

This is the accepted manuscript of the article, which has been published in Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services. 2019, 51, 91-101.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2019.05.030>

A customer value perspective to service experiences in restaurants

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(2019) A customer value perspective to service experiences in restaurants.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2019.05.030>

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Customer experience is an increasingly important construct in consumer services research and management. Prior research has analyzed restaurant experiences through attributes, such as food quality, but more attention is needed to understand what kind of value customers eventually perceive. This study introduces the customer value perspective to restaurant experience and connects quality attributes to value perceptions, as well as to behavioral intentions. Conceptually, the study combines the customer-perceived value perspective with more traditional models of service/restaurant experience. Using data from a large quantitative survey (n = 1,533), this study introduces an integrative model for analyzing the antecedents, outcomes, and implications of restaurant experiences. Additionally, the model is validated by comparing data from two different restaurant settings: lunch and dining. Managerially, the study broadens managers' understanding of how to design superior experiences by shifting attention from restaurant attributes to customers' perception of value resulting from these attributes.

Keywords: restaurant experience; quality; customer value

INTRODUCTION

During the past decade, customer experience has become a focal concept for scholars and practitioners in a multitude of service industries, such as retailing (Grewal et al., 2009; Verhoef et al., 2009), hotel and accommodation (Xu & Chan, 2010), and e-commerce (Rose et al., 2012). The relevance and potential of the customer experience construct for service research is derived from its ability to address and capture the holistic nature of a service setting, and from its empirical links to preference formation and future behavioral intentions (Helkkula, 2011; Ferguson et al., 2010). In this respect, customer experience can provide a common lexicon for managers, personnel, and customers to discuss and define

the characteristics that determine the success of— and the very existence of—any company.

Restaurants, as diverse, multifaceted, and highly subjective service settings, have provided yet another interesting—and increasingly important (Statista, 2017)—context for studying the characteristics and outcomes of customer experiences (e.g., Ryu & Han, 2011; Ryu & Jang, 2008). The portion size and the quality of the food, the presence of other customers, the service quality of the staff, the restaurant atmosphere and location, as well as other social cues, are examples of the distinct characteristics that shape customer perceptions of the restaurant experience. Prior literature has addressed restaurant experiences by measuring how customers perceive these different characteristics or attributes, often revolving around three constructs: the food, the quality, and the restaurant environment (e.g. Ryu *et al.*, 2012).

As important as these constructs are, they do not capture the type of value customers eventually perceive as a result of the different combinations of restaurant attributes. In addition to customer experience, customer value is another construct that has gained a vast amount of scholarly attention during the past decade. As a concept, it has proven to be critically important to measuring customers' perceptions of companies' offerings (Kumar & Reinartz, 2016), to building differentiation through competitive customer value propositions (Anderson *et al.*, 2006; Rintamäki *et al.*, 2007), as well as to understanding the potential of different organizational forms (Talonen *et al.*, 2016) and emerging retail phenomena (Yrjölä *et al.*, 2017). In the context of service experience research, the focus has been either on the varieties of quality or on the dimensions of value. As it complements the existing understanding of service experience, linking quality

perceptions to the customer value perspective would provide deeper insight for scholars and practitioners with regards to designing and managing service experiences that result in desirable behavioral intentions, such as word of mouth (WOM) or customer loyalty.

The purpose of this study is to introduce an integrative customer value perspective to the restaurant experience. This is achieved by incorporating customer value dimensions in a model of the restaurant experience, in which quality perceptions are antecedents and behavioral intentions represent outcomes. In doing so, this paper contributes to the stream of literature that takes a customer-centric approach to marketing management in a specific service industry: restaurants. Our main contribution lies in taking a customer value-oriented perspective to analysing the restaurant experience. Prior literature focuses largely on supply-oriented perceptions of service product attributes such as food, service, and physical environment, thus our work addresses a gap in the literature by considering perceptions of value, across multiple dimensions such as economic, functional, emotional, and symbolic, from the customer's side. Furthermore, our framework includes both customer value dimensions and traditional service product attributes in the same analyses. Therefore, our model offers insights on how specific attributes translate into various types of customer value, and ultimately, behavioural outcomes. This deeper level of understanding is critical to managers who strive to understand the many influences on customer behaviour. Thus, our comprehensive analytical framework allows us to develop customer value-oriented managerial implications as well.

We begin by reviewing the relevant literature on the restaurant experience and building a tentative conceptual framework. Then, the methodological issues are described, including the data collection and analysis, and the model is introduced. The model is further validated by comparing and contrasting data from two different restaurant settings: lunch

and dining. The discussion and the conclusion, together with managerial implications and research limitations and future research opportunities, conclude the study.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Restaurant experience conceptualized through the quality lens

Customer experience has gained a vast amount of scholarly attention during the past decade, due to its potential in explaining critical outcome measures, such as loyalty, WOM, satisfaction, and company performance. What characterizes customer experience is its holistic and multidimensional nature, incorporating the “customer’s cognitive, affective, emotional, social and physical responses” (Verhoef et al., 2009). In order to link these subjective responses to preference formation in various service settings, models such as servicescape (Bitner, 1992; Lin & Mattila, 2010) and SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al., 1988) have been established to capture the complementary aspects of service experiences. In the restaurant context, the prior research has identified a number of attributes that influence the customer experience. These include neat, prompt, and helpful service personnel (e.g., Andaleeb & Conway, 2006; Ryu & Jang, 2008); restaurant atmospherics, such as spatial layout, other guests (Andersson & Mossberg, 2004), ambiance, aesthetics (Heung & Gu, 2012), ratings, location, reputation, and the convenience of parking; and food-related attributes, such as presentation, daily specials, the variety of the menu, or portion size and quantity (Harrington et al., 2012). Models with contextual relevance, such as DINESCAPE (Ryu & Jang, 2008) and DINESERV (Stevens et al., 1995), have incorporated a number of these attributes when addressing the customer experience within a

specific restaurant type, such as dining restaurants.

Table 1. Categorization of restaurant experience characteristics.

INSERT TABLE 1 HERE

Altogether, the diverse antecedents influencing restaurant experiences in general can be grouped into three categories (Table 1). First, the quality of the food is an inevitable part of the customer experience and is commonly addressed through perceptions of deliciousness and nutritional value, or through the aesthetics of the food. Second, the service quality captures issues, such as the food being served as originally ordered, as well as the service being prompt and proactive. Third, the quality of the physical environment refers to characteristics such as signage, symbols or other visual elements, music, the interior, the facility aesthetics, or the presence of other customers. Using these three categories is a common and relatively well-established way to measure the restaurant experience. For example, Ryu et al. (2012) have linked them to restaurant image, customer-perceived value, customer satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. In conclusion, what these categories capture is customers' perceptions of the restaurant: they measure customer perceptions related to what the restaurant is like in terms of the quality of the food, the quality of the service, and the quality of the physical environment.

Restaurant experience conceptualized through the dimensions of customer value

The fundamental purpose of any business is to create value for customers and extract some of that value for the company in the form of profit (Kumar & Reinartz, 2016). The restaurant business is no exception: the extent to which restaurants succeed in creating

superior value for customers leads to loyalty, satisfaction, and profitability. Customer value has become a fundamental concept in business and marketing, as it explains customers' behavioral intentions. In general, value can be defined as the "overall assessment of the utility of an offering according to what is received and what is given" (Zeithaml, 1988; c.f. Kumar & Reinartz, 2016). In this sense, customer value is a holistic construct and is therefore closely linked with customer experience. However, as a multidimensional construct, customer value provides a conceptual lens through which the restaurant experience can be viewed; it helps to capture the many facets of the experience. Customer value is based on the interaction between the user and the service, resulting in a multisensory and evaluative outcome influenced by contextual factors, such as place, time, and other people (Holbrook, 1999). Furthermore, customer value can be regarded as the aggregation of the benefits the customer is seeking, expecting, or experiencing, and any undesired consequences resulting from them (Kumar & Reinartz, 2016). Considering customer value only in terms of the extent to which customers perceive value—that is, how much value is perceived—may result in a limited customer perspective. Focus should also be placed on the *type of value that is perceived*.

Recent literature on customer value has put forth a multitude of value dimensions that uncover the type of value customers ultimately perceive (e.g., Rintamäki et al., 2007, Rintamäki & Kirves, 2017; Sanchez-Fernandez & Iniesta-Bonilla, 2007). Widely cited studies by Sheth et al. (1991) and Holbrook (1994, 1999) acknowledge that value for the customer entails both hedonic and utilitarian outcomes. In this way, the various dimensions of value have been identified, such as the social, symbolic, functional, emotional, conditional, epistemic, and economic dimensions (Rintamäki et al., 2007; Rintamäki & Kirves, 2017; Sheth et al., 1991; Holbrook, 1994, 1999). These dimensions may overlap,

but together they provide the conceptual means to capture the diverse contextual characteristics that account for the customer's perception of an offering.

Summarizing the multiple dimensions of customer value, including the economic, functional, emotional, and symbolic dimensions, can offer a comprehensive approach that succeeds in capturing the hedonic and utilitarian aspects of the restaurant experience (Rintamäki et al., 2007). Economic value is defined as the "product's objective monetary worth to a customer adjusted for the availability of competitive substitute products" (Smith & Nagle, 2005). Alternatively, the economic value is often considered to be the best possible trade-off between price and quality (Gale & Wood, 1994; Zeithaml, 1988). The functional value is about speed, comfort, solutions, and convenience. It is defined as the "perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity for functional, utilitarian, or physical performance" (Sheth et al., 1991). As suggested by Rintamäki et al. (2007), functional value results from solutions that address customers' needs with less time, effort, search cost, and decision cost. Emotional value captures the feelings associated with the purchase and consumption of a certain product or service. Sheth et al. (1991) define it as the "perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity to arouse feelings or affective states"; it evokes pleasure and can be socially driven, through trust, bonding, or interaction, or epistemic, by provoking curiosity (Smith & Colgate, 2007; for a restaurant context, see also Arora, 2012). Finally, symbolic value is characterized by the meanings associated with the product or company. Rintamäki et al. (2007) define symbolic value as the positive meanings related to consumption that are attached to the self, and/or are communicated to other people (see also Smith & Colgate, 2007). These four dimensions of customer value are incorporated in this study's conceptual framework of the restaurant experience, which is presented in the next section.

Naturally, the importance of restaurant attributes and value dimensions is likely to vary between different types of restaurants (Lai, 2015; Clark & Wood, 1998). For instance, Heung, Wong, and Qu (2000) found that airport travelers have higher expectations for the level of service for full-service restaurants than for other types. In their study, Bujisic et al. (2014) find that food quality is important for both upscale and fast-food restaurants, but that service quality and the restaurant environment's ambience are more important for upscale restaurants. Indeed, for full-service restaurants, service quality has been shown to lead to both satisfaction and loyalty (Chow et al., 2007). In terms of customer value perceptions, Ryu et al. (2010) found that both hedonic and utilitarian value are important for fast-casual restaurants, but that utilitarian value showed a stronger effect. As researchers have called for recognizing and examining these intra-industry differences (Bujisic et al., 2014; Lai, 2015), as an illustration, this research also considers two different restaurant settings: lunch and dining.

Tentative conceptual framework

The traditional antecedents of the restaurant experience (the quality of the food, the quality of the service, and the quality of the physical environment) and the customer value dimensions (the economic, functional, emotional, and symbolic dimensions) are two sides of the same coin, though they have not yet been incorporated into the same model. On one side, this study takes the restaurant's perspective in order to consider its service offering (the antecedents of the restaurant experience), while on the other, the customer's point of view is taken in order to consider his or her perception of that offering (the customer value perspective). While the traditional antecedents capture a customer's perception of a

restaurant, the customer value dimensions uncover the type of value customers eventually perceive. Consequently, the customer value complements existing conceptualizations of the restaurant experience by extending focus to the nature of the perceived benefits and to the costs emerging from the interaction between the customer and the restaurant. This results in the need to incorporate these two perspectives within the same model (Figure 1).

Importantly, customer value is not conceptualized here as a unidimensional construct (as compared to Ryu et al., 2012), but as a multidimensional one, which better captures the multifaceted and experiential nature of restaurant experiences.

INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

Figure 1. Tentative conceptual model

In addition to the traditional restaurant experience antecedents and the customer value dimensions, other constructs have also been addressed in the context of restaurant experiences. For example, perceived congruence and arousal have been linked with customer satisfaction (Lin & Mattila, 2010). Arora (2012) has explored the roles of sensual delight, and of positive and negative emotions, in the dining experience. However, in the context of this study, the traditional outcome measures (loyalty, satisfaction, WOM) are incorporated to empirically verify the relevance and robustness of the proposed model. In sum, restaurant attributes are linked to customer perceptions of value dimensions and link these types of value to customer behavioral outcomes. This study's framework aligns the current service marketing landscape with its customer-centric approach and focus on value. Table 2 presents the definitions for the constructs used in the study (the value dimensions adapted from Yrjölä, 2015, Table 1, p.4).

Table 2. Definitions of the constructs

INSERT TABLE 2 HERE

METHODOLOGY

Data collection and measures

A quantitative survey was conducted by a professional research agency in May 2016. The agency has an ISO standard (ISO 20252) and they follow the general research agency guidelines (ICC/ESOMAR* International Code of Marketing and Social Research Practice). The data was collected through their online panel with a good access to 15-79 year old consumers in Finland. The sampling followed a strict procedure with the aim of collecting a representative sample of 15-79 years old consumers in Finland. Therefore, sampling involved reaching an adequate number of respondents from each age group (between 15-79 years) and from different geographical locations. The research agency was responsible for the design and implementation of the sampling procedure, including e.g. the management of the non-respondent bias. The time for filling the survey took approximately 10 minutes. The data collection phase took approximately 5 days.

The final data included 1,533 Finnish consumers who had each paid a visit to a restaurant in the previous twelve months. Only items relating to quality measures validated in the restaurant context were used. They were translated to Finnish by a researcher, who is a native Finnish speaker. The quality of the food and the quality of the physical environment items were adopted from Ryu et al. (2012). The four items that measure service quality were adopted from Namkung and Jang (2008). The customer value items were derived from Rintamäki and Kirves (2017). Minor contextual adjustments were made

to the customer value measures to better capture the unique characteristics of restaurants. Satisfaction, WOM, and repurchase intention were based on three item scales adapted from Mägi (2003) and Jones et al. (2006). All items were measured using Likert scales 1 to 7.

The data was analyzed with SmartPLS 3.0 (Ringle et al., 2015). The partial least squares (PLS) path analysis method for constructing and evaluating structural models was selected in order to find the main drivers for predicting WOM, repurchase intentions, and customer satisfaction in the Finnish restaurant context. PLS is a suitable method for a high number of potential predictors and few outcomes, as well as for skewed data and small subsamples (Henseler et al., 2009; Sarstedt et al., 2017). It is particularly useful for managerially-oriented studies, since it can determine the level of impact that different drivers have on performance (Albers, 2010).

The general description of the data is provided in Table 3. The original data was evenly distributed among females (50.2%) and males (49.8%). In addition to rating the various aspects related to their restaurant experience, the respondents were also asked to define the type of restaurant at which they had eaten (e.g., lunch, dinner, fast food, service station, or cafeteria). The respondents were asked to define whether their experience was particularly good, particularly poor, or neither. More than 80% of the respondents defined their experience as a particularly good one, of which 50% took place in lunch restaurants. In comparison, 15% of the respondents defined their latest experience as particularly poor, and of these, only 10% were in lunch restaurants. Furthermore, only 2% of the respondents that rated a dining experience defined their restaurant experience as neutral (neither particularly good nor particularly bad), whereas in the context of lunch restaurants, 40% of the respondents rated the experience as neutral.

Table 3. Demographic profile of the respondents

INSERT TABLE 3 HERE

Both dining and lunch restaurants attracted more female respondents. Nevertheless, there is no significant difference between genders. Regarding age, younger respondents (ages 18–35 and 36–49) evaluated dining restaurants more often than older ones (ages 50–64 and 65–79). Additionally, there was no significant difference across household income groups for the dining and lunch groups.

Data analysis

Outer model

The complete dataset ($n = 1,533$) was used to construct the structural model. Next, the model was validated with the two subsamples of data (lunch vs. dining experience) that are assumed to differ in their experiential nature due to differing levels of expectation (see e.g., Kim & Moon, 2009). To assess the outer model, this paper follows Henseler et al. (2009). Both the validity and the reliability of measures were assessed using the factor loadings, the composition reliability (CR), the discriminant validity, and the average of variance extracted (AVE). The statistical significance of the estimated loadings was evaluated through a bootstrapping procedure with 5,000 samples. 95% bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals were used for significance testing. All the indicator loadings were high (APPENDIX 1). Henseler et al. (2009) recommend that indicators that have loadings higher than 0.4 should not be eliminated; for this reason, while the majority of the loadings were above 0.8 and all were above 0.6, there was no need to exclude any indicators from the measurement model. The CR, which can be regarded as a more suitable reliability measure

when using PLS, indicates that the measures are reliable and consistent; see Table 4 and APPENDIX 3 for subsamples (Hair et al., 2011). The AVE values (> 0.5) imply that the convergent validity is sufficiently high for each construct. The discriminant validity between the constructs can be evaluated by checking that the square root of AVE for each construct is bigger than its correlation with the others (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 4. Construct validity and reliability, as well as discriminant validity. Means and standard deviations for constructs below.

INSERT TABLE 4 HERE

Notes:

^a AVE = Average variance extracted, ^b CR = Composite reliability, ^c ECON = Economic value, ^d FUNC = Functional value, ^e EMOT = Emotional value, ^f SYMB = Symbolic value, ^g FQ = Food quality, ^h SQ = Service quality, ⁱ QPE = Quality of physical environment, ^j SAT = Satisfaction, ^k WOM = Word of mouth, ^l LOY = Loyalty.

RESULTS

Inner model

The proposed structural model was developed by linking the structural paths from the traditional restaurant experience measures of the quality of the food, the quality of the service, and the quality of the physical environment (Ryu et al., 2012; Namkung & Jang, 2008) to the customer value dimension measures (Rintamäki & Kirves, 2017) and to the outcome measures seen in Figure 2 (Mägi, 2003; Jones et al., 2006). The model coefficients

were estimated, and their statistical significance determined, with the bootstrap procedure. The non-significant paths were deleted, and this was repeated until all remaining paths achieved statistical significance. The bootstrap procedure was conducted with 5,000 samples and a path weighting scheme. The final model was then evaluated in terms of PLS model assessment and validated with two subsamples of dining and lunch (see Figure 3).

INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE

Figure 2. Structural model path coefficient and t-statistics

INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE

Figure 3. Inner model path coefficient for groups dining (upper) and lunch (lower)
*** indicates that the path coefficient is significant on a level $\alpha = 0.05$ and * on a level $\alpha = 0.10$ (based on bootstrap with 5000 samples)*

The acceptable outer model assessment permits the evaluation of the inner model path estimates. The most essential part of the inner model evaluation is the predictive relevance of the model. Using R² values as a criterion to assess endogenous variables, this paper follows Chin (1998) boundaries; 0.67, 0.33, and 0.15 as substantial, moderate, and weak, respectively. As seen in Figure 2, the R² outcome values were high (0.744, 0.807, and 0.735). Stone-Geisser Q² values (0.734, 0.598, and 0.663) indicated the large predictive relevance of the model for outcome variables, as seen in APPENDIX 4 (Henseler et al., 2009).

In addition to the R² and Q² values, the assessment of the inner model considered the magnitude and direction of the path coefficients. The statistical significance of the path coefficients was achieved by a bootstrap with 5,000 samples, and non-significant paths were omitted.

DISCUSSION

The traditional approach to modeling the restaurant experience measures what the experience consists of in terms of product attributes (e.g., the quality of the food, the quality of the service, and the restaurant atmospherics), while customer value dimensions complement this approach by measuring how consumers actually perceive the experience in economic, functional, emotional, and symbolic terms. Customer value dimensions uncover complementary insights into understanding the service experience in restaurants: they extend attention from the perception of the restaurant offering toward the perception of its respective benefits and costs, that is, toward the perception of value. This shift aligns with the shift in the greater service marketing landscape, where attention is moving from products to customers (Vargo & Lusch 2004, 2016).

Customer perceptions of value help in understanding which dimensions act as points of parity and which are points of difference for restaurant value propositions (Anderson et al., 2006). Looking at the magnitude of the estimated path coefficients (Figure 2), it can be seen that emotional value has the strongest impact on satisfaction (0.698). Intuitively, this is not surprising. Satisfaction with a restaurant experience can be driven by emotion, as social meals are often in honor of a celebration, a special occasion, or an achievement. Bonding and meaningful conversations take place over meals, and memories

are created. These instances can be very emotional in nature. The extant literature has also found a relationship between positive emotions and satisfaction with restaurants (Ladhari et al., 2008).

Interestingly, economic value is only connected to loyalty intentions, not to other outcome variables. Loyalty represents a long-term outcome compared to the other intentions in the model. A customer needs to feel as if he or she received good economic value in order to become a repeat customer. The economic value is not reflected by satisfaction or WOM, which can signal that customers may not take the risk of recommending a restaurant to their friends and family only based on economic value, or that it may not eventually lead to higher levels of satisfaction.

The functional value leads to perceptions of satisfaction, but not directly to loyalty or WOM intentions. This suggests that the utilitarian elements of the restaurant experience may be hygiene factors or points of parity from the customer's point of view, as it is increasingly difficult for restaurants to build differentiation through price and convenience. On the contrary, more hedonic dimensions of value, such as the emotional and symbolic values, are linked to all three outcome variables. This might suggest that WOM is primarily the result of strong positive emotions or meanings. Again, a restaurant experience can be an emotional, sensory-rich experience, so it is not surprising that all three outcome variables are influenced by the hedonic dimensions of value. Furthermore, WOM recommendations are critical in the restaurant industry, and many customers will try a new restaurant because of a personal recommendation (e.g. Longart, 2010). The managerial implication is to build restaurant differentiation around the emotional and symbolic aspects while treating the economic and functional dimensions as points of parity (that is, as elements that need to be

on par with the competition, but that will not directly drive growth through loyalty or WOM).

The path coefficients between the traditional restaurant experience concepts (the quality of the food, the quality of the service, and the physical environment) and the economic value are not statistically significant. Indeed, these types of conceptualizations treat prices as external variables to the restaurant experience. Interestingly, there was no connection between the physical environment and the functional value. In other service contexts, such as retail, the physical environment—in terms of store layout and design—is likely to greatly influence customer perceptions of the functional value. For restaurant customers, however, the physical environment likely captures important themes and atmospherics of the restaurant. These elements, which contribute to the overall ambiance of a restaurant, are better captured through the symbolic value. Similarly, Kim and Moon (2009) concluded that, in restaurants, the physical environmental attributes are linked with pleasurable emotions.

Reflecting on Figure 3, restaurant type clearly influences the relationships between attributes, value perceptions and behavioral intentions. For instance, lunch restaurants can improve customer value perceptions more effectively by improving food quality than dinner restaurants. Dinner restaurants, on the other hand, can enhance value perceptions more effectively by improving service quality. Regarding customer value, emotional value seems to be the most important dimension in affecting outcomes (satisfaction, loyalty, WOM) for both restaurant types, but especially for lunch restaurants, the direct effect of emotional value on loyalty intentions is significant.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

This paper proposes three managerial implications. First, managers of dinner and lunch restaurants should take note of the strong path coefficients between customer value dimensions and key outcome measures. As stated above, advantageous differentiation can be built mainly upon the symbolic or emotional dimensions. Based on the comparison between restaurant types, managers of lunch restaurants will benefit most from investing in food quality, while managers of dinner restaurants should invest in service quality. In terms of building customer satisfaction, the emotional value seems to be critical for both types of restaurants, while the functional value appears to be more important for lunch restaurants. In driving loyalty intentions, the emotional value is especially important for lunch restaurants, suggesting that focusing on the emotional value is an effective strategy in this context.

Second, the customer value perspective is useful in understanding the holistic restaurant experience. This broader point of view will help managers in understanding how customers perceive their restaurant offering as a whole. While these insights help to sharpen the restaurant's customer value profile, an interesting inquiry would also include customer value analyses of competing restaurants. This understanding, in turn, could be used to develop a unique competitive profile. For instance, how many other restaurants offer a combination of economic and symbolic value? Which restaurant attributes drive these types of value? Thus, the customer value perspective can provide important information on how restaurants can differentiate and position themselves, or spark insights on new services and marketing innovations.

Third, on a more general level, adopting the perspective and language of customers (e.g., costs and benefits) will help managers involve their customers in service design,

which is a key factor in the development and innovation of new services (Alam & Perry, 2002). Thus, management should operate on three interconnected levels: the concrete offering characteristics, based on quality attributes, such as food quality and pricing; the customer perceptions of the value of these characteristics, such as whether they perceive emotional or functional benefits; and the resulting behavioral intentions. Only by taking the customer value approach and understanding the roles of the economic, functional, emotional, and symbolic dimensions can service design define the most suitable quality attributes underlying the restaurant experience. While traditional approaches have treated price as an external factor, the customer value approach can also turn attention to a wide range of customer costs, such as price, stress, effort, and even shame, if the restaurant gives others a bad impression of the customer.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

While our proposed model makes an interesting and significant contribution to the literature by incorporating dimensions of customer value, it is not without limitations. Our analysis relies on survey data that is subject to typical issues of bias and recall/memory. For instance, the potential for common method bias is typical in articles that utilize the established key outcome constructs of satisfaction, loyalty and WOM. To remedy this issue, we paid attention to the design of the study's procedures that aim to prevent the risk of common method bias (McKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012). When using SEM, the location and sequence of the constructs are based on both previous theory as well as the researchers' experience and knowledge (Falk & Miller, 1992; Sarstedt et al., 2017). Therefore, even though the proposed model is built on established reasoning of previous research into customer value and service quality, it is not the only possible way of building a model of

service experiences in restaurants. Further, this paper has taken an *exploratory* approach, which means that future studies should test and confirm the proposed relationships through a more *confirmatory*, hypothesis-building approach.

As discussed earlier, our framework could be applied to competitive analysis to gain deeper understanding of a restaurant's position relative to competition. In this respect, future studies could apply multi-group analysis and importance-performance (IPMA) analysis to reveal the critical success factors of competing restaurant chains. An alternative route would be to further explore the differences between additional categories of restaurant types, extending the analysis to include, for instance, cafeterias, fast-food restaurants or roadside restaurants. The customer value perspective is likely to be useful for other service contexts as well. For instance, travel and tourism, hotel and accommodation, and health and beauty companies may all benefit from taking a customer value perspective. Similarly, these industries would gain a deeper understanding of how specific service attributes translate into various types of customer value. We leave these extensions as areas for future research.

CONCLUSION

The primary research objective of this study is to deepen the understanding of the restaurant experience from a customer value perspective. Traditional conceptualizations of the restaurant experience can be argued to be supply-oriented, as they focus attention on factors such as the quality of food offered. These product-oriented conceptualizations largely ignore the role of customer wants and needs. Conversely, the customer value perspective offers a customer-oriented means to analyze the restaurant experience in terms of the relevant costs and benefits. Thus, a modeling framework that includes traditional restaurant

attributes, but also incorporates dimensions of customer value, is proposed. Consistent with the prior research, this study demonstrates how positive restaurant experiences result in customer loyalty, satisfaction, and WOM behavior.

To conclude, this paper advocates employing the customer value perspective as a complement to traditional models in analyzing the restaurant experience. Traditional conceptualizations, while useful, can limit the understanding of the restaurant experience, as they focus primarily on the attributes of the restaurant experience. This study extends the discussion around customer value in restaurants by incorporating the economic, functional, emotional and symbolic values. Consequently, focus is placed not only on whether value is perceived, but on the type of value that is perceived. In comparison to the meritorious article by Ryu et al. (2012), this study's model links the quality of the food, the quality of the service, and the quality of the physical environment not with general customer value, but with specific customer value dimensions. It also incorporates them with satisfaction and, further, with loyalty and WOM. Modeling the restaurant experience in terms of customer-perceived costs and benefits (i.e., customer value) will offer new insights and provide avenues for innovation. It is hoped that this study sparks interest in further research linking the three elements of service quality, customer value, and outcome measures in other service contexts.

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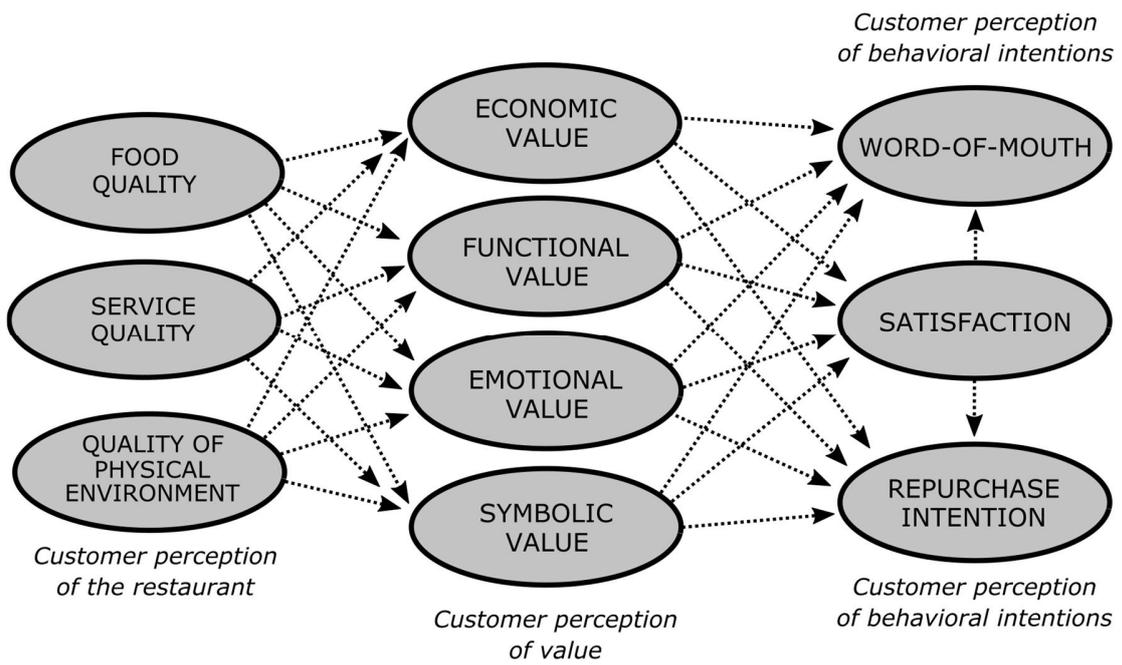


Figure 1. Tentative conceptual model

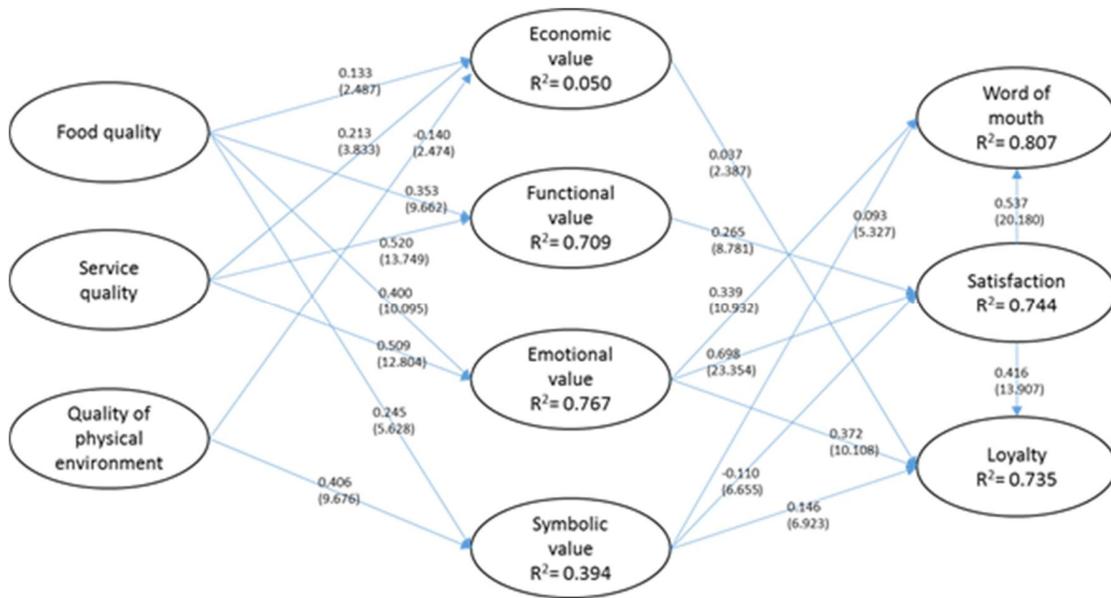


Figure 2. Structural model path coefficient and t-statistics

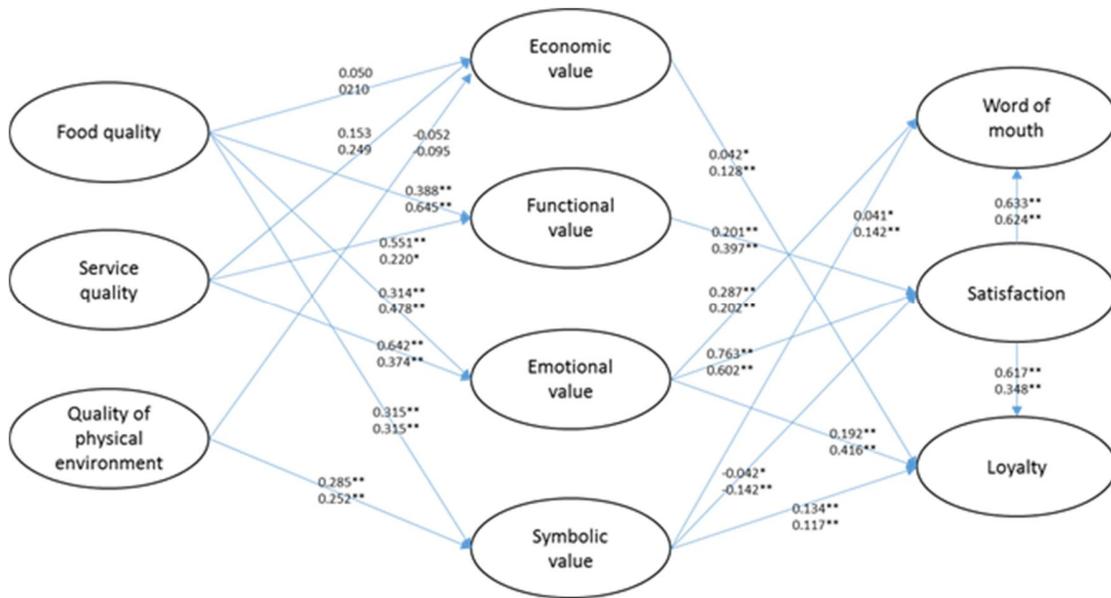


Figure 3. Inner model path coefficient for groups dining (upper) and lunch (lower)

** indicates that the path coefficient is significant on a level $\alpha = 0.05$ and * on a level $\alpha = 0.10$ (based on bootstrap with 5000 samples)

Table 1. Categorization of restaurant experience characteristics.

| | Characteristics | Sources |
|--|--|---|
| Quality of the food | Delicious food; nutritious food; menu variety; food freshness; enticing food smell; attractive presentation; cuisine | Ryu <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Andersson and Mossberg, 2004 |
| Quality of the service | Food served as ordered; prompt and quick service; helpfulness; comfortable service; understood needs; error-free orders | Ryu <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Andaleeb and Conway, 2006. |
| Quality of the physical environment | Attractive interior and decor; music; cleanliness; staff is neat and well dressed; attractive employees; restaurant interior; facility aesthetics; layout, electric equipment, seating comfort, ambient conditions; temperature, air quality, noise, odor, signs, symbols, artifacts; type of lighting and illumination; furnishing; dining equipment; window view; social factors | Ryu <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Kim and Moon, 2009; Bitner, 1992; Ryu and Jang, 2008; Heung and Gu, 2012; Baker, 1986; Wakefield and Blodgett, 1996 |

Table 2. Definitions of the constructs

| Construct | Definition | Sources |
|---------------------------------|---|---|
| Food quality | Consumer's judgment about the food items served. More specifically, a judgment on how delicious, nutritious, fresh, visually attractive and enticingly smelling the food is. This also includes a judgment on the variety of menu items offered. | Ryu et al., 2012; Parasuraman et al., 1991 |
| Service quality | Consumer's judgment about the performance of a service, especially relating to the behavior of staff. In the restaurant setting, this involves the ability to deliver the promised service, the willingness to help, the overall competency of employees and empathy shown to individual customers. | Namkung & Jang, 2008; Parasuraman et al., 1991 |
| Quality of physical environment | Consumer's judgment about the performance of a service's physical environment. In the restaurant setting, this involves attractive interior design and decor, pleasing background music, clean dining areas and neatly dressed employees. | Ryu et al., 2012; Parasuraman et al., 1991 |
| Economic value | Economic value is defined as "the lowest price or the best tradeoff between quality and price." (Rintamäki et al., 2007, p. 627) | Rintamäki et al., 2007; Smith & Nagle, 2005; Gale, 1994; Zeithaml, 1988 |
| Functional value | Functional value is defined as "finding the right products with as little time and as little physical and cognitive effort as possible." (Rintamäki et al., 2007, p. 627) | Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001 |
| Emotional value | Emotional value is defined as the "perceived utility derived from an alternative's capacity to arouse feelings or affective states" (Sheth et al., 1991, p. 161; Rintamäki et al., 2007) | Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001 |
| Symbolic value | Symbolic value is defined as "positive consumption meanings that are attached to self and/or communicated to others." (Rintamäki et al., 2007, p. 629) | Rintamäki et al., 2007; Flint, 2006; Smith and Colgate, 2007; Solomon, 1983 |
| Word of mouth | The likelihood and willingness to recommend the restaurant. | Jones et al. 2006; Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002 |
| Satisfaction | An overall evaluation of the restaurant, considering its performance against expectations and ideals. | Mägi (2003) |
| Loyalty | Loyalty, in this study, refers to repurchase intention, which reflects "the likelihood that a customer will shop at a retail store again" (Jones et al., 2006, p.976) | Jones et al. (2006) |

Table 3. Demographic profile of the respondents

| | Comple te n | % | Dinne r n | % | Lunch | % | Fast food n | % | Cafeteri a | % | Service station n | % |
|---------------------------|-------------------|-------|-----------------|-------|-------|-------|----------------|-------|---------------|-------|-------------------------|-------|
| Gender | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Female | 770 | 50.2 | 326 | 57.8 | 109 | 53.2 | 233 | 59.5 | 105 | 50.2 | 147 | 42.0 |
| Male | 763 | 49.8 | 238 | 42.2 | 96 | 46.8 | 83 | 40.5 | 104 | 49.8 | 203 | 58.0 |
| Total | 1,533 | 100.0 | 564 | 100.0 | 205 | 100.0 | 205 | 100.0 | 209 | 100.0 | 350 | 100.0 |
| Age | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 18–35 | 290 | 19.4 | 150 | 26.6 | 28 | 13.7 | 50 | 15.8 | 33 | 15.8 | 37 | 10.6 |
| 36–49 | 358 | 23.4 | 159 | 28.2 | 31 | 15.1 | 53 | 20.1 | 42 | 20.1 | 73 | 20.9 |
| 50–64 | 508 | 33.1 | 179 | 31.7 | 77 | 37.6 | 66 | 32.2 | 70 | 33.5 | 116 | 33.1 |
| 65–79 | 369 | 24.1 | 76 | 13.5 | 69 | 33.7 | 36 | 17.6 | 64 | 30.6 | 124 | 35.4 |
| Total | 1,533 | 100.0 | 564 | 100.0 | 205 | 100.0 | 205 | 100.0 | 209 | 100.0 | 350 | 100.0 |
| Household income | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Less than 20 000 e | 174 | 11.4 | 52 | 9.6 | 20 | 9.8 | 38 | 18.5 | 26 | 12.4 | 36 | 10.3 |
| 20 001–40 000 e | 346 | 22.6 | 104 | 18.4 | 38 | 18.5 | 52 | 25.4 | 59 | 28.2 | 93 | 26.6 |
| 40 001–60 000 e | 354 | 23.1 | 124 | 22.0 | 55 | 26.8 | 38 | 18.5 | 47 | 22.5 | 90 | 25.7 |
| 60 001–80 000 e | 228 | 14.9 | 94 | 16.7 | 32 | 15.6 | 23 | 11.2 | 26 | 12.4 | 53 | 15.1 |
| More than 80 001 e | 214 | 14.0 | 109 | 19.3 | 27 | 13.2 | 20 | 9.8 | 26 | 12.4 | 32 | 9.1 |
| I don't want to answer | 217 | 14.2 | 79 | 14.0 | 33 | 16.1 | 34 | 16.6 | 25 | 12.0 | 46 | 13.1 |
| Total | 1,533 | 100.0 | 564 | 100.0 | 205 | 100.0 | 205 | 100.0 | 209 | 100.0 | 350 | 100.0 |
| Profession | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|-------|-------|-----|-------|-----|-------|-----|-------|-----|-------|-----|-------|
| Entrepreneur or senior manager | 108 | 7.0 | 43 | 7.6 | 10 | 4.9 | 20 | 9.8 | 12 | 5.7 | 23 | 6.6 |
| Middle manager, expert or official | 485 | 31.6 | 215 | 38.1 | 71 | 34.6 | 51 | 24.9 | 59 | 28.2 | 89 | 25.4 |
| Employee or farmer | 344 | 22.4 | 128 | 22.7 | 40 | 19.5 | 53 | 25.9 | 39 | 18.7 | 84 | 24.0 |
| Outside the labor market (student, retired, unemployed etc.) | 596 | 38.9 | 178 | 31.6 | 84 | 41.0 | 81 | 39.5 | 99 | 47.4 | 154 | 44.0 |
| Total | 1,533 | 100.0 | 564 | 100.0 | 205 | 100.0 | 205 | 100.0 | 209 | 100.0 | 350 | 100.0 |
| Education | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Elementary or primary school | 148 | 9.7 | 35 | 6.2 | 21 | 10.2 | 23 | 11.2 | 25 | 12.0 | 44 | 12.6 |
| Upper secondary education (college or vocational) | 816 | 53.2 | 261 | 46.3 | 110 | 53.7 | 113 | 55.1 | 129 | 61.7 | 203 | 58.0 |
| Higher education (university or university of applied sciences) | 569 | 37.1 | 268 | 47.5 | 74 | 36.1 | 69 | 33.7 | 55 | 26.3 | 103 | 29.4 |
| Total | 1533 | 100.0 | 564 | 100.0 | 205 | 100.0 | 205 | 100.0 | 209 | 100.0 | 350 | 100.0 |
| Evaluation of the visit | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Good | 664 | 43.3 | 471 | 83.5 | 103 | 50.2 | 34 | 16.6 | 32 | 15.3 | 24 | 6.9 |
| Poor | 169 | 11.0 | 82 | 14.5 | 20 | 9.8 | 19 | 9.3 | 8 | 3.8 | 40 | 11.4 |
| Neutral | 700 | 45.7 | 11 | 2.0 | 82 | 40.0 | 169 | 74.1 | 169 | 80.9 | 286 | 81.7 |
| Total | 1,533 | 100.0 | 564 | 100.0 | 205 | 100.0 | 205 | 100.0 | 209 | 100.0 | 350 | 100.0 |

Table 4. Construct validity and reliability, as well as discriminant validity. Means and standard deviations for constructs below.

| n=1,533 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|------------------|-----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Complete | AVE ^a | CR ^b | ECON | FUNC | EMOT | SYMB | FQ | SQ | QPE | SAT | WOM | LOY |
| ECON ^c | 0.699 | 0.871 | 0.836 | | | | | | | | | |
| FUNC ^d | 0.799 | 0.941 | 0.311 | 0.894 | | | | | | | | |
| EMOT ^e | 0.952 | 0.987 | 0.221 | 0.816 | 0.976 | | | | | | | |
| SYMB ^f | 0.696 | 0.873 | 0.211 | 0.566 | 0.615 | 0.834 | | | | | | |
| FQ ^g | 0.805 | 0.961 | 0.195 | 0.798 | 0.835 | 0.591 | 0.897 | | | | | |
| SQ ^h | 0.831 | 0.951 | 0.211 | 0.822 | 0.851 | 0.562 | 0.855 | 0.911 | | | | |
| QPE ⁱ | 0.747 | 0.921 | 0.148 | 0.729 | 0.761 | 0.615 | 0.854 | 0.821 | 0.864 | | | |
| SAT ^j | 0.853 | 0.946 | 0.229 | 0.772 | 0.846 | 0.469 | 0.765 | 0.808 | 0.678 | 0.924 | | |
| WOM ^k | 0.968 | 0.989 | 0.236 | 0.750 | 0.851 | 0.554 | 0.794 | 0.806 | 0.720 | 0.868 | 0.984 | |
| LOY ^l | 0.959 | 0.986 | 0.245 | 0.711 | 0.822 | 0.578 | 0.766 | 0.758 | 0.701 | 0.808 | 0.885 | 0.979 |
| Mean | | | 3.395 | 5.362 | 5.061 | 4.677 | 5.311 | 5.285 | 5.193 | 5.325 | 5.162 | 4.503 |
| s.d. | | | 1.506 | 1.405 | 1.774 | 1.332 | 1.433 | 1.501 | 1.285 | 1.543 | 1.806 | 1.903 |

Notes:

^a AVE = Average variance extracted, ^b CR = Composite reliability, ^c ECON = Economic value, ^d FUNC = Functional value, ^e EMOT = Emotional value, ^f SYMB = Symbolic value, ^g FQ = Food quality, ^h SQ = Service quality, ⁱ QPE = Quality of physical environment, ^j SAT = Satisfaction, ^k WOM = Word of mouth, ^l LOY = Loyalty.

APPENDIX 1. Outer model, loadings, and t-values

| Outer model | | |
|--|-------------------------|--------------|
| | Complete (n = 1,533) | t-statistics |
| Economic value (adapted from Rintamäki & Kirves, 2017) | | |
| When patronizing this restaurant ... I saved money. | 0.917 | 85.342 |
| ... I ate inexpensively. | 0.933 | 112.324 |
| ... I benefited from offers/discounts. | 0.619 | 17.068 |
| Functional value (adapted from Rintamäki & Kirves, 2017) | | |
| ... I could eat a meal I desired. | 0.891 | 126.716 |
| ... I quickly received the meal I ordered. | 0.878 | 89.246 |
| ... I felt that going to the restaurant was effortless. | 0.924 | 158.961 |
| ... I could find a suitable option easily. | 0.881 | 95.812 |
| Emotional value (adapted from Rintamäki & Kirves, 2017) | | |
| ... my mood improved. | 0.972 | 434.695 |
| ... I felt pleasure. | 0.976 | 444.074 |
| ... I enjoyed myself. | 0.978 | 493.406 |
| ... I was delighted to be there. | 0.976 | 437.459 |
| Symbolic value (adapted from Rintamäki & Kirves, 2017) | | |
| ... I gave a favorable impression of myself to others. | 0.821 | 73.856 |
| ... I ordered the option that gave a favorable impression of myself to others. | 0.804 | 54.876 |
| ... the choice of restaurant aroused acceptance in others. | 0.875 | 124.233 |
| Quality of the food (Ryu et al., 2012) | | |
| The food tasted good. | 0.923 | 195.676 |
| The food was nutritious. | 0.872 | 98.572 |
| The restaurant had meal options that suited me. | 0.859 | 83.247 |
| The food was fresh. | 0.910 | 152.351 |
| The food had a tempting aroma. | 0.891 | 141.106 |
| The food had an appetizing appearance. | 0.924 | 158.053 |
| Quality of the service (Namkung & Jang, 2008) | | |

| | | |
|---|-------|-----------|
| I received the meal I had ordered. | 0.850 | 77.782 |
| The staff at the restaurant were ready to help me. | 0.932 | 200.741 |
| The restaurant staff evoked confidence in me. | 0.930 | 160.754 |
| The restaurant valued me as a customer. | 0.931 | 191.625 |
| Quality of the physical environment (Ryu et al., 2012) | | |
| The restaurant appeared to be pleasant. | 0.906 | 163.219 |
| The background music was pleasing. | 0.741 | 48.314 |
| The restaurant in its entirety was tidy. | 0.910 | 161.609 |
| The restaurant staff appeared tidy and well dressed. | 0.888 | 137.111 |
| Satisfaction (adapted from Mägi, 2003) | | |
| How satisfied were you with this restaurant? | 0.924 | 123.631 |
| How well did this restaurant meet your expectations? | 0.936 | 191.817 |
| Imagine a perfect restaurant. How close to the ideal was this restaurant? | 0.911 | 134.392 |
| Word of Mouth (adapted from Jones et al., 2006) | | |
| I am likely to say good things about this restaurant. | 0.979 | 540.300 |
| I would recommend this restaurant to my friends and relatives. | 0.988 | 824.122 |
| I will recommend this restaurant to others. | 0.984 | 412.243 |
| Repurchase intention (adapted from Jones et al., 2006) | | |
| I am looking forward to patronizing this restaurant in the future. | 0.974 | 456.888 |
| I will always look forward to patronizing this restaurant. | 0.988 | 1,248.109 |
| Regardless of how often I visit this restaurant, I always look forward to patronizing it again. | 0.975 | 534.674 |

APPENDIX 2. Inner model, structural path coefficients

| | Complete (n=1533) | t-statistics | Dining (n=564) | t-statistics | Lunch (n=205) | t-statistics |
|-------------|----------------------|--------------|-------------------|--------------|------------------|--------------|
| FQ -> ECON | 0.133 | 2.250 | 0.050 | 0.569 | 0.210 | 1.273 |
| FQ -> FUNC | 0.353 | 9.662 | 0.388 | 8.836 | 0.645 | 6.119 |
| FQ -> EMOT | 0.400 | 10.095 | 0.314 | 5.007 | 0.478 | 4.461 |
| FQ -> SYMB | 0.245 | 5.628 | 0.315 | 5.345 | 0.315 | 2.473 |
| SQ -> ECON | 0.213 | 3.833 | 0.153 | 1.698 | 0.249 | 1.367 |
| SQ -> FUNC | 0.520 | 13.748 | 0.551 | 12.460 | 0.220 | 1.856 |
| SQ -> EMOT | 0.509 | 12.804 | 0.642 | 10.349 | 0.374 | 3.267 |
| QPE -> ECON | -0.140 | 2.474 | -0.052 | 0.661 | -0.095 | 0.550 |
| QPE -> SYMB | 0.406 | 9.676 | 0.285 | 4.788 | 0.252 | 1.988 |
| ECON -> LOY | 0.037 | 2.387 | 0.042 | 1.880 | 0.128 | 2.717 |
| FUNC -> SAT | 0.265 | 8.781 | 0.201 | 3.922 | 0.397 | 5.647 |
| EMOT -> SAT | 0.698 | 23.354 | 0.763 | 16.435 | 0.602 | 8.145 |
| EMOT -> WOM | 0.339 | 10.932 | 0.287 | 5.607 | 0.202 | 1.994 |
| EMOT -> LOY | 0.372 | 10.108 | 0.192 | 3.040 | 0.416 | 4.581 |
| SYMB -> SAT | -0.110 | 6.655 | -0.042 | 2.121 | -0.146 | 3.671 |
| SYMB -> WOM | 0.093 | 5.327 | 0.041 | 1.746 | 0.142 | 2.111 |
| SYMB -> LOY | 0.146 | 6.923 | 0.134 | 3.701 | 0.117 | 1.912 |
| SAT -> WOM | 0.537 | 20.180 | 0.633 | 12.618 | 0.624 | 8.862 |
| SAT -> LOY | 0.416 | 13.907 | 0.617 | 10.929 | 0.348 | 5.139 |

APPENDIX 3. Construct validity, reliability and discriminant validity for data sets (complete, dining and lunch). Means and standard deviations for measured constructs.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|------------------|-----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| n=1533 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Complete | AVE ^a | CR ^b | ECON | FUNC | EMOT | SYMB | FQ | SQ | QPE | SAT | WOM | LOY |
| ECON ^c | 0.699 | 0.871 | 0.836 | | | | | | | | | |
| FUNC ^d | 0.799 | 0.941 | 0.311 | 0.894 | | | | | | | | |
| EMOT ^e | 0.952 | 0.987 | 0.221 | 0.816 | 0.976 | | | | | | | |
| SYMB ^f | 0.696 | 0.873 | 0.211 | 0.566 | 0.615 | 0.834 | | | | | | |
| FQ ^g | 0.805 | 0.961 | 0.195 | 0.798 | 0.835 | 0.591 | 0.897 | | | | | |
| SQ ^h | 0.831 | 0.951 | 0.211 | 0.822 | 0.851 | 0.562 | 0.855 | 0.911 | | | | |
| QPE ⁱ | 0.747 | 0.921 | 0.148 | 0.729 | 0.761 | 0.615 | 0.854 | 0.821 | 0.864 | | | |
| SAT ^j | 0.853 | 0.946 | 0.229 | 0.772 | 0.846 | 0.469 | 0.765 | 0.808 | 0.678 | 0.924 | | |
| WOM ^k | 0.968 | 0.989 | 0.236 | 0.750 | 0.851 | 0.554 | 0.794 | 0.806 | 0.720 | 0.868 | 0.984 | |
| LOY ^l | 0.959 | 0.986 | 0.245 | 0.711 | 0.822 | 0.578 | 0.766 | 0.758 | 0.701 | 0.808 | 0.885 | 0.979 |
| Mean | | | 3.395 | 5.362 | 5.061 | 4.677 | 5.311 | 5.285 | 5.193 | 5.325 | 5.162 | 4.503 |
| s.d. | | | 1.506 | 1.405 | 1.774 | 1.332 | 1.433 | 1.501 | 1.285 | 1.543 | 1.806 | 1.903 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| n=564 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Dining | AVE ^a | CR ^b | ECON | FUNC | EMOT | SYMB | FQ | SQ | QPE | SAT | WOM | LOY |
| ECON ^c | 0.668 | 0.851 | 0.817 | | | | | | | | | |
| FUNC ^d | 0.776 | 0.933 | 0.255 | 0.881 | | | | | | | | |
| EMOT ^e | 0.965 | 0.991 | 0.149 | 0.863 | 0.982 | | | | | | | |
| SYMB ^f | 0.650 | 0.847 | 0.171 | 0.554 | 0.482 | 0.806 | | | | | | |
| FQ | 0.786 | 0.957 | 0.137 | 0.849 | 0.851 | 0.538 | 0.887 | | | | | |
| SQ | 0.857 | 0.960 | 0.155 | 0.875 | 0.905 | 0.459 | 0.835 | 0.926 | | | | |
| QPE | 0.712 | 0.907 | 0.104 | 0.754 | 0.721 | 0.532 | 0.782 | 0.763 | 0.844 | | | |
| SAT | 0.883 | 0.958 | 0.138 | 0.836 | 0.916 | 0.437 | 0.815 | 0.882 | 0.694 | 0.940 | | |
| WOM | 0.971 | 0.990 | 0.171 | 0.823 | 0.887 | 0.457 | 0.808 | 0.861 | 0.679 | 0.914 | 0.985 | |
| LOY | 0.963 | 0.987 | 0.179 | 0.765 | 0.827 | 0.503 | 0.753 | 0.784 | 0.655 | 0.857 | 0.891 | 0.981 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|------------------|-----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Mean | | | 3.205 | 5.849 | 5.913 | 5.350 | 6.105 | 5.982 | 6.009 | 5.759 | 5.925 | 5.362 |
| s.d. | | | 1.564 | 1.356 | 1.684 | 1.183 | 1.213 | 1.476 | 1.019 | 1.632 | 1.745 | 1.856 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| n=205 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Lunch | AVE ^a | CR ^b | ECON | FUNC | EMOT | SYMB | FQ | SQ | QPE | SAT | WOM | LOY |
| ECON ^c | 0.679 | 0.860 | 0.824 | | | | | | | | | |
| FUNC ^d | 0.845 | 0.956 | 0.434 | 0.919 | | | | | | | | |
| EMOT ^e | 0.941 | 0.985 | 0.413 | 0.835 | 0.970 | | | | | | | |
| SYMB ^f | 0.710 | 0.880 | 0.356 | 0.594 | 0.606 | 0.842 | | | | | | |
| FQ | 0.796 | 0.959 | 0.347 | 0.836 | 0.802 | 0.526 | 0.892 | | | | | |
| SQ | 0.836 | 0.953 | 0.354 | 0.779 | 0.788 | 0.475 | 0.866 | 0.914 | | | | |
| QPE | 0.699 | 0.901 | 0.283 | 0.755 | 0.733 | 0.516 | 0.837 | 0.810 | 0.836 | | | |
| SAT | 0.848 | 0.943 | 0.408 | 0.814 | 0.846 | 0.455 | 0.794 | 0.778 | 0.695 | 0.921 | | |
| WOM | 0.962 | 0.987 | 0.414 | 0.776 | 0.816 | 0.549 | 0.764 | 0.770 | 0.685 | 0.860 | 0.981 | |
| LOY | 0.949 | 0.982 | 0.483 | 0.757 | 0.834 | 0.573 | 0.741 | 0.750 | 0.655 | 0.805 | 0.878 | 0.974 |
| Mean | | | 3.999 | 5.652 | 5.288 | 4.817 | 5.538 | 5.332 | 5.325 | 5.538 | 5.496 | 4.838 |
| s.d. | | | 1.506 | 1.374 | 1.622 | 1.358 | 1.326 | 1.457 | 1.159 | 1.459 | 1.686 | 1.801 |

Notes:

^a AVE = Average variance extracted, ^b CR = Composite reliability, ^c ECON = Economic value, ^d FUNC = Functional value, ^e EMOT = Emotional value, ^f SYMB = Symbolic value, ^g FQ = Food quality, ^h SQ = Service quality, ⁱ QPE = Quality of physical environment, ^j SAT = Satisfaction, ^k WOM = Word of mouth, ^l LOY = Loyalty.

(Henseler et al. (2009) and Hair et al. (2011))

APPENDIX 4. R squares of endogenous constructs for complete data and subsamples dining and lunch

| Construct | Complete (n=1533) | | Dining (n=564) | | Lunch (n=205) | |
|-----------|----------------------|----------------|-------------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|
| | R ² | Q ² | R ² | Q ² | R ² | Q ² |
| ECON | 0.050 | 0.029 | 0.025 | 0.010 | 0.134 | 0.074 |
| FUNC | 0.709 | 0.530 | 0.812 | 0.608 | 0.711 | 0.549 |
| EMOT | 0.767 | 0.684 | 0.849 | 0.788 | 0.679 | 0.583 |
| SYMB | 0.394 | 0.254 | 0.321 | 0.191 | 0.296 | 0.187 |
| SAT | 0.744 | 0.598 | 0.848 | 0.724 | 0.766 | 0.597 |
| WOM | 0.807 | 0.734 | 0.852 | 0.801 | 0.780 | 0.689 |
| LOY | 0.735 | 0.663 | 0.762 | 0.708 | 0.756 | 0.659 |