consumer characteristics, summarized as V_{in} . All unobservable and excluded attributes and consumer characteristics are represented by the error term, ε_{in} , that is assumed to be independently and identically Gumbel-distributed. The choice probability of $U_{in} > U_{0n}$ is given as $P_{in}^6 = \Pr_n (U_{in} > U_{0n}) = 1 / (1 + e^{-\mu[V_{in} - V_{0n}]})$, where $\mu > 0$. In an upscale ethnic restaurant decision, the vector of observable consumer characteristics is represented in parametric functional form.

The choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant in New Zealand is hypothesised to be a function of eight variables and demographic characteristics. The eight variables are: service quality, food quality, dining experience, social status, marketing communications, religious food options, restaurant décor, and value for money. The demographic characteristics are: gender, age, ethnicity, qualification, occupation, household composition, and household income. The proposed empirical model can be written under the general form:

$$UETNRCH = f(SQ, FQ, DE, ST, MC, RF, RD, VM, GEN, AGE, ETH, QUA, OCC, HC, HI, \varepsilon) \quad (4.8)$$

⁵ Asymptotically normal means that for large n , they closely approximate the normal distribution, even if the distribution from which the observations were drawn was not normal (Ramanathan, 1992).

⁶ P_{in} = Estimated probability of alternative 1, that is, dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant.

The discrete dependent variable, UETNRCH, measures a choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant. The dependent variable is based on the question asked in the mail survey: “Have you dined at an upscale ethnic restaurant in the past twelve months?”

UETNRCH = 1 if the respondent is an upscale ethnic restaurant non-goer;
0 otherwise

SQ (+) = Service Quality

FQ (+) = Food Quality

DE (+) = Dining Experience

ST (-) = Social Status

MC (+) = Marketing Communications

RF (+) = Religious Food Options

RD (+) = Restaurant Décor

VM (-) = Value for Money

Demographic Characteristics:

GEN (+/-) = Dummy variables for gender
Gender 1; 1 if respondent is a male; 0 otherwise

AGE (+/-) = Dummy variables for age group
Age group 1; 1 if respondent is between 18 to 35 years old; 0 otherwise
Age group 2; 1 if respondent is between 36 to 55 years old; 0 otherwise
Age group 3; 1 if respondent is 56 years old and over; 0 otherwise

ETH (+/-) = Dummy variables for ethnicity
Ethnicity 1; 1 if respondent is New Zealand European; 0 otherwise
Ethnicity 2; 1 if respondent is Others (e.g. New Zealand Māori, Pacific Islander, European, Asian); 0 otherwise

QUA (+/-) =	<p>Dummy variables for qualification</p> <p>Qualification 1; 1 if respondent completed low-level qualification (up to high school certificate, seventh form certificate); 0 otherwise</p> <p>Qualification 2; 1 if respondent completed medium-level qualification (diploma, trade qualification); 0 otherwise</p> <p>Qualification 3; 1 if respondent completed high-level qualification (bachelors degree, postgraduate degree); 0 otherwise</p>
OCC (+/-) =	<p>Dummy variables for occupation</p> <p>Occupation 1; 1 if respondent is white-collar (professional, tradesperson, clerical, sales/service, self-employed, management); 0 otherwise</p> <p>Occupation 2; 1 if respondent is retired; 0 otherwise</p> <p>Occupation 3; 1 if respondent is others (student, farmer, labourer, unemployed, community worker, other); 0 otherwise</p>
HC (+/-) =	<p>Dummy variables for household composition</p> <p>Household composition 1; 1 if respondent's household composition is couple without children at home (married without children at home, partner without children at home); 0 otherwise</p> <p>Household composition 2; 1 if respondent's household composition is couple with child(ren) at home [married with child(ren) at home, partner with child(ren) at home]; 0 otherwise</p> <p>Household composition 3; 1 if respondent's household composition is others (single-person household, single-parent family, living with flatmate, living with parents, other); 0 otherwise</p>

HI (+/-) = Dummy variables for household income
Household income 1; 1 if respondent has low-level income (under \$25,000 - \$49,999); 0 otherwise
Household income 2; 1 if respondent has middle-level income (\$50,000 - \$ 99,999); 0 otherwise
Household income 3; 1 if respondent has high-level income (\$100,000 and over); 0 otherwise

ε = Error term

4.6.3.2 Statistical Assumptions for Logistic Regression

Outliers:

A few extreme observations or outliers can potentially influence the estimates of the regression parameters (Maddala, 2001). Outliers are observations that have large residual values, or an observation that is far removed from the rest of the observations (Hair et al., 1998). Therefore, the outliers should be identified and removed from the analysis.

Linearity:

Logistic regression does not assume linear relationships between the dependent and the independent factors as in the other multivariate techniques based on correlational measures of association. However, it assumes a linear relationship between the independents and the log odds (logit) of the dependent (Garson, 2008b). If this assumption is violated, the logistic regression will underestimate the degree of relationship between the dependent and the independent (Garson, 2008b; Hair et al., 1998). Type II errors (showing no relation when there actually is) may be found (Garson, 2008b).

Multicollinearity:

Multicollinearity occurs when the explanatory variables are highly intercorrelated, making the separate effects of each of the explanatory variables on the explained variable difficult to disentangle (Maddala, 2001). Multicollinearity is not allowed in

the logistic regression because the high interrelationship of the independent variables can cause the inflation of standard errors of the logit coefficients (Garson, 2008b). The simplest means of identifying the collinearity between variables is to examine the correlation matrix for the independent variables (Hair et al., 1998). Bryman and Cramer (1999) recommended the acceptable level of correlation between each pair of the independent variables at 0.80 or less.

Data Level:

Garson (2008b) highlighted that dependent variable needs to be dichotomous for binary logistic regression and polytomous for multinomial logistic regression, and independent variables may be either interval or categorical. The categorical independent variables need to be coded as dummy variables before being included in the analysis (Garson, 2008b).

4.6.3.3 Sensitivity Analysis

The empirical estimation of the logit model is Maximum Likelihood Estimates (MLE), which assumes large sample properties of consistency, efficiency, normality of parameter estimates and validity of the t-test significance (Greene, 2003; Studenmund, 2001). Given these properties, the logit model avoids the major problem associated with Ordinary Least Square (OLS) estimation of the standard linear probability model (Hair et al., 1998; Judge, Hill, Griffiths, Lutkepohl, & Lee, 1982). The MLE coefficient estimates from the logit analysis have no direct interpretation with respect to the probability of the dependent variable ($Y=1$) other than indicating a direction of influence of probability. Maddala (1992) and Liao (1994) recommended calculating changes in probabilities to indicate the magnitude of the marginal effect. This represents the partial derivatives of the non-linear probability function evaluation at each variable's sample mean (Liao, 1994; Pindyck & Rubinfeld, 1991).

The marginal effect determines the marginal change in the dependent variable, given a unit change in a selected independent variable, holding other variables constant (Liao, 1994). Therefore, in order to identify the most important variables that influence consumers' decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant, the marginal effect for each of the estimated coefficients in the empirical model were calculated. The

marginal effect reveals the level of importance for the estimated coefficients in the empirical model.

4.6.4 T-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

T-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) are two of the most widely used univariate measures for assessing group means. A t-test is normally applied to compare a dependent variable between two groups, while ANOVA is used when there are three or more groups (Hair et al., 1998).

4.6.4.1 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Hair et al. (1998) suggested two assumptions need to be satisfied for the application of ANOVA.

(1) The data is assumed to be from a normally distributed population. The variances in each experimental condition are reasonably similar, and outliers and high multicollinearity should not be present.

(2) The independent and dependent variables should be measured on an interval scale.

The univariate ANOVA could be applied when two independent estimates of the variance for the dependent variable are compared. One reflects the general variability of the respondents within the group (MS_w); and the other represents the different groups attributes to the treatment effects (MS_B) (Hair et al., 1998):

1. MS_w : Mean square within groups
2. MS_B : Mean square between groups (4.8)

Given that the null hypothesis of no group difference is not rejected, MS_w and MS_B represents the independent estimates of the population variance. As a result, the ratio of MS_B to MS_w measures how much variance is attributable to different treatments versus the variance expected from random samplings, and is calculated as the following (Hair et al., 1998):

$$F \text{ statistic} = \frac{MS_B}{MS_w} \quad (4.9)$$

Although the F-tests of ANOVA assess the null hypothesis of equal means between groups, the results cannot specify where the significant differences lie if there are more than two groups. Hair et al. (1998) pointed out five common post hoc procedures: the Scheffe test, the Turkey's honestly significant difference test, the Turkey's extension of the Fisher least significant approach, the Duncan's multiple-range test, and the Newman-Kules test, to test each combination of groups in order to identify the significant differences among groups. Of the five post hoc test procedures, the Scheffe test is the most conservative method with regard to a Type I error.

4.6.4.2 T-test

T-test requires the same assumptions as of ANOVA to be met. The parametric two independent sample t-tests provide a rational way to determine if the difference between the two sample means occurred by chance (Hair et al., 1998; Hair et al., 2000). The test of differences between two group means can be conceptualised as the difference between the means divided by the variability of random means. Hence, the t statistic is a ratio of the difference between the two sample means and the standard error. In the case of the means for two independent samples, the hypotheses can be written in following form:

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$$

$$H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \tag{4.10}$$

The formula for calculating the t-statistic value is:

$$T \text{ statistic} = \frac{\mu_1 - \mu_2}{SE_{\mu_1\mu_2}} \tag{4.11}$$

where: μ_1 = Mean of Group 1

μ_2 = Mean of Group 2

$SE_{\mu_1\mu_2}$ = Standard error of the difference in group means.

4.6.4.3 Statistical Analysis for Research Objective Three

The univariate ANOVA and t-test are the appropriate methods by which to test the hypotheses regarding the demographic characteristics and the dining occasion because the upscale ethnic restaurant choice factors are measured on an interval scale. The other assumption made in Section 4.6.4.1 is also satisfied.

The demographic characteristics consisting of three or more groups including age, qualification, occupation, household composition, and household income, and the dining occasion will be measured using ANOVA. The Scheffe test is the most appropriate procedure to test for significant differences among these groups. Additionally, the results of t-tests will demonstrate whether or not the mean scores of two groups including male and female, and New Zealand European and Others, are significantly different with respect to their perceptions of the upscale ethnic restaurant choice factors.

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined the research methodology used to test the eleven hypotheses, stated in Chapter Three, and to satisfy the three research objectives stated in Chapter One and Three. The expected sample size and sampling method were explained, as well as the methods of data collection. The questionnaire design, format, pre-testing, and data analysis techniques were also discussed.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and analysis of the statistical methodology outlined in Chapter Four. The data set is examined to ensure the statistical assumptions of factor analysis and logistic regression analysis are met. The results of the factor analysis, logistic regression analysis, T-tests, and ANOVA are presented, and the eleven hypotheses tested. The results are discussed in terms of their relation to each of the relevant research objectives.

5.2 Sample and Response Rate

A total of 461 questionnaires were returned from the 1,300 questionnaires distributed through the mail. Of these, 35 were returned to the sender because the addressees were no longer current, 7 were not filled out, and 17 were partly filled out and not suitable for use. This resulted in 402 usable responses, or a 30.9% usable response rate. The questionnaires were all returned within 15 days of being mailed out.

The usable questionnaires were above the minimum sample size of 384 as recommended by Mendenhall et al. (1993). Therefore, the sample size was deemed to be acceptable for the purposes of this research.

5.3 Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics were obtained from the frequency analysis using SPSS version 15.0. From the total of 402 usable questionnaires, 80.8% (325) of respondents have dined at an upscale ethnic restaurant in the past twelve months, while 19.2% (77) of the respondents have not dined at one. Among the upscale ethnic restaurant goers, 42.2% (137) have dined at an upscale ethnic restaurant three to six times a year,

24.6% (80) once or twice a year, 13.2% (43) once a month, 12.9% (42) seven to eleven times a year, 4% (13) twice to three times a month, and 3.1% (10) more than three times a month. The main dining occasion was gathering with friends/family which accounted for 41.2% (134), followed by normal dining out 31.7% (103). Other occasions of dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant included special occasion and celebration 21.2% (69), business- or work-related 3.7% (12), and dating/intimate dining 2.2% (7).

The salient aspects of the demographic characteristics of the sample are as follows. The total sample respondents consisted of 53% females and 47% males. The dominant age groups were 46 to 55 years (24.6%) and 56 to 65 years (24.6%). New Zealand European made up the major ethnic group, accounting for 81.8% of the respondents. 20.4% and 19.7% of the respondents reported their highest qualification as diploma and up to high school certificate levels, respectively. The dominant groups of the respondents worked as professionals (27.9%) and were married without children at home (40.3%). The dominant annual household income levels included \$50,000 to \$74,999 (21.9%) and \$25,000 to \$49,999 (21.6%) (see Table 5.1, page 91 and Table 5.2, page 92, for the complete descriptive statistics of the demographic characteristics).

5.4 Assessment of the Data Set

The data set collected from respondents was tested to verify whether the statistical assumptions of factor analysis and logistic regression analysis had been met. The data set consisted of two distinctive groups of respondents: upscale ethnic restaurant goers and non-goers. The statistical assumptions were conducted separately for each group for factor analysis.

5.4.1 Statistical Assumptions for Factor Analysis: Goer Group

As discussed in Section 4.6.1.3, if the statistical assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity and linearity for factor analysis are not met, the observed correlations between variables may be diminished. Therefore, the data matrix was tested in order to ensure its appropriateness for factor analysis. The testing methods as

recommended by Hair et al. (1998) included examination of the correlation matrix, inspection of the anti-image correlation matrix, Bartlett's test of sphericity, and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy.

5.4.1.1 Examination of the Correlation Matrix

The correlation matrix (as shown in Table 5.3, page 95 [the complete descriptions of the variables are in Table 5.8, page 103]) showed a number of substantial correlations above .30 as recommended by Hair et al. (1998). These correlations justified that the items share common factors and were therefore suitable for factor analysis.

5.4.1.2 Inspection of the Anti-Image Correlation Matrix

The anti-image correlation matrix (as shown in Table 5.4, page 97 [the complete descriptions of the variables are in Table 5.8, page 103]), which represented the negative value of the partial correlations, showed that the majority of the off diagonal values were low. This result indicated that the correlation matrix was appropriate for factor analysis.

5.4.1.3 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

Bartlett's test of sphericity was conducted in order to assess whether the correlation matrix came from a population of variables that were independent⁷. The test value was high at 5368.09 and was significant at 0.000. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected, indicating that the data was appropriate for factor analysis.

5.4.1.4 The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy

As discussed in Section 4.6.1.4, the index of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure ranged from 0 to 1, with 1 indicating a perfect prediction. The test result was 0.863. Kaiser and Rice (1974, as cited in Stewart, 1981) defined the value of 0.80+ as meritorious level of appropriateness. Therefore, these variables were deemed appropriate for factor analysis.

⁷ The null hypothesis.

5.4.2 Factor Analysis Results

The test results satisfied the assumptions of factor analysis, and principal components factor analysis was conducted on all of the 37 items representing restaurant choice factors. The following results were based on respondents in the upscale ethnic restaurant Goer Group because the factor rotation for this group produced the best structure in terms of content validity, when compared to the factor structure of the combined Groups and of only the Non-goer Group. The sample size for the Non-goer Group was under 85 and required a cut off point for factor loadings of at least 0.65 (Hair et al., 1998). A VARIMAX factor rotation was also performed on the Non-goer Group, and the rotations produced a similar factor structure to the Goer Group. However, Hair et al. (1998) recommended that factor results based on sample sizes that are less than 100 must be interpreted with caution.

5.4.2.1 The Roots Criterion

Results of the latent root criterion⁸ indicated that nine factors should be extracted from the 37 variables submitted for factor analysis (see Table 5.5, page 100). These nine factors explained 62.87% of the variation in the data.

5.4.2.2 The Scree Test

By laying a straight edge across the bottom portion of the roots, the point at which the factors curve above the straight line indicated that the extraction of nine factors was suitable for this analysis.

⁸ Where the eigenvalues are greater than 1.

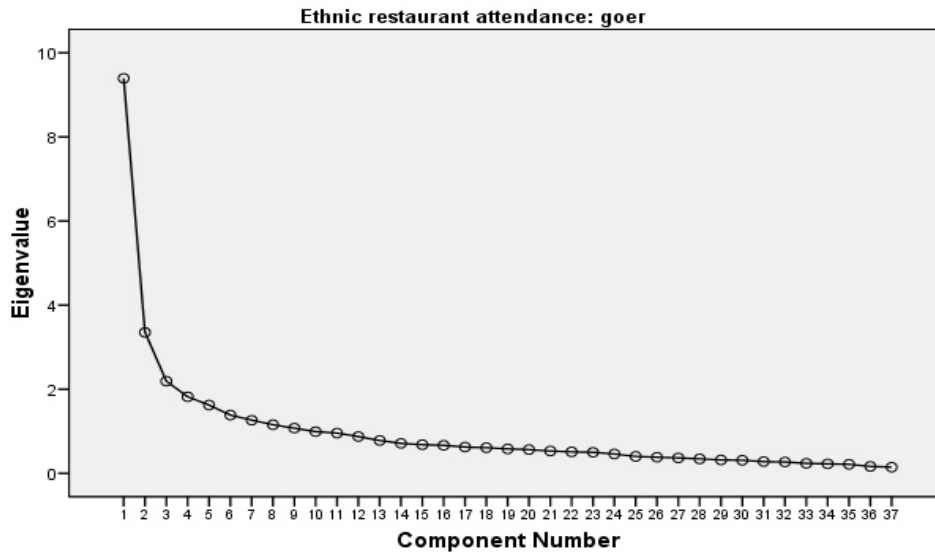


Figure 5.1: The Scree Plot

5.4.2.3 Rotation Results

Both the VARIMAX (see Table 5.6, page 101) and the oblique rotations (see Table 5.7, page 102 [the complete descriptions of the variables are in Table 5.8, page 103]) displayed a similar structure of factor loadings. However, the VARIMAX rotation produced a better structure in terms of content validity of the factors. Therefore, the final factor structure was based on the factor loadings from the VARIMAX rotation.

5.4.2.4 Factor Interpretation

Hair et al. (1998) suggested a significant factor loading at least 0.35 for a sample size of 250. However, 0.40 was used as a cut-off point of factor loading as it produced a clearer structure and helped increase the robustness of the factor rotation. All of the rotated items had significant loadings above ± 0.40 . One variable (UF1) was deleted from the matrix as it loaded negatively with other variables on Factor 7. Four variables (VM2, AP1, VM1, CL2 [the complete descriptions of the variables are in Table 5.8, page 103]) had significant cross loadings on two separate factors. The remaining 32 variables loaded cleanly on one factor (see Table 5.6, page 101, for details of the variable loadings).

The four variables that had significant cross loadings on two separate factors were grouped with the variables that represented the constructs as suggested in the

literature review. In addition, the Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha for the re-grouped variables was higher than those without the variables included to measure the latent constructs.

Each factor was subsequently named according to the construct they represented (see Table 5.8, page, 103 for the complete descriptions of the variables). The nine factors were named: (1) Service Quality; (2) Food Quality; (3) Dining Experience; (4) Social Status; (5) Marketing Communications; (6) Religious Food Options; (7) Familiar Food; (8) Restaurant Décor; (9) Value for Money.

5.4.3 Assessment of Summated Scales

Before summation of the items, the content validity, dimensionality, and reliability of the scales were assessed.

5.4.3.1 Content Validity

All of the items in the final VARIMAX factor rotation did not load exactly on the constructs as proposed in the development of the questionnaire items, based on the results from the focus group discussions and the literature review. The variables comprising each factor were inspected by the researcher and three marketing experts familiar with scale development to ensure that the variables were an adequate and a thorough representation of the construct under investigation. Following this assessment, all nine factors were considered to have adequate content validity.

5.4.3.2 Dimensionality

As noted in Section 5.4.2.4, four variables had two significant cross loadings, indicating that these variables were associated with two factors. Variable AP1 loaded highly on Factor 2 and only moderately loaded on Factor 8. This variable was therefore considered to represent the most highly loaded factor, which was Factor 2. The remaining three variables, VM1, VM2 and CL2, exhibited similar loading power on the two factors they loaded on. They were subsequently chosen to represent only one factor, using content validity as a criterion. VM1 and VM2 were grouped together representing Factor 9 (Value for Money), and CL2 was grouped with Factor 3 (Dining Experience).

5.4.3.3 Reliability

The remaining 36 items were subjected to reliability tests, except for item PE1, which consisted of only one item representing Factor 8. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was used to measure reliability, and as recommended by Churchill (1979), a Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha of 0.60 or above was deemed to produce a reliable measure. Factor 7 (Familiar Food) had a Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha of less than 0.60 for both Goer and Non-goer Groups and was not included in the analysis. Factor 4 (Social Status) had a Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha of above 0.60 for the Goer Group but less than 0.60 for the Non-goer Group. Therefore, Factor 4 was retained for further analysis.

The structure from the results of VARIMAX factor rotation of the Goer Group was used to form the summated scales for this study. The Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was; however, calculated for both the Goer and the Non-goer Groups using the VARIMAX factor structure of the Goer group. The variables used in the summated scales and their Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha are presented in Table 5.9, page 104, for the Goer Group. Table 5.10, page 106, presents the Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha for the Non-goer Group.

All of the remaining eight summated scales were judged to demonstrate sufficient content validity, dimensionality, and reliability for a newly developed questionnaire. The mean of each of the scales was then used to represent each one of the upscale ethnic restaurant choice factors for further analysis.

5.4.4 Statistical Assumptions for Logistic Regression

A series of statistical tests were conducted to ensure that the data met the assumptions for logistic regression.

5.4.4.1 Outliers

The outliers were examined and removed from the analysis to reduce the effects of their influence.

5.4.4.2 Multicollinearity

The Pearson Correlation Matrix was inspected for the correlations between the independent variables. As shown in Table 5.11, page 108, no correlations exceeded 0.80. As a result, the assumption of multicollinearity was satisfied.

5.4.4.3 Data Level

As postulated by Garson (2008b), the dependent variable was dichotomous for the binary logistic regression. The independent variables were measured at interval level using a Likert scale, except for the demographic characteristics, which were categorical. These categorical independent variables were coded as dummy variables in the logistic regression analysis.

5.4.5 Cross-Tabulation and Chi-square Tests

The chi-square statistic was used to test the statistical significance of the association of the demographic characteristics as recommended by Malhotra (2004).

From the output of cross-tabulation of the original Groups of the demographic characteristics and choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant (see Table 5.12, page 109), only Age, Occupation and Household Income were significant at .05 level. Re-grouping some of the demographic characteristics into fewer categories provided an improved interpretation of the data set. Re-grouping Age resulted in 3 Groups, Ethnicity 2 Groups, Qualification 3 Groups, Occupation 3 Groups, Household Composition 3 Groups, and Household Income 3 Groups. The Household Income Groups were re-grouped into similar groups of the Annual Family Income ranged by the 2006 New Zealand census (Statistics New Zealand, 2006c). The Gender Groups remained unchanged.

The chi-square tests were further used to test the significance of the new groups. In addition to the three significant demographic variables, Household Composition was found significant. The cross-tabulation results of the demographic characteristics are in Table 5.13 (page 110) for Gender, Table 5.14 (page 111) for Age, Table 5.15 (page 112) for Ethnicity, Table 5.16 (page 113) for Qualification, Table 5.17 (page 114) for

Occupation, Table 5.18 (page 115) for Household Composition, and Table 5.19 (page 116) for Household Income.

5.5 Results Relating to Research Objective One

Research Objective One is to identify the factors that influence a decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant. Logistic regression analysis was used to satisfy Research Objective One. Logistic regression analysis was conducted to test Hypotheses 1 through 8, relating to Factor 1 to Factor 8, respectively. The classification table for the choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant is presented in Table 5.20. The summary results of Hypothesis 1 to Hypothesis 11 are shown in Table 5.21, and the results for the significant factors are shown in Table 5.22.

Table 5.20: Classification Table for Choice of Upscale Ethnic Restaurant

	Predicted		Percentage Correct
	Goer	Non-goer	
Actual			
Goer	322	3	99.08
Non-goer	1	76	98.70
Overall Percentage			99.00

The full logistic regression model containing all predictors is statistically significant (Chi-Square = 369.71, p value = 0.000, degrees of freedom = 14). The Hosmer-Lemeshow Goodness of Fit Test of value at 0.195 (p value = 0.996) indicates a good fit of the model. The model explains 94.10% (Pseudo R-squared) of the variance in a choice of upscale ethnic restaurant, and correctly classifies 99.00% of cases (see Table 5.20).

Table 5.21: Hypotheses 1 through 11 Test Results Summary

Hypotheses	Supported	Partially Supported	Not Supported
H1: Service quality has a positive effect on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.	√		

Hypotheses	Supported	Partially Supported	Not Supported
H2: Food quality has a positive effect on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.	√		
H3: Dining experience has a positive effect on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.	√		
H4: Low social status has a negative effect on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.	√		
H5: Marketing communications has a positive impact on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.			√
H6: Religious food options have positive impact on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.			√
H7: Appealing restaurant décor has a positive impact on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.			√
H8: Low value for money has a negative effect on consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.	√		
H9: Consumers attach different degrees of importance to the restaurant choice factors when making a decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant.	√		
H10: Consumers perceive restaurant choice factors differently based on their dining occasion.			√
H11: Consumers perceive restaurant choice factors differently based on their demographic characteristics.		√	

Table 5.22: The Significant Logistic Regression Results

Factors	B	S.E.	Sig.
Service Quality	3.424	1.184	0.004*
Food Quality	2.782	1.025	0.007*
Dining Experience	5.269	2.381	0.027*
Social Status	-4.868	2.220	0.028*
Value for Money	-1.829	0.898	0.042*

* Significant at .05 level

The results presented in Table 5.22 show that Service Quality, Food Quality and Dining Experience positively influence a decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant. Therefore, Hypothesis 1, Hypothesis 2, and Hypothesis 3 are supported. A significant negative relationship between Social Status and choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant confirms the hypothesised negative relationship. Thus, Hypothesis 4 is supported. Similarly, a significant negative relationship between Value for Money and choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant supports Hypothesis 8.

The results do not show significant relationships between Marketing Communications, Religious Food Options, and Restaurant Décor and consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant. Hence, Hypothesis 5, Hypothesis 6, and Hypothesis 7 are rejected.

5.6 Results Relating to Research Objective Two

Research Objective Two is to determine the most important factors that affect consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant. Marginal effect analysis was used to satisfy Research Objective Two (see Table 5.23).

Table 5.23: Marginal Effects of Consumers' Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant

Factors	Marginal Effect	Ranking
Dining Experience	0.0004277	1
Social Status	-0.0003951	2
Service Quality	0.0002779	3
Food Quality	0.0002258	4
Value for Money	-0.0001485	5

5.6.1 Interpretation of the Marginal Effect

From the results of the marginal effect, Dining Experience is the most important factor that influences consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant when compared to all of the marginal effects for the other factors listed in Table 5.23. The

marginal effect of Dining Experience indicates that a unit increase in Dining Experience results in an estimated 0.043% increase in the probability of choosing an upscale ethnic restaurant.

Social Status has the second highest impact on an upscale ethnic restaurant dining decision. A unit decrease in Social Status results in an estimated 0.040% probability that consumers in the Goer Group will choose to be in the Non-goer Group, in other words, not to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant. Further, the marginal effect of Service Quality suggests a unit increase in Service Quality results in an estimated 0.028% increase in the probability that consumers will choose an upscale ethnic restaurant. Likewise, a unit increase in Food Quality also results in an estimated 0.023% increase in the probability of selecting an upscale ethnic restaurant.

In addition, the marginal effect of Value for Money suggests that a unit decrease in Value for Money leads to an estimated 0.015% of probability that the Goer Group will become a Non-goer Group, or choose not to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant. Value for money ranks the fifth most important factor that influences an upscale ethnic restaurant choice.

The results of the marginal effects supports Hypothesis 9 (see Table 5.21) that consumers attach different degrees of importance to the restaurant choice factors when making a decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant.

5.7 Results Relating to Research Objective Three

Research Objective Three aims to examine if consumers perceive a difference on upscale ethnic restaurant choice factors based on their demographic characteristics and dining occasion. ANOVA and T-tests were used to test Hypothesis 10 and Hypothesis 11 to satisfy Research Objective Three.

The results of ANOVA between the dining occasion and the upscale ethnic restaurant choice factors do not show any statistical significance. Thus, Hypothesis 10 proposing that consumers perceive a difference on upscale ethnic restaurant choice factors based on the dining occasion is rejected (see Table 5.21).

The results from Table 5.24 to Table 5.30 (pages 117-122) indicate that consumers with different gender, age, ethnicity, qualification, occupation, household composition, and household income attribute different amounts of importance to the restaurant choice factors when they consider dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant. The choice factors that are perceived differently are: Service Quality, Food Quality, Dining Experience, Social Status, Marketing Communications, Religious Food, and Restaurant Décor. Value for Money is not considered differently by consumers with different demographic characteristics. Therefore, Hypothesis 11 is partially supported (see Table 5.21).

5.7.1 Gender Relating to Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour

The results in Table 5.24 (page 117) show that Marketing Communications is perceived as a more important choice factor by Female than Male.

5.7.2 Ethnicity Relating to Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour

The results in Table 5.25 (page 117) reveal that diners in the Others Ethnic Group (e.g. New Zealand Māori, Pacific Islander, Asian) perceive Dining Experience, Religious Food, and Restaurant Décor as more important in their restaurant decision process than diners in the New Zealand European Group.

5.7.3 Age Relating to Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour

Marketing Communications and Restaurant Décor are more important to the Young-age Group than the Middle-age and the Old-age Groups. In addition, the Young-age Group view Religious Food as more important, compared to the Middle-age Group (See Table 5.31, page 123).

5.7.4 Qualification Relating to Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour

The results in Table 5.32 (page 124) illustrate that consumers in the Medium-level Qualification Group consider Dining Experience as a more important choice factor than consumers in the Low-level Qualification Group. Moreover, the Medium-level Qualification Group considers Social Status as more important, when compared to the High-level Qualification Group.

5.7.5 Occupation Relating to Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour

The results presented in Table 5.33 (page 125) indicate that Service Quality, Food Quality, Dining Experience, and Marketing Communications are perceived as more important by consumers in the White-collar and the Others (e.g. student, farmer, unemployed) Groups than the Retired Group. Furthermore, consumers from the Others Group consider Restaurant Décor as more important than consumers in the White-collar and the Retired Groups. Consumers in the Others Group also consider Religious Food as more important than consumers in the Retired Group.

5.7.6 Household Composition Relating to Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour

Diners in the 'Couple with Child(ren) at Home' Household Group and the 'Others' Household Group (e.g. Single-person Household, Single-parent Family) perceive Marketing Communications as a more important choice factor, compared to diners in the 'Couple without Child(ren) at Home' Household Group (see Table 5.34, page 126).

5.7.7 Household Income Relating to Consumers' Restaurant Selection Behaviour

Service Quality and Food Quality are more important choice factors for diners in the Middle Income and the High Income Groups than diners in the Low Income Group (see Table 5.35, page 127).

5.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the results based on the research methods outlined in Chapter Four. The results from factor analysis formed a valid and reliable factor structure with eight factors in the consumers' upscale ethnic restaurant choice factors model. The logistic regression results indicated five significant choice factors. The marginal effects identified the most important choice factors that influenced restaurant decisions. Additionally, the ANOVA, and T-tests results revealed that consumers perceived restaurant choice factors differently based on their demographic characteristics but not on the dining occasion.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the research findings and reports several conclusions based on the results of the statistical analysis and discussion presented in Chapter Five.

Subsequently, the theoretical and managerial contributions, limitations, and avenues for future research are discussed.

6.2 Conclusions Relating to Research Objective One

Research Objective 1: To identify the factors that influence the decisions of consumers to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant.

Hypotheses 1 through 8 were formulated to satisfy Research Objective 1. Hypotheses 1 through 8 propose relationships between the following factors; Service Quality, Food Quality, Dining Experience, Social Status, Marketing Communications, Religious Food Options, Restaurant Décor, Value for Money, and a decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant.

The results of logistic regression analysis show that the factors: Service Quality, Food Quality, Dining Experience, Social Status, and Value for Money influence consumers' decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant. Consequently, Hypothesis 1, 2, 3, 4, and 8 are supported, while Hypothesis 5, 6, and 7 are rejected (see Table 5.21 and Table 5.22, pages 66-67).

The support for Hypothesis 1 confirms that Service Quality influences restaurant selection behaviour. This result is consistent with the findings of Chow et al. (2007), Dube et al. (1994), Kivela et al. (2000), Soriano (2002), Sulek and Hensley (2004), and Wall and Berry (2007). The support for Hypothesis 2 confirms that Food Quality influences restaurant selection behaviour. This result is consistent with the findings of

Auty (1992), Clark and Wood (1998), Dube et al.(1994), Josiam and Monteiro (2004), Kivela et al. (2000), Lewis (1981), Namkung and Jang (2007), Soriano (2002), and Sulek and Hensley (2004). The finding of the influence of Dining Experience on a decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant as proposed in Hypothesis 3 supports the findings of Turgeon and Pastinelli (2002), Tian (2001), and Sukalamala and Boyce (2007). In addition, the support for Hypothesis 4 confirms that Social Status influences restaurant selection. This result is in accordance with the findings of Cheng (2006) and Peters (2005). Further, the support for Hypothesis 8, that Value for Money is an influential factor for a restaurant decision, is in agreement with the findings of Auty (1992), Myung, McCool, and Feinstein (2008), Oh (2000), Rammaniya (1998), and Soriano (2002).

However, the rejection of Hypothesis 5 does not support the findings of Tunsu (2000) regarding the influence of Marketing Communications on restaurant selection behaviour. Similarly, the rejection of Hypothesis 6 does not support the findings of Dugan (1994) who found that Religious Food influenced restaurant choice. Finally, the rejection of Hypothesis 7 does not support the findings of Ryu and Jang (2007) who found that Restaurant Décor influenced restaurant selection behaviour.

6.3 Conclusions Relating to Research Objective Two

Research Objective 2: To determine the most important factors that affect consumers' choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant.

The results from the marginal effect (see Table 5.23, page 68) show that Dining Experience is the most important factor that influences consumers to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant, when compared to all of the other factors. Social Status is ranked the second most important factor. The third and fourth most important factors are Service Quality and Food Quality. Value for Money ranks the fifth most important factor.

6.4 Conclusions Relating to Research Objective Three

Research Objective 3: To examine if consumers perceive a difference on restaurant choice factors based on their demographic characteristics and dining occasion.

The results from ANOVA between the dining occasion and the upscale ethnic restaurant choice factors do not show any statistical significance, indicating that consumers did not perceive restaurant choice factors differently. Therefore, Hypothesis 10 is rejected. The rejection of Hypothesis 10 does not support the findings of June and Smith (1987) and Sweeny et al. (1992).

The results from ANOVA and T-tests (see Table 5.24 to Table 5.30, pages 117-122) demonstrate that consumers perceive a difference on restaurant choice factors based on their demographic characteristics: including gender, ethnicity, age, qualification, occupation, household composition, and household income, which supports Hypothesis 11. These results are in accordance with the findings of Josiam and Monteiro (2004), Kivela (1997), and Mohsin (2005).

The results indicate that Female consumers perceive Marketing Communications as a more important choice factor than Male consumers. This finding suggests that Female diners rely on marketing communications including word-of-mouth, advertising, sales promotion, and publicity more than Male diners when considering an upscale ethnic restaurant. This may be attributed to the general role of female in the food preparation in the household. It may be that females are more selective and want to be better informed when making a decision to purchase food when compared to males, so it is natural for females to seek information about a restaurant from marketing communications and/or word-of-mouth before making a decision on a restaurant.

The results further reveal that Dining Experience, Religious Food, and Restaurant Décor are perceived as more important choice factors by diners from the Others Ethnic Group than the New Zealand European Group. This result suggests that diners from the Others Ethnic Group are more demanding than diners from the New Zealand European Group in terms of dining experience, religious food, and restaurant décor.

Diners with other ethnic origins may have certain expectations about ethnic restaurants that they have visited in their home countries. When dining at an ethnic restaurant of their own or similar ethnicity, they are therefore likely to be more critical of the dining experience and restaurant décor.

The results regarding age group indicate that the Young-age Group view Marketing Communications and Restaurant Décor as more important, when compared to the Middle-age and the Old-age Groups, and also view Religious Food as more important, when compared to the Middle-age Group. It may be that young consumers cannot afford to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant as frequently as older groups of consumers, and thus make more effort to gather information about the restaurant. Young-age consumers are also generally more exposed to marketing communications via media such as TV, internet and magazines and place greater emphasis on trends and fashion (Story, Neumark-Sztainer, & French, 2002). Therefore, it is likely that young diners are deeply influenced by the way something (e.g. the décor of the restaurant) appeals to their sense of fashion.

Diners from the Medium-level Qualification Group consider Dining Experience as a more important choice factor than diners from the Low-level Qualification Group, and consider Social Status as a more important choice factor than those diners from the High-level Qualification Group. It can be argued that the highly educated diners are likely to earn more than the medium educated diners and thus can express their status in alternative ways such as expensive cars, luxurious outfit and accessories, in addition to dining out at an upscale restaurant.

The results suggest that the White-collar and the Others Occupation Groups perceive Service Quality, Food Quality, Dining Experience, and Marketing Communications as more important than the Retired Group. In addition, consumers in the Others Occupation Group perceive Restaurant Décor as more important than consumers in the White-collar Group, and the Others Occupation Group perceive Religious Food as more important than the Retired Group. These results imply that the White-collar and the Others Occupation Groups are more demanding consumers than the Retired Group.

Furthermore, the results show that restaurant patrons who are in the ‘Couple with Child(ren) at Home’ and the ‘Others’ Household Groups consider Marketing Communications as more important than the ‘Couple without Child(ren) at Home’ Group. This may be attributed to the fact that diners who do not have living-at-home children generally have more disposable income to spend on dining out, compared to the other two household groups. For this reason, diners who do not have children at home do not have the need to use friends’ recommendations, advertising, or sales promotion as a means to search for a good deal or bargain as much as the other two household groups.

Lastly, the results regarding Household Income reveal that Service Quality and Food Quality are perceived as more important choice factors by consumers in the Middle Income and the High Income Groups than consumers in the Low Income Group. This may be because the more affluent consumers demand a higher level of service quality and food quality and can afford to pay for them, compared to consumers with low incomes.

6.5 Theoretical Implications

This research makes several contributions to the existing body of knowledge about the consumers’ selection behaviour in the foodservice industry. Firstly, this study contributes to the limited empirical studies currently available on consumers’ decision-making behaviour and the ethnic restaurant, especially in a New Zealand context. The study provides a more comprehensive understanding of the consumer decision-making process and upscale ethnic restaurant choice in New Zealand by empirically identifying the choice factors that influence a decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant.

Secondly, this research used the consumers’ decision-making process as a theoretical framework to examine consumers’ choice factors of an upscale ethnic restaurant. The results of the study provide support for the contention that the consumer decision-making process is an appropriate framework to apply in examining consumers’ restaurant selection behaviour.

Thirdly, the research model developed in this study provides a framework for future research. Future researchers can apply this model for an empirical study regarding consumer behaviour in the foodservice industry, especially in the upscale ethnic restaurant segment.

Fourthly, this research has analysed and ranked the factors in a New Zealand context that have been previously identified as important to consumers when selecting a restaurant. These factors are Service Quality, Food Quality, Dining Experience, Social Status, and Value for Money. The findings of significant relationships between these factors and a choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant provide empirical support for other international studies (see for example Auty, 1992; Josiam & Monteiro, 2004; Kivela et al., 2000; Lewis, 1981; Peters, 2005; Soriano, 2002; Sulek & Hensley, 2004; Turgeon & Pastinelli, 2002).

Finally, apart from providing empirical support for the choice factors that have been identified in previous studies, this study also identifies a factor that is unique to the New Zealand foodservice market. The Social Status factor in this study is comprised of: social class and image, and beverage preference. This factor may be appropriate as a choice factor for other international studies on restaurant selection behaviour.

6.6 Managerial Implications

The findings from this research offer ethnic restaurant operators valuable information and insights with which to assess their operation, improve their competitiveness and assist them in developing more efficient marketing and operational strategies to attract and retain customers. The results identify Dining Experience, Social Status, Service Quality, Food Quality, and Value for Money as the significant factors that influence consumers to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant.

Moreover, the results of the study indicate that certain factors are more important than others in influencing consumers' decision on an upscale ethnic restaurant. The results have implications for determining how restaurant management should allocate their efforts and resources. Resource allocation can be prioritised based on the relative importance of the choice factors. For example, the results show that Dining

Experience is the most important choice factor in influencing consumers' decision. Ethnic restaurant operators should therefore pay extra attention to create a pleasurable dining experience for their existing and potential customers.

This study clearly identifies Dining Experience, which includes different dining experiences, cultural learning, restaurant atmosphere, and authentic restaurant design. These factors can be controlled to a large extent by restaurant management. Ethnic restaurants have the advantage of offering exotic dining experiences which can satisfy consumers who want to escape from their ordinary routines (H. Kim, 2000). Ethnic restaurant operators can design their restaurants to reflect and maintain the ethnic authenticity in order to give diners the impression that they have been exposed to the different dining experience. The whole restaurant experience including settings, atmosphere, and restaurant staff can be designed to boost the ethnic theme. The incorporation of traditional artwork, music, staff dress and/or other ethnic features is a way to communicate ethnic and cultural identity, which may also provide the additional benefit of making diners feel as if they were transformed into another exotic land.

The findings of Social Status as an influential factor are consistent with the study of Peters (2005) and Cheng (2006) who highlighted that restaurant patrons associated their dining out with social status and esteem. Restaurant management can opt for a trendy and classy image to attract consumers who are concerned about their personal image when dining out. For example, a restaurant that has stylish furnishing and interior design, professional-looking wait staff, and quality tableware may attract diners who are looking for a fine dining environment that can boost their self-esteem. Further, the restaurant should offer a wide range of beverages as many diners view drinking as an important part of their dining out experience. An extensive wine list, especially one that includes mid- to higher-range vintages, is another feature restaurants can use to attract classy and sophisticated consumers who seek extraordinary dining choices. Ethnic restaurants may also offer imported drinks to attract consumers who look for specialty beverages that are not commonly found in conventional restaurants in order to add an additional level of exclusivity to the dining experience.

In addition, the results indicate that Service Quality significantly influences a choice of an upscale ethnic restaurant. The literature review and results of factor analysis identified service staff behaviour, waiting time, and accuracy of billing as components of Service Quality in this study. Restaurant staff who are well-trained, have a good knowledge of the menu, and possess excellent interpersonal skills are vital for customers' perceptions of restaurant dining experience (Pratten, 2003; Sulek & Hensley, 2004). Therefore, restaurateurs should place a strong emphasis on staff training to ensure they have a service mind and are willing to deliver high-quality service. The standard performance assessment of staff can be set with these qualities in mind and reviewed regularly. It is particularly important for ethnic restaurants that wait staff have a good knowledge of the menu items, so that they are able to clarify any unfamiliar menu items or ingredients to consumers.

Another aspect of service quality that restaurateurs should not overlook is the accuracy of the billing process. An accurate check is among the most critical service-related factors that diners use in their evaluation of dining experience (Heung et al., 2000; Kelly & Carvell, 1987). Staff who are responsible for billing should be trained to take extra care when calculating the total bill by rechecking the diners' list of orders and prices. In addition, restaurants need to supply a sufficient number of staff to ensure a prompt and efficient service, especially during busy times, and have an effective reservation system to reduce waiting times.

The results also indicate that ethnic restaurant patrons prefer restaurants that prepare tasty dishes of high quality with fresh ingredients and appealing presentation and also offer a variety of choices on the menu including healthy food choices. Ethnic restaurants have the advantage of offering exotic dishes with distinctive flavours, as opposed to the conventional restaurants that serve dishes which can usually be prepared at home. The ethnic restaurateurs should emphasise their usage of authentic ingredients on the menu. However, these ingredients need to be described clearly (e.g. written on the menu or verbally by the wait staff), so that consumers do not shy away from the meals that they know nothing about, especially for the dishes that have foreign names. Additionally, to meet the current trends and demand of a healthy lifestyle, ethnic restaurants should offer healthy food choices such as vegetarian, gluten-free or low-fat meals. Ethnic restaurants can also offer special dishes and

change the specials regularly to satisfy adventurous diners who like to try new flavours.

Furthermore, upscale ethnic restaurant management needs to ensure consumers perceive that they have a good value from dining at their restaurants. Unlike consumers of the lower-price restaurants, it is not just the price of the meal that reflects the value at upscale restaurants. Instead, upscale restaurant goers are likely to perceive value for money from the combination of other offerings such as specialty meals, a high level of service quality, and a pleasant atmosphere (Oh, 2000). Again, upscale restaurant management needs to make sure consumers perceive a pleasurable experience. For example, consumers should be accommodated for their special needs such as food allergies and the preferred level of spiciness. Any service-related or food-related defects should be resolved promptly and with care as dissatisfied customers are likely to spread negative word-of-mouth (Mangold et al., 1999; Susskind, 2002).

6.7 Limitations

While this study offers a number of contributions to the marketing literature and restaurateurs, there are also some limitations.

As this research focus solely on the upscale ethnic segment, the results of this study may not be applied conclusively to the other segments of the restaurant industry or other types of restaurants. Consumers may take different factors into account when considering different types of restaurants.

The samples of this study were drawn from a limited group of consumers who were living in the Christchurch area. The likelihood of having eaten at an upscale ethnic restaurant and the profile of consumers may vary if the survey is expanded to other cities.

In addition, different restaurants of different ethnic cuisines have different characteristics and attributes. The respondents in this study may have a particular

restaurant in mind when filling the survey, and thus their responses may be biased to that restaurant.

6.8 Avenues for Future Research

Future research may extend the focus of the study to other segments and types of restaurants. Additionally, rather than including the whole ethnic segment, future research may focus on particular ethnic cuisine(s).

Future studies can collect data from different cities or different countries and/or use a different data collection approach such as face-to-face interviews, or only focus on a particular segment of consumers. Further, future researchers can undertake a comparative study between two different cuisines or between two different groups of consumers such as Eastern versus Western.

Future research may extend the study to include other influential factors that were not included in this study such as past experience, perceptions, and attitudes. In addition, future research may examine the restaurant choice factors from the viewpoints of restaurant operators and employees, instead of consumers.

Moreover, because the foodservice industry is dynamic, the factors that influence consumers' restaurant selection behaviour may vary over time. Future research can conduct a longitudinal study to compare changes in restaurant choice factors that influence consumers' decision at different times.

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Table 5.1: Descriptive Statistics of the Segmentation Characteristics

Groups	Variables	N		Statistics				
		Valid	Missing	Min	Max	Mean	Median	Std. Dev
Total Respondents	Frequency of Dining	325	77	1	6	2.39	2	1.27
	Occasion of Dining	325	77	1	5	2.58	3	1.20
	Gender	402	0	1	2	1.53	2	0.50
	Age	402	0	1	6	4.23	4	1.36
	Ethnicity	402	0	1	8	1.63	1	1.52
	Qualification	397	5	1	7	3.49	3	1.78
	Occupation	400	2	1	13	6.24	7	4.14
	Household Composition	401	1	1	9	2.36	2	1.68
	Household Income	388	14	1	9	3.81	3	2.05
Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Goers	Frequency of Dining	325	0	1	6	2.39	2	1.27
	Occasion of Dining	325	0	1	5	2.58	3	1.20
	Gender	325	0	1	2	1.54	2	0.50
	Age	325	0	1	6	4.14	4	1.33
	Ethnicity	325	0	1	8	1.63	1	1.51
	Qualification	320	5	1	7	3.57	3	1.77
	Occupation	323	2	1	13	5.98	7	4.12
	Household Composition	324	1	1	9	2.37	2	1.64
	Household Income	316	9	1	9	4.02	4	2.08
Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Non-goers	Frequency of Dining	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
	Occasion of Dining	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
	Gender	77	0	1	2	1.51	2	0.50
	Age	77	0	1	6	4.64	5	1.41
	Ethnicity	77	0	1	8	1.64	1	1.57
	Qualification	77	0	1	7	3.17	3	1.78
	Occupation	77	0	1	13	7.34	9	4.06
	Household Composition	77	0	1	7	2.32	1	1.85
	Household Income	72	5	1	7	2.89	2	1.58

Table 5.2: Profile of Consumer Segmentation Characteristics

Variables	N		Total Respondents		Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Goers		Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Non-goers	
			Frequency (No. of respondents per option)	%	Frequency (No. of respondents per option)	%	Frequency (No. of respondents per option)	%
Frequency of Dining	Valid	1-2 times a year	80	19.9	80	24.6	N/A	N/A
		3-6 times a year	137	34.1	137	42.2	N/A	N/A
		7-11 times a year	42	10.4	42	12.9	N/A	N/A
		once a month	43	10.7	43	13.2	N/A	N/A
		2-3 times a month	13	3.2	13	4.0	N/A	N/A
		more than 3 times a month	10	2.5	10	3.1	N/A	N/A
		Total	325	80.8	325	100.0	N/A	N/A
	Missing	N/A	77	19.2	0	0.0	N/A	N/A
	Total		402	100.0	325	100.0	N/A	N/A
Dining Occasion	Valid	Normal dining out	103	25.6	103	31.7	N/A	N/A
		Business- or Work-related	12	3.0	12	3.7	N/A	N/A
		Gathering with friends/family	134	33.3	134	41.2	N/A	N/A
		Special occasion & celebration	69	17.2	69	21.2	N/A	N/A
		Dating/Intimate dining	7	1.7	7	2.2	N/A	N/A
		Total	325	80.8	325	100.0	N/A	N/A
	Missing	N/A	77	19.2	0	0.0	N/A	N/A
	Total		402	100.0	325	100.0	N/A	N/A
Gender	Valid	Male	189	47.0	151	46.5	38	49.4
		Female	213	53.0	174	53.5	39	50.6
	Total		402	100.0	325	100.0	77	100.0
Age	Valid	18-25	10	2.5	9	2.8	1	1.3
		26-35	40	10.0	31	9.5	9	11.7
		36-45	68	16.9	63	19.4	5	6.5
		46-55	99	24.6	83	25.5	16	20.8
		56-65	99	24.6	82	25.2	17	22.1
		66+	86	21.4	57	17.5	29	37.7
	Total		402	100.0	325	100.0	77	100.0

Table 5.2: Profile of Consumer Segmentation Characteristics (Continued)

Variables	N		Total Respondents		Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Goers		Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Non-goers	
			Frequency (No. of respondents per option)	%	Frequency (No. of respondents per option)	%	Frequency (No. of respondents per option)	%
Ethnicity	Valid	NZ European	329	81.8	268	82.5	61	79.2
		NZ Maori	13	3.2	7	2.2	6	7.8
		Pacific Islander	3	0.7	2	0.6	1	1.3
		European	21	5.2	18	5.5	3	3.9
		Asian	22	5.5	19	5.8	3	3.9
		Australian	3	0.7	3	0.9	0	0.0
		North American	7	1.7	6	1.8	1	1.3
		Other	4	1.0	2	0.6	2	2.6
	Total		402	100.0	325	100.0	77	100.0
Qualification	Valid	Up to high school certificate	79	19.7	60	18.5	19	24.7
		Seventh form certificate	47	11.7	34	10.5	13	16.9
		Diploma	82	20.4	69	21.2	13	16.9
		Trade qualification	53	13.2	41	12.6	12	15.6
		Bachelors degree	65	16.2	56	17.2	9	11.7
		Postgraduate degree	67	16.7	57	17.5	10	13.0
		Other	4	1.0	3	0.9	1	1.3
		Total	397	98.8	320	98.5	77	100.0
	Missing	-999	5	1.2	5	1.5	0	0.0
Total		402	100.0	325	100.0	77	100.0	
Occupation	Valid	Professional	112	27.9	99	30.5	13	16.9
		Tradesperson	14	3.5	11	3.4	3	3.9
		Student	20	5.0	14	4.3	6	7.8
		Clerical	28	7.0	24	7.4	4	5.2
		Labourer	4	1.0	3	0.9	1	1.3
		Sales/Service	23	5.7	19	5.8	4	5.2
		Unemployed	13	3.2	12	3.7	1	1.3
		Self-employed	61	15.2	50	15.4	11	14.3
		Management	38	9.5	33	10.2	5	6.5
		Retired	79	19.7	52	16.0	27	35.1
		Community worker	4	1.0	3	0.9	1	1.3
		Other	4	1.0	3	0.9	1	1.3
		Total	400	99.5	323	99.4	77	100.0
	Missing	-999	2	0.5	2	0.6	0	0.0
Total		402	100.0	325	100.0	77	100.0	

Table 5.2: Profile of Consumer Segmentation Characteristics (Continued)

Variables	N		Total Respondents		Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Goers		Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Non-goers	
			Frequency (No. of respondents per option)	%	Frequency (No. of respondents per option)	%	Frequency (No. of respondents per option)	%
Household Composition	Valid	Married without children at home	162	40.3	122	37.5	40	51.9
		Married with child(ren) at home	125	31.1	110	33.8	15	19.5
		Partner without children at home	33	8.2	28	8.6	5	6.5
		Partner with child(ren) at home	7	1.7	6	1.8	1	1.3
		Single-person household	50	12.4	41	12.6	9	11.7
		Single-parent family	15	3.7	11	3.4	4	5.2
		Living with flatmate(s)	6	1.5	3	0.9	3	3.9
		Living with parents	2	0.5	2	0.6	0	0.0
		Other	1	0.2	1	0.3	0	0.0
	Total	401	99.8	324	99.7	77	100.0	
Missing	-999	1	0.2	1	0.3	0	0.0	
Total		402	100.0	325	100.0	77	100.0	
Household Income	Valid	Under \$25,000	31	7.7	19	5.8	12	15.6
		\$25,000-49,999	87	21.6	61	18.8	26	33.8
		\$50,000-74,999	88	21.9	76	23.4	12	15.6
		\$75,000-99,999	64	15.9	53	16.3	11	14.3
		\$100,000-124,999	43	10.7	39	12.0	4	5.2
		\$125,000-149,999	36	9.0	31	9.5	5	6.5
		\$150,000-174,999	9	2.2	7	2.2	2	2.6
		\$175,000-199,999	11	2.7	11	3.4	0	0.0
		\$200,000+	19	4.7	19	5.8	0	0.0
	Total	388	96.5	316	97.2	72	93.5	
Missing	-999	14	3.5	9	2.8	5	6.5	
Total		402	100.0	325	100.0	77	100.0	

Table 5.4: The Anti-Image Correlation Matrix for Goer (Continued)

	CL2	ST1	ST2	DE1	DE2	VM1	VM2	BP1	BP2
UF1	-0.04	-0.08	-0.03	-0.05	-0.08	-0.06	0.04	-0.01	-0.07
UF2	-0.02	0.10	-0.03	-0.02	0.02	0.04	0.01	0.10	0.06
MV1	-0.07	-0.17	0.05	0.05	-0.06	-0.02	-0.06	-0.09	0.03
MV2	0.19	0.05	-0.02	0.05	-0.07	0.03	-0.15	0.01	-0.06
AP1	0.00	-0.03	0.00	-0.16	-0.03	0.11	0.02	-0.06	0.05
AP2	-0.01	0.06	0.01	0.01	-0.12	-0.08	-0.04	0.01	0.00
HF1	-0.02	0.04	-0.04	0.09	0.01	-0.03	-0.14	0.06	-0.03
HF2	0.04	0.01	-0.01	-0.09	0.07	-0.14	0.20	0.01	-0.01
FF1	-0.03	0.04	-0.06	0.10	0.06	-0.04	-0.02	0.04	-0.12
FF2	0.08	0.03	-0.13	0.05	0.03	-0.02	-0.02	-0.11	-0.06
RF1	0.01	-0.09	0.03	-0.12	0.06	-0.01	0.03	0.02	0.04
RF2	-0.03	0.08	-0.12	0.09	-0.09	0.09	-0.04	0.04	-0.05
PE1	-0.17	0.05	-0.05	0.03	0.02	0.06	-0.01	-0.06	0.12
PE2	0.02	-0.07	0.02	-0.17	-0.16	-0.02	0.06	-0.07	-0.04
PE3	-0.09	0.00	-0.09	-0.07	-0.03	0.12	0.00	0.07	-0.06
SB1	-0.03	0.10	-0.06	0.10	0.03	-0.09	-0.03	-0.03	-0.02
SB2	-0.05	-0.11	0.09	-0.13	0.15	-0.08	0.01	0.02	0.05
SB3	0.03	0.04	-0.01	-0.03	-0.06	-0.12	-0.01	-0.03	0.03
WT1	0.04	-0.06	0.09	0.03	0.01	-0.18	0.05	-0.02	-0.05
WT2	-0.04	-0.07	0.00	0.01	-0.03	0.12	0.02	-0.14	-0.01
BA1	0.06	0.13	-0.13	-0.01	-0.08	0.04	-0.21	-0.01	-0.01
BA2	-0.04	-0.04	0.13	0.11	0.08	-0.11	0.03	-0.03	-0.04
WM1	0.07	0.06	0.00	-0.14	0.10	0.11	-0.04	-0.01	-0.01
WM2	0.10	-0.13	0.01	0.06	-0.06	-0.08	0.04	0.04	-0.05
MC1	-0.08	0.00	-0.10	-0.05	0.01	-0.13	0.06	-0.04	-0.05
MC2	0.00	-0.08	0.07	-0.07	-0.09	0.01	0.01	-0.07	-0.12
MC3	0.00	0.08	-0.15	0.02	-0.18	0.07	-0.15	0.01	0.04
CL1	-0.24	-0.04	0.09	-0.28	-0.12	0.00	0.07	-0.18	0.11
CL2	.911(a)	0.03	-0.12	-0.06	-0.20	-0.17	-0.06	0.00	-0.05
ST1	0.03	.769(a)	-0.55	0.09	-0.04	-0.03	-0.12	-0.14	-0.08
ST2	-0.12	-0.55	.798(a)	-0.06	-0.03	-0.04	0.11	0.04	-0.12
DE1	-0.06	0.09	-0.06	.884(a)	-0.17	-0.01	-0.03	-0.05	-0.07
DE2	-0.20	-0.04	-0.03	-0.17	.898(a)	-0.04	0.10	0.05	-0.01
VM1	-0.17	-0.03	-0.04	-0.01	-0.04	.864(a)	-0.46	0.08	0.04
VM2	-0.06	-0.12	0.11	-0.03	0.10	-0.46	.846(a)	0.02	0.00
BP1	0.00	-0.14	0.04	-0.05	0.05	0.08	0.02	.896(a)	-0.21
BP2	-0.05	-0.08	-0.12	-0.07	-0.01	0.04	0.00	-0.21	.857(a)

Table 5.5: Factor Extraction

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.392	25.383	25.383	9.392	25.383	25.383
2	3.351	9.057	34.440	3.351	9.057	34.440
3	2.191	5.923	40.362	2.191	5.923	40.362
4	1.822	4.924	45.287	1.822	4.924	45.287
5	1.623	4.388	49.674	1.623	4.388	49.674
6	1.386	3.745	53.420	1.386	3.745	53.420
7	1.264	3.417	56.837	1.264	3.417	56.837
8	1.157	3.128	59.965	1.157	3.128	59.965
9	1.075	2.904	62.869	1.075	2.904	62.869
10	0.992	2.680	65.550			
11	0.957	2.588	68.137			
12	0.877	2.370	70.507			
13	0.782	2.113	72.620			
14	0.714	1.928	74.548			
15	0.683	1.845	76.393			
16	0.668	1.805	78.198			
17	0.625	1.689	79.886			
18	0.611	1.652	81.538			
19	0.582	1.573	83.111			
20	0.565	1.527	84.638			
21	0.532	1.439	86.077			
22	0.512	1.383	87.460			
23	0.501	1.355	88.815			
24	0.461	1.246	90.061			
25	0.404	1.091	91.151			
26	0.384	1.038	92.189			
27	0.368	0.996	93.185			
28	0.344	0.930	94.115			
29	0.319	0.863	94.978			
30	0.311	0.840	95.818			
31	0.281	0.760	96.578			
32	0.272	0.734	97.312			
33	0.239	0.647	97.959			
34	0.226	0.612	98.571			
35	0.216	0.583	99.154			
36	0.166	0.449	99.603			
37	0.147	0.397	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. Choice of Upscale Ethnic Restaurant = Goer

Table 5.6: VARIMAX Rotation Results (Goer)

	Component								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
BA1	0.826								
SB2	0.767								
SB1	0.751								
BA2	0.749								
SB3	0.735								
WT1	0.716								
WT2	0.662								
VM2	0.559								0.536
HF2		0.736							
HF1		0.732							
MV2		0.615							
MV1		0.599							
AP1		0.581						0.401	
UF2		0.548							
AP2		0.478							
PE3			0.681						
PE2			0.673						
DE1			0.628						
DE2			0.619						
CL1			0.527						
BP2				0.699					
ST1				0.698					
ST2				0.583					
BP1				0.554					
WM1					0.654				
MC1					0.653				
WM2					0.572				
MC3					0.516				
MC2					0.451				
RF1						0.902			
RF2						0.895			
FF2							0.725		
FF1							0.707		
UF1							-0.452		
PE1								0.710	
VM1	0.547								0.596
CL2			0.476						0.477

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 19 iterations.

b. Choice of Upscale Ethnic Restaurant = Goer

Table 5.7: OBLIMIN Rotation Results (Goer)

	Component								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
BA1	0.865								
BA2	0.785								
SB2	0.767								
SB3	0.736								
SB1	0.723								
WT1	0.707								
WT2	0.618								
VM2	0.583								
VM1	0.560								
ST1		0.763							
BP2		0.656							
ST2		0.647							
FF2			0.785						
UF1			-0.577						
FF1			0.570					-0.410	
HF2				0.790					
HF1				0.750					
MV2				0.611					
MV1				0.605					
AP1				0.551					
UF2				0.508					
RF1					-0.918				
RF2					-0.911				
PE3						-0.664			
PE2						-0.608			
DE1									
CL1									
WM1							0.678		
MC1							0.650		
MC3							0.609		
WM2							0.595		
MC2								0.593	
BP1		0.401						0.446	
PE1									0.624
CL2									0.607
AP2				0.407					0.461
DE2									0.427

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 37 iterations.

b. Choice of Upscale Ethnic Restaurant = Goer

Table 5.8: VARIMAX Rotation with Descriptions of Variables

	Item Name	Component								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
BA1	Billing accuracy	0.83								
SB2	Competency of staff	0.77								
SB1	Attentiveness of staff	0.75								
BA2	Billing accuracy	0.75								
SB3	Interpersonal skills of staff	0.74								
WT1	Service promptness	0.72								
WT2	Seating order	0.66								
VM2	Value for money	0.56								0.54
HF2	Healthy food		0.74							
HF1	Healthy food		0.73							
MV2	Menu variety		0.61							
MV1	Menu variety		0.60							
AP1	Food presentation		0.58						0.40	
UF2	Unique food tastes		0.55							
AP2	Food appearance		0.48							
PE3	Authentic restaurant design			0.68						
PE2	Restaurant atmosphere			0.67						
DE1	Different experience			0.63						
DE2	Different experience			0.62						
CL1	Cultural learning			0.53						
BP2	Beverage preference				0.70					
ST1	Social status				0.70					
ST2	Social status				0.58					
BP1	Beverage preference				0.55					
WM1	Word of mouth					0.65				
MC1	Advertising					0.65				
WM2	Word of mouth					0.57				
MC3	Publicity					0.52				
MC2	Sales promotion					0.45				
RF1	Religious food						0.90			
RF2	Religious food						0.90			
FF2	Familiar food							0.73		
FF1	Familiar food							0.71		
UF1	Unique food tastes							-0.45		
PE1	Restaurant décor								0.71	
VM1	Value for money	0.55								0.60
CL2	Cultural learning			0.48						0.48

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 5.9: The Reliability Test for the Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Goer

Constructs	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Service Quality	<p>22. An upscale ethnic restaurant has attentive staff that pay attention to my personal needs.</p> <p>20. Restaurant service staff at an upscale ethnic restaurant are competent and have a good knowledge of the menu.</p> <p>15. The service staff at an upscale ethnic restaurant are polite and have good interpersonal skills.</p> <p>18. An upscale ethnic restaurant provides a prompt service and does not keep me waiting for a long time.</p> <p>16. An upscale ethnic restaurant has a well allocated seating order.</p> <p>21. An upscale ethnic restaurant charges me accurately.</p> <p>14. The invoices at an upscale ethnic restaurant are accurate.</p>	0.901
Food Quality	<p>7. The food served at an upscale ethnic restaurant is made of authentic ingredients and has unique taste of the cuisine.</p> <p>9. I go to an upscale ethnic restaurant because there is a wide variety of food on the menu.</p> <p>3. An upscale ethnic restaurant offers several interesting food choices on the menu.</p> <p>5. The food served at an upscale ethnic restaurant is nicely presented.</p> <p>11. I like the appearance of the food at an upscale ethnic restaurant.</p> <p>6. The food served at an upscale ethnic restaurant is healthy.</p> <p>4. I like how an upscale ethnic restaurant offers nutritious food choices.</p>	0.824
Dining Experience	<p>19. The atmosphere in an upscale ethnic restaurant influences my decision when selecting a restaurant.</p> <p>17. The authentic design of an upscale ethnic restaurant is important.</p> <p>25. I go to an upscale ethnic restaurant because it offers me a unique experience.</p> <p>35. I go to an upscale ethnic restaurant when I want to try a different dining experience.</p> <p>28. Going to an upscale ethnic restaurant is a great way to experience a different culture.</p> <p>34. The cultural experience I get from dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant gives me the impression that I am in that particular country.</p>	0.802
Social Status	<p>31. I go to an upscale ethnic restaurant because it is patronised by people of a similar class to mine.</p> <p>37. I choose an upscale ethnic restaurant whose image reflects my self-image.</p> <p>29. An upscale ethnic restaurant offers a wide assortment of beverages.</p> <p>24. I go to an upscale ethnic restaurant that sells the beverages that I normally drink.</p>	0.711

Constructs	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Marketing Communications	23. When my friends/family recommend an upscale ethnic restaurant to me, I try it. 30. I go to an upscale ethnic restaurant because my friends/family like to go there. 32. I choose an upscale ethnic restaurant that I have heard about through advertising. 26. I choose an upscale ethnic restaurant where I can get a discount (e.g. from vouchers, loyalty card). 36. Positive comments about an upscale ethnic restaurant from publicity encourage me to dine at one.	0.636
Religious Food	10. I go to an upscale ethnic restaurant that serves food that is in accordance with my religious beliefs. 2. An upscale ethnic restaurant offers food choices that are prepared according to the requirements of my religion.	0.870
Familiar Food	8. An upscale ethnic restaurant serves food that I am familiar with. 12. The food served at an upscale ethnic restaurant is similar to the food that I normally eat.	0.556
Restaurant Décor	13. An upscale ethnic restaurant has visually appealing décor.	N/A
Value for Money	33. I get good value for the amount of money I pay when dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant. 27. I am satisfied with the price I pay for a meal at an upscale ethnic restaurant.	0.786

Table 5.10: The Reliability Test for the Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Non-goer

Constructs	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Service Quality	22. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant does not have attentive staff that pay attention to my personal needs. 20. I believe the restaurant service staff at an upscale ethnic restaurant are not competent and do not have a good knowledge of the menu. 15. I assume the service staff at an upscale ethnic restaurant are not polite and do not have good interpersonal skills. 18. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant will not provide a prompt service and will keep me waiting for a long time. 16. I believe an upscale ethnic restaurant has a poorly allocated seating order. 21. I think an upscale ethnic restaurant will charge me inaccurately. 14. I assume the invoices at an upscale ethnic restaurant are inaccurate.	0.931
Food Quality	7. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant does not offer food with authentic tastes and ingredients. 9. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant has limited food choices on the menu. 3. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant does not offer several interesting food choices on the menu. 5. I think the food at an upscale ethnic restaurant is not well-presented. 11. I assume the appearance of the food at an upscale ethnic restaurant is not appealing. 6. I believe the food served at an upscale ethnic restaurant is unhealthy. 4. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant does not offer food choices with high nutritional value.	0.923
Dining Experience	19. The atmosphere in an upscale ethnic restaurant does not influence my decision to dine at one. 17. I assume I will not like the authentic design of an upscale ethnic restaurant. 25. I do not believe an upscale ethnic restaurant will offer me a unique experience. 35. I do not think dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant will give me a different dining experience. 28. I do not think I can experience a different culture by going to an upscale ethnic restaurant. 34. I believe an upscale ethnic restaurant will not give me the cultural experience or the impression that I am in that particular country.	0.664
Social Status	31. I do not take social status into account when choosing a restaurant. 37. I do not think the image of an upscale ethnic restaurant reflects my self-image. 29. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant does not offer a wide assortment of beverages. 24. I believe that an upscale ethnic restaurant does not sell the beverages that I normally drink.	0.446

Constructs	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Marketing Communications	23. My friends'/family's recommendation about an upscale ethnic restaurant does not encourage me to try it. 30. I do not choose an upscale ethnic restaurant on a basis that my friends/family like to go there. 32. An advertisement does not influence me to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant. 26. A discount (e.g. from coupons/loyalty card) does not influence me to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant. 36. Positive comments about an upscale ethnic restaurant from publicity do not encourage me to dine at one.	0.659
Religious Food	10. I believe the food served at an upscale ethnic restaurant is not in accordance with my religious beliefs. 2. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant does not offer food choices that are prepared according to the requirements of my religion.	0.865
Familiar Food	8. I am not familiar with the food at an upscale ethnic restaurant. 12. I think the food served at an upscale ethnic restaurant is different from the food that I normally eat.	0.088
Restaurant Décor	13. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant does not have visually appealing décor.	N/A
Value for Money	33. I believe dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant will be too expensive. 27. I am unwilling to pay the price they charge for a meal at an upscale ethnic restaurant.	0.717

Table 5.11: Pearson Correlation Matrix (Goer)

		Service Quality	Food Quality	Dining Experience	Social Status	Marketing Communications	Religious Food	Restaurant Décor	Value for Money
Service Quality	Pearson Correlation	1	.555(**)	.407(**)	.235(**)	.283(**)	.121(*)	.422(**)	.589(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.029	0.000	0.000
	N	325	325	325	325	325	325	325	325
Food Quality	Pearson Correlation	.555(**)	1	.450(**)	.251(**)	.328(**)	.164(**)	.408(**)	.420(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.000
	N	325	325	325	325	325	325	325	325
Dining Experience	Pearson Correlation	.407(**)	.450(**)	1	.461(**)	.482(**)	.217(**)	.407(**)	.232(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	325	325	325	325	325	325	325	325
Social Status	Pearson Correlation	.235(**)	.251(**)	.461(**)	1	.413(**)	.276(**)	.247(**)	.143(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.010
	N	325	325	325	325	325	325	325	325
Marketing Communications	Pearson Correlation	.283(**)	.328(**)	.482(**)	.413(**)	1	.139(*)	.244(**)	.221(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.012	0.000	0.000
	N	325	325	325	325	325	325	325	325
Religious Food	Pearson Correlation	.121(*)	.164(**)	.217(**)	.276(**)	.139(*)	1	.201(**)	0.003
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.029	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.012		0.000	0.951
	N	325	325	325	325	325	325	325	325
Restaurant Décor	Pearson Correlation	.422(**)	.408(**)	.407(**)	.247(**)	.244(**)	.201(**)	1	.162(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.003
	N	325	325	325	325	325	325	325	325
Value for Money	Pearson Correlation	.589(**)	.420(**)	.232(**)	.143(**)	.221(**)	0.003	.162(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.010	0.000	0.951	0.003	
	N	325	325	325	325	325	325	325	325

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 5.12: Chi-square Tests for Demographic Characteristics and a Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant

Demographic Characteristics	No. of Original Groups	Chi-square Tests	No. of New Groups	Chi-square Tests
Gender	2	0.648	2	0.648
Age	6	0.002*	3	0.014*
Ethnicity	8	0.156	2	0.507
Qualification	7	0.382	3	0.076
Occupation	12	0.047*	3	0.000*
Household Composition	9	0.121	3	0.040*
Household Income	9	0.001*	3	0.000*

* Significant at .05 level

Table 5.13: Cross-tabulation of Gender

			Gender		Total	
			Male	Female		
Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	Goer	Count	151	174	325	
		Expected Count	152.8	172.2	325.0	
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	46.5%	53.5%	100.0%	
		% within Gender	79.9%	81.7%	80.8%	
		% of Total	37.6%	43.3%	80.8%	
		Non-goer	Count	38	39	77
	Expected Count	36.2	40.8	77.0		
	% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	49.4%	50.6%	100.0%		
	% within Gender	20.1%	18.3%	19.2%		
	% of Total	9.5%	9.7%	19.2%		
	Total		Count	189	213	402
			Expected Count	189.0	213.0	402.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	47.0%	53.0%	100.0%	
		% within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
		% of Total	47.0%	53.0%	100.0%	

Table 5.14: Cross-tabulation of Age

			Age			Total
			Young-age	Middle-age	Old-age	
Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	Goer	Count	40	146	139	325
		Expected Count	40.4	135.0	149.6	325.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	12.3%	44.9%	42.8%	100.0%
		% within Age	80.0%	87.4%	75.1%	80.8%
		% of Total	10.0%	36.3%	34.6%	80.8%
	Non-goer	Count	10	21	46	77
		Expected Count	9.6	32.0	35.4	77.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	13.0%	27.3%	59.7%	100.0%
		% within Age	20.0%	12.6%	24.9%	19.2%
		% of Total	2.5%	5.2%	11.4%	19.2%
Total		Count	50	167	185	402
		Expected Count	50.0	167.0	185.0	402.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	12.4%	41.5%	46.0%	100.0%
		% within Age	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	12.4%	41.5%	46.0%	100.0%

Table 5.15: Cross-tabulation of Ethnicity

			Ethnicity		Total
			NZ European	Others	
Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	Goer	Count	268	57	325
		Expected Count	266.0	59.0	325.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	82.5%	17.5%	100.0%
		% within Ethnicity	81.5%	78.1%	80.8%
		% of Total	66.7%	14.2%	80.8%
	Non-goer	Count	61	16	77
		Expected Count	63.0	14.0	77.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	79.2%	20.8%	100.0%
		% within Ethnicity	18.5%	21.9%	19.2%
		% of Total	15.2%	4.0%	19.2%
Total		Count	329	73	402
		Expected Count	329.0	73.0	402.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	81.8%	18.2%	100.0%
		% within Ethnicity	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	81.8%	18.2%	100.0%

Table 5.16: Cross-tabulation of Qualification

			Qualification			Total
			Low-level	Medium-level	High-level	
Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	Goer	Count	97	110	113	320
		Expected Count	104.8	108.8	106.4	320.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	30.3%	34.4%	35.3%	100.0%
		% within Qualification	74.6%	81.5%	85.6%	80.6%
		% of Total	24.4%	27.7%	28.5%	80.6%
	Non-goer	Count	33	25	19	77
		Expected Count	25.2	26.2	25.6	77.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	42.9%	32.5%	24.7%	100.0%
		% within Qualification	25.4%	18.5%	14.4%	19.4%
		% of Total	8.3%	6.3%	4.8%	19.4%
Total		Count	130	135	132	397
		Expected Count	130.0	135.0	132.0	397.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	32.7%	34.0%	33.2%	100.0%
		% within Qualification	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	32.7%	34.0%	33.2%	100.0%

Table 5.17: Cross-tabulation of Occupation

			Occupation			Total
			White-collar	Retired	Others	
Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	Goer	Count	236	52	35	323
		Expected Count	222.9	63.8	36.3	323.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	73.1%	16.1%	10.8%	100.0%
		% within Occupation	85.5%	65.8%	77.8%	80.8%
		% of Total	59.0%	13.0%	8.8%	80.8%
	Non-goer	Count	40	27	10	77
		Expected Count	53.1	15.2	8.7	77.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	51.9%	35.1%	13.0%	100.0%
		% within Occupation	14.5%	34.2%	22.2%	19.3%
		% of Total	10.0%	6.8%	2.5%	19.3%
Total		Count	276	79	45	400
		Expected Count	276.0	79.0	45.0	400.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	69.0%	19.8%	11.3%	100.0%
		% within Occupation	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	69.0%	19.8%	11.3%	100.0%

Table 5.18: Cross-tabulation of Household Composition

			Household Composition			Total
			Couple without Children at Home	Couple with Child(ren) at Home	Others	
Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	Goer	Count	150	116	58	324
		Expected Count	157.6	106.7	59.8	324.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	46.3%	35.8%	17.9%	100.0%
		% within Household Composition	76.9%	87.9%	78.4%	80.8%
	Non-goer	Count	45	16	16	77
		Expected Count	37.4	25.3	14.2	77.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	58.4%	20.8%	20.8%	100.0%
		% within Household Composition	23.1%	12.1%	21.6%	19.2%
Total	Count	195	132	74	401	
	Expected Count	195.0	132.0	74.0	401.0	
	% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	48.6%	32.9%	18.5%	100.0%	
	% within Household Composition	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
		% of Total	48.6%	32.9%	18.5%	100.0%

Table 5.19: Cross-tabulation of Household Income

			Household Income			Total
			Low Income	Middle Income	High Income	
Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	Goer	Count	80	129	107	316
		Expected Count	96.1	123.8	96.1	316.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	25.3%	40.8%	33.9%	100.0%
		% within Household Income	67.8%	84.9%	90.7%	81.4%
		% of Total	20.6%	33.2%	27.6%	81.4%
	Non-goer	Count	38	23	11	72
		Expected Count	21.9	28.2	21.9	72.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	52.8%	31.9%	15.3%	100.0%
		% within Household Income	32.2%	15.1%	9.3%	18.6%
		% of Total	9.8%	5.9%	2.8%	18.6%
Total		Count	118	152	118	388
		Expected Count	118.0	152.0	118.0	388.0
		% within Choice of an Upscale Ethnic Restaurant	30.4%	39.2%	30.4%	100.0%
		% within Household Income	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	30.4%	39.2%	30.4%	100.0%

Table 5.24: T-tests Results Relating to Gender

Factor	Gender	No. of Respondents	Mean	t	Sig.
Marketing Communications	Male	189	3.653	3.142	0.002*
	Female	213	3.332		

* Significant at .05 level

Table 5.25: T-tests Results Relating to Ethnicity

Factors	Ethnicity	No. of Respondents	Mean	t	Sig.
Dining Experience	NZ European	329	3.295	1.694	0.091**
	Others	73	3.018		
Religious Food	NZ European	329	6.040	3.442	0.001*
	Others	73	5.390		
Restaurant Décor	NZ European	329	4.137	3.415	0.001*
	Others	73	3.452		

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .10 level

Table 5.26: ANOVA (F-tests) Results Relating to Age

Factors	Age	No. of Respondents	Mean	F	Sig.
Service Quality	Young-age	50	3.071	2.364	0.095**
	Middle-age	167	3.281		
	Old-age	185	3.537		
Marketing Communications	Young-age	50	3.048	7.455	0.001*
	Middle-age	167	3.423		
	Old-age	185	3.654		
Religious Food	Young-age	50	5.490	2.895	0.056**
	Middle-age	167	6.060		
	Old-age	185	5.914		
Restaurant Décor	Young-age	50	3.300	7.102	0.001*
	Middle-age	167	3.988		
	Old-age	185	4.227		

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .10 level

Table 5.27: ANOVA (F-tests) Results Relating to Qualification

Factors	Qualification	No. of Respondents	Mean	F	Sig.
Dining Experience	Low-level	130	3.469	2.934	0.054**
	Medium-level	135	3.111		
	High-level	132	3.191		
Social Status	Low-level	130	4.417	2.930	0.055**
	Medium-level	135	4.231		
	High-level	132	4.551		

**** Significant at .10 level**

Table 5.28: ANOVA (F-tests) Results Relating to Occupation

Factors	Occupation	No. of Respondents	Mean	F	Sig.
Service Quality	White-collar	276	3.303	3.623	0.028*
	Retired	79	3.769		
	Others	45	3.117		
Food Quality	White-collar	276	3.134	5.049	0.007*
	Retired	79	3.727		
	Others	45	3.092		
Dining Experience	White-collar	276	3.168	6.648	0.001*
	Retired	79	3.690		
	Others	45	2.970		
Marketing Communications	White-collar	276	3.397	10.485	0.000*
	Retired	79	3.939		
	Others	45	3.227		
Religious Food	White-collar	276	5.957	2.864	0.058**
	Retired	79	6.108		
	Others	45	5.467		
Restaurant Décor	White-collar	276	4.043	7.739	0.001*
	Retired	79	4.367		
	Others	45	3.244		

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .10 level

Table 5.29: ANOVA (F-tests) Results Relating to Household Composition

Factors	Household Composition	No. of Respondents	Mean	F	Sig.
Dining Experience	Couple without Children at Home	195	3.397	2.814	0.061**
	Couple with Child(ren) at Home	132	3.100		
	Others	74	3.097		
Marketing Communications	Couple without Children at Home	195	3.658	6.278	0.002*
	Couple with Child(ren) at Home	132	3.371		
	Others	74	3.211		

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .10 level

Table 5.30: ANOVA (F-tests) Results Relating to Household Income

Factors	Household Income	No. of Respondents	Mean	F	Sig.
Service Quality	Low Income	118	3.738	5.163	0.006*
	Middle Income	152	3.225		
	High Income	118	3.178		
Food Quality	Low Income	118	3.616	5.645	0.004*
	Middle Income	152	3.100		
	High Income	118	3.019		

* Significant at .05 level

Table 5.31: The Scheffe Output for Age

			Marketing Communications	Religious Food	Restaurant Décor
Scheffe	(I) Age	(J) Age	Sig.	Sig.	Sig.
	Young-age	Middle-age	0.075**	0.057**	0.023*
		Old-age	0.001*	0.197	0.001*
	Middle-age	Young-age	0.075**	0.057**	0.023*
		Old-age	0.106	0.648	0.352
	Old-age	Young-age	0.001*	0.197	0.001*
		Middle-age	0.106	0.648	0.352

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .10 level

Table 5.32: The Scheffe Output for Qualification

			Dining Experience	Social Status
Scheffe	(I) Qualification	(J) Qualification	Sig.	Sig.
	Low-level	Medium-level	0.070**	0.379
		High-level	0.203	0.608
	Medium-level	Low-level	0.070**	0.379
		High-level	0.875	0.056**
	High-level	Low-level	0.203	0.608
		Medium-level	0.875	0.056**

**** Significant at .10 level**

Table 5.33: The Scheffe Output for Occupation

			Service Quality	Food Quality	Dining Experience
Scheffe	(I) Occupation	(J) Occupation	Sig.	Sig.	Sig.
	White-collar	Retired	0.056**	0.009*	0.005*
		Others	0.749	0.985	0.614
	Retired	White-collar	0.056**	0.009*	0.005*
		Others	0.072**	0.079**	0.009*
	Others	White-collar	0.749	0.985	0.614
		Retired	0.072**	0.079**	0.009*

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .10 level

Table 5.33: The Scheffe Output for Occupation (Continued)

			Marketing Communications	Religious Food	Restaurant Décor
Scheffe	(I) Occupation	(J) Occupation	Sig.	Sig.	Sig.
	White-collar	Retired	0.000*	0.723	0.259
		Others	0.578	0.117	0.006*
	Retired	White-collar	0.000*	0.723	0.259
		Others	0.001*	0.066**	0.001*
	Others	White-collar	0.578	0.117	0.006*
		Retired	0.001*	0.066**	0.001*

* Significant at .05 level

** Significant at .10 level

Table 5.34: The Scheffe Output for Household Composition

			Marketing Communications
Scheffe	(I) Household Composition	(J) Household Composition	Sig.
	Couple without Children at Home	Couple with Child(ren) at Home	0.046*
		Others	0.006*
	Couple with Child(ren) at Home	Couple without Children at Home	0.046*
		Others	0.559
	Others	Couple without Children at Home	0.006*
		Couple with Child(ren) at Home	0.559

* Significant at .05 level

Table 5.35: The Scheffe Output for Household Income

			Service Quality	Food Quality
Scheffe	(I) Household Income	(I) Household Income	Sig.	Sig.
	Low Income	Middle Income	0.022*	0.020*
		High Income	0.018*	0.010*
	Middle Income	Low Income	0.022*	0.020*
		High Income	0.969	0.909
	High Income	Low Income	0.018*	0.010*
		Middle Income	0.969	0.909

* Significant at .05 level

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Cover Letter



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www.lincoln.ac.nz

Dear Sir/Madam,

You are invited to participate in a survey that constitutes a part of Master of Commerce and Management thesis at Lincoln University. The survey is to identify and prioritise factors that influence consumers' decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant.

You have been randomly selected to participate in this research. Your participation is very important to this research if the results are to be accurate. Attached is a brief questionnaire, which should only take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete. Your answers will be **completely anonymous and confidential**. No personal details will be reported in the thesis or any resulting publications.

If you are 18 years old or above and have dined out in a restaurant in the past twelve months, I would be extremely grateful if you would spend a few minutes to complete the questionnaire and return it in the pre-paid, self-addressed envelope attached herewith. Please respond within 15 days after receiving this letter. This research is completely voluntary and returning a completed questionnaire implies consent to participate in the survey. This research project has been reviewed and approved by the Lincoln University Human Ethics Committee.

I will be pleased to discuss any concerns you may have about your participation in the research. I can be contacted at (03) 3253838 ext 8972 or by email at sriwonc2@lincoln.ac.nz. You can also contact my research supervisors, Mr Michael D. Clemes at (03) 3253838 ext 8292, clemes@lincoln.ac.nz, or Dr Zhaohua Li at (03) 3253838 ext 8254, liz2b@lincoln.ac.nz.

Your assistance will contribute greatly to the success of my research. Each and every response is important and I appreciate your willingness to help. Thank you very much.

Yours sincerely,

Chirawan (Mee) Sriwongrat
Master of Commerce and Management Student
Lincoln University

Appendix B: Questionnaire

A SURVEY OF CONSUMERS' CHOICE FACTORS OF AN UPSCALE ETHNIC RESTAURANT

PLEASE NOTE:

In this study, an upscale ethnic restaurant refers to a full-service restaurant serving food of foreign origin rather than typical New Zealand food (e.g. traditional New Zealand or British-influenced meals such as roasted meat and three vegetables). Examples of ethnic restaurants operating in New Zealand are: Chinese, Greek, Italian, Indian, Japanese, Thai, Mexican, Spanish, etc. A full-service restaurant provides table service where customers give their orders to a server and their food is then brought to them at their tables.

If you come from a country whose cuisine is considered ethnic in New Zealand, please refer to other cuisines as your ethnic food. For example, if you are originally from China and do not consider a Chinese restaurant as an ethnic restaurant, you may refer to your experience with another ethnic restaurant such as Indian, Japanese, or Mexican, when filling out this survey.

For the purpose of this study, an upscale ethnic restaurant has an average main meal price of at least \$20.00. If you have **never** dined at an ethnic restaurant which has a main meal price of \$20.00 or over, please fill out **SECTION THREE** in the survey, rather than **SECTION TWO**.

This questionnaire consists of four sections. Please respond to all of the statements in each section (where applicable). Listed below are a series of statements that relate to your restaurant selection behaviour.

SECTION ONE

Please **TICK** the most appropriate box.

1. Have you dined at an upscale ethnic restaurant in the past twelve months?

Yes. **Please go to QUESTION TWO**

No, never. **Please go to SECTION THREE**

2. How often do you normally dine out at an upscale ethnic restaurant?

1-2 times a year. 3-6 times a year.

7-11 times a year. Once a month.

2-3 times a month. More than 3 times a month.

**3. What is the main occasion of your dining out at an upscale ethnic restaurant?
Please tick ONLY ONE box.**

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Normal dining out. | <input type="checkbox"/> Business- or work-related |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Gathering with friends/family. | <input type="checkbox"/> Special occasion and celebration.
(e.g. birthday, Christmas day) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Dating/Intimate dining. | |

SECTION TWO: For Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Goers

Statements 1-37 below represent the factors that may influence your decision to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant. Please CIRCLE the number that most accurately reflects how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement on a scale of 1 to 7. Circle 1 if you strongly agree, 7 if strongly disagree, 4 if neutral.

	Strongly Agree		Neutral			Strongly Disagree	
1. An upscale ethnic restaurant offers food that I cannot cook at home.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. An upscale ethnic restaurant offers food choices that are prepared according to the requirements of my religion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. An upscale ethnic restaurant offers several interesting food choices on the menu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I like how an upscale ethnic restaurant offers nutritious food choices.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. The food served at an upscale ethnic restaurant is nicely presented.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. The food served at an upscale ethnic restaurant is healthy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. The food served at an upscale ethnic restaurant is made of authentic ingredients and has unique taste of the cuisine.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. An upscale ethnic restaurant serves food that I am familiar with.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I go to an upscale ethnic restaurant because there is a wide variety of food on the menu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Agree		Neutral			Strongly Disagree	
10. I go to an upscale ethnic restaurant that serves food that is in accordance with my religious beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I like the appearance of the food at an upscale ethnic restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. The food served at an upscale ethnic restaurant is similar to the food that I normally eat.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. An upscale ethnic restaurant has visually appealing décor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. The invoices at an upscale ethnic restaurant are accurate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. The service staff at an upscale ethnic restaurant are polite and have good interpersonal skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. An upscale ethnic restaurant has a well allocated seating order.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. The authentic design of an upscale ethnic restaurant is important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. An upscale ethnic restaurant provides a prompt service and does not keep me waiting for a long time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. The atmosphere in an upscale ethnic restaurant influences my decision when selecting a restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Restaurant service staff at an upscale ethnic restaurant are competent and have a good knowledge of the menu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. An upscale ethnic restaurant charges me accurately.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. An upscale ethnic restaurant has attentive staff that pay attention to my personal needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. When my friends/family recommend an upscale ethnic restaurant to me, I try it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I go to an upscale ethnic restaurant that sells the beverages that I normally drink.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I go to an upscale ethnic restaurant because it offers me a unique experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I choose an upscale ethnic restaurant where I can get a discount (e.g. from vouchers, loyalty card).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I am satisfied with the price I pay for a meal at an upscale ethnic restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Agree		Neutral			Strongly Disagree	
28. Going to an upscale ethnic restaurant is a great way to experience a different culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. An upscale ethnic restaurant offers a wide assortment of beverages.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I go to an upscale ethnic restaurant because my friends/family like to go there.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. I go to an upscale ethnic restaurant because it is patronised by people of a similar class to mine.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. I choose an upscale ethnic restaurant that I have heard about through advertising.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I get good value for the amount of money I pay when dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. The cultural experience I get from dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant gives me the impression that I am in that particular country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. I go to an upscale ethnic restaurant when I want to try a different dining experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. Positive comments about an upscale ethnic restaurant from publicity encourage me to dine at one.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. I choose an upscale ethnic restaurant whose image reflects my self-image.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please go to SECTION FOUR

SECTION THREE: For Upscale Ethnic Restaurant Non-goers

Statements 1-37 below represent the factors that may influence your decision **not** to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant.

Please **CIRCLE** the number that most accurately reflects how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement on a scale of 1 to 7. Circle 1 if you strongly agree, 7 if strongly disagree, 4 if neutral.

	Strongly Agree		Neutral			Strongly Disagree	
1. I believe an upscale ethnic restaurant offers food that I can cook at home.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant does not offer food choices that are prepared according to the requirements of my religion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant does not offer several interesting food choices on the menu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant does not offer food choices that are high in nutritional value.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I think the food at an upscale ethnic restaurant is not well-presented.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I believe the food served at an upscale ethnic restaurant is unhealthy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant does not offer food with authentic tastes and ingredients.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I am not familiar with the food at an upscale ethnic restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant has limited food choices on the menu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I believe the food served at an upscale ethnic restaurant is not in accordance with my religious beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I assume the appearance of the food at an upscale ethnic restaurant is not appealing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I think the food served at an upscale ethnic restaurant is different from the food that I normally eat.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant does not have visually appealing décor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I assume the invoices at an upscale ethnic restaurant are inaccurate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Agree		Neutral			Strongly Disagree	
15. I assume the service staff at an upscale ethnic restaurant are not polite and do not have good interpersonal skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I believe an upscale ethnic restaurant has a poorly allocated seating order.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I assume I will not like the authentic design of an upscale ethnic restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant will not provide a prompt service and will keep me waiting for a long time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. The atmosphere in an upscale ethnic restaurant does not influence my decision to dine at one.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I believe the restaurant service staff at an upscale ethnic restaurant are not competent and do not have a good knowledge of the menu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I think an upscale ethnic restaurant will charge me inaccurately.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant does not have attentive staff that pay attention to my personal needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. My friends'/family's recommendation about an upscale ethnic restaurant does not encourage me to try it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I believe that an upscale ethnic restaurant does not sell the beverages that I normally drink.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I do not believe an upscale ethnic restaurant will offer me a unique experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. A discount (e.g. from coupons/loyalty card) does not influence me to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I am unwilling to pay the price they charge for a meal at an upscale ethnic restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I do not think I can experience a different culture by going to an upscale ethnic restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I assume an upscale ethnic restaurant does not offer a wide assortment of beverages.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I do not choose an upscale ethnic restaurant on a basis that my friends/family like to go there.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Agree		Neutral			Strongly Disagree	
31. I do not take social status into account when choosing a restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. An advertisement does not influence me to dine at an upscale ethnic restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I believe dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant will be too expensive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. I believe an upscale ethnic restaurant will not give me the cultural experience or the impression that I am in that particular country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. I do not think dining at an upscale ethnic restaurant will give me a different dining experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. Positive comments about an upscale ethnic restaurant from publicity do not encourage me to dine at one.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. I do not think the image of an upscale ethnic restaurant reflects my self-image.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please go to SECTION FOUR

SECTION FOUR

Please **TICK** the most appropriate box.

1. What is your gender?

- Male Female

2. Which is your age group?

- 18-25 26-35 36-45
 46-55 56-65 66+

3. What is your ethnicity?

- NZ European NZ Maori Pacific Islander
 European Asian Australian
 North American Other _____

4. What is your highest educational or professional qualification?

- Up to high school certificate Seventh form certificate Diploma
 Trade qualification Bachelors degree Postgraduate degree
 Other _____

5. What is your occupation?

- Professional Tradesperson Student Clerical
 Labourer Farmer Sales/Service Unemployed
 Self-employed Management Retired Other
- _____

6. What is your household composition?

- Married without children at home Married with child(ren)
 Partner without children at home Partner with child(ren)
 Single-person household Single-parent family
 Living with flatmate(s) Other _____

7. What is your annual household income before tax?

- Under \$25,000 \$ 25,000 - \$ 49,999 \$ 50,000 - \$ 74,999
 \$ 75,000 - \$ 99,999 \$ 100,000 - \$ 124,999 \$ 125,000 - \$ 149,999
 \$ 150,000 - \$ 174,999 \$ 175,000 - \$ 199,999 \$ 200,000+

**Thank you very much for your valuable assistance in this research.
Please promptly return the survey. A prepaid envelope is provided.**