Foodservice Experience and Tourist Satisfaction and their Implications for Destinations

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ABSTRACT

Given the scarcity of research ascertaining the relationship between tourists' foodservice experiences and holiday satisfaction and its implications for destinations, this study primarily set out to provide guidelines on ways in which tourists' foodservice experiences and holiday satisfaction can be assessed and enhanced.

The present study consisted of three interdependent phases, and questionnaire-based surveys were employed to test the research hypotheses. A combination of different qualitative techniques was utilised in order to shortlist the relevant attributes to be included in each research instrument. These instruments were then subjected to further tests in order to ensure their adequacy and appropriateness. The first research phase ascertained the relative validity and reliability of the existing satisfaction measurement frameworks and was implemented in a chain restaurant in Sheffield. This phase aimed to identify the most reliable and valid operational framework to be utilised in the subsequent phases of the research. The second phase explored tourist satisfaction dimensions and ascertained the relative contribution of each dimension, particularly that of the foodservice experience, to holiday satisfaction and future behavioural intentions among visitors to South West Turkey. The final phase specifically examined what matters most in tourists' foodservice evaluations, and explored whether different dining segments developed their satisfaction and behavioural intention judgements based on different service attributes in non-fast-food restaurants situated in South West Turkey.

The results of the first phase indicated that a more direct measure of perceived performance might be a better predictor of customer satisfaction than more complex composite measures of disconfirmation of expectations. The perceived-performance only model, out-performed the disparity models, which involved a comparison between a predetermined standard and the perceived performance (the Expectancy Disconfirmation Paradigm), and the multiplication models, where performance was weighted by the attribute importance, in predicting customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions.

The results of the second phase revealed that tourist satisfaction was multi-dimensional. Among the identified holiday components, tourists' impressions of foodservice experiences were found to be an important factor in tourists' holiday satisfaction and behavioural intention judgements. While positive tourists' impressions of foodservice experiences were found to enhance holiday satisfaction, the negative impressions were found to have potential to override well-executed quality in other areas.

The results of the final phase demonstrated that there were numerous factors affecting tourist foodservice experiences and that the manner in which the restaurant product is delivered was found to account for the greatest impact on tourist dining satisfaction and return intentions. Analysing the benefits sought from non-fast food resort restaurants by tourists, the research identified five distinct dining segments, including: the Value-Seekers, the Service-Seekers, the Adventurous Food-Seekers, the Healthy Food-Seekers, and the Atmosphere–Seekers. These segments were found to develop their satisfaction and return intention judgements based on different restaurant attributes.

Overall, the study findings provided strong support for the research hypotheses and showed that tourist foodservice experiences may lay the foundation for, and shape the nature of tourist holiday experience. Marketing and management implications of the study findings are discussed and recommendations for future research are provided.

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1. Introduction

Intense competition within the world tourism market combined with the need to maintain market share has led numerous destinations, including Turkey, to becoming more aware of the significance of ensuring that tourists leave the destination satisfied. The Turkish tourism authorities have recently recognised the low-quality image, which characterised Turkish tourism during the late 1980s and early 1990s (Travel and Tourism Intelligence [TTI] 1997), as one of the barriers in achieving a higher market share and product competitiveness (Bulut 1998; Korzay 1994; Manav 1998; Unutulmaz and Varinli 1995). Thus, the latest (the seventh) Five-Year-Development-Plan (FYDP) sets out a series of new programmes in order to improve the level of quality and competitiveness of Turkish tourism products and services (State Planning Department [SPD] 1993).

The delivery of a quality and competitive product for tourists begins with an understanding of the components of a satisfactory holiday experience which are of most importance to tourists. At present, the Turkish tourism authorities, however, lack such diagnostic information, as tourist satisfaction research is still in its infancy in Turkey (Unutulmaz and Varinli 1995). Thus, although the quality objective, included in the seventh FYDP, indicates government awareness of the importance of quality improvement for successful tourism, it is yet unclear how this task is going to be attained without the necessary information. In order to realise this task, the tourism authorities need information which encourages the identification of the service components that are essential to the destination's success, and those components, which inhibit its success. This process would elucidate the areas that are in need of improvement, and would highlight the areas that have the greatest potential for differentiating the destination from its competitors. The development of an analytical framework is, therefore, essential in order to provide guidelines on ways in which destination components can be managed to increase tourist satisfaction.

A number of researchers have studied components of experiences which contribute to tourist satisfaction within different tourism and hospitality contexts (Dorfman 1979;

Danaher and Arweiler 1996; Chadee and Mattsson 1996; Haber and Lerner, 1999; Pizam, Neuman and Reichel, 1978; Tribe and Snaith, 1998; Weber 1997). Although these researchers have identified different sets of components affecting satisfaction, the results of these studies share the similar notion that tourist satisfaction is a multidimensional concept. According to these studies, tourists interact with many different components of the destination product, which is a package of diverse attributes that includes not only the historical sites and spectacular scenery, but also services and facilities, catering to the everyday needs of tourists (Hu and Ritchie 1993). The quality of these interactions and experiences with numerous encounters in the total holiday experience, each holding varying degrees of importance in tourist service evaluations, form the basis for overall holiday dis/satisfaction and future travel decisions (Teare 1998; Weiermair 1994).

Some studies indicate that destination pull factors, such as the natural environment, the scenery, the culture, the climate, and other general features (for example, the cleanliness of beach and sea, and the availability of activities, facilities, and entertainment) might be among the prime determinants of tourist satisfaction (Hu and Ritchie 1993; Pizam and Milman 1993). Others emphasise that holiday satisfaction does not only come from beautiful sights but also from the behaviour one encounters, from the information one gets, and from the efficiency with which needs are served (Ohja 1982; Stringer 1981; Sharpley 1994; Pearce 1982; Reisinger and Turner 1997). Tourist impressions of tourist-host interaction may become a significant element in holiday satisfaction because hosts (or service providers) are the first contact point for tourists and remain in direct contact through an entire holiday (Krippendorf 1987; Reisinger and Turner 1997). Authentic interpersonal experiences between hosts and tourists may lead to psychological comfort in satisfying tourists' needs (Stringer 1981).

The provision of both physically and psychologically comforting accommodation facilities is also suggested to be instrumental to the generation of quality holiday experiences (Lounsburry and Hoopes 1985;Tribe and Snaith 1998). The service quality delivered in lodging and other tourist facilities, the responsiveness of service personnel to tourist requests and complaints, and resolution of problems in a proper manner may contribute substantially to tourist satisfaction (Bitner *et al* 1990; Huang and Smith 1996; Reisinger and Waryszack 1996). Moreover, studies have also shown that the prices of services, the price and value relationship, and the extent of commercialisation in the area may become important factors affecting tourist evaluations (Bojanic 1996; Pizam *et al* 1978; Reisinger and Turner 1997). Research also suggests tourist communication with local people and service providers may foster empathy and a feeling of safety (Reisinger and Waryszack 1996), and this may affect tourist enjoyment of the host environment and their future destination selection decisions (Sirakaya, Sheppard and McLennan 1997; Pizam, Tarlow and Bloom 1997). Efficiency of airport services may also play part in tourist evaluations, as airport service encounter is generally the initial and the last experience the tourist has with the destination (Laws 1995).

A number of studies have also pointed out that availability of quality restaurants and the quality of services in these facilities are among the preconditions for a satisfactory holiday experience (Chadee and Mattsson 1995; Lounsburry and Hoopes 1985; Pizam *et al* 1978; Tribe and Snaith 1998). Marris (1986: 17) observes that "for many people in the world, and for most of the time, it is true that people eat to live, just to stay alive, but other times especially for people on holiday, there are occasions when people really do live to eat". Foodservice experiences are a memorable part of holiday experience, as tourists tend to spend considerable time on choosing the restaurant where the meal will be an experience to be enjoyed and to be remembered with satisfaction. When managed well, the product consumed in restaurants may have the potential to enhance overall holiday satisfaction; however, when handled improperly, the product can significantly mar the entire holiday experience through poor performance (Hanszuch 1991). This may have important implications for destinations. Dissatisfied tourists are likely to share their negative experiences with other people (Dube *et al* 1994; Pearce and Moscardo 1983), and that personal communication is considered to be more credible than marketer-based information. Thus, the negative tourist impressions of foodservice experience may damage a destination's image and act as a deterring agent curtailing potential visits.

Moreover, while restaurants in tourist destinations are generally assumed to be in the business of selling food only, serving to the physiological needs of tourists, they are in fact the prime retailers of one of the authentic cultural experiences that tourists may have on their holiday (Robson 1999; Muller 1999). The restaurant industry may play an important role in augmenting and diversifying the overall tourist product, and the food characteristics of a destination may represent a competitive strength over other destinations with similar natural beauty and other general features (Kaspar 1986; Kruczala 1986). In addition, the restaurant industry is also a powerhouse in terms of generating employment especially for young people (Elmont 1995). It accounts for one quarter of the tourist travel budget and is one of the largest earners of receipts in the entire travel and tourism industry (Belisle 1983; Elmont 1995; Fox and Sheldon 1986). Another important consideration is that the multiplier impact of the income earned in the catering sector might be greater than that of many other sectors, such as the accommodation, the tour operators, and the airlines which are run by multinational corporations. The majority of catering establishments are small to medium sized enterprises, locally owned and run, and the revenue generated in this sector may not leak out of the local economy substantially.

While the performance delivered by the restaurant industry may not be a sufficient condition on its own to create repeat business for destinations or tourist loyalty, it can, however, become a determinant of failure to achieve a satisfactory holiday experience. Despite the obvious relationship between tourism and the catering industry, the potential contribution of the foodservice experiences to further development and competitiveness of tourist destinations seems to have received no or inadequate attention from researchers and destination managers (Elmont 1995). There has been relatively little research undertaken on tourist foodservice experiences, ascertaining the aspects responsible for dis/satisfactory tourist foodservice experiences. The majority of past restaurant studies have focused on fast food operations and were conducted with domestic customers, while only a few have scrutinised tourist dining satisfaction in more traditional restaurants (Kivela, Inbakaran and Reece 1999). Moreover, many of the past studies have not related the relative importance of service dimensions to certain key performance criterion such as dining satisfaction or repurchase intention. Consequently, at present there exists relatively inadequate information with regard to what brings satisfaction, what service aspects are considered important in repeat visit judgements, and what may discourage such repeat business to restaurants at holiday destinations. Thus, considering its powerhouse role in terms of job generation and its supporting and complementary role in destination attractiveness, the nature of tourist experiences within destination restaurants should be investigated, with the ultimate purpose of improving the quality of foodservice experiences.

1.1 The Study Context

The dynamic nature of tourism, governmental support, and incentives for tourism investment and developments in addition to the pro-active marketing of Turkey have contributed to a boom in Turkish tourism since the 1980s. The expanding tourism industry has contributed 3.3 % to the Gross National Product in the last decade (Turkish Tourism Ministry [TTM] 1995). Tourism revenues have increased by more than 1,500 percent over the past two decades ($ 411 million in 1983 to $8 billion in 1998). The number of tourists to Turkey has increased from 1.2 million in 1983 to 9 million in 1998 and the Turkish tourism market share in relation to world tourism, has expanded from 0.5 percent in 1981 to 1.3 percent in 1995. In spite of the expansion in arrivals and revenue, however, the Turkish tourism product is regarded generally as being poorly planned, based on low technology, with a low-price and low-quality image (Travel and Tourism Intelligence [TTI] 1997).

From a general viewpoint, this low-quality image may have arisen from two main factors:

1. In the early 1980s, when the tourism development priority was first initiated through the Tourism Encouragement Decree in 1980 and the Tourism Encouragement Law in 1982, very few people, particularly those in authority, thought of planning for the future, through widening its appeal and its capacities by improving the product quality. During this time no attempt was made to devise performance monitoring schemes, as increased international travel had made Turkey, like many other destinations, very popular without there being a need to improve the level of tourism services and products.

2. No attempt was made to analyse the tourist experience phenomenon because the major concern was to attract tourists in high volume. This "high-volume-growth"

orientation was emphasised in the fifth five-year development plan that covered the period between 1985 and 1989 (Kan 1992). The 5th FTDP encouraged the development of mass tourism, which has proven to be an incorrect strategy for maintaining product quality and competitiveness (Sezer and Harrison 1994).

Turkey, like many other mass-tourist destinations, has experienced rapid growth but is now facing a potential decline in market share and revenue as a result of changes that have occurred in the world tourism market. In the traditional tourist generating countries tourist demand has become mature and saturated, and experienced tourists are becoming quality conscious (World Tourism Organisation [WTO] 1995; 1998). There has been a substantial increase in customer product/service knowledge, with a corresponding growth in consumer demand and expectations, and customers are becoming increasingly sensitive to the price/quality ratio (Augustyn and Ho 1998; Panton 1999). Over the past years, a number of new tourist destinations have emerged, and are still emerging, which offer attractions and services similar to those in traditional destinations (WTO 1998). However, these new destinations emphasise quality as a way of competing with established destinations. Moreover, repeat demand is increasingly coming not only from experienced travellers but also from ageing travellers, now a booming market, who are sensitive to quality (Handszuch 1996).

A growing number of holiday destinations offering similar products and services, along with increasing consumer awareness, means that the concept of tourist satisfaction is vital to a destination's success. Studies consistently suggest that the successful application of this concept may potentially provide a destination with a competitive advantage by generating benefits such as differentiation, increased customer retention, and word-of-mouth recommendations (Arrebola 1995; Augustyn and Ho 1998; Kandampully 1997; Keyser and Vanhove 1997; Lanquar 1995; Mackay 1996; Matilda 1999; Postma and Jenkins 1997; Ryan 1995; Weber 1997; WTO 1988). Therefore, many destinations are now striving to differentiate themselves from the competition by delivering a quality service, and thus increasing the level of customer satisfaction. For example, in order to ameliorate the structural problems and loss of competitiveness, which characterised Spanish tourism in the late 1980s, the Spanish authorities included the improvement of quality tourism in their national tourism policy objectives in the early 1990s (Arrebola 1995; Mir, Zornozo and Zornozo 1996;

OECD 1992; Valenzuela 1998). Different measures and policies, which have been adopted to raise the quality standards, especially in services rendered, eventually improved the competitiveness and increased Spanish tourism market share (WTO 1996). The Spanish example indicates that quality and satisfaction enhancement is a necessary and winning strategy in the tourism industry for the new millennium (Augustyn and Ho 1998).

With regard to this fact, both the Turkish government and the tourism industry leaders have recently realised that it is important to move the primary focus from volume growth to a selective development programme which is targeted to improve the quality of the tourist holiday experience, and thus tourist satisfaction and tourist loyalty (TTI 1997). The authorities have come to consider the improvement of the quality of the tourist experience (the tourist product) as a precondition to survive in a highly competitive market. Thus, in order to take up the challenges presented by its competitors in the world market and in order that it can continue to be a successful tourist destination, service/product quality improvement has been incorporated into the latest five-year tourism development plan objectives in Turkey (SPD 1995). The 7th FYDP covers the period between 1996 and 2000 and endorses a programme to improve the quality of both the infrastructure and superstructure and also to introduce a new certification system to enhance the service quality in the sector (OECD 1996; TTM 1995).

However, although those involved in the tourism industry have started to recognise the importance of quality improvement in a strategy for making Turkish tourism more competitive (TTM 1994), the authorities do not have a comprehensive method to assess and to ensure the development of tourist satisfaction, as research of tourist satisfaction and holiday experience is in its infancy in Turkey (Unutulmaz and Varinli 1995). As a consequence, although the managers of tourist businesses are expected to enhance tourist experience, satisfaction, and tourist loyalty, they are given little guidance on how to determine whether they have provided a satisfactory service experience.

Two major obstacles might prompt the difficulties faced by managers:

1. Achievement of total product quality and competitiveness depends on the collective actions of those involved in the supply side of the tourism and hospitality industry (Bratwait 1992). Management of different sectors in Turkey (for example, the catering, the lodging, the transportation, the entertainment etc.), however, seems to have failed to undertake a collective and co-ordinated approach to improve the total product quality. Holiday experience is an assemblage of numerous products and services, and thus, it is reasonable to assume that satisfaction with a holiday may be based on the sum of satisfaction with individual products and services that compose the holiday experience. Thus, in order to provide a competitive tourist experience, destination managers need to know which service components matter most in tourist satisfaction and repeat patronage and how they can be best combined. However, there exists a lack of understanding about the holistic nature of the tourist experience and particularly the extent of the effect of individual components on the development of overall holiday satisfaction.

2. Managers do not appear to have reliable, valid and straightforward instruments for gauging tourist satisfaction. The Turkish Tourism Ministry (TTM) used to gather information by annually distributed surveys, mostly at exit gates of airports, up until 1993 (Korca 1998). The chief objective of this survey was to obtain basic information about tourist expenditure, accommodation type, duration of stay, reasons for visiting, and to obtain information on the overall performance provided by Turkey's lodging, catering, transportation and entertainment facilities (see Appendix I, p.442). This annual survey is however far from being effective in providing managerial and actionable information to entrepreneurs and managers. The survey fails to establish the influence of each holiday component on the development of tourist satisfaction and repeat business, which greatly inhibits managers from developing appropriate performance improvement or quality assurance programmes. Another major limitation of the survey is that it does not provide comparative information, which would allow destination managers to make informed decisions. There is also no information available for management use relating to which holiday components are salient in their potential to create satisfaction/ dissatisfaction and repeat business/ defection. It is likely that satisfaction or dissatisfaction with one of the components may lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the total holiday.

Another important aspect that the Turkish authorities seem to have overlooked in the development of tourism in Turkey, is the potential contribution of the foodservice experience to the total product competitiveness. There has been no specific programme developed to assess and improve the quality of the products and services rendered in the foodservice industry, although there is some evidence to suggest that low service quality delivered in this sector accounts for a high proportion of tourist complaints (www.hurriyet.com.tr/tourist/hur/turk/99/07/19/yasam/ 03yas.htm, 1999; Dogan 1986; Garner 1999). Inadequate attention placed on the potential contribution of foodservice to Turkish tourism competitiveness is curious for a number of reasons. First, the food itself may not be a major element in the choice of destination, though in some cases it might be (Westering 1999). However, the food characteristics of the destination may provide tourists with a cultural experience (Hudman 1986; Reynolds 1994). Foodservice experience may therefore be a critical element in generating a differential edge over other competing destinations (Kaspar 1986). Secondly, foodservice experience is an inseparable part of the holiday experience, and thus, it may become instrumental and important in engendering tourist satisfaction, tourist loyalty, and word-of-mouth recommendations. A one-week holiday involves almost 21 foodservice encounters, and failure to meet physiological and social needs effectively during these encounters may inhibit the enjoyment of subsequent activities that follow the meal (for example, a trip to a historical site).

Hanszuch (1991: 11), the chief executive of the WTO, observes that "as far as tourists are concerned, the quality of their trip, their mental health and fitness, and hence their ability to adapt, learn and enjoy depends primarily on what they eat". This suggests that all the joy, thrills, and other expectations of the holiday, may disappear if the tourist becomes ill due to the food eaten or if the tourist is upset because of a low service quality delivery. Tourists on holiday require places where the meal will be an experience to be enjoyed, an experience to be anticipated with excitement, to be relished in the fulfilment and to be remembered with satisfaction (Marris 1986). Not knowing and overlooking the possible shortcomings in tourists' foodservice experiences may induce future business loss to the destination, as it will bring about negative publicity (Pearce and Caltabiano 1983; Jackson, White and Schmiere 1994). Thirdly, the foodservice industry is one of the prime generators of jobs and income and accounts for one quarter of the tourists' travel budget (Belisle 1983; Elmont 1995;

Fox and Sheldon 1986). For example, in 1998 $1.116 billion was spent on eating out in Turkey, accounting for almost a quarter of total tourist expenditure (www.hurriyet.com.tr/ turizm/turk/99/06/ 15/turizm.htm, 1999). This suggests that while authorities in Turkey are making tourism development and image improvement a priority, they should not underestimate the importance of foodservice as part of tourism development.

Attainment of a quality image and competitiveness is not a matter of chance, as it requires a deliberate policy (WTO 1988). In order to realise the objective of quality improvement, managers must be in possession of all the facts which allows them to make informed decisions. Destination managers in Turkey must know, with some degree of confidence, what destination components matter most in tourist satisfaction and repeat business, and they must be able to identify the destination components that cause the most trouble. Destination management also needs to be able to elucidate the components in need of improvement and identify the components that have the greatest potential for differentiating the destination from its competitors. This calls for the development of a well thought out customer satisfaction assessment framework that yields accurate and actionable information.

1.2 Research Aims and Objectives

Given the paucity of research on the relationship between foodservice experience and holiday satisfaction, this study intends to develop an analytical framework in order to ascertain the nature and extent of influence of the tourists' foodservice experience on tourist satisfaction and future behavioural intentions; and to establish an analytical framework in order to address how tourists' foodservice experiences can be enhanced. More specifically, this study sets out to:

- examine which of the existing customer satisfaction measurement frameworks is a more satisfactory framework for measuring customer satisfaction with hospitality and tourism services;
- identify destination service components contributing to tourist satisfaction, repurchase intentions, and word-of-mouth recommendations;

- explore the nature and the extent of influence of the foodservice experience on tourist satisfaction, repurchase intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations;

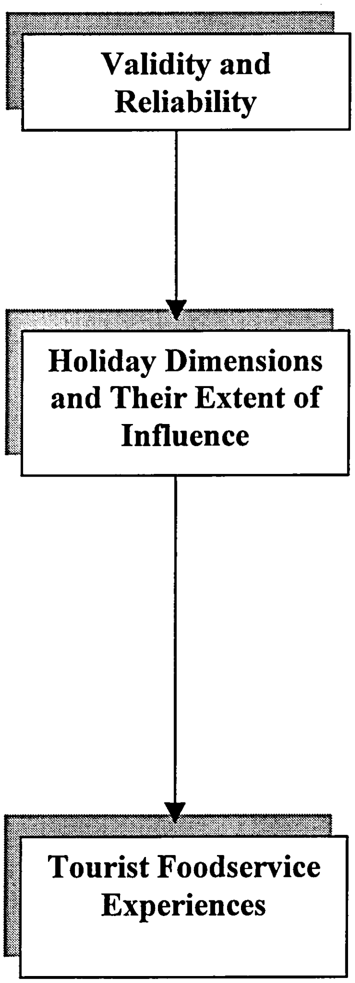
- ascertain what brings satisfaction, return patronage and word-of-mouth recommendations and what discourages return business in non-fast-food restaurants at Turkish destinations;

- examine whether tourists can be clustered into distinct groups based on their restaurant selection criteria; and

- identify the sources of satisfaction within each resultant cluster.

In order to address the study aims and objectives, a three-step interdependent investigation has been undertaken (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Steps Undertaken in the Research



The first step of the research ascertains the relative validity and reliability of the existing satisfaction measurement frameworks, in order to identify the most reliable and valid operational framework to be utilised in the assessment of tourist satisfaction with foodservice experiences in Turkey.

The second step of the research identifies tourist satisfaction dimensions and ascertains the relative significance of each dimension, particularly that of the foodservice experience, on overall holiday satisfaction and future behavioural intentions. This step of the research explores the role of foodservice experience in creating tourist complaints and compliments. This step also investigates the relative strengths and weaknesses of the Turkish tourism product in comparison to its competitors, and looks into whether different segments develop their satisfaction and return intention judgements, based on different destination components.

The third step of the research examines the nature and extent of influence of service components on the formation of tourist dining satisfaction, of particular concern of this final step is the investigation of whether there are different dining segments who are seeking different benefits, and whether sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction differ between these identified dining segments.

The specific research objectives pertaining to each research step are presented below.

1.2.1 Part One: Satisfaction Measurement Frameworks

In an attempt to provide theoretical explanations of customer satisfaction, researchers seem to have focused largely on the conceptual issues and underlying processes of satisfaction, and seem to have neglected the more pragmatic tasks of measuring and improving customer satisfaction. Researchers, for instance, have been greatly concerned with the identification of the antecedents of customer satisfaction (for example expectations, performance, and disconfirmation). As a consequence, several frameworks have been developed to gauge the concept (for example, The Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm, the Dissonance Theory, the Comparison Level Theory, the Evaluative Congruity Theory), however, no consensus has been reached on which framework is best suited to assess customer satisfaction. Some researchers argue that customer satisfaction measures should incorporate expectations and performance perception constructs (Pizam and Milman 1993; Oliver 1980), while other researchers suggest that customer satisfaction measurement should be concerned with perceived performance only (Dorfman 1979; Gundersen, Heide and Olsson 1996). Others maintain that weighted importance-disconfirmation models should be favoured in the assessment of customer satisfaction (Barsky 1992; Barsky and Labagh 1992; Carman 1990; Kivela 1998).

There appears to be a dearth of research in the tourism and hospitality literature, which scrutinises the reliability and validity of existing customer satisfaction models, particularly of the most widely applied model- the Expectancy/Disconfirmation Paradigm. Given the limited research in this area, a comparative study of the predictive power and reliability of the existing methodologies is warranted in order to advance this research field. This investigation is essential because hospitality and tourism managers need to build management and marketing strategies on customer satisfaction research, which is based on a reliable and a valid framework. Scrutiny of the reliability and validity of the existing measurement frameworks is fundamental in this study, as the framework to be used in the remaining research is to be determined in the light of this step's findings.

More specifically, this part of the research sets out to:

- investigate whether the performance only framework is a more satisfactory framework for measuring customer satisfaction than the six other alternatives;
- examine whether weighting performance and direct disconfirmation scores by importance makes any substantial improvement on the predictive validity of these methodologies;
- explore whether customer satisfaction and service quality constructs are distinguishable; and
- ascertain whether the use of different comparison standards yields different results in terms of customer satisfaction.

1.2.2 Part Two: Tourist Satisfaction and Foodservice Experience

Researchers have attempted to examine sources or components of tourist satisfaction. Though the results of these studies indicate that satisfaction is a multifaceted concept, consisting of a number of independent components or dimensions, there is a lack of understanding about the holiday components, which are most influential to tourist satisfaction. As the majority of past studies have not related the relative importance of destination service dimensions to certain key performance criterion variables such as, tourist satisfaction or tourist repurchase intentions, the relationship between individual factors and their extent of influence on repeat patronage/defection and word-of-mouth recommendation within a tourism context, remains equivocal. Destination management must know the elements of a satisfactory holiday experience in order to implement a programme to attain and maintain a high level of quality and satisfactory service (Miner and Wain 1992). Destinations that are oblivious of their shortcoming stand to loose their market share. Thus, assessment of destination components affecting tourist satisfaction is warranted.

Considering the multidimensional nature of the tourism product, destination managers need to be aware of the fact that if one link in the chain, for example the foodservice experience- an instrumental part of the holiday experience, is faulty, then the total product image may suffer significantly. Interestingly however, despite the fact that the foodservice experience may contribute extensively to tourist satisfaction within the entire holiday and thus may be instrumental and important in engendering tourist loyalty and ensuring word-of-mouth recommendations, this area of academic research seems to have received inadequate attention from researchers. An investigation into the nature and extent of influence of the foodservice experience on holiday satisfaction and repeat business is warranted because it may be a critical factor in differentiating between various destinations of comparable natural beauty and other general features.

Another interesting theoretical lacuna in the tourist satisfaction literature is the lack of research on relative performance assessment. In an intensely competitive market, both the short and long-term success of destinations depends not only on performance in absolute terms but also on performance relative to competitors. Surprisingly however, the role that relative performance may play in influencing satisfaction and generating repeat business has not been incorporated into tourist satisfaction investigations. Understanding performance relative to competitors, can help destination managers develop a better focus in catching-up and differentiating strategies.

In order to improve the understanding and the management of the satisfaction concept, this part of the research sets out to:

- identify factors contributing to tourist satisfaction, repurchase intentions, and word-of-mouth recommendations;
- explore the extent of individual factor's influence on tourist satisfaction and behavioural intentions;
- examine whether high (low) tourist satisfaction with the foodservice experience increases (decreases) the overall satisfaction with the holiday, return intentions, and word-of-mouth recommendations;
- ascertain the extent to which the foodservice experience leads to tourist complaints and compliments;
- examine whether sources of holiday satisfaction are different from sources of dissatisfaction and whether first-time and repeat visitors base their return intention and satisfaction judgements on different aspects of the holiday;
- explore the extent of influence of the relative performance on the formation of satisfaction and behavioural intention; and identify the strengths and weaknesses of Turkish tourism product; and

- find out whether the performance alone framework is a valid and reliable framework to assess tourist satisfaction with destination services.

1.2.3 Part Three: Determinants of Foodservice Experience

In spite of the advances achieved in consumer satisfaction research, particularly in North America and Europe, there seems to be a profound lack of knowledge in terms of understanding the consumer satisfaction concept particularly in the restaurant sector in Turkey. This could be attributed to the fact that there has been no study undertaken thoroughly in Turkey, particularly in the non-fast food restaurant market. Consequently, it could be said that restaurateurs lack consumer behaviour knowledge, which in turn substantially hampers their ability to target specific restaurant attributes that attract, satisfy, and retain customers. Given that no prior research has been carried out on this subject in Turkey, this study primarily aims to yield important insights into what brings satisfaction, return patronage and word-of-mouth recommendations and what discourages return business in non-fast food restaurants at Turkish destinations.

It is important to note that the majority of past studies seem to have explored tourist satisfaction at either an aggregate or an individual level, while little emphasis has been placed on the scrutiny of satisfaction at a segment level. Inadequate attention paid to segment-specific satisfaction analysis is curious because understanding the formation and structure of satisfaction among tourist segments is critical to devising effective market-specific resource deployment strategies to enhance profits. It is true that if managers try to satisfy all customers by targeting all market segments, they are likely to become every customer's second choice (Yesawich 1987). Understanding what specific market segments require, and developing focused management strategies to satisfy these specific requirements is the ultimate key to penetrate growing markets and to maintaining a repeat customer base. Segmentation, when done properly, can actually enhance sales and profits because it allows the organisation to target segments that are much more likely to patronise the organisation's facilities (Reid 1983). Research into segment-specific satisfaction measurement can promote better marketing and management of hospitality and tourism services.

Given the paucity of research on this subject, the final part of the study aims to extend the limited body of knowledge within the customer satisfaction field by providing insights into the development of satisfaction within each customer segment. More specifically, this part of the research sets out to:

- ascertain the reliability and validity of the performance only model in assessing tourist satisfaction within independent restaurant (non-hotel restaurant) services in Turkish destinations;
- identify factors determining tourist satisfaction with restaurant services in Turkey;
- explore the extent of individual factor's influence on the overall dining satisfaction and behavioural intentions;
- identify factors that are considered important by tourists when selecting restaurants on holidays;
- cluster tourists into groups based on their restaurant selection factors;
- examine the development of customer satisfaction within each resultant cluster; and
- explore patterns of restaurant selection criteria and their potential impact on satisfaction.

1.3 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into three main sections; (1) the literature review, (2) the methodology, and (3) the results and discussion section. Following this Introductory Chapter, an extensive and a critical review of the literature is presented in order to develop the theoretical rationale of the research problem, and to identify what research has and has not been undertaken on the research problem.

Considering the length of the unsettled discussions that exist in the customer satisfaction literature, the presentation of the Literature Review is divided into five chapters. In the first part of the review (Chapter Two), the debates concerning the definitions of the satisfaction concept are presented. This is followed by a discussion of the differences/similarities between satisfaction and the service quality concept, as recognising the similarity and differences between these two concepts is imperative to advance understanding of the satisfaction concept. The second part of the review

(Chapter Three) presents satisfaction theories that have been applied in marketing literature in general and in hospitality and tourism research in particular. More specifically, the Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm (EDP), the Comparison Level Theory, The Importance-Performance model, the Contrast Theory, the Dissonance Theory, the Attribution Theory, the Equity Theory, and the Person-Situation fit theory are explicated.

The next part of the review (Chapter Four) is devoted to the debates pertaining to the use of different standards in explaining customer satisfaction, as the issue of comparison standards holds a central role in almost all of the satisfaction theories. Chapter Five deals with methodological and theoretical shortcomings of the EDP, the most widely applied satisfaction measurement framework, and discusses the model's applicability. This chapter also presents debates pertaining to the Perceived-Performance-Only and the Weighted-Importance models, and Servqual. Chapter Six discusses the tourist satisfaction concept in relation to the role of the foodservice experience in the formation of holiday satisfaction. This chapter also reviews the issues and discussions pertaining to what constitutes foodservice satisfaction with restaurant services and the concept of customer segmentation.

Following the review of the literature, the Methodology Chapter (Chapter Seven) is presented, which outlines the six-step procedure adopted by the researcher in addressing the research objectives. These steps include; the research problem formulation, the research design, the data surfacing and gathering, the data management and process, the data examination, and the writing-up of the thesis. More specifically, the Methodology Chapter outlines the research design, the specification of the data required, the selection of the data collection technique, the development of the research instruments, pilot testing of the research instruments, the determination of the sampling technique, the selection of the data analysis techniques, and the problems encountered in the main research implementation.

Next, the findings and discussions pertaining to three interdependent investigations are presented separately in the Results and Discussions Chapter (Chapter Eight). The first part of this chapter presents the results and discussions of the comparative study undertaken to examine the validity and reliability of the seven different customer satisfaction measurement frameworks. The measurement frameworks that are compared and contrasted are the performance only; the performance weighted by importance; the importance minus performance; the direct dis/confirmation; the direct dis/confirmation weighted by importance; the performance minus predictive expectations, and the performance minus should expectations. This section also presents the results and discussions concerning the similarities and differences between consumer satisfaction and service quality constructs. Finally, this first part of the Results Chapter presents the findings relating to the ability of two comparison standards- the predictive and should expectations- in determining customer satisfaction.

The second section of the Results Chapter presents the findings of an investigation, undertaken with 400 tourists departing from an international airport in Turkey, designed to ascertain the nature and extent of the influence of foodservice experience on holiday satisfaction and behavioural intentions. This section further presents the results of an analysis carried out to establish whether there are any destination attributes which are salient in their potential to generate satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction. Next, this section presents the results of an analysis undertaken to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the tourism product relative to competitors.

The final section of the Results Chapter presents the results and discussions pertaining to the survey undertaken with 500 tourists, geared to identifying the sources of dining satisfaction and future behavioural intentions. This section further presents the results of the comparative qualitative data analysis undertaken to verify the findings emerged through the quantitative data analysis. Next, findings pertaining to the market segmentation analysis, based on the dining benefits sought by tourists on holiday, and sources of tourist dining satisfaction within each resultant segment, are presented. The final section of this chapter also presents the results of an analysis undertaken to highlight whether tourists' pre-visit and post-visit judgements concerning restaurant services are identical. Finally, the Conclusion Chapter (Chapter Nine) discusses the overall findings of the three-step investigation and presents the implications of the research findings and recommendations for future research.

1.4 Summary

In order to clarify the gaps that exist in the tourist satisfaction literature and provide guidelines on ways in which tourist foodservice experiences and holiday satisfaction can be assessed and enhanced in Turkey, a three-step interdependent investigation has been undertaken. The first stage of the research is designed to identify the measurement framework to be used in the subsequent stages of the research, and involved the comparison of reliability and validity of seven alternative measurement frameworks. The second stage of the research, using the framework determined by the previous stage, aims to identify the underlying factors of tourist satisfaction within a destination and to examine the extent to which each individual factor, particularly the food service experience, influences overall holiday satisfaction, return intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations. The second investigation also examines the potential of incorporating relative performance assessment into satisfaction investigation in identifying relative product strengths and weaknesses. The third stage of the research project aims to provide insights into what brings satisfaction, return patronage and word-of-mouth recommendations and what discourages return business in non-fast-food restaurants in Turkey. This step also explores patterns of restaurant selection criteria and their potential impact on satisfaction and scrutinises whether sources of satisfaction differ between resultant segments.

CHAPTER II

Consumer Satisfaction: Definition

2.1 Introduction

The provision of tourist satisfaction and a quality tourism experience are fundamental issues for destinations to consider for a number of reasons. First, satisfaction "reinforces positive attitudes toward a brand, leading to a greater likelihood that the same brand will be purchased again...dissatisfaction creates a negative attitude toward a brand and lessens the likelihood of buying the same brand again" (Assael 1987: 47). Depending on the degree of their dis/satisfaction, tourists may either return, recommend a destination to other tourists, or may not return and express negative comments that may damage the reputation of the destination (Pearce 1988). Destination managers need to focus on the provision of high quality tourist experiences as "the consequences of customer dissatisfaction can be sudden and harsh" (Maddox 1985: 2). Moreover, tourists may respond to negative (unsatisfactory) experiences "in a more physically destructive way, and various acts of vandalism, notably, property damage, theft and graffiti may be seen as an extreme expression of visitor dissatisfaction" (Pearce and Moscardo 1984: 21).

Second, the generation of satisfaction, and hence customer loyalty is a cost-effective approach to maintaining a business (Murray 1992). Recent studies have revealed that it is highly likely that a dissatisfied customer never returns (Dube, Reneghan and Miller 1994), and to get a new customer costs more than to keep an existing one (Stevens, Knutson and Patton 1995). For instance, while it costs about $10 in advertising, public relations, price incentives and other promotions to get a new customer, the cost to keep a satisfied customer is only about $1 (ibid.). Similarly, other studies suggest that it costs three to five times as much to attract a new customer as it does to retain an old customer (Fierman 1994; La Boeuf 1987). Capturing new customers from competitors is costly because a greater degree of service improvement is needed to induce customers to switch from a competitor (Anderson and Sulvian 1990). In the hospitality industry, Callan (1994a: 496), for instance, observes that

> "it is beyond dispute that years ahead will be a period when hospitality operators will serve on increasingly discerning public, who will not be prepared to accept

poor quality services; they will complain and transfer allegiances to the providers of quality services".

Third, studies have also elicited that the generation of satisfaction with services leads to word-of-mouth recommendations, which is suggested to be more effective at enhancing volume and profit in many companies and destinations, than marketing, promotion or advertising activities. For instance, based on the results of a Gallup study, Stevens *et al* (1995) state that, of the consumers going to a restaurant for the first time, 44% went because of a recommendation and another 10% went with someone who had been there before. In a study of restaurant customers, Plymire (1991) found that 91% of a restaurant's dissatisfied customers will never come back and they will typically tell eight to ten others about their negative experience. Similarly, Becker's and Wellins's (1990) study brings out that while only 38% of restaurant customers tell their friends about an excellent service, 75% of restaurant customers share information about poor service (in Sundaram, Jurowski and Webster 1997). It was found that on average, a problem related to service quality, causes a 20% decline in customer loyalty (Murray 1992). In his study on the fast-food industry, Wallace (1995) reported that small changes in loyalty and consumption patterns could have a disproportionate impact on a firm's profitability. Wallace estimates that 5% reduction of customer defection will result in a 25% increase in profits (in Pettijohn, Pettijohn and Luke 1997). In another study, Fornell (1997) estimates that if 92 percent of the tourists to Spain return for more visits, at least once during the next five years, there will be an $1.4 billion increase in the revenue. This suggests that the cost associated with ignoring tourist satisfaction assessment can be tremendous (Panton 1999). Destinations that fail to pay attention to the provision and improvement of satisfaction and overlook their shortcomings, stand to loose their market share. Therefore, understanding customer satisfaction lies at the very heart of effective provision and management of the concept, and thus, accurate measurement of this concept, is a vital ingredient in the success of destinations in both short and long term.

Research into tourist satisfaction measurement has increased and, customer satisfaction measurement has become the most frequent application of market research in the 1990s (www.allenymarketing.com/Cust_satis.htm, 1998). However, this area of research is still replete with unresolved issues. The research on customer satisfaction has often been either over-simplified or too complicated, and unfortunately not actionable. The majority of researchers have investigated tourist satisfaction from anthropological, sociological and psychological perspectives (Otto and Ritchie 1997). While these perspectives are critical to understanding the concept, they are not readily transferable into managerial actions. Researchers seem to have been largely concerned with the conceptual antecedents of customer satisfaction, and they paid limited attention to the development of informative and straightforward models that help tourism managers identify which component or components of the holiday experience are the most important in tourists' satisfaction judgements and behavioural intentions. It is important to note that a comprehensive understanding of the structure of the satisfaction construct in a given service experience is essential not only for measurement and monitoring purposes, but also for providing greater insight into the process of satisfaction formation (Singh 1991).

Another hurdle in the customer satisfaction measurement is to decide which measurement construct to use (Maddox 1985; Panton 1999; Yuksel and Rimmington 1998b). The existence of several satisfaction measurement frameworks, is causing confusion among practitioners, as no consensus has been reached on which framework is best suited to assess customer satisfaction. Moreover, while the majority of satisfaction theories concur that satisfaction is a relative concept, and several forms of comparison standards have been proposed, no consensus exists concerning which comparison standard might be most appropriate (that is, which standard best predicts satisfaction). Although different forms of standards have been proposed in the marketing and consumer behaviour literature, with the exception of predictive expectations, other standards have received little empirical research in tourism and hospitality literature. There is also limited understanding about whether the use of different comparison standards yields different results in terms of satisfaction. Furthermore, the relationship, as well as the difference between the customer satisfaction and other related constructs, notably service quality, is confusing because both constructs are founded on a similar conceptual framework. This confusion has delayed the introduction of customer satisfaction and service quality paradigms into hospitality and tourism research (Oh and Parks 1997).

In spite of the noticeable progress that has been achieved and a number of theoretical foundations that have been developed, a review of literature suggests that agreement, on how best to conceptualise customer satisfaction, is yet to be reached. Even though "there is a consensus that customer satisfaction is central to success in the delivery of tourist and leisure services, satisfaction remains an elusive, indistinct and ambiguous construct" (Crompton and Love 1995: 11). Strictly speaking, an accurate measurement model cannot be devised unless the concept to be measured is defined clearly. To this end, the following section presents current debates in relation to definition of customer satisfaction and its similarities and distinction with related constructs. The literature review starts with the definition of services and moves on to outlining a number of alternate conceptual definitions of customer satisfaction proposed by the researchers. This is followed by a discussion on the difference/ similarity between satisfaction and two other related concepts, namely attitude and service quality, as illustrating the similarity and differences between satisfaction and these concepts is imperative to advance the understanding of the satisfaction concept and to the development of the research.

2.2 Tourism and Hospitality Services

Tourism and hospitality services (or products) are a multifaceted phenomenon, which occur in specific environments and are closely related to managerial issues, which range from marketing and consumer behaviour analysis, to employee relations and organisational behaviour (Murray 1992). In its simplest form, a service can be described as an intangible but identifiable activity providing the satisfaction of needs (Kotler 1984), and services are related to performance as opposed to objects (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry 1985). Within the tourism and hospitality industry, a service can signify either an escape from daily life or a means of self-fulfilment (Ryan 1991). The service does not represent possession of a physical product, but leads customers to acquire and fulfil dreams. Services are the procedures affecting the product flow to customers and the manner in which staff deliver the product (Martin 1986).

The definition of service has changed over time. In addition to more traditional components of the definition such as employee courtesy, product knowledge, helpfulness, and enthusiasm, it has been expanded to include service aspects such as convenient location, breadth of selection, category dominance, speed of transaction, and competitive prices (Murray 1992). Tschohl (1991) simply defines service as "whatever your customer thinks it is". In spite of the fact that customers can be illogical or uninformed, what customers think seems to be all that matters. Expressed in terms of attitude, service can be seen as thoughtfulness, courtesy, integrity, reliability, helpfulness, efficiency, availability, friendliness, knowledge, and professionalism ([Tschohl 1991] in Murray 1992). Service clearly involves maintaining old customers, attracting new ones, and leaving all of them with an impression that induces them to do business again with the restaurant or the destination (Murray 1992).

Three main characteristics of services, namely their tangible and intangible composition, the simultaneity of production and consumption, and their heterogeneous nature impose difficulty to their evaluation and measurement (Lee and Hing 1995; Yuksel and Rimmington 1997). It is important to note that these service features are not mutually exclusive but are, in many cases, conjoint. The most recognised service feature is its *intangibility*. This implies that services cannot be measured, touched, and evaluated before they are purchased (Cowell 1984). Most services are performance rather than objects, and therefore a service exists in time, but not in space (Shostack 1984). For this reason, when a customer purchases a service such as a hotel stay or a vacation, she goes away empty handed, but she does not go away empty headed. However, apart from souvenirs and photographs, she has nothing to show for the purchase but s/he has memories to share with others (Lewis 1989).

Products and services are thought to be distinct in that the former is produced (tangible) and the latter is performed (intangible). However, this traditional view is rather rigid, as products and services may have both tangible and intangible characteristics (Teare *et al* 1994). For example, Kotler (1984) defines product as "anything that can be offered to a market for attention, acquisition, use, or consumption that might satisfy a want or need. It includes physical objects, services, persons, places, organisation and ideas" (p: 463). Similarly, a service involves direct consumption of physical goods and use of physical facilities (tangibles) as well as the interaction with service providers (Nightingale 1985). Shostack (1977) argues that consumer decisions concerning an intangible-dominant entity will be based on the tangible clues surrounding it, and people use appearance and external impressions to make judgements about realities. For instance, customers generally judge the ambience of restaurant services by observing such physical forms as architecture, layout, design, and dress of the personnel (Haywood 1983).

Another feature of service that makes its definition and measurement difficult is *simultaneous production* and *consumption* (Gronroos 1984). Services are first sold then produced and consumed simultaneously (Cowell 1984). Therefore, unlike manufactured products, services cannot be subjected to quality control checks prior to consumption. Service providers are human, and customer-provider interaction is, though staged, both simultaneous and spontaneous, making the control of service a difficult and complex issue ([Czepiel 1980] in Kandampully 1997). Production and consumption of a hospitality service can only take place through buyer-seller interactions (Vandamme and Leunis 1993) which occur in the provider's premises and not in the customer's home environment. Customers can be co-producers of service products, as they share decision-making responsibilities with service providers in the production of services to accomplish the desired level of service outcomes (Davidow and Uttal 1990; McMahon and Schemeizer 1989).

Another important feature of services is their *heterogeneous nature*. This implies that assurance of a uniform service in tourism cannot be guaranteed, as provision of consistent behaviour from the service personnel is difficult to attain.

> "In a service business you are dealing with something that is primarily delivered by people, to people. Your people are as much of your product in the customer mind as any other attribute of that service. People's performance day in and day out fluctuates. Therefore, the level of consistency that you can count on and try to communicate to the customer is not a certain thing" ([Kinsley 1979] in Kandampully 1997: 6).

As not all hospitality and tourism services are routines, deviations from the routine norms are quite common (Haywood 1983). Inconsistencies can occur because different service providers perform a given service differently on different occasions.

Therefore, what management intends to deliver might be quite different from what customers receive (Parasuraman *et al* 1985).

Tourism services are experiential in nature, which fosters evaluation of service both during and after service delivery. That is, the tourist is integral part of the service enabling him or her to make an evaluation while the service is being performed, as well as after it has been performed. The evaluation of tourism and hospitality services is argued to be more complex than that of goods (Reisinger and Waryszak 1996; Zeithaml 1981). This may be partly because of the fact that tourism and hospitality services contain high percentages of experience and credence properties, whereas search properties are dominant in goods (Nelson 1970). *Search properties* refer to those attributes that a consumer evaluates before purchasing the product (for example, price, size, and colour). These properties are primarily tangibles, which are physical representations of the service, such as facilities, equipment, appearance of personnel, and other recipients of service (Mackay and Crompton 1990). *Experience properties* are those attributes that can be only assessed after purchase or during consumption (taste, purchase satisfaction) (Zeithaml 1981). *Credence properties* are the attributes that the consumer finds impossible to evaluate even after purchase and consumption (for example, the hygiene conditions in the restaurant kitchen). In general those services that are high in experience properties and credence properties, like tourism and hospitality services, may be the difficult to predict and evaluate (Reisinger and Waryszak 1996). Thus, consumers may develop less precise expectations for experiential services than for tangible consumer goods that are easy to evaluate prior to purchase.

It is important to note that the tourism product is an amalgam or package of tangible and intangible elements centred on activities at a destination (Medlik and Middleton 1983; Medlik 1988; Moutinho 1995; Smith 1994). It is the "collection of physical and service features together with symbolic associations which are expected to fulfil the wants and needs of the buyer" (Jefferson and Lickhorish 1988: 211). It comprises the actual and perceived attractions of a destination, the activities, the facilities, and the destination's accessibility. The tourism product is the complete experience of the tourist from the time one leaves home to the time one returns. Thus, the nature and quality of the tourist product is the outcome of many individual activities with a range of people and organisations involved in the tourist experience (Hughes 1989; Hughes 1991; Krippendorf 1987; Laws 1995; Whipple and Thach 1988).

In a holiday experience, tourists encounter directly with not just one, but with several members of the production chain (Van-Rekom 1994), thus there are more than one tourist-provider encounters. For instance, the travel agent (when booking a trip) is the first member of the product chain which tourists meet. Then, a hostess of the tour operator at the airport and the airline personnel during the flight attend tourists. Once in the country of destination, a coach company (another member of the production chain), hired by the tour operator, transfers them to their hotels. During the holiday, tourists meet different service providers, for example, restaurateurs, hoteliers, local people, etc. Many transient impressions and experiences occur during this total consumption, and it is this total experience that is consumed and evaluated (Teare 1998; Weiermair 1994). These experiences affect the consumer's state of mind at the end of the consumption, which forms the basis for subsequent travel decisions. Understanding which parts in this product chain matter and how they could be best combined to produce the desired experience is of significant importance to destination managers.

2.3 Customer Satisfaction

The concept of satisfaction is complex partly because

> "the most important thing to know about intangible products is that customers usually do not know what they are getting into until they don't get it... only then do they become aware of what they bargained for, only on dissatisfaction do they dwell...satisfaction is, as it should be, mute, its existence is affirmed only by its absence" (Levitt 1981: 96).

While everyone knows what satisfaction means, it clearly does not always mean the same thing to everyone (Oliver 1997). On the one hand, satisfaction may mean minimum acceptability to some customers while on the other hand it may mean near perfection to others (Day 1980).

As a result of this complexity, researchers have defined satisfaction in a variety of ways. For instance, customer satisfaction is defined as a cognitive evaluation of the attributes the consumer attaches to the service (Chadee and Mattsson 1996), or as "the customer's subjective evaluation of a consumption experience, based on some relationship between the customer's perceptions and objective attributes of the product" (Klaus 1985: 21). Satisfaction is regarded as a level of happiness resulting from consumption experience; or a cognitive state resulting from a process of evaluation of performance relative to previously established standards; or a subjective evaluation of the various experiences and outcomes associated with acquiring and consuming a product relative to a set of subjectively determined expectations. Satisfaction with a product or service is the consumer's evaluation of the extent to which the product or service fulfils the complete set of wants and needs which the consumption act was expected to meet (Czepiel, Rosenberg and Akarel 1974). Satisfaction has also been defined as a two factor process of evaluating a set of satisfiers and a set of dissatisfiers associated with a product (Maddox 1981); or one step in a complex process involving prior attitude towards a brand, a consumption experience resulting in a positive or negative disconfirmation of expectations, followed by feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction which mediates post consumption attitude which subsequently influences future purchase behaviour (Day 1980).

Satisfaction is also defined as

> "the buyer's cognitive state of being adequately or inadequately rewarded in a buying situation for the sacrifice he has undergone. The adequacy is a consequence of matching actual past purchase and consumption experience with the reward that was expected from the brand in terms of its anticipated potential to satisfy the motives served by the particular product class" (Howard and Sheth 1969: 145).

Oliver (1997: 13) proposes that satisfaction is "the consumer's fulfilment response. It is a judgement that a product or service feature, or the product or service itself, provided (or is providing) a *pleasurable* level of consumption-related fulfilment, including the levels of under-or-over fulfilment". These definitions represent the scope of the concept which ranges from a simplistic "black box" happiness perspective to a very complicated set of concepts, and there appears to be an absence of general consensus among satisfaction researchers as to how to define satisfaction. Drawing on these definitions, the concept of customer satisfaction may be viewed as "either an outcome or as a process" (Yi 1990: 68). Some definitions suggest that customer satisfaction is an outcome resulting from the consumption experience. For example, Howard and Sheth (1969: 145) suggest that satisfaction is "the buyers cognitive state of being adequately or inadequately rewarded for the sacrifice he has undergone", while Westbrook and Reilly (1983: 145) define customer satisfaction as "an emotional response to the experiences provided by and associated with particular products or services purchased" (in Yi 1990). In parallel, Churchill and Surprenant (1982) define satisfaction as the outcome of purchase and use, resulting from the buyer's comparison of the rewards and costs of the purchase in relation to the anticipated consequences. In this line, Oliver (1981: 27) views satisfaction as "the summary psychological state resulting when the emotion surrounding dis/confirmed expectations is coupled with the consumer's prior feelings about the consumption experience".

Customer satisfaction has also been defined as "an evaluation rendered that the consumption experience was at least as good as it was supposed to be" (Hunt 1977: 459). By the same token, Tse and Wilton (1988: 204) view satisfaction as "the consumer's response to the evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectations (or some norm of standards) and the actual performance of the product (service) perceived after consumption". Translated into a tourism context, this implies that satisfaction is a psychological concept that involves a feeling of well being and pleasure resulting from the interaction between a tourist's experience at the destination area and the expectations formed about that destination (WTO 1985). Defined by Hughes (1991: 166) tourist satisfaction may be seen "a multifaceted concept, primarily determined by visitors' attitudes both before and after".

These definitions define the key concepts and the mechanism by which the concepts interact, and each of these recognises that satisfaction is the end state of a psychological evaluation process (Oliver 1997). The process oriented approach, as opposed to the outcome-oriented approach, sounds useful in that "it spans the entire experience and emphasises the process, which may lead to customer satisfaction with unique measures capturing prominent aspects of each stage"(Yi 1990: 69). As Yi quite rightly puts it, this process-oriented approach appears to place much importance on evaluative and psychological processes that generate customer satisfaction, and is therefore gained much support from researchers.

In addition to the outcome-process debate, one of the most frequently raised questions regarding the definition of satisfaction has been whether it is a cognitive process or an emotional state (Oh and Parks 1997). For example, Howard and Sheth (1969) described satisfaction as "the buyer's cognitive state of being adequately or inadequately rewarded for the sacrifice he has undergone". Similarly, satisfaction is defined as an evaluation (cognitive) of a chosen alternative that is consistent with prior beliefs with respect to that alternative (Engel and Blackwell 1982). On the other hand, Westbrook (1980: 49) argues that satisfaction is not solely a cognitive phenomenon, rather "it also comprises an element of affects or feeling, in that consumers feel subjectively good in connection with satisfaction, and bad in connection with dissatisfaction". While some advocate that satisfaction is either a cognitive process or an emotional state, others suggest that satisfaction should be defined to reflect the link between both the cognitive and emotional processes, because "customer satisfaction is *an emotional feeling* in response to a process of confirmation/ and/or disconfirmation (cognitive)" (Woodruff, Ernest and Jenkins 1983). Customer satisfaction may be more than a simple cognitive evaluation process (Oh and Parks 1997). This is to say that customer satisfaction is a complex human process involving extensive cognitive, affective and other undiscovered psychological and physiological dynamics (ibid.).

As can be seen, the concept of consumer satisfaction has been defined differently. Variations among these alternative definitions set forth here indicate that the concept does not have a single universally accepted meaning (Maddox 1981), and thus pinning down a generally agreed definition of consumer satisfaction is difficult. Nevertheless, the conceptualisation that appears to have received greatest support is the view that satisfaction is regarded as a consumer's subjective post-consumption evaluative judgement concerning benefits obtained from specific purchase consumption.

As tourism is an experience made up of many different independent parts, some more tangibles than others, tourist satisfaction may be treated as a cumulative measure of total consumption experience. Based on Czepiel *et al*'s (1974) classification of consumer satisfaction, tourist satisfaction may be defined at least at three levels. These are the total satisfaction, the dimensional (component) satisfaction, and the product-service satisfaction. *Product-service level satisfaction* refers to tourist satisfaction with the individual product-service experiences delivered by a single organisation in the production chain. For example, satisfaction with service personnel in a restaurant represents the individual product-service level satisfaction. *Dimensional level satisfaction* results from the summation of satisfactions derived from individual products and services within the given component of tourism. For example, sum of satisfactions with room, service personnel, restaurant, and facilities in a hotel constitutes dimensional level satisfaction. *Total satisfaction* embraces all of the individual product-service level satisfactions and dimensional level satisfactions accumulated by the tourist. In other words, satisfaction with a holiday experience may be based on the sum total of satisfactions with the individual attributes of all the products and services that compose the holiday experience (Haber and Lerner 1999; Pizam 1994; Teare 1998). It is important to note that the nature and quality of this experience is usually outside the direct influence of destination authorities as the activities of many individuals and organisations can influence the tourist experience considerably (Hughes 1989). Equally importantly, tourist satisfaction is not a universal phenomenon in that not everyone gets the same satisfaction out of the same holiday experience. In addition, tourist satisfaction or dissatisfaction with one of the components may lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the total holiday experience. That is, the negative impression of one component may override well-executed quality in other areas (carry-over effect).

2.4 Customer Satisfaction and Attitude

In addition to the debate on its definition, there seems to be widespread confusion among researchers as to its relationship with other related constructs, most specifically with the concepts of attitude and service quality. A number of researchers, for instance, have regarded satisfaction as an attitude. As early as 1979, LaTour and

Peat emphasised that given that attitude and satisfaction are both evaluative responses to products, it is not clear whether there are any substantial differences between the two. "In fact it may be more parsimonious to consider satisfaction measures as post consumption attitude measures" (p. 434). Correspondingly, Czeipel and Rosenberg (1977: 93) view satisfaction as a form of attitude " in the sense that it is an evaluative orientation which can be measured. It is a special kind of attitude because by definition it cannot exist prior to purchase or consumption" (in Yi 1990).

However, several others argue that satisfaction is conceptually different from attitude (Oliver 1980; Westbrook and Reilly 1983). To Oliver (1997) satisfaction is different from attitude because of the disconfirmation of expectation, which is a central concept in satisfaction. Satisfaction is an evaluation of the total purchase situation relative to its expectations, whereas attitude is the liking of the product that excludes the element of comparison. While satisfaction is relatively transient and is consumption specific, attitude is a consumer's relatively enduring effect toward an object or experience and does not involve surprise as a central concept (Yi 1990). Attitude is a predisposition toward a service created by learning and experience (Moutinho 1986), and can be regarded as more general to a product or experience and is less situationally oriented. In the context of consumer behaviour, the attitude is defined as a consumer's constant evaluative inclination toward or against any element in his or her market domain (Chon 1989). The attitude and satisfaction concepts are separate, however they may be intrinsically related. In a dynamic framework, customer satisfaction with a specific service encounter may be affected by pre-exceeding attitudes about the product (Cronin and Taylor 1992) and customers post usage attitudes may be influenced by satisfaction (Bolton and Drew 1994).

2.5 Customer Satisfaction and Service Quality

There also appears to be growing confusion among researchers about the distinction (and the relationship) between the concepts of customer satisfaction and service quality. This confusion is largely due to the fact that both the customer satisfaction and service quality concepts have been founded on a similar conceptual and theoretical framework. For example, customer satisfaction researchers maintain that customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction is an evaluation based on the perceived discrepancy between customers' prior expectations of a product and the actual performance of that product as perceived after consumption (the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm) (Tse and Wilton 1988). Analogously, service quality researchers generally define service quality to be a comparative function between consumer expectations and actual service performance (the Gap Model). Given the similarity, some researchers consider service quality and customer satisfaction as similar constructs (for example, Dabholkar 1993, 1995; Spreng and Singh 1993), while others maintain that these are two distinct constructs (Cronin and Taylor 1992; Oliver 1993; 1997; Parasuraman, Zeithalm and Berry 1988; Taylor 1994).

Those supporting the distinction argue that differentiation between the two is extremely important to managers and researchers alike. According to this group "service providers need to know whether their objectives should be to have customers who are satisfied with their performance or to deliver the maximum level of perceived service quality" (Cronin and Taylor 1992: 56). In contrast, others supporting the similarity argue that these two constructs might be different operationalisations of the same construct, and attempting to differentiate between the two may be unnecessary. From a management viewpoint, striving to differentiate between the two might be futile, particularly if they do not have differential effect on post-purchase behavioural outcomes (i.e., satisfaction creates more repeat business than high service quality perception or vice versa). To this end, the following section first provides a definition of service quality. Next, the debates relating to the similarity and distinction between customer satisfaction and service quality concepts are outlined.

2.5.1 Service Quality: Definition

Many of the suggested quality definitions have originated from the manufacturing sector and are seemingly inappropriate for services due to the unique features (for example, intangibility, simultaneous production and consumption, perishability and heterogeneity). In the product quality tradition, Crosby (1979) views quality as *conformance to standards*, while Garwin (1983) suggests that quality is achieved through the prevention of internal failures (defects before the product leaves the factory) and external failures (defects after product use). These definitions such as conformance to requirements or internal and external failures are argued to be too product oriented and technical to be of great use in service contexts (Gilbert and Joshi 1992) and are found insufficient to understand service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithalm and Berry 1985).

A clearer understanding of service quality and its measurement has been provided by the expanding search for quality during the last decade (Lewis 1987). This search for service quality has produced several definitions. For example, some viewed service quality as "the degree of excellence intended and the control of variability in achieving that excellence in meeting customers' requirements" (Wycoff 1984: 78), while others argued that service quality results from the comparison of customer expectations of service with their perceptions of the actual service outcome (Gronroos 1984; Lewis and Booms 1983; Parasuraman *et al* 1985). Definitions of this kind, embracing expectations and perceptions of customers, are often used in tourism and hospitality services because the customer is significantly involved in the service production process (King 1984). In this domain, two distinct schools of research have made major contributions to conceptualisation of service quality. These are the *Nordic School of Quality Research* (NSQR) led by the Norwegian researchers such as Gronroos and Gummesson, and the *North American School of Quality Research* (NASQR), led by American researchers, notably by Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml.

The NSQR view quality from a service/product perspective. One of the major contributions of this school is the suggestion that service quality occurs in three dimensions; first technical, second functional and third reputational (Gronroos 1984). The *technical* dimension is concerned with the outcome of service encounters, such as food in a restaurant. The *functional* dimension is concerned with the process of service delivery, for example, friendliness of an employee, while the *reputation* dimension involves both technical and functional dimensions and may reflect a corporate image. By classifying service quality dimensions, this school suggests that because of the nature of service, for example, intangibility, heterogeneity, simultaneity, functional quality is quite important, sometimes more important than the technical quality (Gronroos 1984). This implies that there exist different service dimensions and these may be evaluated differently by customers.

The North American School of Quality Research focuses on the delivery aspects of service quality (Brogowicz, Delene and Lyth 1990). The current conceptualisation of this school is that service quality is a result of the gap between what customers expect and what they experience during the service delivery (Parasuraman *et al* 1985). More specifically, the NASQR regards quality as an outcome of a comparative process between the desired service and the perceived service (ibid.). This comparative process leads to the formation of distinct gaps, which influence the judgement of perceived quality (ibid.).

This school of research suggests that the difference between expected and actual service constitute the true measurement of service quality (Parasuraman *et al* 1985). Conducting in-depth interviews with executives from large firms in different sectors (for example, banking, retailing, and dry cleaning), this school initially produced ten service quality dimensions (Parasuraman *et al* 1985). These were reliability, responsiveness, competence, access, courtesy, communication, credibility, security, rapport, and appearance. In a follow-up research, Parasuraman *et al* (1988) subsequently refined these ten dimensions into five. Reliability, responsiveness and tangibles remained, but the other seven components were combined into two aggregate dimensions: assurance and empathy. In the light of successive pilot tests, this school developed a service quality model, the Servqual, which formulates the service quality construct as a difference between consumer expectations and perceived performance of a given product/service. Although the model has received growing criticism in recent years (discussed in detail in Chapter Five), the Servqual model has also been employed in assessing customer satisfaction with tourism and hospitality services in a number of studies (Saleh and Ryan 1991; Tribe and Snaith 1998).

This review of literature given above clearly demonstrates that the conceptualisation and operationalisation (measurement) of service quality is very similar to that of customer satisfaction, which is causing confusion among researchers. According to Oh and Parks (1997), this confusion needs to be clarified immediately because, the current theoretical and methodological debates among customer satisfaction and service quality researchers, are causing a delay in introducing customer satisfaction and service quality paradigms, into hospitality research. The following section, therefore, discusses similarity and distinction between these two concepts.

2.5.2 Satisfaction and Service Quality: Are They Distinguishable?

From a conceptual viewpoint, it may seem possible to distinguish between service quality and customer satisfaction, though empirically, it might be difficult (Dabholkar 1993). For instance, service quality can be viewed as perceptions of a service experience or the consumers overall impression of the relative inferiority or superiority of an organisation and its service, while customer satisfaction, is tied to disconfirmation and contains an element of comparison or surprise (Bitner and Hubbert 1994; Bolton and Drew 1992; Cronin and Taylor 1992; Gronross 1993; Oliver 1997). Oliver (1997) suggests a number of ways that may help distinguish customer satisfaction from service quality. These are:

- Expectations for quality are based on ideals or perceptions of excellence, whereas a large number of non-quality issues can help form satisfaction judgements (for example, needs, equity, perceptions of fairness).
- The dimensions underlying quality judgements are rather specific, whereas satisfaction can result from any dimension, regardless of whether or not it is quality related.
- The perception of quality does not require experience with the service or provider, whereas satisfaction judgements do.
- Quality is believed to have fewer conceptual antecedents than does satisfaction.

It is, however, controversial whether these provide a reliable basis on which these two concepts, which are evaluative responses to products/services, could be differentiated. The following section, therefore, presents the controversy pertaining to similarities and differences between these concepts.

2.5.2.1 Difference-based-on- Global versus Transactional Views?

The most common explanation of the difference between the two concepts is that perceived service quality is a form of attitude, a long-run evaluation, whereas satisfaction is transaction specific (Bitner 1990; Bolton and Drew 1991; Parasuraman *et al* 1988). This implies that perception of quality is more holistic, developed and maintained over a long period of time as a result of experience with service performance, whereas customer satisfaction is viewed as encounter specific, and may be a more immediate reaction to a specific service experience (Cronin and Taylor 1992; Parasuraman *et al* 1988).

While the above argument seems logical, it restricts the conceptualisation of customer satisfaction to a particular experience and the conceptualisation of service quality to a global concept, a long run evaluation occurring across experiences or over time. It seems likely that, for example, consumers are in fact able to evaluate service quality immediately after each individual encounter in a hotel stay experience. That is, the consumer might develop individual quality perceptions with respect to check-in experience, rooms and their facilities, the service in the hotel restaurant etc. It is also true that consumers can develop a general feeling of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (summary dis/satisfaction) with a firm after a number of experiences (Bolton and Drew 1991; Drew and Bolton 1991; Spreng and Singh 1993), so it is not necessarily an encounter specific. This suggests that a customer can evaluate quality or satisfaction for both a single encounter and, may form from this, a longer-term perception (Bitner and Hubert 1994; Iacobucci, Grayson and Ostrom 1994; Rust and Oliver 1994). This indicates that customer satisfaction and service quality can be both conceptualised either in terms of a given experience or in the longer term (Dabholkar 1993). Therefore, the use of duration to separate customer satisfaction and service quality is not adequate (Iacobucci *et al* 1994; Spreng and Sing 1993). Operational separation of the two constructs is *unlikely* if both are viewed as transactional or longer term (Drew and Bolton 1991). It is important to note that attempts to distinguish service quality and customer satisfaction on the basis of encounter-specific and holistic concepts seem sub-optimal as they are untested and arbitrary (Iacobucci *et al* 1994).

2.5.2.2 Difference-based-on- Comparison Standards?

Those advocating the difference further maintain that the standards against which performance is compared are different in service quality and customer satisfaction constructs (Oliver 1993; Parasuraman *et al* 1988). To Oliver (1997), satisfaction and service quality judgements may result from comparisons with different expectations for the same attribute; in this case ideal (for quality) and predicted expectations (for satisfaction). Similarly, service quality researchers (for example, Bitner 1990; Bolton and Drew 1991; Parasuraman *et al* 1988, 1994; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman 1993) propose that in measuring service quality, the level of comparison is what a consumer <u>should</u> expect against what is received, whereas in measurement of customer satisfaction the appropriate comparison is what a consumer <u>would</u> expect against what is received.

However, the proposition suggesting that different standards are used in service quality and satisfaction judgements is doubtful, as similar standards might be used in both constructs (Dabholkar 1993). The service quality literature has generally called the standard "an expectation", but it seems that it uses some other type of standard used in consumer satisfaction literature. For example, in their early work Parasuraman *et al* (1985) stated that quality "...involves a comparison of expectations with performance". Although they do not explicitly define expectations, given their examples (p.46), it appears that they are talking about beliefs about a product's performance which would be termed a "*predictive expectation*" in satisfaction literature (Spreng and Singh 1993). In a later study, Parasuraman *et al* (1988) suggest a change in the comparative standard that is used as perceptions of service quality "stems from a comparison of what they feel service firms *should* offer with their perceptions of the performance of firms providing services". They maintained that in the service quality literature, expectations did not mean predictions, but rather expectations were viewed as *desires* or *wants* of consumers, (i.e., what they feel service provider should rather than would offer). Finally in their recent work Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml (1991) use " an excellent company" (for example, employees of excellent companies will have neat appearance) as a standard.

It appears that as a standard, the service quality literature is using something very similar to some standards used in the satisfaction literature (for example, desires or experience-based norms discussed in Chapter 4) (Dabholkar 1993). The service quality literature, however, claims that satisfaction is formed from a comparison with predictive expectations (Bolton and Drew 1991; Bitner 1990; Parasuraman *et al* 1988, 1994; Oliver 1993; Rust and Oliver 1994; Zeithaml *et al* 1993). However, there are studies suggesting that ideals or desires might be important antecedents to satisfaction (Barbeau 1985; Cadotte, Woodruff and Jenkins 1987; LaTour and Peat 1979; Spreng and Olshavsky 1993; Swan and Travick 1979; Westbrook and Reilly 1983). Some researchers emphasise that researchers who employ the Servqual and its scoring algorithm (performance minus ideal expectation) "appear to be essentially capturing a measure more closely related to consumer satisfaction than service quality" (Hemmasi, Strong and Taylor 1995: 27). Therefore, unless it is confirmed empirically, the standard against which performance is compared cannot be confidently used to discriminate between service quality and satisfaction (Spreng and Mackoy 1996; Spreng and Singh 1993).

2.5.2.3 Difference-based-on- Actual Experience?

In service quality judgements, word-of-mouth communications, past experiences and external communications of the firm are considered to be the antecedents of quality (Bolton and Drew 1991). This implies that quality might be judged on the basis of some external criteria such as Consumer Reports or Tour Operator Ratings for a destination, whereas satisfaction requires some direct experience, and involves internal judgement (Oliver 1993; Iacobucci *et al* 1994). Similarly Callan (1994b) states that standard used in quality judgements concerning hospitality services may be set by the consumer, tour operator or some external authority or all three. Following this, it may be argued that service encounters are the providers' only chance of satisfying a customer, as service experiences cannot be undone, whereas the ability to build service quality perceptions through advertising and other indirect means, is possible (Oliver 1993). Therefore it is reasonable to argue that customer satisfaction is purely experiential and also unique to customers and, internal (Oliver 1993). However, service quality does not always require experience. "A five star hotel may be perceived as being of high quality although it has never been visited" (Meyer and Westerbarkey 1996: 186).

The proposition suggesting that quality does not always involve experience, whereas satisfaction is an experiential concept and more internal, might seem to distinguish between the two concepts. It is, however, important to note that two types of quality have been suggested in the literature; the objective service quality and the perceived service quality. Objective service quality could be defined as the technical superiority or inferiority of the product which can be derived from external sources such as Consumer Reports, and does not involve an experience with the product (Zeithaml 1988). On the other hand, perceived service quality could be defined as the consumer perception about the product performance after it is consumed, involving a subjective evaluation of the experience. This may suggest that objective quality and satisfaction are different from each other, while the difference between satisfaction and perceived service quality is less clear-cut.

2.5.2.4 Difference-based-on- Other factors?

As stated earlier, some argue that ideal or excellence based expectations may be used as a reference point for quality judgements. However, a number of non-quality referents, including needs, equity and fairness perceptions, can be used in satisfaction and dissatisfaction judgements (Iacobucci *et al* 1994; Oliver 1993). In this respect, the dimensions underlying service quality judgements are assumed to be rather specific, whereas satisfaction judgements, can be derived from all potential salient attributes, whether or not they are quality related (Oliver 1993). Oliver, for example, argues that it is possible to be satisfied with a low quality service encounter if a consumer expects a minimal performance. Dissatisfaction may result from high-quality performance "if expectations exceed the maximum potential of a service provider" (Oliver 1993: 66). Moreover, unexpected events such as parking problems, before entering a five-star hotel can result in dissatisfaction, though high quality perception of the hotel may remain the same (Bitner 1990). Additionally, the fairness of the exchange process (Oliver and Desarbo 1988), or a comparison of the outcome with others' experience, can condition the satisfaction judgement, for example, an employee's interest toward certain customers and ignorance of others during the service experience. Moreover mood, usage frequency and situation can affect satisfaction judgements (Westbrook and Reilly 1983). This implies that a customer in a high quality restaurant may be dissatisfied when some elements of service delivery, are not up to personal standards. The above proposition seems to provide some degree of evidence concerning the distinctiveness of the concepts. However, this contention which holds that fairness of the exchange process or a comparison of the service outcome with other's experience, does not impact on perceived service quality, has not been empirically tested and verified.

2.5.3 Causal Link between Satisfaction and Service Quality

A review of the emerging literature suggests that there appears to be a considerable level of consensus, among marketing researchers, that service quality and customer satisfaction are separate constructs, yet they are conceptually closely related. There have been a number of recent empirical attempts to validate the specific nature of the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction (Bitner 1990; Cronin and Taylor 1992). However, the literature has demonstrated conflicting results as to the causal order between the two concepts. Some argue that customer satisfaction with a given service would lead to an overall global attitude about service quality of a product (Bitner 1990; Oliver 1981; Parasuraman *et al* 1988). In contrast, others argue an alternate causal order, in that service quality, is an antecedent to customer satisfaction. That is, in a given situation, service quality will lead to overall customer satisfaction over time (Cronin and Taylor 1992; Drew and Bolton 1991; Such, Lee, Park and Shin 1997).

Woodside, Fray and Daly (1989) report empirical results suggesting that consumer satisfaction is an intervening variable that mediates the relationship between service quality judgements and repurchase intentions. Their results suggest the following causal order; service quality → customer satisfaction → purchase intentions. On the other hand, based on her study of the service quality and consumer satisfaction perceptions of 145 travellers at an international airport, Bitner suggests an alternative ordering of service quality and satisfaction constructs (i.e., satisfaction→ service quality$\rightarrow$ purchase intentions). The empirical results of Cronin and Taylor's (1992) LISREL-based analyses indicate the opposite of Bitner's findings. Cronin and Taylor directly assessed the service quality/customer satisfaction relationship across four different industries: banking, pest control, dry cleaning, and fast food. Cronin and Taylor's results support Woodside *et al*'s (1989) conclusion that service quality appears to be a causal antecedent of customer satisfaction. Consistent with findings of Cronin's and Taylor's (1992) research, Such *et al* (1997) found that perceived service quality is an antecedent to customer satisfaction and repurchase intention, and customer satisfaction influences repurchase intentions directly. A similar finding was obtained in Gotlieb, Grewal and Brown's (1994) study on hospital patients. Using an identical approach of Cronin and Taylor, they found that only the quality to satisfaction path was significant.

A number of researchers maintain that rather than focusing on one, better results can be achieved for the prediction of customer behaviour, by integrating these two concepts. Taylor and Baker (1994: 173), for instance, report that "conceptualising satisfaction and service quality as acting jointly to impact on purchase behaviour increases our ability to explain more of the variance in consumers' purchase intentions than existing models". In their study it was found that the highest level of purchase intentions was observed when both service quality and customer satisfaction judgements were high. Similarly, Woodside *et al* (1989) proposed that overall consumer satisfaction with a service would be positive and substantial when the consumer perceives high service quality. These findings suggest that practically, an attempt to improve one of the constructs will improve the other. That is, in order to predict consumer behaviour better, these two constructs may need to be integrated. The causality between customer satisfaction and service quality may be relevant for the understanding of consumers' evaluation but not necessarily for managerial considerations (Iacobucci *et al* 1994).

2.6 Summary

Even though customer satisfaction has become the most frequent application of market research in the 1990s, there are a number of issues imposing difficulties on its measurement. In this sense the literature review starts with presenting several definitions of service and customer satisfaction, which are important to the development of this research. The term customer satisfaction is first examined generically and then explained within the context of tourism. There is no universally accepted definition of customer satisfaction and because no one gets the same satisfaction out of the same service consumption, defining what constitutes tourist satisfaction, seems to be difficult. To understand tourist satisfaction better, it may be best to frame the concept in terms of a tourism experience that is cumulative in nature. This cumulative view of satisfaction is logical as holiday experiences generally involve several independent components.

The focus of the next section is on the similarity and differences between satisfaction and two other related concepts, namely attitude and service quality, as it is imperative to the understanding of the satisfaction concept and to the development of the research. A critical review of the literature undertaken in this section reveals that there are two different schools of thought with respect to the similarities/ differences between customer satisfaction and service quality constructs. To some, the distinction between the two is extremely important because "service providers need to know whether their objective should be to have customers who are satisfied with their performance or to deliver the maximum level of perceived service quality" (Cronin and Taylor 1992: 56). Conversely, others argue that there is no need for such distinction and practitioners are not interested in the difference between these two constructs *per se*. Management would rather be more interested in both concepts mainly as predictors of customer behaviour, for example repeat purchase and word-of-mouth recommendations, which directly affects the viability and profitability of the firm (Dabholkar 1995).

A review of literature undertaken here demonstrates that researchers supporting the difference have failed to address what precisely are the differences between satisfaction and service quality and what does each add to understanding of and ability to predict consumer behaviour? In addition, from a management viewpoint, attempting to differentiate between the two concepts might be pointless, particularly if they do not affect consumers' post-purchase behavioural outcomes differently. Moreover, such distinction may be considered unnecessary because in most cases a positive perception of service quality enhances customer satisfaction, and a negative quality perception brings about customer dissatisfaction. At present, there is limited research evidence in the literature concerning whether service quality and customer satisfaction are operationally distinguishable. As Spreng and Mackoy (1996) quite rightly put it, if they are distinct constructs, "then we need to understand how different they are. If they are not distinct then we do not have to waste time on surveys asking for both or confuse managers by telling them they have to be concerned with both " (p. 202).

Having presented various definitions of customer satisfaction and discussed its relationship and differences with service quality, the next chapter reviews the strengths and limitations of different theories developed to explain customer satisfaction.

CHAPTER III

Consumer Satisfaction Theories

3.1 Introduction

The marketing and consumer behaviour literature has traditionally suggested that customer satisfaction is a relative concept, and is always judged in relation to a standard (Olander 1977). Consequently, in the course of its development, a number of different competing theories, based on various standards, have been postulated for explaining customer satisfaction. The theories include: the Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm (EDP), the Value-Precept Theory, the Attribution Theory, the Equity Theory, the Comparison Level Theory, the Evaluation Congruity Theory, the Person-Situation-Fit model, the Performance-Importance model, the Dissonance, and the Contrast Theory.

Early researchers, including Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (1968), Howard and Sheth (1969), and Cardozzo (1965), relied on the dissonance theory developed by Festinger (1957). Subsequent studies (Anderson 1973; Olshavsky and Miller 1972) drew on the assimilation-contrast theories proposed by Sheriff and Hovland (1961). Later, Oliver (1977), drawing on the adaptation level theory (Helson 1964), developed the Expectancy-Disconfirmation model for the study of consumer satisfaction, which received the widest acceptance among researchers. These frameworks generally imply a conscious comparison between a cognitive state prior to an event and a subsequent cognitive state, usually realised after the event is experienced (Oliver 1980). Following the introduction of the EDP, Westbrook and Reilly (1983) proposed the Value-Precept theory as a competing framework to study consumer satisfaction, arguing that what is expected from a product may not correspond to what is desired and valued in a product, and thus, values may be better comparative standards as opposed to expectations used in the EDP. In addition, Sirgy (1984) proposed the Evaluative Congruity model as another competing framework to explain consumer satisfaction. According to Chon (1992), the Evaluative Congruity Model is a better framework than the EDP because of its ability in capturing the different states of satisfaction/ dissatisfaction resulting from different combinations of expectations and performance outcome. Last decades also saw the development of a number of additional frameworks such as the Attribution Theory, Importance-Performance model, and the Equity Theory for the study of consumer satisfaction. It is important to note that some of the posited theories have received intensive attention in the literature (for example, the EDP), while others have not provoked further empirical research (Oh and Parks 1997). The following section undertakes a critical review of these theories to explain consumer satisfaction, as this is important to the development of the research.

3.2 The Dissonance Theory

The **Dissonance Theory** suggests that a person who expected a high-value product and received a low-value product would recognise the disparity and experience a cognitive dissonance (Cardozzo 1965). That is, the disconfirmed expectations create a state of dissonance or a psychological discomfort (Yi 1990). According to this theory, the existence of dissonance produces pressures for its reduction, which could be achieved by adjusting the perceived disparity. This theory holds the view that

> "postexposure ratings are primarily a function of the expectation level because the task of recognising disconfirmation is believed to be psychologically uncomfortable. Thus consumers are posited to perceptually distort expectation-discrepant performance so as to coincide with their prior expectation level" (Oliver 1977: 480).

For instance, if a disparity exists between product expectations and product performance, consumers may experience psychological tension and try to reduce it by changing their perception of the product (Yi 1990). Cardozzo argues that consumers may raise their evaluations of those products when the cost of that product to the individual is high. For example, suppose that a customer goes into a restaurant, which she or he expects to be good, and is confronted with an unappetising meal. The consumer, who had driven a long distance and paid a high price for the meal, in order to reduce the dissonance, might say that the food was not really as bad as it appeared or she likes overcooked meal, etc.

The researchers pursued this approach implicitly assuming that consumers would generally find that product performance deviated in some respect from their expectations or effort expenditures, and that some cognitive repositioning would be required (Oliver 1980). This theory has not gained much support from researchers, partly because it is not clear whether consumers would engage in such discrepancy adjustments as the model predicts in every consumption situation. In his criticism of the Dissonance Theory, Oliver (1977), for instance, argues that

> "Generally, it is agreed that satisfaction results from a comparison between X, one's expectation, and Y, product performance. Thus, it is the magnitude and direction of this difference, which affects one's post-decision affect level. X serves only to provide the comparative baseline. Moreover, consumers are under no particular pressure to resolve the X-Y difference. In fact, satisfaction/dissatisfaction is thought to arise from recognition and acknowledgement of dissonance" (p. 206).

If the Dissonance Theory holds true, then companies should strive to raise expectations substantially above the product performance in order to obtain a higher product evaluation (Yi 1990). However, the validity of this suggestion is questionable. Raising expectations substantially above the product performance and failing to meet these expectations may backfire, as small discrepancies may be largely discounted while large discrepancies may result in a very negative evaluation. This suggestion fails to take into account the concept of "tolerance level". The tolerance level suggests that purchasers are willing to accept a range of performance around a point estimate as long as the range could be reasonably expected. When perceptions of a brand performance, which are close to the norm (initial expectation), are within the latitude of acceptable performance, it may then be assimilated toward the norm (Woodruff *et al* 1983). That is, perceived performance within some interval around a performance norm is likely to be considered equivalent to the norm. However, when the distance from this norm is great enough, that is, perceived performance is outside the acceptable zone, then brand performance will be perceived as different from the norm, which, in contrast to this model's assumption, will cause dissatisfaction not a high product evaluation.

The Dissonance Theory fails as a complete explanation of consumer satisfaction, however, it contributes to the understanding of the link between performance and expectation (i.e., expectations are not static in that they may change during a consumption experience). For instance, the importance attached to pre-holiday expectations may change during the holiday and a new set of expectations may be formed as a result of experiences during the holiday. This implies that as customers progress from one encounter to the next, say from hotel's reception to the room or the restaurant, their expectations about the room may be modified due to the performance of the previous encounter (Danaher and Arweiler 1996).

3.3 The Contrast Theory

The **Contrast Theory** suggests the opposite of the Dissonance Theory. According to this theory, when actual product performance falls short of consumer's expectations about the product, the contrast between the expectation and outcome will cause the consumer to exaggerate the disparity (Yi 1990). The Contrast Theory maintains that a customer who receives a product less valuable than expected, will magnify the difference between the product received and the product expected (Cardozzo 1965). This theory predicts that product performance below expectations, will be rated poorer than it is in reality (Oliver and DeSarbo 1988). In other words, the Contrast Theory would assume that

> "outcomes deviating from expectations will cause the subject to favourably or unfavourably react to the disconfirmation experience in that a negative disconfirmation is believed to result in a poor product evaluation, whereas positive disconfirmation should cause the product to be highly appraised" (Oliver 1977: 81).

In terms of the above restaurant situation, the consumer might say that the restaurant was one of the worst he or she had ever visited and the food was unfit for human consumption.

If the Contrast Theory were applied to a consumption context, then the poor performance would be worse than simply poor, and good performance would be better than a rating of good would suggest (Oliver 1997). Under the Dissonance Theory, the opposite effects occur. Perceived performance, whether it is more or less favourable than the consumer's expectations, will be drawn to the original expectation level. It is important to note that these theories have been applied and tested in laboratory settings where the customer satisfaction was tightly controlled, situation specific and individually focused. For instance, researchers investigated the ability of these theories in predicting customer satisfaction with a pen (Cardozzo 1965), a reel-type tape recorder (Olshavsky and Miller 1972), ball-point pen (Anderson 1973), and a coffee brand (Olson and Dover 1975). Thus, it is curious whether hypotheses held by these theories could be accepted or rejected when applied in a field survey research study of hospitality and tourism services (Oh and Parks 1997). It is, for instance, not clear whether all purchase decisions, in tourism and hospitality services, result in dissonance.

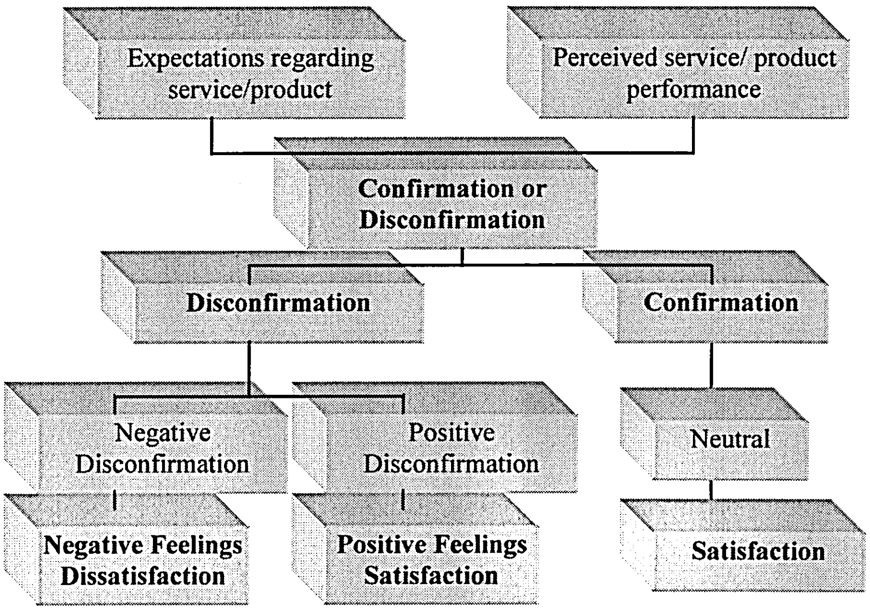
3.4 The Expectancy Disconfirmation Paradigm

Drawing on the shortcomings of the above early theories of consumer satisfaction, Oliver (1977; 1980) proposed the **Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm** (EDP) as the most promising theoretical framework for the assessment of customer satisfaction. The model implies that consumers purchase goods and services with pre-purchase expectations about the anticipated performance. The expectation level then becomes a standard against which the product is judged. That is, once the product or service has been used, outcomes are compared against expectations. If the outcome matches the expectation, *confirmation* occurs. *Disconfirmation* occurs where there is a difference between expectations and outcomes. A customer is either satisfied or dissatisfied, as a result of positive or negative difference between expectations and perceptions. Thus, when service performance is better than what the customer had initially expected, there is a positive disconfirmation between expectations and performance, which results in satisfaction. However, when service performance is as expected, there is a confirmation between expectations and perceptions which results in satisfaction (Figure 2). In contrast, when service performance is not as good as what the customer expected, there is a negative disconfirmation between expectations and perceptions, which causes dissatisfaction.

This type of discrepancy theory has a long history in the satisfaction literature dating back at least to Howard's and Sheth's (1967) definition of satisfaction which states that it is a function of the degree of congruency between aspirations and perceived reality of experiences. Porter (1961) can be credited with early empirical applications of this comparative model of customer satisfaction in the field of job satisfaction (in

Oliver 1997). In his study, Porter, for instance, compared the worker's perception of how much of a job facet (for example, pay) there should be to the worker's perception of how much of the facet is there now. In support of Porter's view, Locke (1965) proposed that this discrepancy methodology could be employed in assessing employees' job satisfaction

Figure 2. The Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm



Source: Developed from Woodruff, Ernest and Jenkins (1983).

This literature review demonstrates that in addition to job satisfaction literature this model has found a great degree of support from researchers in other disciplines, and has been widely used to evaluate satisfaction with different products and services, for example with flu treatment (Oliver 1980), with restaurant services (Bearden and Teel 1983; Cadotte, Woodruff and Jenkins 1987; Swan and Trawick 1981), with automobiles (Oliver and Swan 1989), with record players (Tse and Wilton 1989) with stock market services (Oliver and DeSarbo 1988), with video disc player (Churchill and Surprenant 1982) with hotel and holiday destination services (Barsky 1992; Barsky and Labagh 1992; Pizam and Milman 1993; Tribe and Snaith 1998; Weber 1997).

3.4.1 Inferred versus Direct Disconfirmation

It is important to note that there are basically two methods of investigating dis/confirmation of expectations. First, the *inferred approach* (or the subtractive approach) and second the *direct approach* (or the subjective approach) (Meyer and Westerbarkey 1996; Prakash and Lounsbury 1992). The *inferred approach* involves the computation of the discrepancy between expectations and evaluations of performance. This requires researchers to draw separate information relating to customer service expectations and perceived performance. These scores are then subtracted to form the third variable, the *dis/confirmation* or *difference score*. The *inferred* (subtractive) disconfirmation approach (for example, LaTour and Peat 1979), is derived from the theory of comparison (Thibaut and Kelley 1959) and assumes that the effects of a post-experience comparison on satisfaction can be expressed as a function of algebraic difference between product performance and a comparative standard. Tse and Wilton (1988) report that the *inferred approach* has found considerable support from studies in cognitive psychology where psychological variables, expressed as algebraic rules, have been found to represent human information processes over a wide variety of situations.

The *direct approach* on the other hand, requires the use of summary judgmental scales to measure dis/confirmation, such as *better than expected* to *worse than expected.* The calculation of the difference scores by the researcher, is avoided, as the respondents can be asked directly the extent to which the service experience exceeded, met or fell short of expectations. As an alternative approach, subjective disconfirmation approach represents a distinct psychological construct, encompassing a subjective evaluation of the difference between product performance and the comparison standard (Churchill and Surprenant 1982; Oliver 1980). That is, subjective disconfirmation encompasses a set of psychological processes that may mediate perceived product performance discrepancies. Tse and Wilton (1988) state that such processes are likely to be important in situations in which product performance cannot be judged discretely.

An important distinction between the *direct* and *inferred approaches* has been drawn by Oliver (1980) who suggests that "subtractive disconfirmation (inferred) may lead to an immediate satisfaction judgement, whereas subjective disconfirmation represents an intervening distinct cognitive state resulting from the comparison process and preceding satisfaction judgements" (p. 460). Hence, according to Oliver, subjective disconfirmation is likely to offer a richer explanation of the complex processes underlying customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction formation. Swan and Martin (1981) compared the ability of inferred and *direct* disconfirmation measures in predicting customer satisfaction. They found that satisfaction is more sensitive (a better predictor) to *inferred* disconfirmation than to *direct* disconfirmation, which appears to be contradicting with Tse's and Wilton's (1988) finding, which suggests that *direct* disconfirmation yields a better prediction of customer satisfaction than *inferred* disconfirmation.

Both the *inferred* and the *direct* methods of EDP have been used by hospitality and tourism researchers in various studies which assess international travellers' satisfaction levels, as well as in studies investigating customer satisfaction with hotel services (for example, Barsky 1992; Barsky and Labagh 1992; Cho 1998; Chon and Olsen 1991; Danaher and Haddrell 1996; Pizam and Milman 1993; Reisinger and Turner 1997; Reisinger and Warzyack 1996; Weber 1997; Whipple and Thach 1989). It should be recognised that, the Servqual technique, utilised by some researchers in assessing tourist satisfaction (Tribe and Snaith 1998), employs a similar algorithm to that of the inferred disconfirmation approach.

Despite its widespread popularity, however, the EDP is not free of shortcomings. The main criticisms of this approach focus on the use of expectations as a comparison standard in measuring customer satisfaction, the dynamic nature of expectations and the timing of its measurement, the meaning of expectations to respondents, the use of difference scores in assessing satisfaction, and the reliability and validity of the EDP in predicting customer satisfaction. As a detailed critical review of the Expectancy/ Disconfirmation paradigm will be undertaken in Chapter Five, the remaining section of this chapter focuses on other competitive models developed to explain customer satisfaction.

3.5 The Comparison Level Theory

A number of authors criticised the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm on the grounds that this approach posits that the primary determinant of customer satisfaction is the predictive expectations created by manufacturers, company reports, or unspecified sources (Yi 1990). For instance, La Tour and Peat (1979) argued that the EDP ignores other sources of expectations, such as the consumer's past experience and other consumer's experience with similar constructs. They proposed a modification of the Comparison Level Theory (Thibaut and Kelley 1959). In contrast to the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm which uses predictive or situationally-produced expectations as the comparison standard, the Comparison Level Theory argues that there are more than one basic determinants of comparison level for a product: (1) consumers' prior experiences with similar products, (2) situationally produced expectations (those created through advertising and promotional efforts), and (3) the experience of other consumers who serve as referent persons.

Applying the Comparison Level Theory to the confirmation/disconfirmation process, LaTour and Peat found that experience based standards, or norms, play a role as a baseline for comparisons in consumer's satisfaction judgements. They found that situationally induced expectations had little effect on the customer satisfaction, while expectations based on prior experiences were the major determinant of customer satisfaction. This finding suggests that consumers may give less weight to manufacturer-provided information, when they have personal experience and relevant information about other consumer experiences (Yi 1990). Unlike the Expectancy/ Disconfirmation paradigm, the Comparison Level Theory suggests that consumers might bring a number of different comparison standards into the consumption experience. Consumers might be more likely to use predictive expectations based on external communication (advertisement) before the purchase (in their decision-making), while different standards (for example, past experience and experiences of other consumers suggested by LaTour and Peat's model) might become more likely after the purchase. There is, however, inadequate information concerning what standards that consumers bring into the consumption experience are being dis/confirmed. Theoretical discussions aside, the use of past experience, suggested by the Comparison Level Theory as the comparison standard in customer satisfaction investigations, may allow managers to compare their performance with their rivals, and undertake required actions to catch-up or simply for product differentiation.

3.6 The Value Percept Theory

Similar to LaTour and Peat's argument, Westbrook and Reilly (1983) argue that the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm may not be the most appropriate model to explain customer satisfaction, as customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction is more likely to be determined by comparative standards other than expectations. They proposed a Value-Percept Disparity theory, originally formulated by Locke (1967), as an alternative to the Expectation-Disconfirmation paradigm. Criticising the predictive expectations, used as a comparison standard in the traditional Disconfirmation paradigm, Westbrook and Reilly argue that what is expected from a product may or may not correspond to what is *desired* or *valued* in a product. Conversely, that which is valued may or may not correspond to what is expected. Thus, values have been proposed to be a better comparative standard as opposed to expectations in explaining customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction. According to the **Value-Percept Theory** (VPT), satisfaction is an emotional response that is triggered by a cognitive evaluative process in which the perceptions of an offer are compared to one's values, needs, wants or desires (Westbrook and Reilly 1983). Similar to the Expectancy/ Disconfirmation paradigm, a growing disparity between one's perceptions and one's values (value-perception) indicates an increasing level of dissatisfaction.

In their study, Westbrook and Reilly compared the expectation-confirmation model with the value-percept disparity model. The value-disparity was defined as the extent to which the product provides the features and performance characteristics needed or desired. The disparity was assessed on a single differential scale anchored with "provides far less than my needs" and "provides exactly what I need". In contrast to their hypothesis, which states that values, as opposed to expectations, determine satisfaction, Westbrook and Reilly found that the disconfirmation of expectations had a stronger effect on satisfaction than the disparity between value and perceptions. Thus, they suggested that both constructs (expectations and values) were needed in explaining customer satisfaction, as they found neither the expectation-disconfirmation model nor the value percept model was sufficient on its own. Similarly, results of recent studies, investigating the ability of value and expectations in determining satisfaction, demonstrate that it might be better to integrate desires and expectations into a single framework, as they both affect consumer satisfaction (Spreng *et al* 1996). The Value-Percept theory which postulates satisfaction as the fulfilment of consumer desires, values, or wants, as opposed to their expectations, has not received as much support from researchers as the EDP did in ascertaining customer satisfaction with hospitality and tourism services.

3.7 The Importance- Performance Model

Although the EDP has dominated as the theoretical construct with which to measure satisfaction and that predictive expectations are regarded as the comparison standard that best explains satisfaction, the impact of attribute importance is also recognised (Barsky 1992; Martilla and James 1977; Oh and Parks 1997). Satisfaction is seen as a function of customer perceptions of performance and the importance of that attribute. Based on the expectancy-value model of Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), in which attribute importance and beliefs play a central role, Barsky (1992) posited that overall satisfaction/dissatisfaction toward a product/service is dictated by the importance of specific characteristics and the degree to which that product provides these specific characteristics. This model predicts that people generally have a belief about an attribute, but each attribute may be assigned important weighting relative to other attributes (ibid.). This implies that customers' satisfaction levels are related to the strength of their beliefs regarding attribute importance as being multiplied by how well these attributes meet their expectations (Barsky 1992) (a modified version of the EDP to measure customer satisfaction).

Researchers in marketing have used importance either as a replacement variable for consumer expectations (Martilla and James 1977) or as a weighting parameter for another variable being studied in the same decision context (Barksy 1992; Barsky and Labagh 1992; Carman 1990; Cronin and Taylor 1992; Kivela 1998; Teas 1993). One of the fundamental reasons for favouring attribute importance over expectations is that customers expect uniformly high levels of service (Brown, Churchill and Peter 1993) and customer expectations can be manipulated externally (Davidow and Uttal 1989), whereas the importance attached to product /service attributes are based on deep-seated cultural norms and personal values (Barsky 1992).

The original Importance-Performance analysis, proposed by Martilla and James (1977), maintains that satisfaction is a function of customer perceptions of performance and the importance of the attribute. Valuable information can be gained from this method (Hemmasi *et al* 1995). The importance and performance items can be mapped through an importance performance analysis. It does not involve subtraction or any other type of computation. The importance performance model has been found to be conceptually valid and a powerful technique for identifying service areas requiring remedial strategic actions (Hemmasi *et al* 1995). The importance performance analysis seems to provide a clear direction for action, as it is able to identify areas where limited sources should be focused. Consequently, practitioners lacking sophisticated computer knowledge can use importance performance mapping. Until recently, the performance importance grid analysis was considered to be an affective management tool but it lost favour where more quantitative methods became practical with computerisation (Duke and Persia 1995). Recently, multiplication of the importance score on an attribute, with the evaluative score given to the same attribute in order to create a new weighted variable, has gained a substantial popularity (ibid.).

The Weighted Importance-Performance technique has been employed to assess customer satisfaction in a number of tourism and hospitality studies (Barksy 1992; Barsky and Labagh 1992; Kivela, Inbakaran and Reece 1999). Researchers of this approach assert that the weighting of attribute performance by importance, is a powerful technique in determining customer satisfaction, however, they do not supply any empirical evidence that shows that the importance-weighted variable performs better than the original variable, which is not weighted or not multiplied with its corresponding importance. Therefore, whether the weighting attribute importance contributes to the model's diagnostic power, needs to be investigated thoroughly.

3.8 The Attribution Theory

Research of the **Attribution Theory** has been primarily developed from Weiner, Frieze and Kukla's (1971) study. It is important to note that the Attribution theory has been mostly used in dissatisfaction/ complaining behaviour models than in satisfaction models *per se*. According to this model, consumers are regarded as rational processors of information, who seek out reasons to explain why a purchase outcome, for example dissatisfaction, has occurred (Folkes 1984). This model argues that when the delivery of a service does not match customers' prior expectations or other standards, customers engage in an attributional process in order to make sense of what has occurred (Bitner 1990). More specifically, this model assumes that consumers tend to look for causes for product successes or failures and usually attribute these successes or failures using a three dimensional schema (Folkes 1989; Oliver and DeSarbo 1988; Pearce and Moscardo 1984; Weiner *et al* 1971):

- *Locus of Causality* (internal or external): This means that the purchase outcome, for example, is cause of dissatisfaction and can be attributed either to the consumer (internal) or to the marketer or something in the environment or situation (external).

- *Stability* (stable/ permanent or unstable/ temporary): Stable causes are thought not to vary over time, while unstable causes are thought to fluctuate and vary over time.

- *Controllability* (volitional/ controllable or non volitional/uncontrollable): Both consumers and firms can either have volitional control over an outcome or be under certain controllable constraints.

It is argued that under some conditions, for example, when a number of consumers find themselves in agreement about the cause of their dissatisfaction, or when the same establishment repeats their mistakes over and over again (consistency), and when only this establishment commits error (distinctiveness of the behaviour is high), *external attribution* process takes place. On the other hand, when the agreement is low and both consistency and distinctiveness are low, consumers are assumed to relate their negative reactions (dissatisfaction) to themselves (i.e., just having an "off" day) (Pearce and Moscardo 1984).

In his study, Folkes (1984) asked subjects to remember the last time they went to a restaurant, ordered something and did not like it. The subjects were further asked who had to be responsible for this (locus), whether this type of incident happens at this restaurant (stability), and whether the restaurant could prevent the problem (control). The subjects were then asked whether they would prefer a refund, exchange, or an apology. Folkes found that the subjects who felt that the problem was *restaurant related* (external) stated that they deserved a refund, exchange, or an apology. Subjects who felt the cause as stable were more likely to prefer a refund rather than an exchange, while subjects who thought that the company could have prevented the problem demonstrated high levels of anger, and showed their behavioural intentions to hurt the restaurant's business. Such feelings of anger toward the company were heightened when the responsiveness of the firm to the problem was considered less than adequate and hence resulted in negative word-of-mouth recommendations. In addition, under conditions where the consumer perceived the company to be non-responsive, they were less likely to complain to the company and more likely to use negative word-of-mouth recommendations to express their dissatisfaction. Similarly company-related (*external*) attributions elicited greater feelings of anger and desire to hurt the company than internal attributions (Folkes 1984; Richins 1985).

In the past, attribution models have been more useful in predicting consumers' reactions, when they are dissatisfied, than in explaining the satisfaction process itself (Huang and Smith 1996). However Folkes (1984) and Richins (1985) have obtained some evidence that supports a relationship between locus of causality (internal and external attributions) and satisfaction judgements. The results, especially those of Folkes', demonstrate that the locus of causality dominates satisfaction judgements and satisfaction is associated more with internal, than with external factors. Oliver and Desarbo (1988) who compared the effects of five determinants of satisfaction (expectancy, performance, disconfirmation, equity and attribution) have reported similar findings, that the attribution dimension, was the least significant of all effects in the situation tested.

Some researchers suggest the Attribution Theory as an alternative model to explain customer satisfaction, however, it seems rather like an extension of the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm because the attribution process is triggered off primarily by the negative disconfirmation of expectations. The attribution theory further appears to be more useful to apply in ascertaining customer dissatisfaction and complaining behaviour.

3.9 The Equity Theory

According to the **Equity Theory**, satisfaction exists when consumers perceive their output/input ratio as being fair (Swan and Oliver 1989). Equity models are derived from the Equity Theory (Adams 1963), and are based on the notion of input-output ratio, which plays a key role in satisfaction (Oliver and Swan 1989). According to this theory, parties to an exchange will feel equitably treated (thus, satisfied), if in their minds, the ratio of their outcomes to inputs is fair (Oliver and DeSarbo 1988). Whether a person feels equitably treated or not may depend on various factors including the price paid, the benefits received, the time and effort expended during the transaction and the experience of previous transactions (Woodruff *et al* 1983). This implies that the comparative baseline may take many different forms. This theory shares similarities with the Comparison Level Theory, which posits that bases of comparison, used by consumers in satisfaction judgements, may be more than just expectations.

Equity models of consumer satisfaction appear to be different from the other models, in that satisfaction is evaluated relative to other parties (people) in an exchange, and the outcomes of all parties sharing the same experience, are taken into consideration. Erevvels and Leavitt (1992) argue that equity models, can provide a much richer picture of consumer satisfaction in situations that may not be captured using traditional satisfaction models. For example, they may be especially useful in modelling situations, where satisfaction with the other party, is considered to be an important element of the transaction.

Translated into a tourism context, the Equity theory suggests that tourists compare perceived input-output (gains) in a social exchange: if the tourist's gain is less than their input (time, money, and other costs), dissatisfaction results (Reisinger and Turner 1997). Satisfaction is therefore, "a mental state of being adequately or inadequately rewarded" (Moutinho 1987: 34). The comparison may take other forms. The output/input ratio for a service experience may be compared to the perceived net gain of some others (such as friends) who have experienced a similar offer (Meyer and Westerbarkey 1996). According to this theory, satisfaction is seen as a relative judgement that takes into consideration both the qualities and benefits obtained through a purchase, as well as the costs and efforts borne by a consumer to obtain that purchase. Fisk and Coney (1982), for instance, found that consumers were less satisfied and had a less positive attitude toward a company, when they heard that other customers received a better price deal and better service than them. In other words, their perceptions of equitable treatment by the company, translated into satisfaction judgements, even affected their future expectations and purchase intentions.

Equity Theory applied to customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction has become accepted as an alternative way to conceptualise how comparisons work (Oliver and Desarbo 1988). Equity disconfirmation has been supported empirically, though it applies primarily to social interactions (Oliver and Swan 1989). The Equity Theory, as well as the Attribution Theory, has been proposed as satisfaction determinants, however "they have not generated the same level of interest in customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction research (as the EDP did)" (Oliver 1993: 419).

3.10 The Evaluative Congruity Theory

According to Sirgy's (1984) **Evaluative Congruity Model** (or the Social Cognition Model), satisfaction is a function of evaluative congruity, which is a cognitive matching process in which a perception is compared to an evoked referent cognition, in order to evaluate a stimulus or action. The result of this cognitive process is assumed to produce either a motivational or an emotional state. Customer satisfaction/ dissatisfaction is regarded as an emotional state because it prompts the consumer to evaluate alternative courses of action to reduce an existing dissatisfaction state and /or obtain a future satisfaction state (Sirgy 1984).

This model argues that there are three congruity states; negative incongruity, congruity, and positive incongruity. Similar to the confirmation/disconfirmation concept, negative incongruity is a cognitive state that results from a negative discrepancy between the valence levels of a perception and an evoked referent cognition, which induces dissatisfaction. Congruity is a cognitive state that leads to a non-significant or negligible discrepancy between a perception and an evoked referent cognition, which results in a neutral evaluation state or a satisfaction state. Finally, a positive incongruity-state results from a positive discrepancy between a perception and an evoked referent cognition, which generates satisfaction. Unlike the EDP, Sirgy's model views the customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction as a function of one or more congruities, between perceptual and evoked referent states, and states that the occurrence of multiple comparison processes, could explain consumer satisfaction better. More specifically, the original Evaluative Congruity Model, assumes that satisfaction may be determined by one or more cognitive congruities, such as between (1) new product performance after usage and expected product performance before use, (2) new product performance after use and old product performance before use, (3) expected product performance after purchase and ideal product performance before purchase, (4) expected product performance after purchase and deserved product performance after use. Such discrepancies are argued to independently influence consumer's overall satisfaction with a given product (Sirgy 1984).

One of the most important features of the Evaluative Congruity Theory, seems to be its ability in explaining the different states of satisfaction/dissatisfaction resulting from different combinations of expectations and performance outcome (Chon 1992; Chon, Christianson and Cin-Lin 1998). It would be appropriate here to recall that the traditional Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm, holds the view that the level of resulting satisfaction will, be the same in both cases where, low expectations are met by low performance and high expectations are met by high performance. According to the Evaluative Congruity Theory, however, different expectation-performance combinations (high expectation/high performance; low expectation/low performance) would result in different satisfaction states (Chon and Olsen 1991; Chon 1992; Chon *et al* 1998; Sirgy 1994).

For instance, Chon (1992) and Chon *et al* (1998), based on the Evaluative Congruity Theory, postulated that under a positive incongruity condition, in which the tourist expectation of a given service performance is negative but his/her perceived outcome is positive, the tourist would be most satisfied. Indeed, their results revealed that when the tourist's expectation of a destination was negative but the perceptions were positive the tourist was most satisfied, whereas when the tourist's expectations were positive and perceptions were positive, the level of satisfaction was moderate. In addition, when the tourist's expectations were negative and perceptions were negative, the satisfaction was lower than the first two congruity conditions, and when the tourist expectations were positive but the perceptions were negative, the tourist was least satisfied. These findings provides some degree of support for the underlying assumption of the Evaluative Congruity Theory which suggests that different states of satisfaction may result from different combinations of expectations and performance perceptions.

In addition, Sirgy further postulated that product images should be classified as being functional (i.e. physical benefits associated with the product) and symbolic (i.e., self image) and argues that customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction is not only an evaluative function of the consumer's expectations and performance, but it is also an evaluative function of the consumer's self image and product image congruity. Chon and Olsen (1991), in their study on tourist satisfaction with destinations, found some evidence supporting the view that the consumer decision making process, involves the evaluation of not only the functional attributes of a product (the availability of suitable accommodation) but also personality related attributes. They found that functional congruity explained customer satisfaction better than symbolic congruity.

It is important to note that although Evaluative Congruity model has been offered as an alternative way to explain satisfaction process, its methodological mechanism is analogous to that of the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm (Oh and Parks 1997). That is, both the Evaluative Congruity and Expectation-Disconfirmation models are based on the disconfirmation concept, which presupposes that customers form expectations about the product prior to purchase, and compare these expectations against perceived performance, after the product is used. Both models, however, may not be suitable to apply in consumption situations where customers do not have pre-purchase expectations such as with unfamiliar products.

3.11 The Person-Situation-Fit Concept

It has been also noted that tourist satisfaction can be explained by the **Person-Situation Fit** concept (Pearce and Moscardo 1984). This concept argues that people deliberately seek situations, which they feel match their personalities and orientations. The implication of this idea may become particularly appropriate to tourist settings where individuals make a conscious choice to visit a specific tourist destination (Reisinger and Turner 1997). This principle states that the optimal fit between tourists and their environment occurs when the attributes of their environment are congruent with their beliefs, attitudes, and values, as in the case of Value-Percept Disparity model. When the activities available in the environment fit the activities, which are sought and valued by the tourists, the satisfaction occurs. Where values and value orientations do not fit, mismatch can lead to feelings of stress, anxiety, uncertainty and result in dissatisfaction (Pearce and Moscardo 1984). As the degree of fit increases, tourist satisfaction also increases. This concept has been applied generally in tourist motivation studies. The assessment of the environment-fit concept involves a similar approach adopted in the EDP and the VPT. It requires measuring specific expectations, or needs, prior to a vacation, and subsequently examining vacation satisfaction in light of whether these expectations or needs were met on the vacation (Lounsburry and Hoopes 1985). However, this approach is static and cannot accommodate the dynamic nature of expectations and needs, which might differ during the service experience.

3.12 Summary

This chapter presents and discusses a number of frameworks developed to explain customer satisfaction in the literature. The theories explicated in this chapter include the Dissonance Theory, the Contrast Theory, the Expectancy-Disconfirmation Theory, the Comparison Level Theory, the Value-Percept Theory, the Attribution Theory, The Equity theory, the Person-Situation Fit concept, and the Importance-Performance model. There is widespread consensus among these satisfaction theories that satisfaction is an evaluative judgement, which results from a comparison of product performance to some forms of evaluation standard. The majority of these theories, for example the Expectancy Disconfirmation Paradigm, the Comparison Level Theory, and the Evaluative Congruity Theory concur that product performance exceeding prior expectations or some form of standards signifies satisfaction, whereas dissatisfaction is the outcome when product performance falls short of that standard. Thus, the disparity concept, between the actual outcome and the expected, constitutes the core of the majority of the satisfaction theories.

Early theories of the satisfaction concept, assume that consumers may either exaggerate (the Contrast Theory) or adjust (the Dissonance Theory) the perceived disparity between the product performance and the initial expectations or the norm. As these early theories have not been applied in tourism and hospitality settings, the validity of their assumptions remains unclear. Based on the logic of the Dissonance Theory, some researchers suggest that in order to have a higher product evaluation, companies should raise customer expectations substantially above the product performance. This assumption is criticised on the grounds that it does not take into account the concept of tolerance levels. Drawing on these two early satisfaction theories, Oliver developed the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm which postulates that if the outcome of a product is judged to be better than, or equal to, the expected, the consumer will feel satisfied. If, on the other hand, actual outcome is judged not to be better than expected, the consumer will be dissatisfied. The EDP has gained growing support from researchers and it has become the most widely applied framework in studies assessing customer satisfaction with tourism and hospitality services.

The last few decades have seen the development of other models to explain customer satisfaction. In contrast to EDP which assumes satisfaction resulting from disconfirmation of predictive expectations, LaTour and Peat's (1979) Comparison Level Theory views satisfaction as a function of comparison between product performance and consumers' past experiences and experiences of other consumers. Westbrook and Riley (1983) introduced the Value-Percept Theory which proposes that satisfaction is an emotional response, that is triggered by a cognitive evaluative process, in which the perceptions of an offer are compared to one's values, needs, wants or desires, in contrast to expectations suggested in Oliver's EDP model. Sirgy's Evaluative Congruity Model views satisfaction as a function of evaluative congruity, which is a cognitive matching process, in which a perception is compared to an evoked referent cognition for the purpose of evaluating a stimulus object/action. The Importance-Performance model, borrowed from Fishbein and Ajzen's consumer behaviour model, and adapted to hospitality services by Barsky, assumes that consumer satisfaction is a function of beliefs about an object's attributes (that is a product possesses a particular attribute) and the strength of these belief (that is, the relative importance of each attribute to the customer's overall satisfaction with the product or service).

As stated earlier, the majority of these theories suggest that customer satisfaction is a relative concept and judged in relation to a standard. While several comparison standards have been proposed in the literature, no consensus exists concerning which standard might be the most appropriate (which standard best predicts customer satisfaction) (Cote, Foxman and Cutler 1989; Erevelles and Leavitt 1992). To this end, the following chapter presents current discussions pertaining to expectations and other alternative comparative baselines, that have been used to explain the formation of satisfaction judgement.

CHAPTER IV

Comparison Standards Issue in Consumer Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction Research

4.1 Introduction

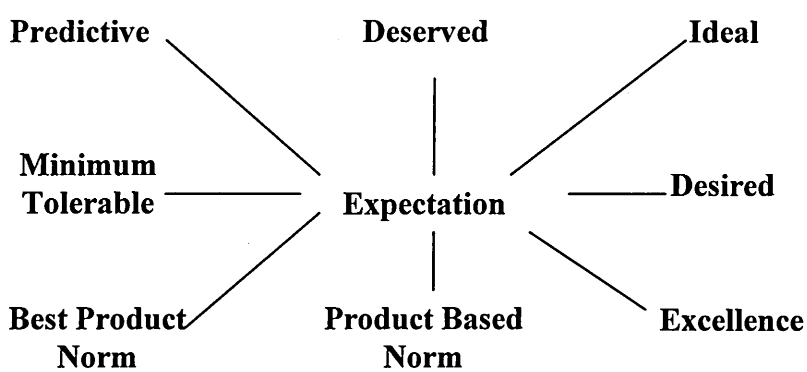
The measurement of satisfaction in the most realistic way is a prerequisite for accurate prediction of consumer behaviour and the development of a robust management strategy. Previous chapters sought to define customer satisfaction and attempted to explain the concept further. Chapter Three presented different competing approaches that have been developed to explain customer satisfaction/ dissatisfaction. Review of literature undertaken in the previous chapter highlighted that, although the consumer satisfaction measurement literature is in a state of debates, one of the few aspects of customer satisfaction, on which there is widespread agreement, is that the state of satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a reaction to a comparison (Oliver 1989) (i.e., a perceived experience is compared against a standard or standards). Several standards have been proposed in the literature, for example, predictive expectations, norms, past experience, experiences of others, desires and ideals (Figure 3), however, no consensus exists concerning which standard might be most appropriate (which standard best predicts customer satisfaction).

Theoretically, the comparative standard issue is extremely important because different types of standards, may yield different levels, against which perceived experience is compared (Woodruff, Cleanop, Schumm, Godial, and Burns 1991). It is important to note that respondents are likely to be sensitive to the type of the standard used in customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction research, which in, turn might impact on the resultant level of customer satisfaction, obtained by the researcher. Olander (1979) observed this and suggested that responses to measures will be sensitive to the type of disconfirmation standard being used and that, it was artificial to apply a common yardstick, when people use their own criteria for evaluation. In order to illustrate how the use of different type of standards might impact on satisfaction, Woodruff *et al* provide a very interesting example. In this case, a company has changed the wording of a disconfirmation question by asking respondents to rate perceived brand performance, relative to that of a competitor, instead of relative to expected performance and got different results (i.e., satisfaction score obtained from averaging comparison of performance against competitors was different from that of expectations). Strictly speaking, if satisfaction ratings are contingent on which standard is used, "then historical commitment to expectancy disconfirmation by the academics and practitioners may be detrimental to advancing knowledge critical to understanding customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction" (Woodruff *et al* 1991). To this end, the following section presents current discussions, pertaining to expectations and other alternative comparative baselines, that have been used to explain the formation of satisfaction judgement.

4.2 Expectations

Almost every model of satisfaction formation process, for example, the Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm, the Comparison Level Theory, and the Evaluative Congruity Theory, maintains that feeling of satisfaction arise when consumers compare their perceptions of a product performance to their expectations. A variety of conceptualisations of expectation exist in the literature (Woodruff *et al* 1991) (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Forms of expectation used in research studies



Source: Derived from the literature

In general, the term expectation is used to mean pre-consumption beliefs about the overall performance of the product, created by manufacturer's claims or product information, while others view it differently. Customer expectations represent a norm against which performance is compared and they take many forms, varying from some minimum tolerable level of performance, through to some concept of the ideal or perfect service (Ennew, Reed and Binks 1993). As understanding of comparison standards is imperative in the development of the research, the following section presents different conceptual definitions and use of expectations in research studies. The comparative standards being discussed are the predictive, deserved, desired, minimum tolerable, ideal, excellence, best product norm, product-based norm, and zone of indifference (Figure 3).

4.2.1 The Expectations-as-Predictions Standard

Customer expectations have been investigated in a number of research fields but have received the most thorough treatment in the customer satisfaction/ dissatisfaction and service quality literature (Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman 1993). In the literature, the concept of expectations has been viewed as a baseline against which subsequent experiences are compared and result in the evaluation of satisfaction or quality. Expectations involve the consumer's estimate at the time of purchase or, prior to usage, of how well or poorly the product will supply the benefits, that are of interest, to the consumer (Day 1977; Olson and Dover 1979). Expectations are "consumer-defined probabilities of occurrence of positive and negative events if the consumer engages in some behaviour" (Oliver 1981: 33).

Some researchers consider expectations as primary perceptions of the likelihood (or probability of occurrence), while others maintain that expectations consist of an estimate of the likelihood of an event plus an evaluation of goodness and badness of that event (Spreng, Mackenzie and Olshavsky 1996). Oliver (1981: 33), for instance, states that "expectations have two components: a probability of occurrence (for example, the likelihood that the staff will be available to wait on customers in the restaurant) and an evaluation of occurrence (for example, the degree to which staff are attentive)". In contrast, Spreng and Dixon (1992) argue that expectations should be conceptualised as beliefs and not as evaluations. Applications in which expectations are regarded as predictions, made by customers about what is *likely* to happen during an impending transaction or exchange, has become dominant in the customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction literature.

In his classification of expectations, Miller (1977) called this standard *the expected standard*, which he defined as an objective calculation of probability of performance, and which he contrasted with three other types of expectations; *deserved, ideal* and *minimum acceptable*. Others termed this standard *predictive expectation*, which may be described as estimates of anticipated performance (Prakash 1984; Swan and Trawick 1980). Predictive expectations have been found to have a direct positive effect on satisfaction (Oliver 1980, 1981; Tse and Wilton 1988) and an indirect effect through disconfirmation. Expectations have a direct positive effect on satisfaction because "without observing the performance, expectations may have already predisposed the consumer to respond to the product in a certain way (the higher the expectations, the higher the satisfaction or vice versa)" (Oliver 1997: 89). Recall that a similar notion is held by the Dissonance Theory discussed in Chapter Two.

Expectations, as prediction standards, have been employed as a form of comparison baseline in a number of tourism and hospitality research studies. For instance, Pizam and Milman (1993) asked first-time travellers' predictive expectations about Spain. Weber (1997) used predictive expectations as a comparison standard in her study on German tourists in Australia, while Hughes (1991) and Whipple and Thach (1989) measured respondents' predictive expectations in their research on tourist satisfaction with organised tours. Similarly, Duke and Persia (1996) and Tribe and Snaith (1998), in their studies on tourist satisfaction with organised tour industry, used predictive expectations (for example, I expect we will see as much as possible) as the comparison standard.

A number of researchers in the marketing and consumer behaviour literature, adopt a different notion of expectations, that equate standards with levels of performance different from that expected from the focal object. Prakash (1984), for instance, proposed *normative expectations*, i.e., how a brand *should* perform in order for the consumer to be completely satisfied. Miller (1977) suggested different expectation categories, such as *ideal expectations*, *minimum tolerable*, and *deserved* that would clearly lead to different comparative standard levels. The following section explicates each of these alternate comparative standards.

4.2.2 The Expectations-as-Deserved Level Standard

The *deserved level* has been viewed as a type of equity that involves an evaluation of the consumer's input and outputs without any other comparison. Deserved level conveys "what the individual, in the light of his investments, feels performance ought to be or should be" (Miller 1977: 76). The Equity Theory, explained in the previous chapter, bases its conceptualisation of customer satisfaction on this comparison standard. It proposes that a consumer evaluates the benefits received from a brand in relation to its cost (price and effort) and then, compares this ratio with the corresponding cost/benefit ratio realised by some other relevant person (for example, the seller, a friend). The basis for comparison, in this case, becomes the degree of equity which consumers perceive between what they achieved and what the other person achieved.

Results concerning the ability of this comparison standard in explaining customer satisfaction are contradictory. Investigating the relationship between the *deserved level* standard and dependent variables such as satisfaction, Oliver and DeSarbo (1988) found that equity influences satisfaction. Fisk and Coney (1982) and Tse and Wilton (1988), however, did not find any relation between this standard and the dependent variables, and consequently drew the conclusion that the deserved level standard (equity) is not a good operationalisation of comparison standard (in Randal and Senior 1996).

4.2.3 The Expectations-as-Minimum Tolerable Level

Another form of expectations is the *minimum tolerable* level (Miller 1977). That is, the least acceptable level, for example "it is better than nothing". This level reflects the minimum level that the respondent feels the performance *must be*. The use of minimum tolerable level as a comparison standard is, however, challenged. According to Linjander and Strandvick (1993), the consumer will not be satisfied just because the performance is above the minimum tolerance level. If performance is above the minimum tolerance level but below the predicted level, the consumer will feel dissatisfied. Consumers can be expected to have minimum requirements for certain attributes, for example that there has to be a parking space beside a restaurant (Nightingale 1986). However, consumers are not likely to consider (and certainly not buy) a product which is perceived as below the *minimum acceptable level* (Oliver 1980b). This suggests that unless a product is grossly overestimated or was a cost-free acquisition, the *must be* (minimum acceptable) criterion may not be a consideration (ibid.).

4.2.4 The Expectations-as -Desired Standards

A number of satisfaction frameworks explicated in Chapter Three (for example, the Value-Percept Disparity Theory and the Evaluative Congruity Theory) suggest that customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction is more likely to be determined by how well a brand performance fulfils the innate *needs, wants, or desires* of the consumer, rather than the extent to which the brand's performance compares with pre-purchase predictions, as held by the Expectancy Disconfirmation theory. Note that the main argument of these theories was that, what is expected from a product, may or may not correspond to what is desired or valued in a product (Westbrook and Reilly 1983).

The desired and predicted expectations are seen to be different from one another. Desires are present-oriented and stable, whereas expectations are future-oriented and relatively malleable (Spreng *et al* 1996). The *predictive expectations* are "the consumer's pre-usage estimate of the performance level that the product is anticipated to achieve on specific attributes" (Swan, Trawick and Carrol 1982: 15). In contrast, desired expectations are seen as the consumer's pre-usage specification of the level of product performance, that would be necessary in order to satisfy or please the consumer (ibid.).

In essence, this class of standard deals with the performance that is desired or wanted and is not necessarily constrained by past performance (Spreng and Dixon 1992). Empirical tests on desires, as a standard, have been somewhat limited and contradictory. The results of Swan and Trawick's (1979) research suggest that only confirmation of desired expectations would lead to satisfaction, while the confirmation of predictive expectations, would lead to indifference. In a recent study, Swan *et al* (1991) measured both expectations and desires and found that when the performance of the product was greater than or equal to desires, satisfaction was higher. In a study of student satisfaction with a course, Barbeau (1984) found desires disconfirmation to have the strongest effect (B= .46), past experience disconfirmation the next strongest (B= .34) and expectation disconfirmation was non significant (B= .005)

In their Value-Percept Disparity theory, Westbrook and Reilly (1983) proposed that consumers' desires or values might influence the appraisal of perceived performance. Their theoretical argument seems compelling, but the empirical results of the study did not support their argument. They found that the expectation congruency had a stronger effect on satisfaction than did the desire congruency. The results of Spreng's and Olshavsky's (1993) recent study suggest that the extent to which product/service performance, is congruent with desires, is a powerful antecedent to satisfaction, while the effect of disconfirmation of expectations is non-significant. Myers (1991) tested expected versus wanted disconfirmation with car buyers and found that though both had a significant effect on satisfaction, the impact of wanted disconfirmation was stronger. Meyer concluded that what consumers *want* makes a better standard (i.e. more useful in predictions) than their expectations. Investigating the effect of these two on consumer satisfaction Spreng *et al* (1996) have recently concluded that desires and expectations need to be integrated into a single framework because both are found to influence satisfaction.

4.3.5 The Expectations-as -Ideal Standards

A second standard that can be included in the desires category is the *ideal performance standard.* This standard often deals with the performance that is the best imaginable or relates to an abstract ideal (Spreng and Dixon 1992). Ideal expectations are defined as the "wished for" level of performance (Miller 1977). The ideal performance standard may correspond to *perfection,* or it could represent "my most desired combination of attributes" (Iacobucci *et al* 1994). Overly demanding consumers might be the ones who compare their experiences to *ideal standards,* and practically speaking, in such situations, a manager has no hope of exceeding such standards (ibid.).

In an early study, Liechty and Churchill (1979) compared Miller's (1977) four conceptualisations of expectations (predictive, ideal, deserved, and minimum acceptable) as to their applicability to services. They argue that the minimum tolerable and deserved expectations are best suited for services, while the *ideal expectations* are only "weakly appropriate for services because services are not easily quantified or averaged" (p.10). Tse and Wilton (1988) found that ideal performance did not have a direct effect on satisfaction. Rather it indirectly affected performance and this had a negative effect on satisfaction. In fact, whether this standard is actually used by consumers and, under which conditions, remains unclear (Spreng and Dixon 1992).

4.2.6 The Expectations-as-Experience Based Standards

Some researchers argue that while expectations may be quite helpful in making a purchase choice, they may have much less impact on a post-use appraisal of a product or a service (Woodruff *et al* 1991). As consumers often have experiences with more than the focal object, experiences with other brands, other products, and services are also likely to play a role in the dis/confirmation comparison. As predicted by the Comparison Level Theory, the typical or last received performance of a brand may set the standard for appraising perceived performance of the focal brand.

Consumers with extensive experience with the product category might use one of the experience-based norms, such as average performance, favourite or last used, as a standard, while those who have little experience may use what others have received, what is promised or their expectations (Spreng and Dixon 1992). Prior experience is probably the most important determinant of consumer satisfaction because personal experience is more vivid and salient (LaTour and Peat 1980). In a similar line, Van Raaij and Francken (1984) comment that one's own earlier experience or the experience of others, serves as the baseline for social comparison that determines levels of satisfaction. Using a similar line of thought, Mazursky (1989:335) argues that in the context of tourism "the assessment of performance may be more profound and could cause a retrieval of memories from past experiences and norms which may function as comparison baselines". "Our experiences and resultant generalisations from them can be weighted more heavily than any information received. This is due, in part, to the fact that as our decision criteria strengthened, our need for information is weakened" ([Mill and Morrison 1984: 11] in Mazursky 1989). These arguments imply that past experience might be a significant comparison baseline against which customers compare their current experiences.

Applying Thibaut's and Kelley's (1959) Comparison Level Theory to the confirmation / disconfirmation process, LaTour and Peat found that experience based standards or norms, play a role as a baseline for comparisons in consumers' satisfaction judgements. In their study, LaTour and Peat (1979) conceptualised satisfaction as an additive function of positive and/or negative disconfirmations of perceived attribute levels, obtained from a brand and the corresponding levels of those attributes. LaTour and Peat proposed that the *comparison level* could be influenced "by perceived capabilities of brands other than the one purchased and used". Thus, it is possible to consider that the bases of comparison used by consumers may be "more than just expectations" (Woodruff *et al* 1983: 297). That is, satisfaction may not be totally dependent on whether a brand performance meets or exceeds predicted performance. Standards in the form of experience based norms, along with predictive expectations, may also have a role in the formation of satisfaction judgements. Reviewed literature suggests that there are at least two different types of experience based norms: brand based and product based (Cadotte *et al* 1987, Woodruff *et al* 1983). The following section explains these standards in turn.

4.2.6.1 The Expectations-as-Brand Based Standard

Brand-based norms are those operating when one brand dominates a consumer's set of brand experiences. This norm might be "the typical performance of a particular brand, for example a consumer's most preferred brand, a popular brand, or last purchased brand" (Cadotte *et al* 1987: 306). For example, when appraising the dining experience in a new restaurant, a consumer may apply a norm that is the typical performance of another favourite restaurant. Cadotte and colleagues maintain that focal brand expectations may correspond to this norm, but only if the focal brand is also the brand, from which the standard is derived, such as when a consumer dines in his or her favourite restaurant. In all other cases, Cadotte *et al* (1987) claim that the norm is necessarily different from expectations because the norm is derived from an experience with a different brand. That is, these experiences "form a distribution along an overall performance dimension" (Woodruff *et al* 1983: 298). The actual norm is then drawn from this distribution and is represented by the most likely performance of a brand or the most frequent performance of a brand (*ibid.*).

4.2.6.2 The Expectations-as-Product Based Standards

Another kind of norm suggested, is the product based norm, which is supposed to be operative when a consumer has had experiences with several brands of a product type, within a product class, but has no desired reference brand, because all brands in that product category are similar (Cadotte et al 1987). Here the norm performance might develop from a pooling of experience across the similar product brands. The reference norm is assumed to be some level of performance, drawn from this distribution, such as the most likely or the most frequent level of performance. Woodruff *et al* argue that because an individual's brand experiences can vary so much, different norms are likely to be used by different people in similar situations. For instance, one kind of norm may be used to determine satisfaction with a restaurant visited for a special occasion, whereas another might be applied when the family goes out for a meal (*ibid*). Another interesting assumption made by these authors is that for some consumers, and in some situations, more than one norm may influence confirmation/disconfirmation. Multiple norms, according to these authors, are most likely to emerge during important events such as driving a recently purchased automobile, visiting a restaurant on an anniversary, or taking a long awaited vacation. In these situations the consumer is consciously and extensively assessing the brand use experience (ibid.).

4.2.6.3 The Experience-Based Norms: Is this the way forward?

Experience-based norms are another type of comparison standard proposed in the literature. This standard recognises that consumers have often experiences with more than the focal object, such as those with other brands, other products and or other services. These broad experiences are likely to play a role in disconfirmation comparisons. For example, the typical or last received performance of a favourite brand (a favourite restaurant) may set the standard for appraising the perceived performance of the focal brand (for example, a dining experience in a new restaurant). In general there can be several different norm standards (brand-based, product-based) against which perceived performance may be compared to, and depending on the situation, consumers may use one or a combination of these norms in their comparisons.

The concept of experience-based norms is relatively new. A few studies have tested its validity and these revealed contradicting results. For example, Thirkell and Vredenburg (1982) found no significant relationships between prior experience and new product choice satisfaction. In contrast, Westbrook and Newman (1987) pointed out that people with previous experience, developed more moderate expectations and rated greater satisfaction than did people without previous experience. Similarly, LaTour and Peat (1980) reported that confirmation of the past experience standard, was a stronger predictor of satisfaction than that of predictive expectations. In an earlier study carried out by Cadotte, Woodruff and Jenkins (1982), experience based evaluations of a comparison brand were better predictors of satisfaction than evaluations using focal brand expectations. Similarly, in a subsequent study, Cadotte *et al* (1987:313) reported that the product norm model and best brand norm model are "consistently better than the brand expectation model at explaining variation in satisfaction feelings and total model fit".

One of the strengths of incorporating experience-based standards into the assessment of satisfaction could be, its ability in capturing the relative performance of the company, in comparison to other companies in the same product/service category. Surprisingly, there has been no attempt made to incorporate experience-based standards into tourist satisfaction assessments. Such comparative approaches could be of significance in the long-term success of tourism and hospitality services, as it serves to identify relative strengths and weaknesses. It might be possible that experience of competing destinations may influence the standards against which the current destination is being judged. This implies that when assessing tourist satisfaction, the performance relative to rivals, should also be taken into account. From a managerial point of view, the information derived from the use of experience-based standards may be crucial, as what counts for the short and long term success is not only the absolute product performance attained by the company/destination, but also its performance relative to its competitors.

4.2.7 The Expectations-as- Excellence Standard

In addition to its use in customer satisfaction literature, the expectations construct has also been viewed as playing a central role in consumer evaluations of service quality (Brown and Swartz 1989; Gronroos 1984; Lehtinen and Lehtinen 1991; Parasuraman *et al* 1985), which, as already explained in the second chapter, adds to the confusion between customer satisfaction and service quality constructs. Its meaning in the service quality literature is similar to the *ideal standard* in the customer satisfaction literature (Zeithaml *et al* 1993). Service quality researchers regard expectations as desires or wants of customers, i.e., what they feel a service provider *should* offer rather than *would* offer (Parasuraman *et al* 1988). Note that both the desires and wants are also used in the assessment of customer satisfaction (for example, the Value-Percept Disparity theory). In an attempt to differentiate service quality from satisfaction, Parasuraman *et al* later changed the wording of their standards to excellent companies. Excellence, however, is not markedly different from several other standards used in customer satisfaction literature. Zeithaml *et al* (1993), for instance, employed *excellence* as the comparison standard in identifying service quality, and defined it in terms of what the consumers want or need. However from their usage, it is not clear whether this is anchored to consumer values or to past experience, for example if a consumer defines it as what the best firm provides, "then this is clearly an experience based norm" (Spreng and Dixon 1992: 88), and not different from best-brand norm used in the customer satisfaction literature.

4.2.8 The Expectations-as-Zones of Indifference

A recent development in research of customer satisfaction and service quality is to consider expectations and evaluations as "zones of tolerance" (Randall and Senior 1996). Anderson (1973) introduced this concept into the consumer satisfaction literature arguing that, purchasers are willing to accept a range of performance around a point estimate, as long as the range could be reasonably expected (in Oliver 1997) (for example a 30-minute pizza delivery in a realistic range of 20 to 45 minutes). Poiesz and Blomer (1991) suggest that expectations and evaluations should be expressed as zones and not as discrete points on a scale. They argue that customers might not be capable of giving precise point estimates. In line with Bloemer and Poiesz (1991), Woodruff *et al* (1983) argue that perceptual limitations of people can cause some *imprecision* when the confirmation-disconfirmation cognition is made. An alternative rationale is derived from the Assimilation (Contrast) Theory. Perceptions of a brand performance, which are close to the norm, are within the latitude of acceptable performance, and may even be assimilated towards the norm. That is, perceived performance within some interval around a performance norm, is likely to be considered equivalent to the norm. However, when the distance from the norm is great enough (perceived performance is outside the latitude of acceptance), brand performance is perceived as different from the norm. Perceived performance that is below or above the norm, but within the indifference zone, leads to confirmation, and difference causes disconfirmation. Positive and negative disconfirmation is argued to result when, perceived performance is outside the zone and is different enough from the norm to be noticed.

Perceived brand performance within the zone of indifference probably does not cause much attention to be directed toward the evaluation process. Moreover, brand performance, which is close to the norm, is likely to be usual occurrence. In contrast, perceived brand performance, outside the zone of indifference is unusual and attention getting. When this condition occurs, "the satisfaction process is more likely to be raised to a conscious level and thus evoke a positive or negative emotional response" (Woodruff *et al* 1983: 300). Parasuraman *et al* (1991) attempted to measure the "zone of tolerance" by computing the difference between *desired level* and *adequate level* of expectations. The desired expectations refer to what they hope to receive, a blend of what can and should be, which is a function of past experience (Lewis 1990). The adequate level refers to what is acceptable which is based on an assessment of what the service will be (the predicted service), and depends on the alternatives which are available. Although it seems intuitively appealing, the operationalisation of zone of difference was found to be practically difficult.

4.3 Single versus Multiple Standards

Thus far, this discussion suggests that no single model or unique comparison process fully explains consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction judgements. Some researchers suggest that a better description of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction should include the occurrence of multiple processes and multiple standards of comparison (Erevelles and Leavitt 1992). Indeed, recent conceptualisations of customer satisfaction (Tse and Wilton 1988) have considered that customer satisfaction is a post-choice process involving complex, and simultaneous interactions with which may involve more than one comparison standard.

Cadotte *et al* (1987), for instance, developed and examined alternative customer satisfaction models involving different standards of comparison. Their Product Norm model and Best Brand Norm model were consistently better than the brand expectation (prediction) model at explaining the variation in explaining satisfaction feelings and total model fit. These different norms (best brand, product based and predictive expectations) were, however, moderately correlated, suggesting that "they share a common core but that each also has a unique component" (Zeithaml 1993: 2). Using path analysis, Tse and Wilton (1988) quantified the influence of both predicted and ideal expectations. They concluded

> "more than one comparison standard may be involved in customer satisfaction formation because both expectations (prediction) and ideal relate individually to satisfaction. Expectations and ideal appear to represent different constructs contributing separately to the customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction formation process. The single standard models fail to represent the underlying process adequately in comparison with a multiple standard paradigm" (p: 209-10).

Oliver and Desarbo (1988) observed the combined effects of various variables in the satisfaction/ dissatisfaction formation process. They suggested that disconfirmation, though objective, may be subjected to psychological interpretations that may dominate under certain conditions. These findings suggest the occurrence of a multiple comparison process including complex interactions, which may take place either sequentially or simultaneously.

Similarly, Sirgy's Evaluative Congruity model (1984) suggests the occurrence of multiple comparison processes could explain consumer satisfaction better. In his model, Sirgy (1984) argues that (in)congruities may take place between different perceptual and evoked referent states. Such (in)congruities may take place between (1) new product performance after usage and expected product performance before use, (2) new product performance after use and old product performance before use, (3) expected product performance after purchase and ideal product performance before purchase, (4) expected product performance after purchase and deserved product performance after use. In his empirical test, Sirgy (1984) found that each of these congruities significantly influenced customer satisfaction separately and jointly. Similar observations have been reported by Cadotte *et al* (1987), suggesting that comparison standards are multidimensional, as consumers use a standard that is a weighted composite of various other standards. This multidimensional standard may be formed from past experience including experience with the focal brand and with competing brands.

Boulding, Karla, Staelin and Zeithaml (1993) have proposed two types of prior expectations that might have a combined and a separate impact on satisfaction. These are *will* and *should* expectations. They defined will expectations as those characteristics of the service that consumers consider likely to occur. Thus, these researchers define *will* expectations as *predictive*, as referred to by Tse and Wilton (1988) who defined expectations as the most likely performance, affected both by the average product performance and by advertising. Boulding *et al* (1993) define *should expectations* as those characteristics of service that consumers "*would consider to be reasonable*". Thus they define the should expectation as a consumer's judgement of a more realistic norm. Their study suggests that a firm should increase the will expectations and decrease the should expectations in order to raise the quality perceptions.

4.3.1 Multiple standards: Is this the way forward?

Although some studies suggest that multiple standards be used in the formation of customer satisfaction judgements, the measurement of multiple standards seems to be problematic. The use of multiple standards requires researchers to design multiple scales, one for each type of standard (Woodruff *et al* 1991). This might make the task of answering the questions rather tedious for respondents, not to mention risking response bias across the questions. There is, for example, a great probability that respondents, bored by rating three identical set of questions, may tend to choose the same rating for all questions. Such evidence is found in Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry's (1994) recent study. The authors acknowledge that despite the three-column format questionnaire's (two comparison standards and perceived performance) superior diagnostic value, the administration of the whole questionnaire may pose practical difficulties. Childress and Crompton (1997) report that any approach, which incorporates the assessment of two or more standards and involves performance perception measurement, has response error problems. The questionnaires may appear long and repetitious to the respondents since they are required to complete the same set of items three times at one sitting. William (1998) emphasises that people became anxious when confronted with the length of such questionnaires, their anxiety towards keeping the rest of their party waiting and wasting their leisure times. The expansion of the instrument to three columns, (two standards and performance measures) to allow for the " zone of tolerance" data to be collected, appears to exacerbate this problem.

4.4 Sources of Expectations

Although expectation has been the dominant comparison baseline in assessments of customer satisfaction, the source(s) of consumer expectations has been relatively unexplored (Zeithaml *et al* 1993). Very little research has focused on how consumers form expectations, on the variables that impact upon customer expectations, and the extent to which the variables influence expectations (Clow, Kurtz and Ozment 1996).

Cadotte *et al* (1987) suggest that experience is a source of the expectation norm. They suggest that the norm may be derived from the typical performance of a particular brand (the favourite brand, the last purchased and the most popular brand). Also the norm might be based on perceptions of an average performance that is believed to be typical of a group of similar brands (a product-type norm). Based on results of a series of focus group interviews, Zeithaml and her colleagues (1990: 19-20) found five different sources influencing customers' expectation formation. First, what customers hear from other customers and word-of-mouth communication, was found to be a potential determinant of expectations. Second, respondents' expectations appeared to vary somewhat depending on customers' individual characteristics and circumstances, suggesting that the personal needs of customers might moderate their expectations to a certain degree. Third, it was found that the extent of past experience with using a service could also influence customers' expectation levels. Fourth, external communications from service providers, for example advertising, was found to play a key role in shaping customer expectations. Another factor influencing customer expectations was the price, whose influence on expectations could be grouped under the general influence of company's external communications. In their study on restaurants, Clow *et al* (1996) state that primary antecedents of customer expectations of a restaurant are the image consumers have of the restaurant, satisfaction with the last service experience, word-of-mouth, tangible characteristics of the restaurant, price structure of the menu, the availability and accessibility of restaurant to customers, advertising and situational factors such as overcrowding and noise.

However, little is known about whether different sources lead to development of different kinds of standards (i.e., what source of expectations is used under which conditions and what the relative performance of each source is in forming overall expectations) (Clow *et al* 1996). For instance, LaTour and Peat (1979) undertook a field experiment to investigate the effect of prior experience, situationally induced expectations, and other consumers' experiences on customer satisfaction. They found that situationally induced expectations had little effect on satisfaction, whereas expectations based on prior experiences were the major determinants of customer satisfaction. This finding suggests that consumers may attach less importance to manufacturer-provided information when they have personal experience and relevant information about other consumers' experiences (Yi 1990). In contrast, Spreng and Dixon (1992) argue that persuasion based expectations, which are the explicit statements from the seller regarding the performance of the product (i.e., a marketer dominated stimuli like advertising), appear to develop very strong expectations.

4.5 Summary

The concept of customer satisfaction is integral to marketing thought. Various theoretical frameworks, based on various standards, have been developed to explain this important concept. However, researchers have not converged on the exact conceptualisation of the comparison standard and disconfirmation constructs (Tse and Wilton 1988). Several researchers concur that consumers may use expectations but other kinds of baselines may be operative in the formation of satisfaction judgements. As early as 1977, Miller, for instance, developed a classification scheme by using four different kinds of comparisons: *expected*, *deserved*, *ideal* and *minimum tolerable performance*.

Predictive expectations have been widely adopted as the comparison standard in many tourism and hospitality research investigations. However, the marketing literature is replete with evidence demonstrating that expectations-based dis/confirmation measures, at best, have yielded only modest correlation with satisfaction measures. As a result, the validity of using expectations as the sole pre-consumption antecedent of the dis/confirmation process and, as the basis for predicting its outcomes, has become disputable. Expectations have been elevated to some grand conceptual status "but there is no compelling theoretical or empirical reason that expectations *per se* must be the comparison for judgement" (Iacobucci, Grayson and Ostrom 1994: 25). Past research may have attached " unwarranted importance to expectations as the standard of performance influencing feelings of satisfaction" (Cadotte *et al* 1987: 306). There is a very little justification for consumers, using only focal brand expectations, to judge performance after purchase (Westbrook and Reilly 1983).

Research in consumer behaviour has suggested that some standards of comparison may be better than others at explaining satisfaction, and that the relationship between disconfirmation, performance, and satisfaction may change depending on the standards used to measure them. However, at present there is no consensus of an appropriate standard, and some researchers have suggested that the standard that is used is contingent upon a number of consumer and situational factors (Spreng and Dixon 1992). The comparison standard, for example, has been conceptualised as expected (Oliver 1980), ideal (Sirgy 1984), or normative performance (Woodruff *et al* 1983).

Some researchers have suggested that consumers may not only use a single standard but may also engage in multiple comparisons in customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction formation. Although there seems to be an agreement as to the fact that customer satisfaction can be a function of multiple standards, it is not clear, however, which combination of standards is more applicable to different consumption situations, and to different products and services. It is important to note that in spite of the emphasis placed on the different types of standards, only a few have received much empirical attention. For instance, predictive expectation as a standard has been studied extensively in marketing literature in general and in tourism and hospitality literature in particular. Other standards have not been examined as well in the tourism and hospitality literature.

A review of customer satisfaction literature clearly showss that researchers in marketing and consumer behaviour in general and, hospitality and tourism in particular, have favoured the use of Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm , which employs *predictive expectations* as the comparative standard. Despite the fact that no model or theory is complete, limited research has been carried out to test whether the dominant Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm possesses any theoretical and/or methodological shortcomings and whether it could be possible to apply the model in every situation. The following Chapter therefore sets out to discuss some theoretical and methodological shortfalls that pertain to the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm.

CHAPTER V

The Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm

5.1 Introduction

As was stated in the previous chapters, there are various approaches to measure customer satisfaction, however, the Expectancy Disconfirmation paradigm (EDP), developed by Oliver (1980), has become the most widely applied method of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction assessment (Weber 1997). The EDP states that customers compare actual product and service performance with prior expectations. If expectations are met or exceeded, the consumer is satisfied or highly satisfied. If perceived performance falls short of expectations then dissatisfaction results (Oliver 1980). The conceptualisation of tourist satisfaction, as a comparison between tourists' expectations and tourists' experiences, has been employed by several investigators (Dorfman 1979; Hughes 1991; Lam and Zhang 1999; Pizam and Milman 1993; Reisinger and Warszyak 1996; Tribe and Snaith 1998; Weber 1997).

However, despite its growing popularity and widespread application, the EDP seems to have some theoretical and operational shortcomings (Table 1). These shortcomings, generally overlooked by those employing the EDP, relate to the appropriateness of the use of expectations in satisfaction measurement, the timing of expectation measurement, the meaning of expectation to respondents, the dynamic nature of expectations, the use of difference scores in assessing satisfaction, and the reliability and validity of the EDP in predicting customer satisfaction. Given these difficulties, the validity of disparity theories, such as that of the EDP, for measuring customer satisfaction, has been questioned and alternative frameworks, such as perceived performance, has been suggested to be a better predictor. Others have suggested the weighted importance/performance measurement framework as a more appropriate basis to study consumer satisfaction. Reviewed literature also demonstrates that a number of researchers have applied the Servqual model, originally formulated to assess service quality, employing a similar scoring algorithm to that of the inferred disconfirmation approach (i.e. subtraction of expectations from perceived performance), in the assessment of tourist satisfaction with destination services as well as hotel services (Fick and Ritchie 1991; Saleh and Ryan 1991; Tribe and Snaith 1998). These measurement schools maintain superiority of their model over one another. To this end, the following chapter, consisting of three parts, first discusses the drawbacks of the EDP. Next, the advantages and limitations of performance only and the importance-performance models are presented. The last section of the chapter provides a review of the Servqual model in order to discuss whether this technique could be confidently applicable to tourism and hospitality services.

5.2 Drawbacks of the EDP

The majority of hospitality and tourism satisfaction studies have assumed that the EDP is a valid and a reliable framework that can be confidently used to determine customer satisfaction with hospitality and tourism services. These studies do not seem to have scrutinised the extent to which the EDP measures what it intends to measure. The validity and reliability of the EDP in assessing customer satisfaction with hospitality and tourism services, which are experiential in nature, may be disputable for a number of reasons. First of all, as was discussed in the second chapter, the use of expectations might be less meaningful for experiential services than for tangible consumer goods that are easy to evaluate prior to purchase. The EDP predicts that customers will be satisfied (dissatisfied) when their initial expectations are met (unmet), however this may not necessarily be the case in every consumption situation. Depending on the situation, some customers may be satisfied with the service experience, even if the performance falls short of their predictive expectations but above the minimum tolerable level. Secondly, in line with the conventional EDP, many of these studies have used predictive expectations as the comparative standard. However, there is inadequate research evidence on whether consumers use only these initial (predictive) expectations in their post-purchase evaluations, whether they use other standard(s), which they bring into the consumption experience (for example, minimum tolerable level, desires, ideals), or other standards that may emerge after the purchase (for example, what others have received). What is dis/confirmed is a theoretically and managerially important issue. As was discussed in Chapter Four, the use of different standard(s) may yield different levels with which the performance is compared and may produce different results in terms of customer satisfaction. If the relationship between disconfirmation and satisfaction differs, depending on the comparative standard used, then commitment to the conventional EDP might be wrong. For instance, meeting or exceeding predictive expectations may result in indifference (Swan and Trawick 1980), whereas the resultant satisfaction and future behavioural intention levels may be different and possibly higher, when consumer desires or ideals are met or exceeded. Another limitation relates to the fact that the EDP cannot accommodate the dynamic nature of expectations. Consumers' initial expectations of a product or service might be substantially different from their expectations if measured after a service experience which involves several encounters, as in the case of hospitality and tourism services. If consumers are using these modified expectations in their post-purchase evaluations, then the reliability of conclusions suggesting the occurrence of a positive or negative dis/confirmation from initial expectations, is disputable. Moreover, the assessment of customer satisfaction as a difference score between customer expectations and perceived performance, a common methodology used by researchers, may hold administrative difficulties, which may impact on the reliability of the collected data. Table 1 summarises the conceptual and operational issues.

Table 1. Conceptual and operational difficulties relating to the EDP

Conceptual	*Operational*
• Without expectations, disconfirmation cannot occur, but how realistic is it to expect everyone to have firm expectations prior to purchase in every consumption situation? • Does expectation question signify the same meaning to everyone? • Do customers use predictive expectations only, or use other comparative standards in reaching satisfaction judgements? • Does customer satisfaction come from disconfirmation of expectations alone? • Why customers report satisfaction, when performance falls short of their initial expectations? • Does disconfirmation process operate in every situation?	• Timing of the expectation measurement: Should it be measured before or after the service experience? • Consistently high scores on expectations. • Possibility of misleading conclusions. • Dual administration and response-tendency-bias.

5.2.1 Conceptual Issues

5.2.1.1 How realistic are expectations as a comparison standard?

The EDP presupposes that everyone has prior expectations about the service experience. It is obvious that without these prior expectations, dis/confirmation of expectations cannot occur (Halstead, Hartman and Schmidt 1994). However, the logic of the EDP, stating that everyone has firm expectations prior to service experiences, might be less meaningful in situations where customers do not know what to expect, until they experience the service. Note that unlike tangible goods where search attributes are dominant, tourism and hospitality services are experiential in nature, and they contain high percentages of experience and credence properties (Reisinger and Waryszak 1996). *Search properties* refer to those attributes which a consumer evaluates before engaging in the service. These properties are primarily tangibles, which are physical representations of the service (for example, facilities, equipment, and appearance of personnel). *Experience properties* are those attributes that can be only assessed after purchase or during consumption, such as taste, value, purchase satisfaction (Zeithaml 1981). *Credence properties* are the attributes that the consumer finds impossible to evaluate even after purchase and consumption (for example, the backstage hygiene conditions). In general, those services that are based heavily on experience and credence properties, such as hospitality and tourism services, may be difficult to predict and evaluate (Hill 1985). Moreover, the variability in the service level that is provided from encounter to encounter in hospitality and tourism services may create uncertainty, which may inhibit the formation of firm pre-purchase expectations (Jayanti and Jackson 1991). In this respect, the assumption that the formation of firm and realistic expectations prior to purchase in hospitality and tourism services, may be incorrect.

It is not clear how the EDP maybe applied to the evaluation of services for which the consumer has little information or experience to generate a meaningful expectation (Halstead *et al* 1994; McGill and Iacobucci 1992). Thus, customers with little or no brand experience constitute a special case in the EDP. Customer expectations of completely unfamiliar experiences (for example, first time travel to Eastern Europe) are almost meaningless (Halstead *et al* 1994). "Though one might assume that expectations based on travel to other parts of Europe would be an appropriate proximate, this too, may have little relevance to the actual experience" (p. 115). Lack of any kind of previous experience with the service, or not knowing what to expect, as a result of the absence of pre-purchase information, may result in tentative and uncertain expectations (Crompton and Love 1995, Mazursky 1989; McGill and Iacobucci 1992). In these situations, regarding expectations as firm criteria against which make evaluative judgements is likely to be fallacious (Crompton and Love 1995).

Learning from previous service experiences may result in more accurate and stable expectations (Day 1977). Experienced customers may, therefore, make better choices when repurchasing, they may have more realistic expectations, and they may be more satisfied with their choices (Halstead *et al* 1994; Westbrook and Newman 1987). On the other hand, inexperienced customers may rely on external sources of information (Halstead *et al* 1994), such as the organisation's promotional, material and word of mouth communication, shape their expectations, leading to expectations that are weaker, less complete, less stable, and superficial (Halstead *et al* 1994; Mazursky 1989; McGill and Iacobucci 1992). Thus, measuring expectations may not be valid in situations where consumers do not have well formed expectations prior to service experience (Carman 1990). In such situations expectations may be assumed to be *zero*, and that expectation measures do not need to be obtained every time the perception measures are obtained (Carman 1990).

Another problem is that post-purchase evaluations may not be based on initial expectations. For instance, McGill and Iacobucci (1992: 571) report that "in contrast to what might have been expected from the literature on the disconfirmation paradigm, that comparison of subjects listing of features that affected their level of satisfaction in the post-experience questionnaire were not entirely consistent with the listing of factors that they expected to affect their level of satisfaction in the pre-experience questionnaire". Similarly, Whipple and Thach (1989: 16) state that expectations may be important indicators of choice preference and that "there is evidence that pre-purchase choice criteria and post-purchase choice criteria are not the same". If different evaluative criteria are used before and after an event then "the initial expectation framework is disregarded and is of little value for measuring satisfaction".

5.2.1.2 Meaning of Expectation

Another problem with the EDP is the potential difference in the interpretation of expectation question. Expectation represents a baseline against which performance is compared, and as was discussed in the preceding chapter, it may vary from a minimum tolerable level of performance and estimates of anticipated performance, through to some concept of ideal or perfect service (Ennew, Reed and Binks 1993). Given the confusion about the precise meaning of expectation, the use of this concept as a means to conceptualise comparison standards, has been criticised by a number of researchers (Woodruff, Cleanop, Schumm, Godial, and Burns 1991). It is important to note that the expectation component of both service quality and satisfaction might have serious discriminant validity shortcomings, which causes the performance-minus expectation measurement framework to be a potentially misleading indicator of customer perceptions of services. For instance, findings reported in Teas' (1993) study clearly suggest that not all respondents interpret the question of expectation in the same way, and there may be a considerable degree of confusion, among respondents, concerning the actual question being asked.

Teas (1993) identified that some of the respondents responded as if the expectation questions involved an importance measure, while other respondents interpreted the question as requesting a forecast. A few respondents interpreted the question in terms of the ideal point concept and minimum tolerable concept. If this is the case, the results obtained from performance-minus-expectation scores can be misleading. For instance, if the service expectation score is interpreted by the respondent to be related to the concept of attribute importance, the performance minus expectation will produce invalid measures. The following example will illustrate this logical inconsistency. In situation one, the respondent's perception score on *visually appealing restaurant* is **7** and expectation score is **1**, resulting in a gap score of **+6**. In the second situation, the perception score on visually appealing restaurant is **7** and expectation score is **7** resulting in a gap score of **0**. The performance-expectation measure clearly indicates that the quality/satisfaction score for the restaurant would be highest in situation one (6 > 0). Consider, however, that the cause of high score in situation one is the low rating on expectation.

According to Teas, this low rating might be the result of one or a combination of the following situations. (1) The respondent feels that he deserves a visually unappealing restaurant. (2) The respondent wishes to save money and desires a visually unappealing restaurant. (3) The visual appealing issue is unimportant to the respondent. The third situation in particular represents a potential measurement validity problem. Although the respondent in situation one responded with a **1** rating on the expectation scale because the visually appealing issue is an *unimportant* factor to him or her, the resultant P-E (+6) score suggests that a higher level of quality/satisfaction in that situation than the quality/satisfaction level suggested in situation 2 in which the performance is *high* on an *important attribute*. Thus, it is illogical to assume that "scores with high performance on attributes of low importance items should reflect a higher service quality/satisfaction than equally strong performance on attributes of high importance" (Teas 1994: 44).

5.2.1.3 Do consumers use expectations only?

The majority of past hospitality and tourism satisfaction studies, utilising the EDP, assume that consumers engage in a comparison process which involves a single comparative standard. There is, however, emerging literature suggesting that no single model or unique comparison process may fully explain consumer satisfaction/ dissatisfaction judgements (Erevelles and Leavitt 1992).

Several theories, including the Comparison Level Theory and Evaluative Congruity Theory, suggest that there are several determinants of product/service comparison (LaTour and Peat 1979). For instance, according to the Comparison Level theory, these might include; (1) consumers' prior experiences with similar products, (2) situationally produced expectations (those created through advertising and promotional efforts), and (3) the experience of other consumers who serve as referent points. Similarly, the Equity theory, discussed in Chapter Three, assumes that satisfaction exists, when consumers perceive their output/input ratio as being fair. Whether or not a person is treated equitably (thus satisfied), may depend on various factors including: the price paid, the benefits received, the time and effort expended during the transaction, previous transactions, and the outcomes of all parties sharing the same experience (Woodruff *et al* 1983).

Similarly, Sirgy's Evaluative Congruity model (1984) suggests that consumers might use multiple standards to arrive at satisfaction judgements. However, Sirgy argues that (in)congruities may take place between different perceptual and evoked referent states, and each of these (in)congruities may significantly influence customer satisfaction either separately or jointly. Using a path analysis, Tse and Wilton (1988) quantified the influence of both predicted and ideal expectations. They concluded that

> "more than one comparison standard may be involved in customer satisfaction formation because both expectations (predictive) and ideal relate individually to satisfaction. Expectations and ideal appear to represent different constructs contributing separately to the customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction formation process. The single standard models fail to represent the underlying process adequately in comparison with a multiple standard paradigm" (p: 209-10).

These findings suggest the occurrence of not only a single comparison but also a multiple comparison process which includes complex interactions, which may take place either sequentially or simultaneously (Oliver and Desarbo 1988), and that consumer satisfaction may not be the result of disconfirmation of predictive expectations alone.

However, the majority of hospitality and tourism studies seem to have assumed that, only initially stated predictive expectations are used in the comparison process. The extent to which consumers use only expectations as a comparison baseline, in their post-purchase evaluations is questionable. Consumers might be more likely to use predictive expectations based on external communications (e.g. advertisement) before the purchase (in their choice decision-making), while different standards may be used after the purchase (for example, what others have received). Furthermore, different customers might use different comparative standards, and depending on the situation, the form of the comparative standard may change. For example, "difficult-to-please" (overly demanding) type customers may use ideal expectations in their assessments, whereas "tolerant" customers may use minimum acceptable as the standard.

As was discussed earlier, the comparative standard issue is extremely important because different types of standards may yield different levels against which perceived experience is compared (Woodruff *et al* 1991). There is a possibility that respondents may be sensitive to the type of the standard used in a customer satisfaction /dissatisfaction research, which in turn might impact on the resultant level of customer satisfaction identified, by the researcher (Olander 1979; Woodruff *et al* 1991). If so, this gives rise to an interesting question. Would different results be obtained, if a wording of a disconfirmation question were changed (for example, from comparison to expected performance to comparison relative to a competitor)? In other words, would meeting or exceeding predictive expectations, created by advertisements, produce less (or more) satisfaction and return intention levels than when the customer finds the performance delivered by the focal organisation better than the best experience she had?

5.2.1.4 Logical Inconsistency

The current logic of the model predicts customers will evaluate a service favourably, as long as their expectations are met or exceeded (Iacobucci, Grayson and Ostrom 1994). However, this may not be the case every time. In situations where consumers are forced to buy an inferior, less desirable brand because their preferred brand is not available, then consumers may not necessarily experience disconfirmation of a pre-experience comparison standard (LaTour and Peat 1979). "If a less desirable brand was indeed as undesirable as the customer had expected it to be, the consumer would experience no disconfirmation, and yet could be quite dissatisfied" (Iacobucci *et al* 1994; 16). In addition, users of new brands who experience unfavourable disconfirmation of a high pre-experience standard, which was generated through advertising, may still be satisfied with the brand, if it has more of the desired attributes than competing brands (LaTour and Peat 1979).

The key role played by expectations in determining the level of satisfaction, is questionable. Consumers may show satisfaction or dissatisfaction for aspects where expectations never existed (Yi 1990; McGill and Iacobucci 1992). In her research on tourist satisfaction, Hughes (1991: 168) reported that "surprisingly, even though experiences did not fulfil expectations, a considerable number of tourists were relatively satisfied". Similarly, Pearce (1991) maintains that tourists may be satisfied even though their experiences did not fulfil their expectations. In a study of service quality perceptions of clinic customers, Smith (1995) reports a similar finding, that respondents described themselves as extremely pleased with the clinic even where an aggregate performance-minus-expectation score was negative (P<E). Similarly, Yuksel and Rimmington (1998b) found that customers might be reasonably satisfied even if the service performance does not totally meet their initial expectations. These findings cast doubts over the consistency of the logic of the expectancy-dis/confirmation model, as it predicts the customer to be dissatisfied when initial expectations are not met.

One possible explanation for this could be that some consumers may use the minimum acceptable as a comparative standard in some service experiences, and the performance above the minimum acceptable but below the predicted expectations does not necessarily create dissatisfaction. Another explanation could be that, customers might engage in a trade-off process, where a strength of an attribute may compensate for the weakness(es) of another attribute, and may lead to overall satisfaction (Lewis, Chambers and Chacko 1995). Alternatively, the tolerance-level concept, which the EDP fails to take into consideration, might explain why those customers, whose expectations are unmet, report satisfaction. This concept, as was explained in Chapter Four, suggests that purchasers are willing to accept a range of performance around a point estimate as long as the range could be reasonably expected (Oliver 1997). That is, if customer tolerance of some deviation from expectations exists, and thus a level of service less than the expected does not generate dissatisfaction (Saleh and Ryan 1991). Perceived performance within the zone of indifference probably does not cause much attention to be directed toward the evaluation process. In contrast, perceived performance, outside the zone of indifference is unusual and attention getting. When this condition occurs, "the satisfaction process is more likely to be raised to a conscious level and thus evoke a positive or negative emotional response" (Woodruff *et al* 1983: 300).

5.2.2 Operational Difficulties

5.2.2.1 Timing of the Expectation Measurement

There is a continuing debate on the timing of expectation measurement in customer satisfaction studies. Some researchers suggest that expectations should be solicited before the service experience (Carman 1990), whereas others argue that expectations may be measured after the service experience (Parasuraman *et al* 1988). To be of value "expectations should be elicited prior to the service being provided, otherwise the risk is so great that expectations will be contaminated by perceptions of the actual service provided" (Getty and Thomson 1994: 8). This method has been employed by a number of researchers in tourism and hospitality literature (for example, Fick and Ritchie 1991; Hughes 1991; Johns and Tyas 1996; Tribe and Snaith 1998; Whipple and Thach 1989). For instance, in their investigation of satisfaction among first time visitors to Spain, Pizam and Milman (1993) solicited travellers' expectations before they left and examined their perception of 21 destination attributes after they returned from their holiday. Weber (1997) adopted a similar approach in her research on satisfaction of the German travel market in Australia. Weber distributed questionnaires to tourists on their arrival and asked them to complete the pre-trip section on the day of arrival and the post-trip section at the end of their holiday.

Although adopted by a number of researchers, measuring expectations prior to service experience is problematic. In some situations where the pre-post approach is adopted, one may not guarantee that all respondents fill out the expectation part of the questionnaire at the required time (for example, before the dinner). A number of respondents may wait to complete the expectation part after the dinner, which may produce "hindsight bias" (Weber 1997; Yuksel and Rimmington 1998). Moreover, prior expectations may be modified during the service encounter, and these modified expectations may be used in the comparison process (Danaher and Mattsson 1994; Gronroos 1993; Iacobucci *et al* 1994; McGill and Iacobucci 1992). An observed effect (satisfaction) may be due to an event, which takes place between the pre and post-tests (Cook and Campbell 1979). For instance, it can be argued that the importance attached to pre-trip expectations may change during the trip and a new set of expectations may be formed as a result of experiences during the holiday. This implies that, as the tourists progress from one encounter to the next, say from the hotel's reception to their room, their expectations about the room services may be modified due to the performance of the previous encounter (Danaher and Mattsson 1994). According to Boulding, Karla, Staelin and Zeithaml (1993: 9) "A person's expectations just before a service contact can differ from the expectations held just after the service contact because of the information that enters the system between service encounters". Events that are completely unanticipated prior to a trip may become significant contributors to overall holiday satisfaction (Weber 1997). Unpredictability of tourism events, which lies at the heart of vacational experience (Botterill 1987), suggests that satisfaction could be derived from "unanticipated sources or discoveries such as the weather, the travel companion and unexpected adventures" (Pearce 1980: 14).

As satisfaction is most accurately measured at the conclusion of the transaction, the expectation referent, relevant to satisfaction, would be the one actually used by the consumer in satisfaction formation, not necessarily the one measured before consumption (Oliver 1997). This becomes problematic if the consumer has updated (downgraded or elevated) his or her expectations during consumption. In a recent study, Zwick, Pieters and Baumgartner (1995) for instance, suggest that updated expectations may be more influential in satisfaction judgements than pre-consumption expectations. Given the evidence above, it seems reasonable to assume that a customer's expectations, prior to the service experience, may be different from those against which they compare the actual experience.

Given the complications that surround the measurement of expectations prior to the service experience, an alternative method of soliciting expectations is that they are measured after the service experience or simultaneously with the service experience. A number of researchers have used this method (Dorfman 1979; Fick and Ritchie 1991; Parasuraman *et al* 1988). For example, Parasuraman *et al* (1988) and Dorfman (1979) asked respondents to complete both expectations and perceptions questions at the same time. Based on their previous experience with the service, respondents were asked what they expected and then were asked what they had experienced. However, this approach also is also questionable, as expectations might be over/under stated if the tourists have a very negative or positive experience (Yuksel and Rimmington 1998b). In addition, respondents' capability to correctly remember prior expectations raises doubts about the validity of these measures (Lounsbury and Hoopes 1985). It is argued that, if expectations are measured after the service experience or simultaneously with the experience, it is not the expectations that are being measured but something that has been biased by the experience. For example, Halstead (1993) found that expectations that are measured after service experience, were higher for dissatisfied customers than for satisfied customers. This suggests that recalled expectations will be biased toward the experienced performance (Oliver 1997).

5.2.2.2 Consistently High Expectation Scores

From a practical perspective, Dorfman (1979) draws attention to the fact that expectations are generally rated very highly. That is, respondents may feel motivated to demonstrate an "I-have-high-expectation" social norm. The expected level therefore, may exceed the existing level for no other reason than this type of response bias (Babakus and Boller 1992). In the service quality area, for example, Babakus and Boller (1992: 257) pointed out that " in general when people are asked to indicate an expected level and an existing level of service they seldom rate the expected level lower than the existing level". The *should* element (used both in satisfaction and quality research) raises expectation scores to a very high level which is unlikely to vary (Childress and Crompton 1997). If these scores are almost constant, "then there is little point in including them in an instrument, since they will not give responses significantly different from using the perception scores alone" (Crompton and Love 1995: 15).

The results of Fick and Ritchie's (1991), Parasuraman *et al's* (1988; 1991; 1994), Smith's (1995) and Tribe and Snaith's (1998) research reveals that, scores on expectations are indeed rated consistently higher than the scores on the performance component. For instance, Smith (1995) reports that the mean score for the expectation scale in her study was 6. 401 (standard deviation 0.347). In Parasuraman *et al*'s (1991) study the mean expectation score was 6.22. Buttle (1995), in a comprehensive review of research studies on service quality and satisfaction reported that, the average score of expectations was 6.086. The results of Bojanic' s and Rosen's (1995) study, in a family restaurant environment, demonstrated that consumers' perceptions about the actual level of service provided, fell significantly short of their expectations. Similarly, the research undertaken by Yuksel and Rimmington (1998b) revealed that the mean expectation scores for restaurant services was, significantly higher than the mean performance perception scores. These findings suggest that it would be difficult to satisfy tourists as expectations will never be met or exceeded.

In this sense, to ensure that expectations are exceeded, some researchers have suggested that service providers should understate the destination's or organisation's capability of delivering these experiences, in promotional efforts. For example, Pizam and Milman (1993: 208) suggested that "it would be more beneficial to create modest and even below realistic expectations". Though this is a sensible and potentially effective suggestion in theory, it is questionable whether it can and, should be, implemented practically (Weber 1997). The problem is that tourists may not want to spend time and money in a destination in the first place if promotional efforts convey the possibility of the destination being unable to deliver adequate services. Moreover, establishing a threshold is difficult at which expectations are raised high enough to attract customers, but low enough to allow for expectations to be exceeded (ibid.). The present logic of the EDP would invite the strategy of managers lowering expectations for a given service and then having the users discover a superior outcome, than expected, leading to greater satisfaction. Obviously, low expectations would affect the motivation and would therefore reduce purchase and consumption (Williams 1998).

5.2.2.3 Misleading Conclusions

The majority of consumer satisfaction studies adopted the use of difference score, which results from the subtraction of respondents' expectation scores from their scores based on performance. The resultant scores may result in misleading conclusions (Teas 1993), as on a seven point scale, there are six ways of producing a score of -1 (for example, P=1 - E =2; P= 6 - E= 7) and seven ways of producing a score of zero (for example, P =1 - E =1; P= 7 - E= 7). These tied difference scores of -1 or zero may not signify equal customer satisfaction in each case; however, the logic of EDP predicts otherwise that satisfaction in each case would be equal. That is, the level of resulting satisfaction will be the same in both cases where low expectations are met by low performance and high expectations are met by high performance. However, different expectations-performance combinations (high performance/high expectations; low performance/low expectations) would result in different satisfaction states (Chon and Olsen 1991; Chon 1992; Chon, Christianson and Cin-Lin 1998).

5.2.2.4 What about Direct Disconfirmation?

The diagnostic ability of the direct disconfirmation (better/worse than expected) is questionable because this scale, cannot indicate whether the expectations being confirmed or dis/confirmed, were high or low. The case of meeting or exceeding low customer expectations is qualitatively different from meeting or exceeding high expectations. Therefore, the direct disconfirmation scale seems to be of little use for diagnostic analysis. Another problem related to the EDP is the possibility of a *ceiling* or a *floor* effect (Oh and Parks 1997; Yi 1990), which might occur when an individual gives the highest score on the scale of expectation ratings prior to consumption. When a product performs well above these initial expectations, the individual can only give the same score (i.e., the highest score on the scale) for perceived performance. In this case, the inferred disconfirmation would be zero although a positive disconfirmation occurs in the consumer's mind (Yi 1990).

5.3 The Perceived Performance versus Disconfirmation

There is emerging literature suggesting that the performance component of the disconfirmation (or the gap) model can explain satisfaction as well as the difference score technique can (Yuksel and Rimmington 1998b). Perceived performance refers to the subjective evaluation of performance made by an individual after a service is consumed, while disconfirmation is the customer's evaluation of a product's performance relative to a pre-purchase standard (such as an expectation). Studies in customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction literature have produced interesting results regarding performance, disconfirmation, and the roles that they play in satisfaction judgements (Table 2). Some studies suggest that under certain conditions it may not be necessary to include the disconfirmation construct in satisfaction assessment, while others argue that disconfirmation is a better predictor of satisfaction. Some challenge the logic of the EDP, and state that whenever a product performs well a consumer is likely to be satisfied, regardless of disconfirmation. Others argue that in certain consumption situations, the disconfirmation process will not operate unless performance is clearly outside the acceptable range. The following section provides an overview of the literature concerning this alternative model of consumer satisfaction assessment.

Table 2. Major Research Findings on Performance and Disconfirmation

Study	Product Category	Research Method	Comparison standard used	Significant research findings
Dorfman (1979)	Camping		Expectations, preferences, importance, and performance were combined to make up eight alternative measures	Performance correlated highly with satisfaction than did expectation-minus-performance
LaTour and Peat (1980)	Fabric cleaner	Experiment	Past Experience Situationally produced expectations(spe)	Past experience was found to be a better predictor of satisfaction than predictive expectations., and performance of cleaners were found to be significantly correlated with satisfaction
Oliver (1980)	Flu inoculation	Two-stage mail surveys	Expectation belief (probability of outcome x evaluation of outcome) on eight outcomes	Disconfirmation was a positive predictor of satisfaction and attitude and intentions. Expectations were also positively related, but disconfirmation had the greatest effect on satisfaction
Swan and Trawick (1981)	Restaurant food and service	Two-stage on site surveys (before and after dining)	Expectation beliefs	Subtractive (inferred) disconfirmation was a positive predictor of satisfaction and had a greater effect on satisfaction than either expectations or subjective (perceived disconfirmation. Subjective disconfirmation had the smallest effect on satisfaction on all variables tested.
Churchil and Surprenant (1982)	Video disc player and household plant	Field experiment with follow-up survey for plant	Low, moderate and high levels of predictive expectations. Both attribute specific and global measures are taken	Disconfirmation and performance were both positively related to satisfaction for the plant, but disconfirmation had the greatest effect. Expectations were also positively related to satisfaction both directly and indirectly through disconfirmation. For the three variables together, R= .78. For the video disc player, only performance had a significant positive impact on satisfaction, accounting for .88 percent of the satisfaction variation.
Bearden and Teel (1983)	Automobile repairs and services	Two-stage mail surveys (before and after usage)	predictive expectations measure for six service attributes	Disconfirmation was a positive predictor of satisfaction. Expectations were also positively related to satisfaction. Inconclusive results on disconfirmation as a moderator of the expectations -satisfaction relationship
Oliver and Bearden (1985)	Appetite suppressant	Three-stage mail surveys (before and two after usage)	Ideal or desired expectations measure used for 14 attributes	Both types of disconfirmation (overall subjective and a subtractive measure) were positive predictors of satisfaction, but the overall measure was more highly correlated with satisfaction and generated larger regression coefficients

Table 2. Continues

Study	Product Category	Research Method	Comparison standard used	Significant research findings
Cadotte, Woodruff and Jenkins (1987)	Fast food, family and speciality restaurants	Two stage on site surveys (before and after dining)	Three comparison standards used: product-type norms, best brand norms, brand expectations	Disconfirmation was positively related to satisfaction for all three restaurant settings. Disconfirmation of product norms and best brand norms was consistently better than brand expectations in explaining satisfaction variation, however. Performance was positively related to disconfirmation.
Westbrook (1987)	Automobile, cable television	In-home personal interviews for CATV; self administered surveys	Three predictive belief measures; overall expectations, prediction of likelihood of benefits; prediction of likelihood of problems	Disconfirmation was a positive predictor of satisfaction for both automobiles and CATV. Positive and negative affect was also positive significant predictors. Expectations were positively related to satisfaction for only automobiles.
Oliver and DeSarbo (1988)	Simulated stock market transactions	Laboratory experiment	Two levels (high and low) predictive expectations (what will be)	Disconfirmation and performance were both positive predictors of satisfaction, but the disconfirmation had the greatest influence (expectation, equity, and attribution effects were also significant).
Tse and Wilton (1988)	Electronic hand held miniature record player	Laboratory experiment	Three comparison standards tested: expectation, ideal, equity	Performance and disconfirmation were both positive predictors of satisfaction, but performance exceeded all the expectation measures and disconfirmation as a predictor of satisfaction
Oliver and Swan (1989)	Automobiles	On-site survey mail survey	NA	Disconfirmation was a positive predictor of satisfaction, but fairness had the greatest effect on satisfaction
Cronin and Taylor (1992)	Banking, pest control, dry cleaning, fast food	In-home personal interviews	Normative expectations measure used for 22 attributes (what should be)	Performance measure of service quality is a positive predictor of satisfaction
Crompton and Love (1995)	Festivals	Field research, mail survey	Predictive expectations, importance	Best predictor of service quality among the six alternative measures was the performance alone, the least predictor was the expectation-minus-performance
Panton (1999)	Festivals	Onsite surveys	Expectations	Performance alone was a better predictor of satisfaction than the direct disconfirmation

Source: Developed from Halstead *et al* 1994.

LaTour and Peat (1979) were among the first researchers who suggested that under certain conditions the use of only the disconfirmation construct might fail to explain customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction formation adequately. They argue that a logical inconsistency might happen in a situation in which consumers are forced to buy an inferior brand because their preferred brand is out of stock. In such situations consumers may not necessarily experience disconfirmation of a pre-experience comparison standard, but may nonetheless be dissatisfied because of its inferior performance (ibid.). They further argue that, users of new brands, who experience unfavourable disconfirmation of a high pre-experience standards, which was generated through say advertising, may still be satisfied with the brand if it has more of the desired attributes than competing brands. In a successive study, they (1980) conducted an experiment in which twelve experimental groups experienced different levels of perceived product performance. Although, they did not test for a performance-satisfaction relationship, their data, however, made it possible to conduct such an analysis. Two different measures of performance of a cleaner were found to be both significantly correlated with satisfaction.

Additional support for LaTour's and Peat's argument is found in studies of cognitive dissonance (Holloway 1967), which suggests that the dissonance reduction strategy adopted by an individual after a disconfirming consumption experience will depend on the psychological costs of all alternative reduction strategies. After a very bad or good product experience, the psychological costs of adjusting the product performance cognition, in line with a pre experience anchor, may exceed the costs of not adjusting the performance cognition but instead, modifying the pre-experience anchor. In this case, product performance perception will dominate in post consumption evaluations and hence, this construct is important in customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction formation.

Under certain conditions it may not be necessary to include disconfirmation as an intervening variable which affects satisfaction, and the process adopted by consumers to reach satisfaction judgements may differ for certain products (Churchill and Suprenant 1982). In their study, Churchill and Surprenant manipulated expectations by providing information about product quality prior to the use of two products (a hybrid plant and a video disc player). Product performance was also manipulated by using plants that varied in terms of size, number of blossoms, number of stems and levels of distortion of the sound and picture for the VDP. The results of their work indicate that in the case of a non-durable product (a hybrid plant), the traditional expectation- disconfirmation paradigm held. For a durable product, in their case a VCR, however, consumers' satisfaction judgements were solely determined by the performance of the product and they were totally independent of their initial expectations. While the authors identified an expectation -disconfirmation effect, the effect was not significant enough to impact on satisfaction. Given the results, Churchill and Suprenant suggested an extension to the expectations- disconfirmation model to include the direct effects of perceived performance. Tse and Wilton (1988) replicated this finding for compact disc players. Oliver and DeSarbo (1988) conducted an experiment using security transactions and showed that a significant direct performance effect can operate in tandem with the disconfirmation effect. They further noted that " although performance and disconfirmation may appear to operate in tandem and be definitionally related, individuals can and do respond separately to measures of the two concepts" (p. 503).

In particular, the results of Tse's and Wilton's study, provide strong theoretical support in favour of extending the expectations-disconfirmation model to incorporate the direct influences of perceived performance. These authors debated that in many consumption situations, perceived performance might indeed outweigh expectations in determining consumer satisfaction/ dissatisfaction judgements. Interestingly, in this study, expectations and product performance were found to have distinctly different roles in satisfaction formation. It is therefore suggested that these effects be modelled separately. If learning from experience is an important consumption motive (especially with new products), then whenever a product performs well, a consumer is likely to be satisfied, regardless of the pre-experience comparison standard levels and disconfirmation (Tse and Wilton 1988). To capture a diversity of consumption experiences, a comprehensive customer satisfaction /dissatisfaction model should incorporate perceived performance (ibid.). However, in opposition to their assertion, Erevelles and Leavitt argue that "there are products that have little or no instrumental performance dimension and in such cases the perceived performance paradigm may be redundant" (1992: 107).

Nevertheless, when performance judgements tend to be subjective as in the case of services, which are intangible, expectations may play only a minor role in the formation of satisfaction (Oliver 1980). Although some authors suggest that the disconfirmation model is appropriate to explain and measure satisfaction with services, empirical evidence has yet to be found to support this proposition (Jayanti and Jackson 1991). In light of the argument of Oliver (1980), regarding the weak performance of the disconfirmation model, when satisfaction judgements tend to be subjective and the empirical evidence provided with high involvement products, it is reasonable to assume that satisfaction judgements with services, may be a function of performance alone (Jayanti and Jackson 1991).

Due to the peculiar characteristics of services (intangibility, heterogeneity, inseparability and perishability), performance may become the only tangible evidence on which to base consumer service evaluation (Jayanti and Jackson 1991). Moreover, lack of pre purchase information in most services forces the consumers to form very few, if any, expectations regarding the service to be encountered (Zeithaml 1981) and to place even less confidence in those expectations (Jayanti and Jackson 1991). Even where there is consumer expertise in a particular category of service, the variability in the service level provided, from encounter to encounter, creates uncertainty, which inhibits the formation of pre-purchase expectations (ibid.). The disconfirmation of expectations may, therefore, perform poorly in the case of services and that the performance model may provide a more appropriate measurement of satisfaction with services (ibid.).

Perceptions are the consumers' judgement of the service organisation's performance and that perceptions alone can be an evaluation of the global quality judgement itself (Llosa, Chandon and Orsingher 1998). "Maybe the mere fact of asking a respondent to mark perceptions of the firms' performance leads respondent to compare mentally his perceptions to his expectations" (ibid.). In other words, estimates of perceptions might already include a perception-minus- expectation mental process. A similar suggestion is also found in Gronroos's (1993) work. He argues that "measuring expectations is not a sound way of proceeding anyway, because experiences are in fact perceptions of reality, and inherent in these perceptions are the prior expectations. Consequently if first, one way or the other, expectations are measured and then experiences are measured, then expectations are measured twice" (p. 56). Note that the original expectancy or gap model involves the elicitation of separate information related to customer service expectations and perceived service performance. These scores are then subtracted in order to form a third variable, dis/confirmation (inferred). In theory the difference score is supposed to represent a construct that is distinct from the constructs represented by its component measures. In practice, however, the difference will always be correlated highly to at least one of the component measures, notably perceptions (Brown *et al* 1993).

Cronin and Taylor (1992) scrutinised the conceptualisation and operationalisation of the service quality construct and the relationship between service quality, customer satisfaction and purchase intentions. Based on a multi-industry sample of consumer data, they assessed which of the four competing models, nested within the Servqual instrument, most effectively predicted consumers' overall perceptions of service quality: (1) un-weighted Servqual (2) importance-weighted Servqual, (3) the un-weighted performance sub-scale of the Servqual scale (which they term Servperf) and (4) importance-weighted Servperf. The results of their study indicated that the un-weighted performance only measures (Servperf) consistently outperformed the other competing models in service environments. That is, the Servperf scale explained more of the variation in consumer perceptions of service quality than the other models measured by the R^2 statistic.

Dorfman (1979) reported similar findings. In a study of recreation participants' satisfaction, Dorfman asked respondents to rate their perceptions, performance, previous expectations, preference, importance, and satisfaction of 22 camping items. These scores were then combined in a variety of ways to make up eight alternative measures of satisfaction. Each measure was then compared to respondents' overall feelings, which were rated on 11-point satisfaction scale with the entire experience. The findings of the study revealed that the expectation-minus-performance measure, did not correlate as highly with the overall measure of satisfaction, as did the straight performance model.

In a study of four different settings of tourism, Fick and Ritchie (1991) share a similar point. They sate that

> "The mean perception of performance scores provide as good an evaluation (if not a better one) of perceived service quality than the computed quality score. It should be noted that there is still a strong correlation between the computed quality score and the direct evaluation, but much of that is probably due to the fact that a major component of the quality score is the perception of performance measure" (p. 5).

Similarly, in a festival setting, Crompton and Love (1995) investigated the ability of six different measurement techniques to predict service quality and found that the best predictors of quality were performance based and the least accurate predictor was the disconfirmation based. Contrary to the findings of Cronin and Taylor (1992), Crompton and Love (1995), Dorfman (1979), Panton (1999), and Yuksel and Rimmington (1998b), Bolton and Drew (1991: 383), in a study of satisfaction with telephone services, reported that "disconfirmation explains a larger proportion of the variance quality then performance".

5.3.1 Perceived Performance: Is this the way forward?

Given the ambiguity concerning the most appropriate comparison standard, as well as the theoretical and operational problems related to the measurement of expectations, the validity of disparity theories for measuring customer satisfaction has been questioned and perceived performance has been suggested to be a better predictor. Some argue that the performance dimensions alone predict behavioural intentions at least as well as the complete EDP, and thus, the inclusion of the dis/confirmation process as an intervening variable appears to be unnecessary (Brown *et al* 1993; Swan and Trawick 1981). That is, when service/product attributes of a restaurant or a destination perform well the customer will be satisfied regardless of any dis/confirmation effect. It is noted that depending on the product category and the nature of customers' expectations, the customer assessment of certain services may not even rely on disconfirmation but instead rely on performance evaluations only (Halstead *et al* 1994). When customer expectations have become passive (not actively processed), such as in the case of continuously consumed services or when there is a high familiarity with the service, the dis/confirmation process will not operate unless performance is clearly outside the range of experience-based norms (Oliver 1989).

Performance holds a pre-eminent role in the formation of customer satisfaction because it is the main feature of a service that creates the consumption experience (Halstead *et al* 1994). Perceived performance appears to be more straightforward, convenient and typical of the human cognitive process (Meyer and Westerbarkey 1996). Although empirical studies have almost consistently confirmed that measures of performance alone have higher predictive validity than measures that incorporate expectations, some researchers (Parasuraman *et al* 1994) argue that using the performance rating alone may not lead to the same practical applications and diagnostic value. It is suggested that the use of difference scores enhances managers understanding of whether higher expectations or lower performance might be responsible for declining service quality and customer satisfaction (ibid.). In response, Cronin and Taylor (1992: 56) comment that "it is possible for researchers to infer consumers' dis/confirmation through arithmetic means but that consumer perceptions, not calculations govern the behaviour". Meyer (1991: 36), on the other hand, argues that even though the disconfirmation of expectations are not always superior to product performance in measuring overall satisfaction, given the mixed results, "simple product ratings should not be used as the only measure of customer satisfaction".

The tourist satisfaction literature is in the need of conclusive studies ascertaining the reliability and validity of the EDP and performance alone in determining tourist satisfaction in different service settings. This is particularly essential because managers in hospitality and tourism need to build their management and marketing strategies on customer satisfaction research results with high reliability and validity. In addition, further research is needed to advance our understanding of whether performance measures themselves are implicitly comparative in nature.

5.4 Weighted Importance- Performance Model

In recent years, the literature has witnessed growing studies, which employ the concept of attribute importance in the study of consumer behaviour (Oh and Parks 1998). The prime reason for incorporating this concept into consumer behaviour studies is that consumers differentiate between the relative importance of each product or service attribute when they make purchase decisions (Kotler 1988] in Oh and Parks 1998). In line with Kotler's point of view, others, for example Crompton and Love (1995) and Carman (1990) maintain that information without inclusion of attribute importance is of little value, as it gives no indication of the relative importance which respondents attach to particular performance features. Another fundamental reason for its inclusion is that customers expect uniformly high levels of service (Brown *et al* 1993) and customer expectations can be manipulated externally (Davidow and Uttal 1989), whereas the importance attached to product /service attributes are based on deep-seated cultural norms and personal values (Barsky 1992). As discussed in Chapter Three, researchers in marketing have used importance either as a replacement variable for consumer expectations (Martilla and James 1977) or as a weighting parameter for another variable being studied in the same decision context (Carman 1990; Cronin and Taylor 1992; Teas 1993).

A number of hospitality researchers have advocated that attribute importance be used to weight dis/confirmation scores in assessing customer satisfaction (Barsky 1992; Barsky and Labagh 1992). Based on the expectancy-value model, developed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), in which attribute importance and beliefs play a central role, Barsky (1992) posited that attitudes toward a product/service are dictated by the importance of specific characteristics and the degree to which that product provides the specific characteristics (a modified version of EDP to measure customer satisfaction). The expectancy-value model predicts that people generally have a belief about an attribute, but each attribute may be assigned important weighting relative to other attributes (ibid.). This implies that customers' satisfaction levels are related to the strength of their beliefs regarding attribute importance multiplied by how well these attributes meet their expectations (Barsky 1992). The model was tested with data collected from 100 random subjects via guest comment cards and customer satisfaction was correlated with customers' willingness to return.

The weighting has been calculated in two ways- *indirect* inferences through a regression model and by the *direct* questioning of subjects (Oh and Parks 1997). In the *indirect* measurement, researchers use a constant sum scale to derive importance by asking respondents to allocate 100 points among a set of dimensions (Parasuraman *et al* 1988). Bojanic and Rosen (1995) for instance, drawing on Parasuraman *et al*'s (1988) suggestion, indirectly assessed, through a regression model, the relative importance of six quality dimensions of restaurant services. In the case of the *direct* question method, the multiplication of an attribute' performance and its importance has been the most popular weighting method, although the underlying assumption of the statistical independence of the two variables has not been clearly established (Oh and Parks 1997).

5.4.1 Weighted Importance: Is this the way forward?

Despite its popularity, the multiplication approach is not free of shortcomings. This approach is not capable of distinguishing between the relative contribution of the importance and the perception scores. "A score of 3 on the importance scale and 5 on the perception scale gives the same score of 15 as does a 5 on importance scale and 3 on the performance scale. Although these two combinations yield the same result, the implications in terms of satisfaction are substantially different" (Crompton and Love 1995: 14). The former combination suggests a satisfactory situation, as the performance score is higher on a relatively unimportant attribute. However, the latter combination indicates a source of concern as the performance score on a highly important attribute is relatively low (ibid.).

In order to alleviate such limitations, in a study of hotel guest satisfaction, Barsky (1992) suggested assigning a range of numbers to each combination. Based on Barsky's suggestion, Kivela (1998), in a study of customer satisfaction with restaurant services, assigned the same score of zero to each combination of 3, the mid value on a five point Expectation Met scale and each five numbers on attribute importance scale (ranging from very important [5] to unimportant [1]). Though designed to resolve problems, such an arbitrary number assignment raises more questions than it answers. For instance, meeting expectations on a very important attribute (3X5 = 0) may produce more satisfaction than meeting expectations on a very unimportant attribute (3X1= 0). Duke and Persia (1996) argue that such multiplicative models (performance or disconfirmation x importance = contribution to an attitude or feeling) often do not resemble either the original performance ratings or the original importance ratings. Moreover, the multiplicative approaches are argued to be of little help to operational managers who are pressed for time and are without access to sophisticated software (ibid.). Furthermore, numbers are assigned arbitrarily without any statistical foundation.

There is ongoing discussion amongst scholars concerning the inclusion of the importance in measuring attitudes (Oh and Parks 1997). "Those who advocate inclusion mainly focus on the conceptual and realistic role of importance in the human decision processes, whereas those who dismiss inclusion tend to emphasise statistical and methodological efficiency" (ibid.: 53). The inclusion of the weighted-importance approach may only be supported if, empirical evidence shows that the importance-weighted variable, performs better than the original variable, which is not weighted or not multiplied with its corresponding importance (Oh and Parks 1998).

Cronin and Taylor (1992) found that the inclusion of the importance weights did not contribute to variance explained in consumers' perceptions of service quality. Similar findings were found in Dorfman's (1979) and Crompton's and Love's (1995) studies in that weighting attributes, by their importance, did not substantially improve either the performance or the dis/confirmation measures. More recently, Oh and Parks (1998) suggested that the importance-weighted variables, were virtually redundant in their function of explaining and predicting consumer satisfaction, when compared to their un-weighted counterparts. They suggest that "although the concept of importance possesses its own psychometric properties, its role as a multiplicative weight is not positive, therefore, importance-weighted variables should be avoided when un-weighted variables are analysed together in hospitality research" (p. 69). They further suggested that by reducing the measurement items (i.e., removing importance items) on a survey questionnaire, researchers may lessen the burden on respondents and in turn, increase the response rate.

In contrast to these empirical findings, Parasuraman *et al* (1991) argue that importance weights, as multipliers of performance, should be used. Similarly Um (1987) argues that the importance dimension should be included in the analysis because different individuals operate at different importance levels. Disregarding importance may mean losing useful insights. For instance, if respondents perceive performance on some restaurant attributes to be relatively low, then the first reaction of restaurant managers may be to invest in improving those features. However, such investment will only be wise if those attributes are relatively important to customers (Love and Crompton 1995). Intuitively speaking, managers would be more interested in identifying areas where resources should be allocated. The customer satisfaction literature is therefore in need of further empirical studies, to thoroughly assess the contribution of attribute importance, in increasing the model(s)' diagnostic power.

5.5 The Servqual Model

The Servqual model, developed by Parasuraman and his colleagues (1988), formulates the service quality construct as, a difference between consumer expectations and perceived performance of a given product. Note that satisfaction researchers also formulate customer satisfaction as a discrepancy between customer expectations and the performance perceptions. As was discussed earlier, this conceptual and operational similarity between customer satisfaction and service quality causes confusion. Although they have not provided any empirical support for their argument, developers of the Servqual assert that the technique assesses service quality not customer satisfaction. There is, however, some evidence that researchers who employ the Servqual and its scoring algorithm, appear to be essentially capturing a measure more closely related to consumer satisfaction than, service quality (Hemmasi *et al* 1995). As a result, although it has been originally developed to measure customers' service quality perceptions, the Servqual model has also been utilised in studies assessing customer satisfaction with tourism and hospitality services (for example, Saleh and Ryan 1991; Tribe and Snaith 1998).

5.5.1 How Applicable is it to Tourism Services?

The model, which suggests that there are five generic service quality dimensions (tangibles, reliability, assurance, responsiveness, and empathy), has been criticised and defended by a number of researchers. In favour of the use of the model, Lee and Hing (1995) state that the information provided by the Servqual model, enables management to identify priority areas for management attention and resources, by ascertaining the gaps between consumers expectations and consumers performance perceptions and between consumers perceptions and that of management. Coyle and Dale (1993) applied the model to assess the determinants of quality from the hotel guests and management point of view. They were able to identify gaps between the perceptions of guests and those of hotel management. Similarly, Saleh and Ryan (1991), applying Servqual to hotels, report that management overestimates guest expectations and guests indicate their perceptions of service as being below their expectations. Others state that it is also possible to monitor the trends over time or compare outlets/ branches within an organisation or service category (Lewis and Mitchell 1987). Fick and Ritchie (1991), for example, demonstrate the usefulness of the instrument in offering insights into the nature and extent of service quality differences across airline, hotel, restaurant, and ski services. Additionally, Lee and Hing (1995) state that Servqual lends itself to a simple and inexpensive means of measuring service quality in restaurants. However, as various researchers (including the developers of the Servqual model themselves) state, both the instrument and the conceptualisation of service quality, may benefit from further refinement (Lee and Hing 1995).

One of the main difficulties associated with the Servqual is that because the scale was developed in a different service context (commercial services such as banks, telephone companies, and stores), it is highly questionable that it is relevant to testing the quality of tourism services (Frochot 1996). In these service environments (banks or telephone companies), the service delivery usually involves a short service encounter, monitored by an employee, and the delivery takes place in a limited environment. In contrast, most tourism services and hospitality services involve complex processes, multiple encounters and a longer level of involvement with the service firm which make their analysis more complicated (ibid.). For example, the consumption of a stay experience in a hotel will involve contact with different staff and with a multitude of tangible aspects (the hotel itself, the decor, ambience, and comfort) and the evaluation of different services provided (the room, restaurant, bar, etc.).

The Servqual technique assumes that there are common (generic) service dimensions, which can be consistently generated across tourism and hospitality service settings. That is, this universal factor analytic styled model, requires consistency across companies and industries. However, the lack of consistency across industries and segments casts doubts on the application of the basic theory used to develop the model (Duke and Persia 1996). The broad tourism industry varies in its offerings. Given this fact, as Duke and Persia put it, consistent dimensions across different vacations should be neither expected nor plausible. Thus application of a universal evaluation model, with standard question, provides less than an optimum managerial information gathering tool (ibid.).

Several authors encountered difficulties in trying to reproduce the five original dimensions identified by Parasuraman *et al* and concluded that these may vary greatly according to the service studied (Babakus 1992; Carman 1990). Carman, in his attempt to replicate the Servqual dimensions, reported that the Servqual scale may not exhibit the purported five factor structure across all service industries. Babakus and Boller (1992) specified a number of methodological shortcomings of the Servqual technique. The authors attempted to replicate the development of the Servqual scale within the utility industry and concluded that conceptualising and operationalising service quality, as a five dimensional construct, was not supported in their study. In fact, Babakus and Boller suggested that the Servqual scale appears to be essentially unidimensional and that expectation items, do not appear to add to the explained variance of the operationalisation- an inherent problem of disparity models. Cronin and Taylor (1992) were unable to identify a stable factor structure in the Servqual data.

Recent applications of the scale to tourism and hospitality settings have recognised the limits of the scale, as researchers encountered difficulties in reproducing the original five dimensions (Frochot 1996). For example, in studies of hotel services, Getty and Thomson (1994) identified three dimensions (tangibility, reliability and contact) while Saleh and Ryan (1991) identified five slightly dissimilar dimensions (conviviality, tangibles, reassurance, avoid sarcasm and empathy). An application to travel agencies by Leblanc (1992) identified nine dimensions: physical evidence, competence, corporate image, timeliness, courtesy, competitiveness, responsiveness, confidentiality, and accessibility. In restaurant applications, different dimensions were found: Bojanic and Rosen found six dimensions; Johns, Tyas, Ingold and Hopkinson (1996) reported seven dimensions; and Lee and Hing (1995) found five dimensions. In an application of the model to catering services, Johns and Tyas (1996) reported that their results did not conform to five-structure model. Application of scales to the parks (Hamilton *et al* 1989), and recreation services (Mackay and Crompton 1990) also brought some light on the reasons supporting the irrelevance of the original scale format to tourism service settings. Frocton (1996), in an application of the scale to historic houses, found five dimensions which were significantly different from the original items suggested by the scale: responsiveness, tangibles, communications, consumable and empathy. Similarly, Oberoi and Hales (1990) have examined the Servqual technique for assessing the quality of the conference product. These authors identified the generality of the instruments, as the prime problem as it appears to fail to ask a number of important questions to which the clients and the hotel personnel wanted answers. Given the empirical findings with respect to varying numbers of service dimensions, it seems reasonable to claim that the dimensionality of service quality may depend on the type of services under study (Babakus and Boller 1992)

Additional limitation recognised in the Servqual scale is its focus on the human aspects of the service delivery, which can lead to an underestimation of the impact that tangibles might have on the service encounter (Richard and Sundaram 1996). Indeed, in a tourism setting, the tangible elements and surroundings of the service delivery are a feature of the service and must be both functional and attractive to customers. For example, Ostrowski *et al* (1994), in a study of determinants of service quality in airline services, indicate that physical dimensions of service quality, such as food quality or seating comfort, were also very important factors in service quality evaluations. In a study on recreation services, Mackay and Crompton (1989) showed that in a high facility/low staff intensive activity the ambience of the facility and equipment are likely to be of central importance to a satisfying outcome. It is important to note that, in addition to limited focus on the outcome quality as opposed to process quality, the Servqual scale has several operational shortcomings similar to those associated with the inferred disconfirmation approach in the satisfaction literature.

5.6 Summary

Given the vital role of customer satisfaction, it is not surprising that a great deal of research has been devoted to investigating the process through which customers form judgements. As a result, noticeable progress has been achieved in the application of customer satisfaction within service industries, despite the fact that perhaps no other area has generated as many theoretical and methodological difficulties. In an attempt to providing a theoretical explanation of the concept, researchers have largely focused on conceptual issues and underlying processes (Gundersen *et al* 1996). In the consumer satisfaction measurement literature, some researchers argue that customer satisfaction measures should incorporate expectation and performance perception constructs (Oliver 1980; Pizam and Milman 1993), while other researchers point out that customer satisfaction measurement should be only concerned with perceived performance (Cronin and Taylor 1992; Gundersen *et al* 1996), or that weighted-importance/performance model should be favoured (Babakus and Boller 1992; Barsky 1992; Barsky and Labagh 1992; Carman 1990).

The confirmation/ disconfirmation paradigm has become the most widely utilised model for measuring customer satisfaction. Surprisingly however, despite the fact that no theory is complete, limited research has been carried out to investigate whether the EDP possesses any theoretical and/or methodological limitations and whether it could be possible to apply the model in every situation. While the EDP has become dominant in consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction research, the review of literature undertaken here demonstrates that the EDP may have some theoretical and operational shortcomings, and may not be the most reliable framework to assess customer satisfaction.

It is arguable that there may be certain conditions when this construct may not be able to fully explain the consumer satisfaction / dissatisfaction formation process. Depending on the product category and the nature of customers' expectations, the customer assessment of certain services may not even rely on disconfirmation but instead rely on performance evaluations only (Halstead *et al* 1994). For instance, when customer expectations have become passive (not actively processed), such as in the case of continuously consumed services, the dis/confirmation process will not operate unless performance is clearly outside the range of experience-based norms (Oliver 1989). In this case, the inclusion of the dis/confirmation process as an intervening variable appears to be redundant. That is, when service/product attributes of a restaurant or a destination perform well the customers will be satisfied regardless of any dis/confirmation effect. Given these difficulties some researchers supported the use of performance only in measuring customer satisfaction, while others suggested that weighted importance/ performance (or disconfirmation) models should be favoured in the assessment of consumer satisfaction (Barsky 1992, Barsky and Labagh 1992; Carman 1990; Kivela 1998; Kivela *et al* 1999). Although several methodologies have been developed to provide actionable information for managers, the literature, particularly in the area of hospitality and tourism, lacks empirical studies that compare their relative validity and reliability (Crompton and Love 1995; Oh and Parks 1997). Given the limited research in this area, comparative studies scrutinising the predictive power and reliability of existing methodologies, in determining customer satisfaction, are warranted in tourism service settings.

The analysis of customer satisfaction has become integral to marketing and consumer behaviour research over the last couple of decades. A substantial degree of effort has been devoted to the understanding of the concept, and as a result of that, important findings have been elicited with respect to the consumer satisfaction process (i.e., antecedents and consequences), while little attention has been paid to its structure (i.e., content and dimension) (Gunderson *et al* 1996; Sing 1991). Oliver and DeSarbo (1988: 495), for instance, observe that "more so than others in related disciplines, consumer researchers have advanced and tested the process underlying satisfaction, placing less emphasis on its content". As Sing (1991) notes, a comprehensive understanding of the structure of the satisfaction construct, in a given service experience, is essential not only for measurement and monitoring purposes but also for providing greater insight into the process of satisfaction formation. The following chapter, therefore, attempts to outline dimensions, underlying customer satisfaction with holiday services and foodservice experiences.

CHAPTER VI

Tourist Satisfaction and Foodservice Experience

6.1 Introduction

The preceding sections have presented the debates on customer satisfaction definition, its relationship with other constructs, and its theories, and it is clear that this area of academic research is replete with difficulties. First, the literature lacks studies examining the reliability and validity of the proffered customer satisfaction measurement models. Second, the relationship as well as the difference between customer satisfaction and service quality constructs is confusing. Third, the comparison standard issues is considered crucial, however, there is limited understanding of whether the use of different standards yields different results in terms of satisfaction. Fourth, academics have been largely concerned with the conceptual antecedents of customer satisfaction, while insufficient attention has been paid to its content, particularly in hospitality and tourism service settings. As a consequence, little seems to be known concerning what satisfies tourists with restaurant services. The focus of this Chapter is, therefore, on tourist holiday satisfaction and the role that foodservice experience plays in its formation. First, a review of literature that deals with the complexity of the tourist experience, tourist motivations, and tourist satisfaction is provided. The next section discusses the role of foodservice experience quality in the formation of overall tourist satisfaction. The following section outlines components of the foodservice experience and discusses the significance of market segmentation in the study of customer satisfaction.

6.2 The Tourist Experience

> "Tourism can be an epicurean experience, an indulgence, an enhancement not only of ego but also of the body. Like many human activities, it has both a positive and negative side. To try to understand the tourist experience requires not only a consideration of perceived needs and actualities of the beach and the great outdoors, but also the noise and the din of the disco and the sweat of the massage parlour" (Ryan 1997a: 25).

As can be deduced from Ryan's description, the tourist experience is a highly complex phenomenon which may be explained through a number of linked stages, starting with the translation of holiday needs and wants into motivation, followed by the experiences of various destination services, and ending with memories of the destination after returning home. As research into tourist experience has developed, several frameworks, which attempt to capture the complexity of the tourist experience, have been proffered. Drawing on Engel and Blackwell's (1982) well-known consumption decision process, Van Raaij and Franken (1984), for instance, suggested a framework consisting of five stages: *generic decision (whether to take holiday or not)*; *information acquisition*; *decision making (selection of the alternative)*; *vacation activities*; and *satisfaction and complaints*. Gunn (1989) proposes a modified travel experience model consisting of seven stages. These include the accumulation of mental images about vacation experiences; modification of those images by further information; decision to take a vacation trip; travel to the destination; participation at the destination; return travel; and new accumulation of images based on experience. A somewhat different five-phase process to explain travel experience is suggested by Clawson and Knetch (1990). These are a*nticipation* (planning and thinking of a trip); *travel to the site* (getting to the destination); *on-site behaviour* (behaviour at the destination); *return travel (travel home); and recollection* (recall, reflection and memory of trip).

The proposition shared in these multi-staged models is that a tourist, in making a purchase decision, goes through several stages, starting from need recognition, information search, an evaluation of alternatives, a choice of product or service and a post purchase evaluation (Chon 1990). Thus, the process of choosing and of anticipating the holiday may become part of the overall tourism experience, and people may be motivated as much by the prospects of having a holiday as by the assumed benefits of the holiday itself (Sharpley 1994). In addition, although the physical state of being on holiday terminates when the individual returns home, the memories and images of a holiday may remain much longer. In other words, the holiday may last much longer than the actual period spent away.

The context, meanings and experiences of tourists can vary from holiday to holiday, and from tourist to tourist, and "to talk of the tourist experience seems to imply a *homogeneity* which in reality is not always present" (Ryan 1997a: 28). This is largely because tourists encounter directly with not just one, but with several members of the production chain (Van-Rekom 1994). Holidays, as Crompton (1979) states, can be seen as periods when family bonding can be reinforced, or as Ryan (1991) more cynically notes, they can be catalyst for divorce and occasions when adults can regress into childhood in order to play (in Ryan 1997b). Several researchers have stated the dialectic of tourism as being a tension between the search for and the fear of the new, and the want for either or both social interaction and isolation (Iso-Ahola 1982). The tourist experience is then "both a sense of insularity and a degree of integration into a new environment" (Schmidt 1979: 372] in Ryan 1997b). The tourist is pursuing a quest for authenticity, yet wishes to do so within the safety of a protected bubble (Ryan 1997b). "In sum the tourist experience is a highly subjective and sometimes contradictory one with a content tension between promise and performance, thrift and luxury, illusion and reality" (p. 43). As was detailed in Chapter Two, the nature and quality of this experience is the outcome of many individual activities with a range of people and organisations involved in the tourist experience.

6.3 Why do People Travel?

The key question of *why do people travel* has attracted considerable attention from academics, and as a consequence, a number of different paradigms have been developed. In his attempt to bring an answer to this crucial question, Dann (1977) proposed pull and push factors, which make tourists travel. The push factors are those socio-psychological factors that are internal to the individual and which explain the desire to go on holiday. The need for relaxation, exploration, social interaction, and enhancement of kinship are regarded as the dominant push motives involved in a vacation decision (Crompton 1979). In contrast, pull factors are those which affect the consumers destination choice (Pearce 1992), and include factors such as scenic attractions, and historical sights, cultural characteristics (culinary) and other destination characteristics (Bello and Etzel 1985).

Crompton (1979) extended the push/pull paradigm to accommodate the basic restorative functions of holidays. Crompton's model of vacation motivation conceives of pleasure vacationing as an essential break from routine that is necessary to facilitate the resolution of disequilibrum, which is a state of tension due to circumstances and pressures that disrupt balance in a person's life. Mayo and Jarvis (1981) have developed a four-category travel motivation: *physical motivators* which include physical rest, participation in sports; *cultural motivators* (the desire for knowledge of other countries, folklore, religion, culinary); *interpersonal motivators* (the desire to meet new people, to visit friends); and *status and prestige motivators* (the desire for recognition, attention, appreciation and good reputation). Similarly, Ragheb and Beard (1982) proposed a four-category motivation scale (in Ryan 1997b); the *intellectual component* (learning, exploring, discovering, or imagining), the *social component* (the need for friendship and interpersonal relationships, and the need for the esteem of others), the *competence-mystery component* (master, challenge, and compete), and the *stimulus-avoidance component* (the drive to escape and get away from over-stimulating life situations).

Tourist motivation studies demonstrate that the adjectives and the categories of tourist motivations may differ in number, but similar themes recur (Ryan 1997b). For example, "holidays are seen to arise from the need to escape from everyday surroundings for purposes of relaxation and discovering new things, places and people, and may be periods of self-discovery" (p. 27). A holiday is, therefore, said to be for recuperation and regeneration, compensation and social integration, escape, communication, freedom and self-determination, self-relation, happiness and to broaden the mind (Krippendorf 1987).

Motivational research has grown rapidly, as an understanding of what motivates people to travel is important to destination authorities (Chon 1992). However, there are some practical and methodological concerns with motivational research. For instance, asking tourists what their reasons or motives are for travel is problematic partly because there are always several motives that prompt a person to travel, and many things remain hidden in the subconscious and cannot be brought to light by a simple question (Krippendorf 1987). A number of researchers have also questioned the inclusion of motivations on the grounds that motives at the beginning of the tour may not be the same at the end of the tour. Recall that a similar difficulty is inherent in expectation measurement.

Iso-Ahola (1982) observes that both motivations interact with personal and interpersonal areas of activity, with the results that there exists a dynamic dialectical process as the tourist seeks and avoids push and pull motivations and interaction with others. The nature of this process is that tourists will switch roles while on holiday, and that over time different needs will arise (Ryan 1997b). Thus, a holidaymaker may arrive at a destination needing rest, but after a couple of day's relaxation they will seek to explore their environment.

> "Indeed it is congruent with Maslow's need hierarchy to argue that if initially there is a primary need for relaxation while on holiday, the satisfaction of that need will create awareness of other needs such as an exploration of the place as a means for acquiring a sense of belonging or to enable the process of self-actualisation to take place" (ibid.: 41).

Van-Rekom (1994: 26) notes "tourists learn on the road. As a consequence, after the trip experiences never match the before the trip-motivations completely". One study empirically demonstrated that if leisure motives are measured before a given leisure experience, they are very different from the same measurements taken after the leisure experience, especially when the leisure experience has either been positive or negative (Ross and Iso-Ahola 1991).

6.4 Tourist Satisfaction

Pizam, Neuman and Reichel (1979) noted that compared to what is known about motivation in general and motivation to travel in particular, relatively little is known about tourism satisfaction, its components, measurements, determinants, and consequences. While this statement might have been true at the time of its writing, it probably represents an overstatement today. The concept has received an increased amount of attention since then and important findings have been elicited with respect to its measurement and its consequences. Before proceeding with the review of tourist satisfaction studies, it is important to note that though conceptually linked and positively related to one another, motivation and satisfaction cannot be equated because motives, by definition, occur before the experience, and satisfaction occurs after it (Ross and Iso-Ahola 1991).

A number of researchers have attempted to identify sources or components of experiences which contribute to user enjoyment and satisfaction (Dorfman 1979; Haber and Lerner 1999; Lam and Zhang 1999; Lounsburry and Hoopes 1985; Pizam, Neuman and Reichel 1978; Qu and Ping 1999; Tribe and Snaith 1998; Van Raaij and Franken 1984; Weber 1997; Zalatan 1994). The results of these studies, generally based on the pre-post trip approach (i.e., the EDP), indicate that tourist satisfaction is a multifaceted concept consisting of a number of independent components or dimensions. Some studies indicate that destination related attributes (attractions, services, etc) account for tourist satisfaction, while others argue that consumer related factors such as personality, socio-economic status, demographics, and the familiarity with the destination play an important role in tourist satisfaction. Reviewed studies also suggest that sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction might be different.

Pizam, Neuman and Reichel (1978) were among the first researchers to undertake research into the tourist satisfaction concept. In their seminal study, these researchers analysed tourists' perceptions of a number of destination attributes and concluded that there were eight dimensions influencing holiday satisfaction. The dimensions emerged, after a factor analysis of tourist perception mean scores, were; hospitality, beach opportunities, cost, eating and drinking facilities, accommodation facilities, environment, campground facilities and extent of commercialisation. Although this early study contributed to the understanding of the multifaceted nature of tourist satisfaction, managerial implications of the study are rather limited. This is largely because Pizam and his colleagues did not address which of the dimension(s) matter the most in tourist satisfaction judgements and future behavioural intentions. Secondly, their study seems to assume that there is only one single homogeneous tourist market and thereby, does not take in to account the possible discrepancy that might exist between the satisfaction drivers of different subsets within the total tourist market. Investigating the perceptions of 685 tourists in the States, their research implicitly predicts that these eight dimensions would be the generic set affecting satisfaction of any subset of the total tourist market (for example, first-time visitors and repeat visitors). The validity of this assumption is questionable, as drivers of satisfaction might differ between different consumer groups.

In his research on user satisfaction with recreation facilities (camping), Dorfman (1979) identified the following five factors; absence of negative conditions (annoying and inconsiderate neighbouring campers, crowding and pollution), social-interpersonal relationships, naturalism (wilderness, flora, scenic beauty, fauna, sights), relaxation, and quality camping conditions (facilities and convenience, resources for camping, good terrain). Although Dorfman has not run a rigorous analysis, such as regression analysis, to explore the impact of individual attributes on satisfaction, analysing the variance explained by the emergent factors, he suggested that some attributes might weight more heavily in campers' satisfaction judgements and that the rank of attributes might differ between different groups. For instance, the absence of negative conditions was the most significant factor for one of the three samples in determining the levels of satisfaction, while relaxation was the most significant contributor of satisfaction for two of the other samples. The results of his study further suggested that the causes of campers' dissatisfaction might be different from causes of satisfaction and, the presence of certain camp attributes, might not necessarily create satisfaction.

Lounsburry and Hoopes's (1985) examined vacation satisfaction in relation to demographic, work-related, and vacation-related variables. Their study revealed that there were five satisfaction dimensions; relaxation and leisure, natural environment, escape, marriage and family, and food and lodging. A correlation analysis, performed on demographic, work, and vacation variables (21 variables), elicited that overall satisfaction was most strongly related to satisfaction with relaxation and leisure and also significantly related to satisfaction with escape opportunities, marriage and family satisfaction, satisfaction with food and lodging, and the level of education attainment. They found that vacationers with higher levels of formal educational attainment reported lower levels of vacation satisfaction and vice-versa. This could be because vacationers with higher levels of academic attainment may differ in terms of what they want out of a vacation, they may bring rather complex needs to vacation setting which are more difficult to satisfy in the setting. In order to explore the relative weights of the 21 study variables, they performed a stepwise regression analysis on the data obtained from 129 respondents participated both to pre and post-vacation questionnaires. The results revealed that the satisfaction with relaxation and leisure dimension accounted for the greatest effect on overall satisfaction. Lounsburry and

Hoopes concluded that vacation satisfaction might stem from *person-environment-fit*, wherein satisfaction increases as the fit between individual needs and motives and the ability of vacation to satisfy these needs and motives, is maximised. As their pre- and post vacation questionnaires were not similar, Lounsburry and Hoopes suggested that future studies needed to measure specific expectations prior to a vacation and subsequently examine vacation satisfaction in the light of whether these expectations were met on the vacation. However, operationalisation of this approach is replete with difficulties as explained in the previous chapter.

In their study on satisfaction with organised tours, Geva and Goldman (1989) identified four factors contributing to overall satisfaction. These are: the *instrumental* aspects of the tour (hotels, meals and local services, which are perceived to be under the control of the tour operator); the *social activities* taking place in the tour (mutual relationships among participants, and touring in an organised manner); the *performance of the tour guide* (his/her relationship with the participants, and the order and the organisation of the tour); and the *personal experiences* (the richness of the experience, entertainment on the tour, allocation of time, utilisation of free time and tour itinerary). Their study suggested that as the tour consumption takes place, over time, a large amount of tourist learning takes place, and tourist perceptions of organised tours will not stay static and will change. They observed that in the initial stage of the tour, the tour operator, the guide, and the group (attributes that consumer can evaluate prior to purchasing the product) were the most salient and most relevant, and thus they were the focus of consumers' early evaluations. At the end of the tour, however, the instrumental aspects of the tour (those attributes that can only be evaluated during or after the consumption such as hotels, meals, and local services) were more important. Note that the nature of these dimensions fits into the search, experience, and credence properties explicated in Chapter Two. In essence, this finding suggests that the nature and quality of the experience might be affected by different attributes at different points over the tour's duration.

In a study conducted in 1996, Danaher and Arweiler surveyed tourists about their overall satisfaction with the tourism sector of New Zealand. These researchers attempted to determine the factors that influence overall tourist satisfaction and identify cross-cultural differences among tourists that might arise when evaluating satisfaction levels with their vacations. Using summary judgmental scales in their research (better than expected/worse than expected), the researchers investigated tourist satisfaction with transportation, accommodation, activities and attractions and their sub-components. Their regression analysis showed that activities accounted for one third of the explainable variation, with accommodation and attractions each accounting for over one fourth of the variation. However, the low R^2 (10%) value achieved in their regression analysis means that the researchers seem to have omitted some critical components, such as satisfaction with hospitality and foodservice experiences, in their variable list.

Chadee and Mattsson (1996) attempted to measure the quality of tourist experiences of students from different cultures and how different factors affect the global satisfaction of tourists. Using scenarios exhibited on a set of pictures for four different tourist encounters (eating out, hotel accommodation, renting a car and going on a sightseeing tour), they found that different variables impact on overall satisfaction with the specific encounter differently. For example, the impact of cleanliness on eating-out satisfaction was seven times higher than that of the prices of the meal. They also found that culture might play a role in the levels of satisfaction derived from the experience. Their results showed that compared to European students, Asians derived lower levels of overall satisfaction from the eating out experience, suggesting that culture plays significant role in how individuals form their perceptions and satisfaction.

Based on the summary judgmental scale employed by Danaher and Arweiler, Juaneda and Sastre (1997) investigated tourist satisfaction in the Balearic Islands. They found that satisfaction with local hospitality, prices, accommodation, and attractions has the strongest impact on overall satisfaction with the holiday. Their study differed from that of Danaher and Arweiler, in that they attempted to incorporate a comparative approach into tourist satisfaction studies in order to identify strengths and weaknesses of the Balearic Islands' tourist product. These researchers, however, did not analyse whether tourists perceptions of their holidays, in other destinations, bear any impact on the levels of satisfaction derived from the current holiday experience, and whether future intention to visit the present destination, would be affected by past holiday experiences in other destinations.

In their motivational investigation into the structure of service experience and satisfaction in tourism, Otto and Ritchie (1996) identified four dimensions. The first factor was hedonics, accounting for 33% variance, in which consumers stated the need to be doing what they loved, to have their imaginations stirred, and to be thrilled by the service activities. The second significant factor was peace of mind in which consumers cited the need for both physical and psychological safety and comfort. The third factor, involvement, deals with the need for participation in activities and to be educated and informed. The final factor, the recognition, suggests that consumers want to derive a sense of personal recognition from their service providers, such that they can feel important and confident and that they are being taken seriously. These researchers suggested that satisfaction was a function of these dimensions only. While critical to the understanding of the concept, it seems that their research focused on the affective (emotional) side of the service experience only. These researchers overlooked the significance of so called technical aspects of a holiday (what is being delivered, e.g., accommodation and meals) as well as functional aspects (how it is being delivered, service quality), in the formation of tourist satisfaction. As they have not included the technical and functional aspects of a holiday into their research instrument, it is not possible to assess whether these aspects affect the fulfilment of consumer motivations and satisfaction. As Noe and Uysal (1997) note, there might be a maintenance factor without which satisfaction would not be achieved. For instance, the need for relaxation and to participate in activities will never be attained when the tourist suffers from an upset stomach.

In a recent study, Haber and Lerner (1999) argued that that tourist satisfaction is positively related to the attractiveness of the tourism venture's location; the areas of strength of the ventures and the number of services offered; and the entrepreneur's management skills and personal entrepreneurial features. The environmental dimension consists of a tourist-related infrastructure, which includes auxiliary services such as restaurants, shopping, transportation, places of entertainment, information, options for excursions, supply of activities for children, range of tourism activities in the area, the scenery, the climate. The organisational element comprises the quality of the service, employee professionalism, price, product innovativeness, facilities, customer service, and location. The final dimension that was discussed in

Haber and Lerner's study is the entrepreneurial dimension, which includes a desire for independence, locus of control, risk tasking, and persistence.

Findings of these studies suggest that overall tourist satisfaction may be evaluated along two broad dimensions. First, the instrumental dimension and second the expressive dimension. Instrumental dimension relates to the physical performance of the product such as cleanliness. In contrast, the expressive dimension corresponds to the "psychological" level of performance (for example, comfort, hospitality, and relaxation). Some researchers argue that tourist satisfaction with the psychological performance of a product is extremely important. For instance, based on a study of tourism in India, Ohja (1982) reports that, there were tourists who were satisfied despite some problems with the physical product offered, yet there were tourists who were dissatisfied with the best physical product. Drawing on this study, Ohja concludes that tourist satisfaction does not come only from good sights but from the behaviour one encounters, from the information one gets, and from the efficiency with which needs are served. Discussing the relative significance of these two dimensions, Reisinger and Turner (1997) remark that even the best physical product cannot compensate for psychological dissatisfaction. This suggests that when assessing tourist satisfaction with destinations, along with the "instrumental" dimension of satisfaction (satisfaction with physical performance), the "expressive" dimension of satisfaction (satisfaction with psychological performance) should also be assessed (Reisinger and Turner 1997).

In addition to the significance of the expressive dimension, several studies have shown that instrumental dimension (practical aspects) of the holiday could contribute measurably to tourist satisfaction (Noe and Uysal 1997). For instance, Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman's (1959) research on work motivation suggests that hygiene factors (for example, cleanliness), if not satisfied, cannot be compensated for, which leads to dissatisfaction. Similarly, in Lounsburry and Hoopes's research (1985), although it explained only a small portion of the variance (6%), the "lodging and food" dimension emerged among vacationers important satisfaction dimensions. In Whipple and Thach (1988) research, along with the more expressive attributes of sightseeing, two instrumental service features, including a tour escort service and point of departure, were singled out as significantly contributing to satisfaction of the trip. In another study on organised tours, it was also evident that tourist satisfaction was influenced by factors unrelated to long term or planned motivational considerations (Geva and Goldman 1991). Such practical aspects as the pace of the tour, opportunities to use facilities, comfort, and cleanliness of the bus, figured noticeably among the satisfaction dimensions. This would suggest that motivations (such as knowledge seeking and escape, relaxation) may be more easily achieved if such practical aspects are taken into account and catered for on holidays. In other words, such instrumental aspects as the quality of accommodation and foodservice may have the potential to facilitate or inhibit the fulfilment of the holiday motivations. The practical implications of all this is that destination authorities should always try to satisfy the hygiene (or the basic) factors first, and then the motivational factors (Ross and Iso-Ahola 1991).

6.4.1 Socio-Demographics and Tourist Satisfaction

Studies of tourist satisfaction assessment further demonstrate that, in addition to the relationship between satisfaction and destination-related attributes, there might be a relationship between satisfaction and tourists' socio-economic status and destination (length of stay, familiarity with the destination). Zalatan (1994), for instance, found that years of schooling and household income were inversely correlated with holiday satisfaction. Lounsburry and Hoopes (1985), and Franken and Raaij (1979) reported a similar finding. Franken and Raaij (1979), for instance, found that tourists with lower incomes and education and from higher age brackets tend to have lower expectations, aspirations, and report higher levels of vacation satisfaction. This is largely because travelling is probably more of a novelty and would have a higher appeal for this person (Zalatan 1994). This situation would make the traveller less demanding and would have a positive effect on the level of satisfaction (ibid.). Travellers with higher educational levels may differ in terms of what they want out of a vacation and they may have more complex needs, which are more difficult to satisfy (Lounsburry and Hoopes 1985). They might be more critical of destination attributes, hence it may be harder to satisfy these individuals (ibid.).

In addition, the duration of the holiday has been found to affect the level of satisfaction; the longer the length of stay, the higher the level of satisfaction (Zalatan 1994). Gender was also found to be another factor. It was found that men were less satisfied than women: mean scores for women and men were 7.4 and 6.8 respectively (ibid.). Rubenstein (1980), in an analysis of a reader survey, found that women enjoyed their vacations more than men (in Lounsburry and Hoopes 1985).

6.4.2 Familiarity and Tourist Satisfaction

Familiarity was reported to be significantly and positively related to tourist satisfaction. Zalatan concluded that in general, other factors being equal, an increase in familiarity would tend to reduce uncertainty and increase tourist satisfaction. Pearce and Caltabiano (1983), Pearce (1988), and Whipple and Thatch (1988) reported similar findings. Whipple and Thatch (1988), for instance, reported that first-time travellers had higher expectations and lower post-trip performance ratings than did more experienced tourists. This could be because experienced visitors, based on their experiences, know what to expect, realistically, from the destination.

Some researchers have coined the *travel career ladder* concept in order to explain the relationship between the holiday propensity and satisfaction (Pearce and Caltabiano 1983; Pearce 1988; Pearce 1992). This concept basically addresses learning through a tourist experience (Ryan 1997b). According to this notion, which is initially based on the Maslow's hierarchy of needs concept, tourists develop varying motivations of relaxation, stimulation, relationship, self-esteem and development, and fulfilment (Pearce 1988). "A person progresses through an ordinal series of stages and each of these stages involves experiences which will have different influences on his/her self-concept" (Pearce 1988: 28). Those who are on the upper stages of the *travel career ladder* (more experienced tourists) would increasingly engage in more intellectual pursuits, and may be keen to know the history and culture of places (Ryan 1997b). Ryan states that

> "For those undertaking their first overseas trip, their major concerns may be those of wanting relaxation within a safe environment. However, as they become more experienced, so too they may become more curious about the

> culture and history of other places, and possibly even seek a sense of identification either with a place, or establish a sense of self through having knowledge of differences between cultures" (p. 38).

That is, more experienced travellers may use travel for the development of relationships, self-esteem purposes and even for self-actualisation motives (Pearce 1988).

Drawing on the *travel career ladder* concept, it could be argued that more experienced tourists derive more and better satisfaction than the less experienced because they are further up the travel ladder (Ryan 1997b). "They are prompted by qualitatively different needs", and when these needs are met, they are more satisfied (Ryan 1997b: 43). Ryan goes on to argue that both experienced and inexperienced holiday makers may be motivated by the same needs, but more experienced holiday makers are simply through experience, more able to satisfy those needs. The confirmation of this contention is found in such studies as Pearce (1988) and Kim (1994). For instance, Pearce found that the sources of satisfaction differ between more and less experienced tourists within the same milieu. Repeat visitors show more interest in relationships and self esteem, and greater satisfaction was experienced by more experienced tourists. Pearce's results demonstrate that mean scores vary from 5.30 to 5.83 on a 6-point scale between needs, with the tourists who rated needs more highly. Kim (1994: 87), for instance, found that "Those who rated safety and security most positively are the least satisfied of tourists. On the other hand, the highly satisfied group was more likely to fulfil higher needs of the travel career ladder" (in Ryan 1997b).

In addition to the propensity of taking holidays, some researchers maintain that holiday satisfaction might be affected by the personality of the individual holidaymaker (Dann 1979). In other words, "those who feel good are those who are satisfied because they have a preponderance of positive experience in their lives and in their holidays" (Ryan 1997b: 44). Some researchers even assert that tourism satisfaction is not a function of satisfaction with the services offered by the destination, but a function of overall life satisfaction (Dann 1979). According to Dann's contention, one could argue that satisfaction with hotel amenities might be related to a person's health, current marital happiness, and degree of anomie and so on. In his criticism of Pizam *et al*'s early study, Dann argues that their approach appears to provide little information. "All that is provided is a breakdown of resort features to which individuals assign scores, nothing is said about the type of the tourists and their preferences". Some support for his argument could be found in Franken and Van Raaij's (1984) work, which demonstrated that leisure satisfaction was higher for people who are older and had an *optimistic* look, while persons with a low level satisfaction were younger and had a *pessimistic* outlook. In a recent study undertaken by Ryan and Glendon (1998), this type of holidaymakers was found to rate highly in expectation and use of holiday facilities, and also reported high levels of satisfaction. However, though intuitively appealing "to suggest every single satisfaction with a product, a service or an experience is a function of that person's overall life satisfaction, regardless of the quality of the product is simply preposterous" (Pizam *et al* 1979: 196).

Reviewed literature up to now suggest that tourist satisfaction is a very complex issue and has been receiving growing attention from researchers. Over the last three decades, some studies have investigated tourist satisfaction from anthropological, sociological and psychological perspectives. While these perspectives are critical to an understanding of the concept, they are not readily transferable into managerial actions. Some studies indicated that destination related attributes, that management can directly manipulate, account for tourist satisfaction, while others argued that consumer related factors such as personality, socio-economic status, demographics, and the familiarity with the destination, play an important role in tourist satisfaction. Some studies considered tourist market as homogenous and contended that generic dimensions affect tourist satisfaction, while others defended the idea that drivers of satisfaction between different subsets of the market might be different, which requires managerial attention. Researchers in the tourist satisfaction area also seem to have paid inadequate attention to comparative studies, although it is important to know the relative performance for the success in both short and long terms. The possibility that the performance level delivered by a competitor might affect tourist satisfaction and future intentions with the present destination, appears to be under researched. Assessment of performance relative to main competitors can help destination managers develop better focus in catching-up and/or differential strategies.

Despite these continuing debates, there are two elements on which there appears to be total agreement. First, tourist satisfaction is not a universal phenomenon, not everyone gets the same satisfaction out of the same holiday experience, and second, tourist satisfaction may be a multifaceted concept. This is partly because unlike material products and pure services, the holiday experience is a blend of different tangible and intangible products brought together. As tourism is an experience made up of many different independent parts, some more tangibles than others, tourist satisfaction, as was discussed in Chapter Two, may be treated as a cumulative measure of total consumption experience. In other words, satisfaction with a holiday experience may be based on the sum total of satisfactions with the individual attributes of all the products and services that compose the holiday experience, and that the relative weight of these attributes, in the formation of tourist satisfaction, might be different.

6.5 Sources of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction: Are they the same?

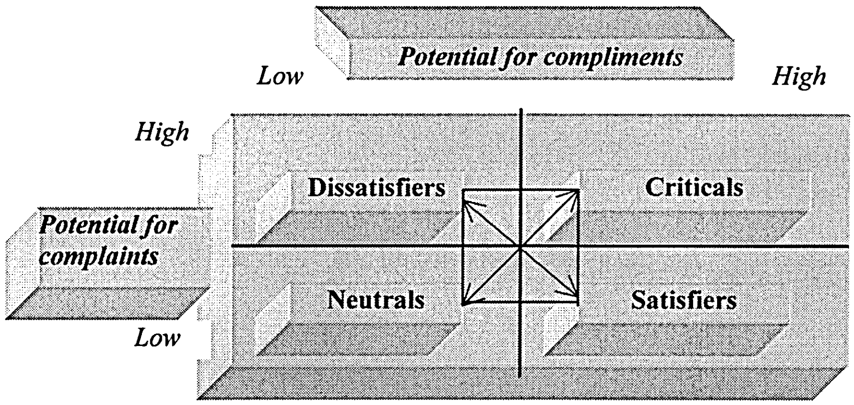
Some researchers have asserted that consumers may judge products on a limited set of attributes, some of which are relatively important in determining satisfaction, while others are not critical to consumer satisfaction but are related to dissatisfaction when their performance is unsatisfactory. Herzberg *et al* (1959), for instance, proposed that those attributes whose presence or absence causes satisfaction are not the same as those that cause dissatisfaction (motivation and hygiene factors). Similarly, Swan and Comb (1976) reported that the determinants of customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction might be different. Based on the above argument, it seems reasonable to assume that some attributes in a given service experience may lead to dissatisfaction when they are not performed right, but they may not result in high satisfaction when they have been performed well.

Cadotte and Turgeon (1988) carried out a content analysis of complaints and compliments reported by a cross-section of restaurant owners on restaurants in the USA. They found that the performance or absence of a desired feature led to dissatisfaction, which then resulted in complaining behaviour. Interestingly however, higher levels of performance on these features did not appear to cause compliments (for example, parking at the restaurant). They called these variables as *dissatisfiers* and concluded that *dissatisfiers* represent the necessary but not sufficient conditions of product performance. They also found that there were some variables where unusual performance elicited strong feelings of satisfaction leading to complimenting behaviour, but typical performance or the absence of the performance did not necessarily cause negative feelings (for example large portions of food versus normal portions). They also suggested that there were *critical attributes*, the variables that elicited both positive and negative feelings depending on the situation. Finally, they identified *neutrals* as those areas, which received neither compliments nor complaints. The classification of these variables may change. That is, some dissatisfiers could turn into satisfiers over time (see Figure 4).

Similarly, Johnston and Silvestro (1990) using a convenience sample of 100 anecdotes covering many services, found some degree of support for the satisfying, dissatisfying and criticals proposition put forward by Cadotte and Turgeon. They called their categories *hygiene*, *enhancing* and *dual factors*, (based on the similarity of Herzberg *et al*'s categorisation of the factors affecting job satisfaction: motivators and hygiene). *Hygiene factors* were those expected by the consumer and the failure to deliver them may cause dissatisfaction, for example cleanliness in a restaurant. *Enhancing factors* are those variables, which lead to customer satisfaction, but the failure to deliver them will not cause dissatisfaction. *Dual factors* were defined, as those variables, which are not delivered, will cause dissatisfaction. Their delivery will enhance customers' perceptions and lead to satisfaction.

These findings suggest that there may be differences between the causes of tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction, which bears important managerial implications. For instance, if there are areas where achieving high performance will not be noticed and rewarded by the tourist, then only adequate performance must be delivered in these areas. Putting time and effort into improving performance beyond adequate will be a waste of effort. Managers also need to know which destination attributes are the critical ones because these attributes may have the potential to promote, as well as damage, a destination's image.

Figure 4. Matrix of Potential for Compliments and Complaints



1. Low compliments, high complaints (*Dissatisfiers*)
2. Low compliments, low complaints (*Neutrals*)
3. High compliments, low complaints (*Satisfiers)*
4. High compliments, high complaints (*Criticals*)

Source: Developed from Guerrier, Kipps, Lockwood and Sheppard (1992).

Having discussed the complexity of tourist satisfaction, the following section attempts to examine the relationship between tourist foodservice experiences and overall holiday satisfaction. First, the significance of foodservice experience on overall holiday satisfaction is discussed, and then a section explaining what constitutes foodservice experience is presented.

6.6 Foodservice Experience and Tourist Satisfaction

Since the nature of the total tourist product is composed of various tangible and intangible characteristics, it is likely that tourist satisfaction will accumulate through numerous interactions and encounters during the holiday experience. Within this context, it is argued that foodservice experiences may contribute to tourist satisfaction with the entire holiday. The role of foodservice experience may be instrumental and important in engendering tourist loyalty, ensuring positive word-of-mouth recommendation, and competitive edge. However, despite the fact that tourism cannot exist without catering, the potential influence of the foodservice experience on further development of tourism seems to have received inadequate attention from researchers and destination authorities (Yuksel and Rimmington 1998a).

Inadequate attention, placed on the potential contribution of foodservice experience to tourism, is curious for a number of reasons. First of all, the food itself may not be a major element of choice of destination, though in some cases it might be (Westering 1999), the tourist does want a cultural experience that can be provided by the food characteristics of the destination (Hudman 1986). Foodservice experience may become an overriding critical element in generating a differential edge and repeat business among other destinations of comparable natural beauty and other general features (Kaspar 1986). Discussing its cultural importance, Ryan (1997c: 62) notes that

> "at first sight the item *food* would be attributed to physiological needs, but in the case of *good food* many respondents were linking it with aspects of culture and a way of life, and hence *good food* and ambience in which it was enjoyed becomes much more than the satisfaction of a basic physiological need".

Foodservice facilities are indeed important assets of the tourist industry. In Poland, for instance, basic catering facilities providing a regional menu fulfil the role of visitor attractions at regional, national and international levels (Kruczala 1986). Thus, the motivational function of gastronomy in tourism, despite the fact that only secondary importance is attached to it, should not be disregarded (Kaspar 1986).

Secondly, foodservice experience is an inseparable part of the holiday experience, and thus, it may become instrumental and important in engendering tourist satisfaction, tourist loyalty, and word-of-mouth recommendations. Eating-out is an important part of making a holiday worthwhile and, as such, is a key element of the holiday experience. A one-week holiday involves almost 21 foodservice encounters, and failure to meet this physiological as well as social need effectively, during these encounters, may inhibit the enjoyment of subsequent activities that follow the meal (for example, a trip to a historical site). Hanszuch (1991: 11), the chief executive of the WTO, observes that "as far as tourists are concerned, the quality of their trip, their mental health and fitness, and hence their ability to adapt, learn and enjoy depends primarily on what they eat". This suggests that all the joy, thrills, and other expectations of the holiday may disappear if the tourist becomes ill due to improper food or upset because of low service quality rendered.

Confirmation of Hanszuch's contention is found in Pearce's and Caltabiano's (1983) and Jackson, White and Schmiere's (1994) studies. For example, in their study covering 456 positive and 434 negative accounts of tourists' experiences, Jackson *et al* (1994) found out that the negative experiences had been primarily induced by such factors as poor food and poor accommodation. Similarly, using Maslow's hierarchy of needs in their data analysis, Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) reported that negative tourist experiences were related to safety and to the lower stages of Maslow's hierarchy, for example, physiological needs which corresponded to poor food and accommodation difficulties. Fulfilment of physiological needs such as good food, sun and relaxation of tourists leads to positive experiences (ibid.).

Thirdly, the foodservice industry is one of the prime generators of jobs and income and accounts for one quarter of the tourists' travel budget (Belisle 1983; Elmont 1995; Fox and Sheldon 1986). Tourists on holiday require places where the meal will be an experience to be enjoyed, an experience to be anticipated with excitement, to be relished in the fulfilment and to be remembered with satisfaction (Marris 1986). Overlooking and not knowing the shortcomings in tourists' foodservice experiences may induce future business loss, as it will bring about negative publicity for the destination. All of these suggest that while destination authorities are making tourism development a priority, they should not underestimate the importance of foodservice as part of tourism development. To this end the following section takes a critical review of the studies conducted in foodservice industry and presents the foodservice experience components. The section then reviews market segmentation and its relevance in satisfaction studies.

6.6.1 Foodservice Experience

Foodservice is a complex experience that centres on social interaction that is implicit in serving and eating food (Finkelstein 1989; Jones and Jones 1990; Romm 1988). Despite its importance in tourism, only a limited number of studies have been undertaken to explore what brings satisfaction, what service aspects are considered important in repeat visit judgements, and what discourages such return business in restaurants at tourist destinations (Reisinger and Warzsyack 1996). Studies undertaken on foodservice experience suggest that there are a number of components which may affect customers' dining satisfaction (Johns and Tyas 1996; Johns *et al* 1996; Kivela 1997; 1998; Lyos *et al* 1995; Pizam 1994; Reudland, Coudrey and Fagel 1988). To some, a foodservice experience is a blend of three elements. These are the *material product*; those which are physically consumable by the customer such as food in a restaurant, *the environment elements*; all the physical and abstract features of the place where material products are produced and consumed such as ambience, furnishing of the restaurant, and the *performance elements*; the behaviour and attitude of the service providers (Reudland *et al* 1985). To others, dining satisfaction may be a function of physical facilities, the quality of the core product, dependability and accuracy of service, willingness to help customers, the knowledge and courtesy of employees, individualised attention that the company provides to its customers, and the price and value of the product (Bojanic and Rosen 1995; Johns *et al* 1996; Johns and Tyas 1996; Lee and Hing 1995; Stevens *et al* 1995). These elements can be viewed under three main headings: the service personnel, the service environment, and the product cost and value. The following section presents each of these components in turn.

6.6.1.1 Foodservice Experience and Service Personnel

The tourism and hospitality industries rely heavily on the development of positive perceptions of service providers (Reisinger and Warzsyack 1996). It is often the behaviour both verbal and non-verbal of the employees that will have the greatest impact on the success of a service encounter (George and Tan 1993). Employee attitudes during the foodservice encounters largely determine how consumers perceive the quality level of the transaction. Thus, the quality of service rendered cannot be separated from the quality of the service provider (George and Berry 1981). In some cases, the service is thought to be capable of redeeming the poor food (Martin 1987). The high quality convivial dimension of service may compensate for the low quality procedural dimension of service (ibid.). The reverse is also true. "The food may be outstanding, the comfort of the restaurant is unequivocal but pleasures afforded by the event are tested when the waiter is unexpectedly insouciant or service slow" (Finkelstein 1989: 56).

Impact of service providers' behaviour on the level of customer satisfaction is evident in the literature. For example, Morris (1983) found out that in a Canadian hotel study, 44% of guests' complaints were attributable to tangible aspects, whereas the majority, 56%, were due to intangibles (for example employee attitudes). Similarly, research undertaken in the USA reveals that an attitude of indifference or unconcern by one or more employees of a restaurant, accounted for the majority (68%) of reasons of why customers will cease to patronise a restaurant (Miller 1992). The positive perception of the human element of service delivery, and, in particular the perception of customer-service provider encounters, is influential in the formation of tourist product satisfaction. This suggests that it is necessary to control not only what is offered but also how it is presented and served, as positive tourist perceptions of service providers may motivate tourists to make return visits, while a negative tourist perception of service providers may deter tourists from returning (Pearce 1982).

6.6.1.2 Foodservice Experience and the Service Environment

Next to the service, a commonly mentioned feature of dining out which contributes to consumer enjoyment is the service environment. The atmosphere or mood (service environment) of a restaurant is a difficult aspect to define but it generally signifies the intangible feel inside a restaurant. It includes decor and interior design of the restaurant, the seating arrangements, the dress and attitude of staff, the service tempo, the overall cleanliness of the environment and the type and behaviour of other customers (Davies and Stone 1992).

In the case of leisure services, such as restaurant services, whereby customers must stay in the facility for an extended period of time (perhaps several hours) the facility itself, or the service-scape as termed by Bitner (1992), may have a substantial effect on customers' satisfaction with the service experience, and may play an important role in determining whether customers will return (Wakefield and Blodgett 1994). This suggests that the longer one spends in a facility, the greater the likelihood that the perceived quality of the service-scape will play an important role in determining satisfaction with the service. In addition, the heightened consumer involvement inherent in many leisure services, including restaurant services, tends to increase inspection and evaluation, and therefore increases the effects of the environment on consumer attitudes (Wakefield and Blodgett 1994). Similarly, Shostack (1985: 251) notes that

> "customers have a difficult time trying to objectively determine, particularly prior to purchase, they look for the physical evidence at hand for verification. The symbolic nature of apparel and appearance plays very heavily on both their willingness to try a service and their satisfaction with it".

Service environment may affect consumers' emotional, cognitive and psychological responses, which in turn influences their evaluations and behaviour (Bitner 1992). For instance, Hopkinson *et al* (1996) found that the comfort of subjects increased at relatively low levels of light, whereas discomfort decreased with high levels of light. Similarly, Mehrabian, an environmental psychologist, suggests that there are two types of environment; high-load and low-load. High and low refer to the information that one receives from the environment. Bright colours, bright lights, loud noises, crowds, and movement are typical elements of a high-load environment, while their opposites are a low-load environment. It is suggested that a high-load environment create a playful, adventurous mood, while low-load environment creates a relaxing mood (in Kotler, Bowen and Makens 1996). Atmosphere or service environment can influence purchase behaviour at least four ways (Kotler *et al* 1996). Atmosphere can serve as (1) an attention-creation medium, (2) a message-creating medium, (3) an effect-creating medium, and (4) finally as mood-creating medium. This suggests that provision of a pleasing service environment and atmosphere could create a competitive advantage for a restaurant.

In addition to decor and colour, noise is an important element of a restaurant's service environment affecting consumer behaviour. It is not only noisy kitchens and clattering plates that supposedly inhibits a good meal experience but also the intrusiveness of the other diners' conversations (Finkelstein 1989). The background music or noise may have a significant impact on consumer behaviour and the length of time that customers spend in a restaurant. For example, Milliman (1986), in a study of customer reactions to slow and fast-tempo music, observed different reactions. In the case of slow tempo music, customers stayed longer, ate about the same amount of food, but consumed more alcoholic beverages. The study concludes "background music can significantly affect the behaviour of restaurant customers" (in Buttle 1990). In addition to the noise level, the *social environment*, which includes other customers sharing the service experience, may influence enjoyment of service experience in restaurants (Baker and Cameron 1996). In addition, crowd level is regarded as another potential element, which influences the enjoyment of dining out. Wakefield and Blodgett (1994), for instance, comment that if the service-scape is crowded, "one's ability to explore and encounter stimulating experiences in the environment (such as looking around in restaurants) as well as to be comfortable during one's stay is hindered" (p. 69).

In short, service environment has little to do with food but a great deal to do with the dining out experience. This suggests that a good restaurant needs more than good food. That is, the core food service offered in a restaurant must be of acceptable quality, but a pleasing service environment (or the service-scape as Bitner terms it) (i.e., the building, decor, layout, employee appearance, etc.) may determine, to a great extent, the degree of overall satisfaction and repeat patronage (Wakefield and Blodgett 1996).

6.6.1.3 Foodservice Experience and Product Cost and Value

The cost of dining out is another important feature, which may affect the individual's dining pleasure. Service cost is basically what consumers have to give up or sacrifice to obtain a desired service (Lee and Ulgado 1997). Since it has a negative impact on consumers' budget, it will have a negative impact on perceptions. The concept of cost does not only include the monetary cost but also non-monetary costs such as service time, which is the amount of time during which a service is provided. Depending on the circumstances, customers would like to have faster or slower services, therefore service time would be a prime determinant of perceived service quality in the same way as monetary cost would (Jones and Jones 1990). It is important to note that if a customer is given a slow service s/he will be unhappy, but the same is true if a customer is rushed through the meal (Meyers 1991). Meyers also draws attention to the fact that time is perceived differently by customers and service providers. The customer's perception is that everything is taking a lot longer than it really is, while the server thinks events are moving a long rapidly.

Waiting times can affect customer dissatisfaction as well as word-of-mouth recommendations (Iacobucci 1998), as waiting entails both economic and psychological costs and that consumers also experience a considerable amount of stress because of the uncertainty of how long they must wait (Hui and Tse 1996). The waiting time may become a pivotal factor in consumer's evaluation of restaurant services. Similarly, Dawes and Rowley (1996) argue that waiting time and experience is potentially central to the customer experience because it is an identifiable and memorable part of the total experience. They argue that for a large number of service organisations, including restaurants, the relationship between customer satisfaction and waiting time can be affected by customers' prior experience, the number of customers in the service facility, criticality of the time to the customer. In assessing the customer experience of restaurants, Fitzsimmons and Maurer (1991) point that customers want to be attended to, *even if they are waiting*. In support of this view, Haynes (1990) argues that empty minutes are long minutes; in-process minutes are shorter; unknown waits are longer; wait for valued outcomes seems shorter; fair waits seem shorter; over-promise stretches reasonable waits; and observable time-saving actions can make waits seem shorter (in Dawes and Rowley 1996). These principles suggest that waiting time and experience can be an integral part of the total dining experience and therefore must be taken on board by restaurateurs.

The concept of value, generally associated with price, also appears to be an important aspect contributing to customer satisfaction (Bojanic 1996). Generally speaking, the majority of customers tend to frequent restaurants not only because of good food but also because they feel the price they are paying, represents value for money (Davis and Stone 1985). Zeithaml (1985: 14) defines value as

> "the consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given. Though what is received varies across customers (for example, some may want volume, others high quality, still others convenience) and what is given varies (for example, some are concerned with money expended, others with time and effort), value represents a trade-off of the salient give and get components".

In fact, value may have a different meaning to different individuals (ibid.). Value might be regarded as low price, or whatever the consumer wants in a product, or the quality the consumer gets for the price and/ or value is what the consumer gets for what they give (Zeithaml 1981). Value is no longer described as being purely a price issue, but instead is described as a complex equation which considers various costs, as a combination of time, effort, entertainment value, service, convenience, price and food quality (Cronin *et al* 1997; Quinton 1981).

This review suggests that it is vital to know which of the foodservice component(s) matter most in tourist satisfaction with foodservice experiences and how they could be best combined to produce the desired experience. There is, however, inadequate information available in relation to what brings satisfaction, what service aspects are considered important in repeat visit judgements, what may discourage such return business, and what causes satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction within tourist dining segments. Lack of attention paid to understanding of segment-specific satisfaction is curious as the tourist market is highly fragmented and segment-specific analysis can promote better marketing and management. To this end, the following section undertakes a critical review of market segmentation and discusses the vitality of incorporating this concept into tourist satisfaction research.

6.7 Market Segmentation and Satisfaction

> "Success in restaurant marketing rests on thoroughly understanding the market you want to serve. By applying a market-segmentation approach, your marketing effort will be more precise, you will be able to spot and compare marketing opportunities, and you will be better able to allocate expenses in your promotional budget. Some market segments will respond to your restaurant more strongly than others will. So, if you identify the high-potential segments, determine the products, and service attractive to them and then promote those products and services in the most effective media, you will achieve a higher return for each promotional dollar spent"(Swinyard and Struman 1986: 89).

While the lodging and travel literature is replete with market segmentation studies, there are only a few studies which have investigated the benefits sought by different segments within the restaurant sector (Bojanic and Shea 1997). There are also limited number of studies investigating market specific satisfaction. Lewis (1981) provided an early application of benefit segmentation with actionable results for management decision making. Lewis investigated the users and nonusers of family, theme, and gourmet restaurants and found that segments differed in their opinions concerning the importance of several service attributes. Based on an analysis of customers' value benefits factors, lifestyle factors, usage patterns, and demographic descriptors, Swinyard and Struman (1986) identified three customer segments: family diners, romantics, and entertainers. By analysing customer expectations of fast food restaurants, Oh and Jeong (1996) ascertained four different customer segments: neat service seekers, convenience seeker, classic diner, and indifferent diner. Bahn and Grazin (1985) have tested the merit of benefit segmentation to restaurant marketers and found how nutritional concerns can affect restaurant patronage. They discovered four distinct segments: health segment, gourmet segment, value segment, and unconcerned segment. They found that the health segment is highly concerned with issues involving nutrition, whereas the gourmet segment is less concerned with the nutritional issue. Their study revealed that these four segments are likely to patronise different restaurant types. For example, the health segment is unlikely to frequent fast-food restaurants, whereas the value group is most likely to patronise fast-food restaurants. To capture the health segment, they suggest that restaurateurs should stress the nutritiousness of their food being offered in their advertisements. Grazin and Olsen's (1997) recent work revealed three groups of consumers relating to fast food restaurants: non-users, light users and heavy users.

Kivela (1997) undertook a study in four different types of restaurants, namely fine dining/gourmet, theme/atmosphere, family/popular, and convenience/fast-food restaurants in order to identify main choice variables. He then analysed whether perceived importance of choice variables differed by dining occasion, age and income segments. The results of Kivela's study indicated that customers' preferences of choice variables varied significantly by restaurant type, dining occasion, age and occupation. In a study of restaurant segmentation in the UK, Auty (1992) identified three segments; students, well-to-do middle aged, and older people. She found that image and atmosphere were the most critical factors in the final choice between similar restaurants. Williams, DeMicco, and Kotschehevar (1997) investigated the physiological and psychological challenges that older restaurant customer segment faces. In their study of downtown and suburban restaurants, Bojanic and Shea (1997) found significant difference between the satisfaction drivers of customers patronising these restaurants.

Becker-Suttle, Weaver, and Crawford-Welch (1994) undertook a segmentation study between groups of senior and non-senior citizens regarding benefits sought in full-service restaurant dining. Using a conjoint analysis, they identified discrepancies between the two groups' requirements concerning menu variety and portion size. In their comparative-cross-national segmentation study, Kara, Kaynak, and Kucukemiroglu (1997) found differences between the US and Canadian consumers in terms of the relationship between frequency of purchase and attributes considered important, in selecting fast-food restaurants. In a recent study, Shoemaker (1998) discovered five distinct segments among university students: perceptive shopper, expedient shopper, 24-hour social, focused diner, and demanding diner. Shank and Nahhas (1994) applied segmentation analysis in order to examine dining preferences of mature and younger consumers frequenting family dining/medium priced restaurants and found differences in terms of dining preferences, dining habits, and loyalty.

A review of these segmentation studies clearly demonstrates that there are distinct customer groups within the total market, and managers can enhance sales volume and profits by developing segment-specific strategies, based on a scientific approach to segmentation rather than on the basis of their own intuition. It is important to note that the majority of these studies were undertaken predominantly with domestic customers patronising local fast-food restaurants, while no segmentation research was undertaken (to the researcher's best knowledge) with tourists on vacation patronising independent non-fast-food restaurants. While past studies have focused on identification of factors that differentiate segments, except from two studies (Oh and Jeong 1996; Oh and Motto 1998) the scrutiny of dining satisfaction and repeat business determinants of these segments seems to have received limited attention from researchers. From a management viewpoint, it is important to understand what brings and discourages satisfaction and repeat business, in relation to specific viable segments.

At present, there is also inadequate understanding of whether tourists' eating-out patterns and benefits, that they seek from restaurants (choice criteria) on vacation, may be radically different from when they are not on vacation. Only a few published studies exist in the literature which investigate the criteria used by customers in choosing restaurants (Tucci and Talaga 1997). Auty (1992), for instance, administered an open-ended questionnaire, to a sample population to elicit which choice factors or restaurant attributes were important to them when selecting a restaurant. The various open-ended responses were grouped into 10 categories: food type, food quality, value for money, image and atmosphere, location, speed of service, recommendation, new experience, opening hours and facilities for children. While food type and food quality were the most frequently cited choice variables (regardless of the occasion), image and atmosphere emerged as the critical factors in the final choice between restaurants serving a similar type and quality of food.

In an earlier study, Lewis (1980) identified the following set of choice; food quality, menu variety, price, atmosphere, and convenience. He found that the set of choice criteria differed according to the type of restaurant to be patronised. For example, for the atmosphere restaurant group, the most significant choice criteria were food quality and atmosphere, followed by menu variety, price, and convenience factors. A survey carried out by Graham and MacPherson (1977) illustrates that the criteria used, when selecting a place to eat, even varied by time of day. At lunch time the most significant criteria were the type of food served, atmosphere and price; in the evening, a liquor licence became more important as price became less important and more care was exercised over selection (in Buttle 1986). Kasdan (1996) contends that location is the most important factor in selecting a fast food restaurant, but the three most important factors are low price, speed of service and consistency. Farkas (1992) reports the results of a Gallup poll, which found that taste is the main factor which determines fast food patronage followed by price and value, type of food, service and nutrition (in Pettijohn *et al* 1997). In a more recent study with customers patronising Chinese restaurants only, Qu (1997) examined 14 restaurant attributes and identified four choice dimensions: food and environment, service and courtesy, price and value, and location. On the other hand, Gregoire, Shanklin, Greathouse, and Tripp (1995) investigated 41 restaurant attributes that might influence selection of a place to eat. They identified four underlying dimensions of restaurant selection: information consisting of the provision of information about local attractions by restaurant staff, restaurant basics; referring to core services like prompt service, amenities and health issues. Unlike others, Gregoire *et al* investigated the opinions of travellers who stop at visitor information centre.

The studies reviewed here implicitly suggest that customers would be satisfied when their set of choice criteria is met. However, there is little evidence on the assumption which states that, features consumers consider in selecting a product are identical to the set of features that play role in satisfaction and dissatisfaction judgements. Although many of the choice features set will also be used in forming satisfaction judgements, the assumption that the choice feature set and the satisfaction set are identical or even similar, is questionable (Oliver 1997). A study undertaken by the American Hotel Motel Association on hotel choice and repeat business documented the difference in ranking of the criteria before and after purchase (in Whipple and Thach 1989). By the same token, McGill and Iacobucci (1992) reported that "comparison of subjects listing of features that affected their level of satisfaction in the post-experience questionnaire were not entirely consistent with the listing of factors that they expected to affect their level of satisfaction in the pre-experience questionnaire" (p. 571). Similarly, Gardial and her colleagues (1994) examined consumers' thoughts regarding the stages of selecting a product, evaluating its performance, and judging their satisfaction with it. Their study showed important differences in the criteria used at the pre-purchase and post-purchase phases. Similarly, Kivela (1996) argues that food and food quality may not always, as is often suggested, be the most important choice and satisfaction variables. Other attributes such as ambience or atmosphere, location, food types, menu variety, and cost may be more important in determining customers' service perception. The disparity between the selection and evaluation criteria gives rise to a very critical question. "*Would tourists be satisfied if their selection criteria are fulfilled adequately by the service provider, or other attributes which do not play a considerable role in the selection process become more important in the formation of dining satisfaction and customer loyalty*"?

6.8 Summary

The literature review undertaken in this chapter suggests that tourist satisfaction is a complex and a multifaceted phenomenon. Among other factors, the literature review demonstrates that provision of high service quality, within the foodservice context, may contribute to feelings of overall holiday satisfaction as it provides some of the most positive memories of a vacation. In contrast, poor foodservice quality can impair all of the pleasant memories surrounding a holiday experience. This suggests that, unless properly managed, the foodservice experience may have the potential to induce high levels of dissatisfaction with the entire holiday, and it can have a negative impact on the image of a destination, which may hamper return business. Identification of the extent to which the food service experience affects on overall holiday satisfaction and behavioural intentions, is warranted.

Reviewed literature shows that the context of the foodservice experience, as well as its evaluation, appears to be highly complex. While good food and service seem to be the most obvious attributes which impact upon foodservice satisfaction, the impact of other factors on tourist foodservice satisfaction is less known. As a result, it can be argued that restaurateurs may lack consumer behaviour knowledge, which in turn substantially prevents managers from targeting specific restaurant attributes which attract, satisfy, and keep customers returning. In order to understand what brings satisfaction; what service aspects are considered important in repeat visit judgements and in word-of-mouth recommendations; and what may discourage such return business in restaurants at tourist destinations, a comprehensive study is required.

Although knowing what various market segments want from a given restaurant is the key to attracting customers, understanding dining satisfaction, and sustaining a repeat customer base, there is limited research combining segmentation and satisfaction concepts particularly, at non-fast food restaurant at tourist destinations. Segment specific satisfaction analysis would allow managers to investigate the differential influence, of specific service variables, across segments. For example, while the food dimension may not have been found to be important in predicting the repeat choice intentions for the entire sample, it is entirely possible for this dimension to be important for some sub-set of the population (Richard and Sundaram 1994). In the lodging area, research undertaken by Callan (1995; 1996) revealed that significant differences exist in the views of different segments (for example female-male or business traveller- leisure traveller) relating to attribute importance in hotel selection.

However, contrary to the benefits of becoming and remaining close to target customers, market segmentation concept in foodservice operations, particularly in tourist resorts, is relatively a neglected issue. It appears that restaurateurs in tourist resorts are trying to appeal to all potential customers and they seem to believe that by segmenting the market, they will weaken their sales volume. Foodservice operators have traditionally based their marketing practices mainly on price since they assume the price as the most effective weapon in the battle for market share. This over-emphasis on price as the sole means of attracting and retaining customers, however, led to the development of so-called "profitless prosperity syndrome" (Crawford-Welch 1994) whereby restaurateurs can often sell their products but the price is not high enough to ensure adequate profit levels. As a consequence, the rate of business failure of restaurants is high in tourist resorts. Strictly speaking, business success lies in clear identification and understanding of target markets (Porter 1985). In order to advance customer satisfaction research, an investigation into how to attract, satisfy, and retain different tourist segments and whether sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction differ between segments is warranted.

Having discussed the gaps in the tourist satisfaction assessment literature, the following chapter presents the research hypotheses designed to address these identified gaps in the literature, along with the research methodology developed to reach the main aims and objectives of this study.

CHAPTER VII

The Research Methodology

7.1 Introduction

This chapter has three sections. The first section starts with a statement of the research aims and objectives and then presents the research hypotheses pertaining to interdependent parts of the analytical research framework, developed to address the aims of the study. Following the statement of objectives and hypotheses, the next section outlines the general research steps pursued in this study. Details of the general research design, the data collection techniques, and the sampling procedures, adopted in this study, are discussed within this section. The steps pursued in the development of the research instruments and in the pilot tests are explicated. The final section details the research implementation procedures of each of the three interdependent investigations. The survey used in each investigation is described, along with information concerning the development of the survey. The method of data analysis is covered at the end of each separate section to describe how correlation analysis, one way Anovas tests, t-tests, factor analysis, multiple regression analysis, and cluster analysis techniques are used to analyse the data. Limitations of the research are discussed at the end of this chapter.

7.2 Section One: Research Aims, Objectives and Hypotheses

This research sets out to develop an analytical framework in order to extend the academic research on tourist satisfaction and provide guidelines on ways in which tourist holiday satisfaction and foodservice experiences can be assessed and enhanced. More specifically, this study sets out to:

- examine which of the existing customer satisfaction measurement frameworks is a more satisfactory framework for measuring customer satisfaction with hospitality and tourism services;
- identify destination service components contributing to tourist satisfaction, repurchase intentions, and word of mouth recommendations;
- ascertain the nature and extent of influence of the foodservice experience on tourist satisfaction, repurchase intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations;

- find out what brings satisfaction, return patronage and word-of-mouth recommendations and what discourages return business in non-fast-food restaurants at Turkish destinations; and
- examine whether tourists can be clustered into distinct groups based on their restaurant selection criteria and identify the sources of satisfaction within each resultant cluster.

A three-step analytical framework, each step building on the previous steps, has been developed to meet the main aims of the research. The first step of the analytical framework has been designed to identify the measurement framework to be used in the subsequent stages of the research, and has involved the comparison of the reliability and validity of seven alternative measurement frameworks. The second step, using the framework identified in the previous step, aims to identify the underlying factors of tourist satisfaction within a destination and to examine the extent to which each individual factor, particularly the foodservice experience, influences overall holiday satisfaction, return intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations. The second step also examines the potential benefits of incorporating relative performance assessment into satisfaction investigations. The third step of the framework aims to provide insights into what brings satisfaction, return patronage and word-of-mouth recommendations and what discourages return business in non-fast-food restaurants in Turkey. This step also explores whether sources of satisfaction differ between segments.

Having restated the main aims and objectives of the study, the following section presents research hypotheses developed in the light of reviewed literature. Hypotheses, from 1 to 4, have been developed to determine whether performance alone is a more satisfactory framework to measure customer satisfaction than other alternative measurement frameworks, whether satisfaction and service quality are distinguishable, and whether the use of different comparison standards yields different results in terms of customer satisfaction. Hypotheses 5 to 11 pertain to the second step of the research. These hypotheses have been developed to determine whether holiday satisfaction is multifaceted and effects of some holiday components on holiday satisfaction are greater than others, whether foodservice experience contributes significantly to tourist satisfaction, whether there are critical destination attributes, whether there is any difference between satisfaction drivers of repeat and first-time visitors, and whether tourists' past holiday experiences, with other destinations, influence their evaluation of the current destination. Hypotheses from 12 to 14 belong to the final step of the research. These hypotheses have been designed to examine the components that affect tourist satisfaction with foodservice experiences in non-fast-food restaurants, to ascertain the relative importance of service and core product quality in satisfaction and return intention judgements, to explore tourist dining segments and find out sources of satisfaction in each segment, and to compare tourists restaurant choice criteria and their restaurant evaluation criteria. The following section now presents these research hypotheses in turn.

7.2.1 Hypotheses 1 and 2

Reviewed literature has shown that several frameworks have been developed to gauge the satisfaction concept, however, no consensus has been reached on which framework is best suited to assess customer satisfaction. Some researchers argue that customer satisfaction measures should incorporate expectations and performance perception constructs (Oliver 1997; Pizam and Milman 1993), while other researchers suggest that customer satisfaction measurement should be concerned with perceived performance only (Dorfman 1979; Gundersen *et al* 1996). Others maintain that weighted importance-disconfirmation models should be favoured in the assessment of customer satisfaction (Barsky 1992; Barsky and Labagh 1992; Carman 1990; Kivela 1998).

There exists a dearth of research ascertaining the reliability and validity of the existing models in determining customer satisfaction in tourism and hospitality settings- i.e., whether these proffered frameworks measure what they are supposed to measure. There is inadequate research evidence as to the relative convergent, discriminant, and nomological validity (and thus the construct validity) of these measurement frameworks. Thus, a comparative study scrutinising the predictive power and reliability of the existing methodologies, in determining customer satisfaction, is warranted in order to advance the customer satisfaction research. Given the paucity of research in this area, the first part of the study intends to compare and contrast seven alternative measurement frameworks commonly applied in customer satisfaction research. These are the performance only (Per); the performance weighted by importance (Perim); the importance minus performance (Imper); the direct dis/confirmation (Dis); the direct dis/confirmation weighted by importance (Disim); the performance minus predictive expectations (Perpredex), and the performance minus should expectations (Pershould). In light of the discussions outlined in Chapter Five, this study proposes that

H_1 "A performance only framework will be a more satisfactory framework for measuring customer satisfaction in the tourism industry than other alternatives", and

H_2 "Weighting performance and direct disconfirmation scores by importance will not make a substantial improvement on the predictive validity of these methodologies".

These first two hypotheses are designed to determine whether one framework could be shown to be superior to the others in determining satisfaction within the tourism industry. The convergent, discriminant and nomological validity of these alternative measurement frameworks will be investigated in order to establish the extent to which each of these frameworks measures what they intend to measure. These hypotheses will be tested with correlation analysis and multiple regression procedures.

7.2.2 Hypothesis 3

The next hypothesis is designed to address the debates pertaining to the similarity and distinction between customer satisfaction and service quality.

H_3 "Customer satisfaction and service quality constructs may not be substantially different in consumers' minds, and that the proposition suggesting the standards against which performance is compared distinguishes between the two may not be used confidently to differentiate between service quality and customer satisfaction".

A critical review of the literature undertaken in Chapter Two reveals that there are two different schools of thought with respect to the necessity of distinction between customer satisfaction and service quality constructs. To some, the distinction between the two is extremely important because "service providers need to know whether their objective should be to have customers who are satisfied with their performance or to deliver the maximum level of perceived service quality" (Cronin and Taylor 1992: 56). Conversely, others argue that the distinction is unwarranted and practitioners are not interested in the difference between these two constructs *per se*. Those supporting the distinction hold the view that comparative standards used in service quality and customer satisfaction judgements are different. They assert that in measuring service quality, the level of comparison is what consumers should expect against what is received, whereas in measures of satisfaction, the appropriate comparison is what consumers would expect against what is received. There is, however, little research evidence as to whether this proposition can be confidently used to differentiate between these two constructs and, whether satisfaction and service quality are distinguishable in consumers' mind. In light of the reviewed literature, this study suggests that from a management viewpoint, attempting to differentiate between the two concepts might be futile, particularly if they do not affect consumers' post-purchase behavioural outcomes differently. Such a distinction may be considered unwarranted partly because in most cases a positive perception of service quality enhances customer satisfaction, and a negative quality perception brings about customer dissatisfaction. In order to address the confusion between the two constructs and to test this hypothesis, a combination of correlation analysis, t-test analysis, and multiple regression procedures will be employed.

7.2.3 Hypothesis 4

The final hypothesis pertaining to the first part of the research has been designed to determine the relative ability of two different comparison standards- the predictive and should expectations, in determining customer satisfaction in hospitality and tourism settings.

H_4 "The ability of different comparison standards in determining customer satisfaction will be different and that the use of different standards will yield different results in terms of satisfaction".

Reviewed literature shows that the majority of consumer satisfaction theories (for example, the EDP, the Comparison Level Theory, the Evaluative Congruity Theory, the Servqual) are founded on the disparity concept, in that, consumer perceptions of services are compared against their pre-purchase comparison standards (expectations). While several standards have been postulated to explain satisfaction, no consensus exists concerning which standard best predicts consumer satisfaction. Only a few of these comparison standards, for example, the predictive expectations, have been extensively utilised in tourism and hospitality literature, while others have not received much attention. This study suggests that if researchers are to employ disparity theories in their investigations, though this approach is not free of limitations, they need to exercise great care over the selection of the comparison standard, as different types of standards may yield different levels against which perceived experience is compared. This study, therefore, intends to examine the relative ability of two comparison standards- the predictive and should expectations- in determining customer satisfaction. The study will use correlation analysis and multiple regression procedures to test this hypothesis.

7.2.4 Hypothesis 5

Reviewed literature shows that the tourism product is an amalgam or package of tangible and intangible elements brought together, and that many transient impressions and experiences occur during its consumption. These experiences will affect the consumer's state of mind at the end of the consumption, which will then form the basis for subsequent travel decisions. It is reasonable to argue that satisfaction with a holiday experience may be a sum total of satisfaction with the individual attributes of all the products and services that form the holiday experience, and that some components of tourism may have a greater effect on tourists' overall satisfaction than others. The relative importance of these components in tourist satisfaction and behavioural intentions needs to be determined, as understanding which components matter most and how they could be best combined to produce the desired experience is of significant importance to the management of tourist satisfaction. This study assumes that

H_5 "Holiday satisfaction is multifaceted. It will be affected by a number of holiday components, and that some components will have a greater effect on tourists' overall satisfaction, intention to recommend the destination to others and to return to Turkey".

This hypothesis has been designed to identify the components of the holiday experience and to determine the extent to which each of these components influence tourist satisfaction with the holiday experience and their behavioural intentions. The hypothesis will be tested with factor analysis and multiple regression procedures.

7.2.5 Hypothesis 6

Within the overall holiday context, this study assumes that the foodservice experience will contribute extensively to tourist satisfaction with the entire holiday. The role of the foodservice experience may be instrumental and important in engendering tourist loyalty and ensuring positive word-of-mouth recommendations. In order to determine the nature and the extent of the influence of the foodservice experience on tourists' overall satisfaction and their behavioural intention, the following hypothesis is developed.

H_6 "High (low) satisfaction with the foodservice experience will increase (decrease) overall satisfaction with the holiday, return intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations".

A one-way Anova test and multiple regression procedures will be employed to examine this assumption.

7.2.6 Hypotheses 7 and 8

The following hypotheses have been designed to determine whether there are any differences between the sources of holiday satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and to identify whether there are critical holiday components which hold the potential to enhance, as well as inhibit, a destination's image.

H_7 "Sources of satisfaction may be different from sources of dissatisfaction", and

H_8 "The foodservice experience may be a critical factor, which has the potential to induce high levels of satisfaction as well as dissatisfaction with the entire holiday".

Based on the reviewed literature, it is reasonable to argue that sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction might be different. Some attributes in a given holiday experience may lead to dissatisfaction when they are not performed right, but they may not result in high satisfaction when they have been performed well. There may be other attributes whose delivery will enhance tourists' perceptions and lead to satisfaction, while failure to deliver them will bring about high dissatisfaction. Understanding of such attributes is important, as putting time and effort on those areas where achieving high performance may not be noticed and consequently not rewarded by tourists, will be a waste of effort. In this context, this study assumes that the foodservice experience may have the potential to induce both high levels of compliments (satisfaction) and high level of complaints (dissatisfaction), and thus it may represent both a threat and an opportunity for destination competitiveness. These hypotheses will be tested with multiple regression analysis and content analysis procedures, conducted on the compliments and complaints of tourists stated at the end of the questionnaires.

7.2.7 Hypothesis 9

Some studies considered tourist markets as homogenous and contended that generic dimensions affect tourist satisfaction, while others argued that drivers of satisfaction (or their relative importance) between sub-groups of the market (for example, first-time and repeat visitors) might be different, which calls for managerial attention. It is reasonable to assume that satisfaction drivers of first-time and repeat visitors may differ, and that these groups may base their return intention judgements on different holiday attributes. If this is the case, then it suggests that destination managers must focus on different aspects in order to attract, satisfy and retain different groups. Based on the travel career ladder concept, this study also assumes that there may be a difference between the levels of satisfaction derived from the holiday experience between repeat and first-time visitors. The first-time visitors are expected to be less likely to visit the destination in the future, while the stated revisit intention of the repeat visitors to the area is expected to be higher. In order to examine whether sources of satisfaction differ between the repeat and first-time visitors, the following hypothesis is developed.

H_9 "Repeat visitors and first-time visitors will base their return intention judgements on different set of holiday components, and the relative importance of these components will be different between these two groups, and that satisfaction and return intention levels of repeat visitors will be higher than that of the first-time visitors".

This hypothesis will be tested with t-test analysis, factor analysis, and multiple regression procedures.

7.2.8 Hypotheses 10 and 11

Researchers in the tourist satisfaction area seem to have paid inadequate attention to comparative studies, although it is important to know the relative performance for the success in both short and long terms. The possibility that the performance level delivered by a rival destination might affect tourist satisfaction and future intentions toward the present destination, appears to be under researched. Assessment of performance relative to main competitors is expected to help destination managers develop a better focus in catching-up and developing differentiating strategies, as it will allow the managers to identify product strengths and weaknesses. The final hypotheses of this second part of the research have been designed to examine whether tourists' past holiday experiences influence their evaluations with the current holiday destination and their repeat visit intentions to the area, and to explore whether a performance only framework, is a valid framework to study tourist satisfaction with destinations.

H_{10} "Respondents current satisfaction, intention to return or recommend the destination to others will be influenced by the nature of their previous holiday experiences at other destinations", and

H_{11} "The performance alone framework is a reliable and valid framework to study tourist satisfaction".

These hypotheses will be tested with one-way Anova and correlation analysis procedures.

7.2.9 Hypothesis 12

Reviewed literature shows that as a result of the inadequate attention placed on tourists' foodservice experiences within independent non-fast-food restaurants, little is known about what brings satisfaction, what service aspects are considered important in repeat business, and what may discourage such repeat business in the restaurant industry at tourist destinations. As the foodservice experience is a blend of tangible and intangible components, the first hypothesis has been designed to ascertain which components, as determined by the specific questions in the survey, have a significant effect on overall satisfaction with the dining experience. This study predicts that the intangible component of the foodservice experience (service quality), will have a greater influence in determining the likelihood of the tourists, to recommend or return to the restaurant, than that of the core product quality. This hypothesis will be tested with factor analysis and multiple regression procedures.

H_{12} "Satisfaction with foodservice experience will be determined by a number of components, and that service quality component of the foodservice experience will have the greatest effect on tourist satisfaction, and the likelihood to recommend and return to the restaurant".

7.2.10 Hypothesis 13

H_{13} "The tourist total dining market is not homogeneous and there will be different tourist segments seeking different benefits from restaurants, and that sources of dining satisfaction will differ among these segments".

Knowing what various market segments want from a given restaurant is the key to attracting customers, understanding dining satisfaction, and sustaining a repeat customer base. However, there is limited research combining segmentation and satisfaction concepts, particularly in non-fast food restaurants at tourist destinations. This study argues that understanding the development of customer satisfaction at segment level is essential due to a highly fragmented market structure. Segment specific satisfaction analysis would allow managers to investigate the differential influence of specific service variables across segments. For example, while food dimension may not have been found to be important in predicting the repeat choice intentions for the entire sample, it is entirely possible for this dimension to be important for some sub-set of the population. In order to advance customer satisfaction research, an investigation into how to attract, satisfy, and retain different tourist segments, and whether sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction differ between segments, is warranted.

This hypothesis has been designed to examine whether tourists can be grouped into distinct sub-segments, based on similarities and differences in benefits that they seek from restaurants, to ascertain whether statistically significant differences exist between the resulting segments on the basis of demographics and visit related variables, and to investigate whether sources of satisfaction differ within each segment. The study hypothesis will be tested with factor analysis, multiple regression analysis, cluster analysis, discriminant analysis and the Anova procedures.

7.2.11 Hypothesis 14

H_{14} "Some service attributes that do not play an important role in tourists' restaurant selection decisions may become decisive factors in their satisfaction and return intention judgements. That is, the relative importance of pre-visit and post visit judgement criteria may not be identical".

There is inadequate understanding of whether tourists' restaurant selection criteria are identical or different from the criteria that they use in reaching their satisfaction judgements. This study argues that, although many of the choice attributes will also be used in forming satisfaction judgements, the assumption that the choice attribute set and the satisfaction set are identical, may be incorrect. For instance, it could be argued that while service personnel's communication skills may not play a significant role in tourists' restaurant choice decisions, it is highly likely that this attribute will contribute significantly to the levels of satisfaction derived from the foodservice experience. If this is the case, then management needs to incorporate different aspects into their marketing and operational efforts. In order to understand whether attributes, which do not play a considerable role in the selection process, become more important in the formation of dining satisfaction and customer loyalty, a correlation analysis will be undertaken. Tourists' satisfaction ratings and their ratings on attribute importance in restaurant selection and perceived service performance will be analysed.

Having explained the research hypotheses, the following section now presents the research methodology, developed to address the aims and objectives of this study. The first part of the following section outlines the research methodology and introduces the six-step procedure pursued in this study. Next, the explication of the research design and justification of the research techniques employed in data collection are presented. The focus of the next section is on the procedures adopted in the development of the research instruments, the considerations taken into account in their design, and the methods used to assess their accuracy and adequacy.

7.3 Section Two: Research Methodology

Tourism research is an investigative process that involves thorough planning of the research in order to provide objective, systematic, logical and empirical information for management decisions (Gunn 1994; Moser and Kalton 1989; Pizam 1994b). This implies that methodological questions such as what information to seek, what population coverage to aim at, how to collect data, and how to process and interpret data should be carefully considered along with the purpose of the survey, the accuracy required in the results, in addition to time, cost and other practical considerations (Moser and Kalton 1989).

Descriptions of how to do research vary in terms of the number and detail of the stages or steps involved, however, their general sequencing remains almost universal (Churchill 1979; Gunn 1994; Lundberg 1997; Pizam 1994b; Ryan 1995). Churchill (1979), for instance, suggested an eight-step procedure that needs to be followed when developing measures of marketing constructs, which has gained growing approval predominantly from researchers in the marketing literature (Getty and Thomson 1994). The first step in the proposed procedure involves specifying the domain of the construct. That is, " the researcher must be exacting in delineating what is included in the definition and what is excluded" (p. 67). The second step is to generate items, which capture the domain as specified. Techniques such as literature searches, experience surveys, and insight stimulating examples are exercised at this stage. The third step of the procedure requires the researcher to refine the measure. At this stage, the researcher needs to scrutinise the internal consistency of the set of items developed in the previous stage. The main objective of this stage is to retain (or drop) the items that are effective (ineffective) in capturing the construct under investigation. Following the reduction of the scale and the assurance of its internal consistency (reliability), the next stage involves collecting new data in order to assess the reliability and validity of the refined scale.

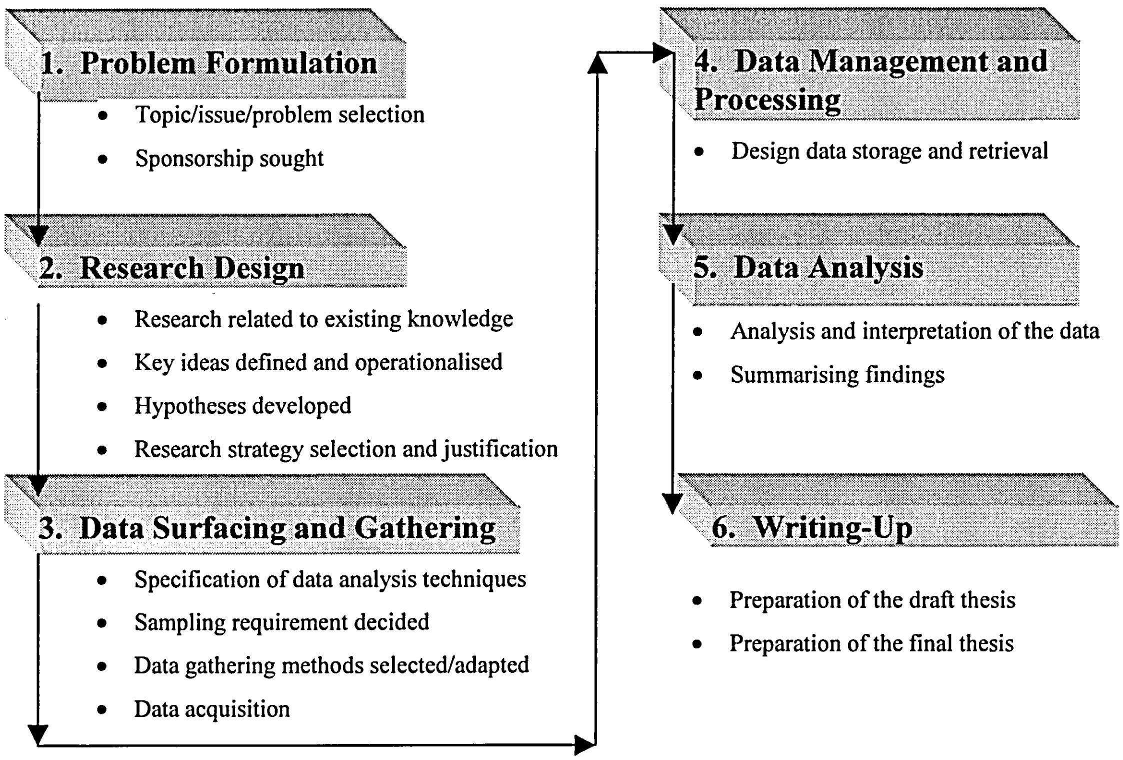
Pizam (1994b) offers a simpler sequence and states that researchers would be better off following these steps systematically. The suggested sequence entails (1) the formulation of research problem; (2) determination of sources of information; (3) selection of research design; (4) selection of data collection technique; (5) planning of data processing and analysis, and (6) preparation of the research report. By the same token, Lawrence (1992) has proposed another typical activity sequence. It is a problem-oriented approach, commonly endorsed by hospitality researchers, and encompasses a number of actions (in Lundberg 1997). These include: (1) the selection of an important emerging human problem to study, a selection which is based on careful listening and observations; (2) doing some initial field scouting of the problem to make an initial assessment of the key parameters; (3) the examination of relevant theory in order to produce promising hypotheses and conceptualisations; (4) the choice of data collection and analytic methods which require the researcher to adopt an eclectic approach; (5) the systematic collection of the data; (6) the analysis of data and generalisation; and (7) the presentation of the results so that they are useful for action by responsible problem solvers as well as accessible to the academic community (in Lundberg 1997).

Adapting the research sequences suggested by Churchill, Pizam, and Lawrence, the researcher synthesised a six-step research activity framework which was pursued in this study (see Figure 5). The deliberation of these steps was essential for developing an accurate and adequate method for the research question under investigation.

(1) *Problem Formulation:* After extensive consultation with a number of people (for example, the research supervisors and tourism officials), observation, literature search, and lateral thinking the research topic- foodservice experience and tourist satisfaction- was selected. In settling of the topic, the researcher was primarily motivated by the existence of the need for developing an analytical framework to address a managerial

need that exists in Turkey- *how to measure and enhance tourist satisfaction and foodservice experience.* At this stage, the researcher sought sponsorship from the TTM for the research in order to facilitate gaining physical and social access to sources in Turkey.

Figure 5. Research Activity Steps



Source: Developed from Churchill (1979), Lundberg (1997) and Pizam (1994b).

(2) *Research Design*: At this stage, the research's significance was justified and the research topic was related to existing knowledge and theory. The researcher undertook an exploratory review of the consumer satisfaction literature in order to explain and clarify the theoretical rationale of the research problem, and to identify what research has and has not been done on the research problem. Next, a strategy concerned with the advancement of the research was selected and an appropriate research design was adopted. In accordance with Moser and Kalton's (1989), and Pizam's (1994b) suggestions, the researcher produced an initial statement explaining why the survey is being undertaken, exactly what questions it covers and what results are expected. At this stage, key ideas had been defined conceptually and operationally.

(3) *Data Surfacing and Gathering*: Data surfacing involved the specification of the data needed, choosing the data gathering method and implementing them. An extensive literature review had taken place prior to the selection of the data gathering method. A critical understanding of the advantages and limitations of different techniques was derived from detailed examination of past research studies of customer satisfaction and service quality. The instruments used to collect data in this study were subjected to a pre-testing to ensure their adequacy and accuracy. The sampling technique and data analysis techniques were also determined at this stage.

(4) *Data Management and Processing*: This stage involved the data management and processing (i.e., configuration, and ordering the data in forms appropriate for their manipulation, storage and retrieval).

(5) *Data Analysis*: At this stage, the researcher analysed and interpreted the data, which was then summarised to provide understandings and explanations. This stage involved consultation with individuals experienced in survey analysis techniques.

(6) *Writing- up*: Following the analysis of the data and its interpretation, a draft thesis was produced, followed by a review and revision, in order to finalise the final thesis.

Having presented the major steps pursued in the research, this section now turns its focus to the research design adopted in this study. The following section first explicates the forms of research designs available to the researchers and discusses the applicability of them in hospitality and tourism service settings. Next, advantages and limitations of qualitative and quantitative research techniques are discussed, and the reason for adopting a combination of these techniques in this study is explicated. This is followed by the presentation of the considerations that were taken into account in the development of research instruments of the study. Next, the procedures pursued in pilot tests are discussed. The following section is devoted to the explanation of the sampling and justification of the sample sizes.

7.3.1 Research Design

A research design is simply the framework or plan for a research referred to as a guide in collecting and analysing data (Churchill 1983). The types of terminology describing research designs, conventionally expressed in a dichotomous manner, abound in the literature. These include theoretical-applied, descriptive-explanatory, qualitative-quantitative, exploratory-causal, experimental-non-experimental, cross sectional-longitudinal, and inductive-deductive (for an extensive review refer to Babbie 1990; Bryman and Cramer 1992; Clark *et al* 1998; Churchill 1990; DeVaus 1995; Gilbert 1993; Moser and Kalton 1989; Pizam 1994b; Ritchie 1994; Robson 1993; Smith 1995; Tull and Hawkins 1993; Veal 1997).

As understanding of such terms plays a useful role in discussing and describing the research process of this study, a brief description of these terms is provided next. Exploratory research is concerned with discovering ideas and insights, whereas descriptive research involves determining the frequency with which something occurs or the relationship between two variables and is typically guided by an initial hypothesis (Churchill 1983). In other words, descriptive study "involves collecting data in order to test hypothesis of answer questions concerning the current status of the object of the study" ([Gay 1992: 13] in Hashim 1999). A causal research design is concerned with the investigation of cause-and-effect relationships and typically takes the form of experiments, since experiments are best suited to determine cause and effect (Churchill 1983). Experimental research allows the investigator to control and manipulate the variables involved in the study, whereas the descriptive design lacks the ability to control independent variables (Pizam 1994b; Ryan 1995).

Deduction is the process, which begins with "theory and proceeds through hypotheses, data collection, and testing of hypotheses to deduce explanations of the behaviour of the particular phenomena. Induction is the process whereby the exploration and analysis of related observation leads to construction of a theory that systematically links such observations in a meaningful ways" (Clark *et al* 1998: 13). In other words, "induction is the technique for generating theories and deduction is the technique for applying them" (Gilbert 1993: 23).

The choice of the research design is contingent upon the nature of the research problem and its fundamental objective (Churchill 1983). It is important to note that there is not a single, standard, correct method of carrying out research. Simon (1969), for instance, notes

> "Do not wait to start your research until you find out the proper approach, because there are many ways to tackle the problem- some good, some bad, but probably several good ways. There is no single project design. A research method for a given problem is not like the solution to a problem in algebra. It is more like a recipe for beef-stroganoff, there is no one best recipe" ([p: 4] in Churchill 1983).

Unlike pure sciences, the development of a research design in tourism is normally of the type where the researcher is unable to exercise any control over the variables involved in a situation (Ryan 1995). In such situations, *ex post facto* design is required which is defined as "the systematic empirical enquiry in which the scientist does not have direct control of independent variables because their manifestations have already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulative" ([Kerlinger 1973: 379] in Pizam 1994b). As the present research problem does not lend itself to experimental design, the researcher adopted a deductive research approach whose fundamental aims were to assess opinions and to discover relations and interactions among variables.

7.3.2 Qualitative versus Quantitative Research

The next step involved the decision about whether qualitative or quantitative or a combination of both techniques is best suited to dealing with the present research problem. There has been growing debate about whether quantitative research is superior to qualitative research, or qualitative research offers richer insights than quantitative research, and which one is more appropriate in tourism research (Richins 1999). Some argue that the qualitative method fits better in examining a phenomenon in tourism, whereas others argue that quantitative methods are more suitable. In favour of the qualitative method, which employs such techniques as interviews, observation, or epistemology, Ryan (1995: 29) argues that;

> "Given that holidays can be cathartic experiences which have the potential to change peoples' lives, the reduction of such an experience to a few ticks on a

five point scale is obviously insufficient. Qualitative research can be sources of ideas, insights and new perspectives upon a problem".

Conducting qualitative research, such as interviews, may offer several advantages over other data collection techniques. An interview offers the possibility of modifying the line of enquiry and the opportunity to follow up interesting responses, and allows the investigation of underlying motives in a way that postal or other self administered questionnaires cannot (Robson 1993). It allows for in-depth investigation of the subject and has a higher response rate than that of face to face questionnaires. It is more appropriate for revealing information about feelings and emotions regarding different subjects (Pizam 1994b). On the other hand, interviews have limitations such cost and time consumption in comparison to other data collection methods, and the lack of standardisation inevitably raises the concern for the reliability and generality of the findings. The interviews may also be contaminated by the eagerness of the respondent to please the interviewer (Bailey 1978).

Quantitative research, such as questionnaires, is entrenched with other advantages, notably, there is some assurance about the validity and reliability of the findings. Carefully established questionnaire-based surveys lend themselves to the possibility of generalising the findings (Robson 1993). Questionnaire based surveys are relatively low cost per subject and they provide a way of collecting large amounts of information and obtaining a high accuracy of results (Pizam 1994b). Data obtained from surveys can be used to explore aspects of a situation, to seek explanation, or to provide data for testing hypotheses (ibid.). The fact that samples in questionnaire based surveys tend to be large requires placing considerable attention onto how samples are drawn, typically on a representative and/or random basis. Unlike qualitative techniques, where the researcher can begin data collection in a tentative way, and return to the subjects for additional information, in order to gradually build up the concepts, questionnaire based surveys require researchers to be very specific about their data requirements from the beginning, since they are committed irrecoverably, to the responses collected (Veal 1997).

In tourism research, quantitative and qualitative approaches can, and often do, co-exist without the apparent rivalry observed in other studies (for example in leisure studies)

(Veal 1997). Qualitative and quantitative research has been employed, either separately or together, in service quality and customer satisfaction investigations (Ryan 1995). Conventionally, quantitative research is preceded by qualitative research in an attempt to confirm the validity of the questions being included or to ensure that all the key variables, within a situation, have been identified (Barsky 1992; Cho 1998; Churchill 1983; Decrop 1999; DeVaus 1996; Getty and Thomson 1994; Johns and Tyas 1996; Moser and Kalton 1989; Otto and Ritchie 1997; Pizam *et al* 1979; Robson 1993; Ryan 1995; Veal 1997; Weber 1997). Lapierre, Filiatrault, and Perrien (1996), for instance, report that among the 25 service quality studies examined, nine researchers used self-administered questionnaires, while six used interviews and other researchers relied on the combination of methods such as in-depth interviews, focus groups, and questionnaires. The following tourist satisfaction studies employed quantitative technique only (Francken and van Raaij 1984; Geva and Goldman 1989; Geva and Goldman 1991; Hughes 1991; Juaneda and Sastre 1997; Reisinger and Turner 1997; Reisinger and Waryszak 1996; Ross and Iso-Ahola 1991; Tribe and Snaith 1998; Whipple and Thach 1988; Zalatan 1994).

There are various methods to assess opinions, including questionnaire surveys, group interviews, and individual interviews, and it seems that choosing the most appropriate method for collecting detailed data often requires a compromise (Ballantyne, Packer and Beckman 1998). While personal interviews allow individual's responses to be explored and probed in depth, and thus provide a more complete understanding of visitor characteristics, they involve significant cost in the time and effort involved in both data collection and data analysis. As a result, interview surveys tend to be limited to small sample sizes and relatively few research questions. In contrast, self-administered questionnaires allow a much larger sample size and range of questions to be addressed, but with a corresponding loss in the richness of the data (ibid.). In this study a multi-method approach, using both a questionnaire survey and qualitative research including, interviews and free-response style survey instruments was adopted in order to capitalise on the strengths and compensate for the weaknesses of each approach (Bryman 1996). Quantitative data analysis is based on questionnaire responses, while the qualitative data are used in the construction of the research instruments and as an aid to interpreting the data. More specifically, informal interviews were carried out with a number of individuals and free-response surveys, including open-ended questions, were employed to develop an adequate and accurate set of attributes to measure customer satisfaction (Veal 1997). The findings derived from the qualitative data (interviews, open-ended questions, and comments provided at the end of the questionnaires) were also used to corroborate the findings emerged through the quantitative analysis (Decrop 1999). The use of method triangulation technique helped demonstrate that the study findings were not simply the artefact of a single method, a single data source, or the investigator's bias. The use of mixed-method allowed examination of the research question under investigation from different perspectives and cross-validation of the results.

7.3.3 Research Instrument

The next decision involved which type of survey instrument to be used. At present, several survey instruments are in use to assess customer satisfaction. For instance, comment cards, satisfaction surveys (direct survey methods), and more or less systematic registration of customer compliments or complaints (indirect survey methods) are examples of the types of instruments which practitioners employ in assessing customer satisfaction (Gundersen *et al* 1996). Some of these methods, for example comment cards used in restaurants and hotels, suffer from low response rates, and more importantly, the information derived from these methods is often insufficient to provide actionable and accurate feedback to managers (Barsky and Huxley 1992). Barsky and Huxley (1992: 18) state that

> "They (comment cards) are typically conducted without regard for who participates or the motivation for participating and thus represent a common example of a classic statistical error; that is non response bias. Any decision based on such surveys will elicit only partial information and may therefore be dangerously misleading".

Many practitioners use the analysis of the rate of customer complaints and compliments and repeat purchases to assess customer satisfaction. There is no doubt that these indirect methods are important "as complaint and repeat purchase behaviour are germane to satisfaction, important to both firms and customers, and relatively unobtrusive, resulting in reduced reactivity" (Yi 1990: 70). This approach, however, is likely to produce unreliable and biased data. According to Yi, for instance, the corresponding rules between the concept and the measures are ambiguous and imperfect owing to confounding factors, such as promotional activities, brand availability and brand loyalty. More importantly, this approach potentially may only encourage a type of customer who are assertive or have extreme experiences who may be most likely to voice their opinions with complaints (Pearce and Moscardo 1983; Yi 1990).

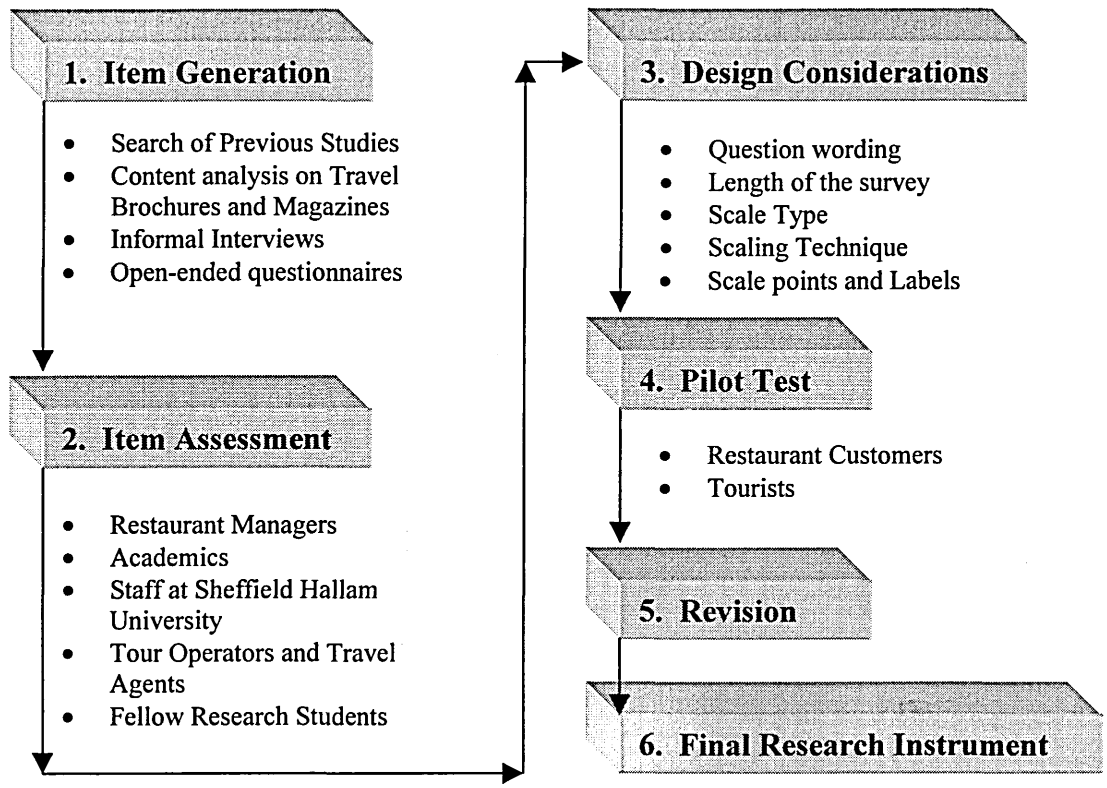
> "If unassertive customers do not make complaints and refrain from voicing their complaints because of their personality or some other considerations, then this approach explicitly lacks sampling validity as only one type of respondent will participate in this approach" (Pearce and Moscardo 1983: 35).

The type of survey methods used largely depends on the purpose of the research (Yi 1990). For instance, direct survey methods are suggested to be more appropriate for the investigation of satisfaction processes, whereas repeat purchase and complaint rate measures might be useful for corporate product satisfaction monitoring and public policy purposes (ibid.). Based on the research objectives and on the review of the customer satisfaction measurement literature, the researcher decided to utilise the direct self-administered survey method. Considering its advantages in terms of providing reliable and generalisable information, standardisation and uniformity and ease of implementation (Churchill 1983; Cox 1979; Pizam 1994b; Robson 1993), the researcher adopted the use of self-administered questionnaires in order to (1) test the ability of different satisfaction measurement frameworks in determining customer satisfaction, (2) find out the extent of tourist satisfaction with the foodservice experience in restaurants and identify specific service dimensions underlying satisfaction, and (3) identify the nature and the extent of the influence of foodservice experience on the overall holiday satisfaction. Self-administration was adopted because researcher-completion is more expensive in terms of the researcher's time (Veal 1997)

7.3.4 Development of the Instruments

The next decision involved the process to be pursued in the development of the research instruments. It is important to note that different research instruments used in each investigation and their development followed a similar pattern. This process was conducted inductively, in which a number of basic guidelines were followed to ensure that the items were properly constructed (Veal 1997) (Figure 6).

Figure 6. Steps Followed in Instrument Development



The instrument development began with the generation of an accurate set of items to assess the customer satisfaction construct under examination (McCleary and Weaver 1982; Getty and Thomson 1994; Hinkin *et al* 1997). The range of preliminary information gathering techniques used at this stage consisted of the use of existing information, including published research and secondary data, observation and qualitative methods (Veal 1997). As recommended by Chisnall (1992), DeVaus (1996), May (1998), Hinkin *et al (*1997) and Veal (1997), the appropriateness and adequacy of the items included in the research instruments was tested on colleagues and friends, prospective and actual tourists, restaurant managers, tourism officials, and representatives of tour operators and travel agents. Then pilot tests were conducted with customers and revisions of the questionnaires were made based on the recommendations (Oppenheim 1992). The general steps pursued during the development of the research instruments- item generation, item assessment, design-layout, and pilot test are presented below.

7.3.4.1 Item Generation

In order to generate an appropriate and a succinct set of items, the researcher searched tourist satisfaction and service quality literature, undertook a content analysis on travel magazines and brochures, conducted a number of informal interviews with customers and managers, joined in travel discussion groups on the Internet (Travel-LVM@Ege. Edu.Tr), and carried out free-response style exploratory questionnaires with open-ended questions.

Since questionnaires from past relevant studies are generally part of the input into the questionnaire design process (Veal 1997), an extensive review of the current literature on destination attractiveness, destination choice and on service quality and customer satisfaction with destination, hotel and restaurant services was conducted. An analysis of previous literature demonstrated a substantial variation in the number and nature of attributes considered relevant to tourist satisfaction with destinations. For instance, Pizam *et al* (1978) included 36 destination attributes, whereas Pizam and Milman (1993) used 49 attributes, Juandrea and Sastre (1997) 56 attributes, Fick and Ritchie (1991) 21 attributes, and Reisinger and Turner (1997) over a hundred attributes. A number of researchers included fewer attributes. Danaher and Arweiler (1996) used over fifteen, Pearce (1982) included thirteen, and Whipple and Thach (1988) included only ten destination attributes to assess tourist satisfaction with holidays. The reviewed literature also showed that in the generation of item lists, a substantial number of studies have relied on secondary sources of information (literature reviews, brochures), the opinions of experts (travels agents, others in the tourism industry) or the researcher's judgement, while only a few have used consumers or a combination of the above techniques. For instance, Goodrich (1977) and Pizam *et al* (1978) used tourism experts and general reading of travel brochures in the generation of item lists, while Pizam and Milman (1993) generated attribute list through group interviews conducted with only American travellers. In addition, the majority of satisfaction studies with restaurant services have focused on consumer experiences within fast-food restaurants. It was therefore debatable whether attributes relevant to different destinations and consumer groups would be applicable in this study. In order to learn more about destination and restaurant service characteristics evaluated by customers and develop a more complete and relevant list of destination attributes, informal (unstructured) interviews with a number of people were carried out.

The use of information obtained from the unstructured interviews in planning the subsequent questionnaire-based surveys is justified. It provides qualitative depth by allowing interviewees to talk about the subject in terms of their own frames of reference and provides a greater understanding of the subject's point of view (Green and Tull 1978; McCleary and Weaver 1982; Getty and Thomson 1994; Hinkin *et al* 1997; May 1998; Veal 1997). Unstructured interviews are suggested to be useful in the formulation of the research problem, in the articulation of dimensions and hypotheses and in the details of instrument building (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight 1996; Oppenheim 1992).

There is no definite answer to the question of how many preliminary interviews that should be undertaken, however, a range between 30 to 40 is suggested (Oppenheim 1992). Unstructured interviews were conducted with a judgement sample (N= 35) of university staff, research students and people going on holiday. University students and staff were interviewed because (a) it was not uncommon to find the use of students for consumer research in the literature (Arora and Stoner 1996; Chadee and Mattsson 1996; Ross 1995; Shoemaker 1998) and (2) they were the users of the services under consideration. Twenty unstructured interviews were conducted to identify the significant destination service attributes that lead to satisfaction and dissatisfaction with holidays (fourteen of them were with people going on a holiday) and fifteen unstructured interviews were carried out to identify restaurant service attributes sought by customers.

Invitation letters explaining the reasons of the study were sent to university staff and research students. These people were conveniently selected from the university's telephone list. Interviews were conducted with people who had taken holidays abroad within the past three years and who had dined out in a non-fast food restaurant in recent times. Additionally fourteen interviews were conducted at Sheffield Interchange with conveniently selected people who had sufficient time before departing to their holiday. Following the introduction of the general aims of the research, the interviewees were asked to describe their reasons for going on a summer holiday and the aspects that they consider important while on vacation. The interviews also aimed to learn more about the factors leading to enjoyable and unsatisfactory holiday experiences and the factors that would prevent them returning the same destination in the future.

In the interviews designed to elicit important items in restaurant choice and service performance evaluation, fifteen interviewees who had recently dined in a non-fast-food restaurants, selected conveniently from the telephone list of the university, were asked a series of questions. In this case, participants were first asked to list the restaurant choice criteria when they last dined within a non-fast-food restaurant. They were then asked to recall and describe the last time they had really enjoyed their visit to a non-fast-food restaurant and state what factors made it so enjoyable. They were asked to state a disappointing or unhappy experience within a restaurant and similarly describe the factors that led to the disappointment. The interviews were conducted with minimum intervention in order to maintain the spontaneity (Oppenheim 1992; Veal 1997).

Travel agents selected from a list of agents selling holidays to Turkey (N= 6) and Turkish tourism officials (N= 3) were also consulted in the item generation stage. One of the main aims of the conversations with tourism experts and travel agents for this study was to have their opinions on factors having a significant role in tourist evaluations, and to find out destination attributes receiving complaints and compliments. It was expected that this group should have a sound knowledge of the range of tourist services and facilities available in Turkey by virtue of the role they play in advising and selling destinations. Travel agents also are engaged in familiarisation trips from time to time and have access to information on destinations in Turkey from various sources. Additionally, as they are dealing with customers on a daily basis, they can be assumed to be in touch with consumer opinions and can therefore be relied upon to reflect market perceptions. With this background, they represent a readily accessible group which is in a position to provide information on the preferences of tourist markets that Turkey appeals.

Along with these preliminary interviews, considering its central advantage of providing immediate and cost-effective feedback, the Profile Accumulation

Technique (PAT), proposed by Johns, Lee-Ross, Graves-Morris, and Ingram (1996) was employed in the item generation (see Appendix II, p. 447). The PAT is a classification technique employing content analysis and involves gathering detailed information on service aspects which positively or negatively affect customer service experiences. The PAT shares similarity with the Critical Incident Technique (CIT), which is designed to identify and classify specific events and behaviours which significantly impact on service quality and customer satisfaction (Nyquist and Booms 1987; Flanagan 1954). The CIT has been used previously to assess favourable and unfavourable incidents in the service encounter from customers' and employees' perspectives (Bitner *et al* 1990; Bitner *et al* 1994), in building strategies for developing customer service satisfaction (Cadotte and Turgeon 1988; Johnston and Silvestro 1995; Lapidus and Schibrowsky 1994; Shea and Roberts 1998) and in examining travellers' motivation (Pearce and Caltabiano 1983). Information collected by such exploratory method is both reliable and valid (Andersson and Nilsson 1964). Bitner *et al* (1990) note that when the purpose of the research is to increase knowledge of a phenomenon about which little has been documented, an exploratory approach such as CIT seems particularly useful and well suited to the task. Thus, the use of PAT, based on the use of open-ended questions, in the item-generation stage is justified, as such an approach allowed and encouraged respondents to express their opinion fully and freely in a language that was comfortable for them (Sudman and Braudburn 1982). Other benefits of the PAT are that it encourages respondents to provide positive as well as negative comments on service features that are most valued; provides useful background information; and allows researchers to collect large amount of data (Johns *et al* 1996).

The use of such free-response method, involving open-ended questions, is suggested to be an essential tool when beginning work in an area (Oppenheim 1992; Sudman and Braudman 1982). The use of open-ended questions in the early stages of a study can be of great value for a researcher in identification of significant aspects affecting the subject under investigation so that later stages of research can be designed to cover these aspects (Chisnall 1992). Oppenheim (1992: 153) notes that

> "the chief advantage of the open question is the freedom it gives to the respondents. Once they have understood the intent of the question they can let

> their thoughts roam freely, unencumbered by a prepared set of replies. We obtain their ideas in their own language, expressed spontaneously, and this spontaneity is often extremely worthwhile as the basis for new hypotheses".

A suggested limitation of the use of customer-completed open-ended questions is that response rates could be very low-"people are often too lazy or too busy to write out free form answers" (Veal 1997: 167). However, appropriate timing of the implementation may overcome this problem. Openheim (1992) further notes that in the case of a written questionnaire, the amount of space provided for the answer will partly determine the length and fullness of the responses obtained. With this in mind, ample space was provided for respondents to write down their answers. The PAT was conducted with a number of tourists at the Dalaman International Airport before their departure from Turkey in order to identify significant destination attributes (n= 120) and restaurant service attributes (n= 97). Conveniently selected participants in the departure lounge were distributed the PAT surveys and they were observed to be willing to complete the forms, as by this time they were already reflecting on their holidays and had time to complete while waiting for their flight. Of the 120 respondents, 75 were female, 80% were British, and of the 97 respondents, 48 were female.

The main aim of the PAT was to elicit destination and restaurant service attributes receiving tourist complaints and compliments. Elicitation of respondents' complaints and compliments and their reasons is justified because these aspects do highlight important dimensions of holiday and restaurant experience which customers really care about, and thus, account for an important role in the formation of satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Cadotte and Turgeon 1988; McCleary and Weaver 1982; Johnston 1995; Johnston and Silvestro 1995). Tourists' free responses were gathered on a one-sheet (double-sided) questionnaire which asked respondent on the obverse side to fill in empty boxes beneath two prompts: "*The things I liked best about my holiday in Turkey…*", and "*The reason I liked this aspect is because…*". On the reverse two headings referred to deficiencies in destination services, i.e. " *The things I found least satisfactory about my holiday in Turkey were...*", and "*The reason this aspect was unsatisfactory was because…*". In the case of the PAT employed in the development of foodservice experience questionnaire, the words of the prompts were changed in order to solicit tourists' likes and dislikes of foodservice experiences and understand service attributes causing satisfactory and unsatisfactory foodservice experiences within restaurants. The information derived from the PAT surveys was collated, transcribed and content analysed (Johns *et al* 1996).

Moreover, in addition to the above exploratory approach, a number of people (n=76 return of 100 [45 were female]) drawn from the General Electoral List of Sheffield were also sent free-response style questionnaires. These questionnaires solicited the service attributes that tourists expect from restaurants while on holiday, the aspects that distinguish a good restaurant from the bad, and the aspects leading to satisfactory and dissatisfactory dining experiences. Along with the above methods pursued in the development of questionnaires, the researcher made site visits and personal observations of customers and service personnel in the restaurant under investigation, as it is suggested to be an essential tool for providing accurate and essential information (Becker 1979; May 1998; Pizam 1994b; Smith 1995). Becker (1979: 312) notes that "They attempt to make their research meaningful, but they assume that they do not know enough about the organisation a priory to identify relevant problems and hypotheses and that they must discover these in the course of research". These observations did not involve systematic observational data collection method as suggested by (Veal 1997) but rather they were for experiencing and understanding what is happening in a restaurant service situation and for gaining familiarity with the site to help determine how respondents could be approached (May 1998). In essence, the exploratory approaches such as the observations, the use of PAT and free-response forms provided rapid, cost-effective and detailed information from relatively a large number of people relating to service attributes and destination characteristics to be included in the research instruments.

7.3.4.2 Assessment

The researcher, based on the information obtained from the literature research and from the PAT and the free-response questionnaires and unstructured interviews, compiled item lists for each survey. These lists were then sent to a number of individuals at the university, to a number of tour operators, travel agents, and tourism officials to check out the appropriateness and usefulness of the items and to fine-tune the list (see Appendix III, p. 450) (Hinkin *et al* 1997; Lundberg 1997). Selected academics and staff at Sheffield Hallam University (n= 20) and travel agents and tour operators (n= 22), selected from the list of travel companies obtained from the Turkish Tourism Office in London, were asked to eliminate inappropriate items. In the case of restaurant survey development, considering its ease and speed (Veal 1997), telephone interviews were conducted with local restaurant managers (n= 14) to find out their opinions about the appropriateness and usefulness of the items. These groups were included to provide both user and provider perspectives on the important dimensions of holiday and foodservice experiences (Getty and Thomson 1994; McCleary and Weaver 1982). The items were deleted or retained based on the level of agreement of the individuals and changes were made to the questionnaire based on suggestions. It is important to note that there are no specific ground rules about the number of items needed to be retained (Hinkin *et al* 1997; Lundberg 1997). It is generally suggested that a measure must be internally consistent, parsimonious, and comprised of a minimum number of items that adequately assess the domain of interest (Churchill 1979; Getty and Thomson 1994; Hinkin *et al* 1997). In this study, the researcher kept the research surveys as short as possible in order to minimise probable response biases that might ensue by boredom and respondent fatigue (Ryan 1995).

7.3.4.3 Design and Scale Considerations

The next decision involved the instrument layout, design and scale considerations. This stage is stated to be difficult largely because the wording of questions is a tricky procedure since it is generally a matter of art rather than science (Lewis 1984; Moser and Kalton 1989). The design of the present research instruments involved the incorporation of many factors such as, the care over the sequence and wording of questions and the conceptual framework of the research topic, as well as the capability of the instruments in lending themselves to in-depth analysis to develop a richness of data (Babbie 1990; DeVaus 1996; Green and Tull 1978; Moser and Kalton 1989; Pizam 1994b; Ryan 1995; Tull and Hawkins 1993; Veal 1997). Considerations such as the question wording; the selection of the question type; questionnaire layout, the categorisation of the sample to permit comparison; and the form of scales to be used were taken into account. These are explained below.

7.3.4.3.1 The length of the survey instrument

The length of the survey instruments were considered carefully so as not to fatigue the respondents. It is widely recognised that lengthy questionnaires, which ask everything that might turn out to be interesting, should be avoided (Moser and Kalton 1989), and the questionnaire should be no longer than is absolutely necessary. Lengthy and rambling questionnaires have been proven to be demoralising for both respondents and researchers (ibid.). The optimal length of the survey instrument is said to depend on a number of factors such as the nature of the sample and the topic under investigation- the more specialised the population and the more relevant the research topic, the longer the questionnaire can be (DeVaus 1996). Although keeping survey instruments short has been recommended, it is also argued that for some topics a short questionnaire will produce low response rates as people will consider it too trivial and superficial (ibid.). There is no consensus about how long or short a survey instrument should be. Dillman's (1978) research on response rates on mail questionnaires, for instance, suggests that with general public surveys, the optimal length is twelve pages or 125 items. After this point the response rate drops from about 75% to nearer 60%. Based on the admonishments concerning the length of the survey instruments as well as on the research aims, the researcher kept the research instruments as short as necessary.

7.3.4.3.2 Clear Questions

Care was exercised on the development of unambiguous and clear questions. Simplicity of the language used in the questionnaires was examined through a series of pre-tests. In the development of the survey instrument, attention was paid to include questions for which the respondent can provide data. As Moser and Kalton (1989) note, it is no good asking a person's opinions about something that s/he does not understand, about events too long ago for him/her to recall accurately, about matters which s/he is unlikely to have accurate information or that are so personal or emotional that valid answers cannot be expected by formal direct questioning.

7.3.4.3.3 Open-ended and closed-ended questions

A combination of open-ended and closed-ended questions was used. Since they enable respondents to reply as they wish, a few open-ended questions were employed at the end of the survey instruments to encourage respondents to provide extensive answers. The inclusion of open-ended questions was useful in the present investigation as it had provided some richness to the information gathered relating to how people think, rather than how many people did think in a certain way (Kotler *et al* 1996). The use of closed-ended questions, on the other hand, provided data analysis advantages, as they are relatively easy to interpret and tabulate (Babbie 1990; Ryan 1995). Numerical symbols were assigned to the various answer categories, and thus the analysis could proceed directly. Some authors have made the point that closed-ended questions may cause a loss of qualitative information (Ryan 1995), while others suggest that if the range of answers to a questions is limited and well established, closed-end questions are generally preferred (Decrop 1999; Moser and Kalton 1989). The use of a combination of closed-ended and open-ended questions offered the advantage of providing richer and potentially more valid interpretations. A combined approach, using both closed-ended questions and a few open-ended questions, was adopted in order to corroborate, elaborate, and illuminate the research problem, and to enhance the findings' generalisability.

7.3.4.3.4 Type of scale

Care was exercised on the selection of appropriate type of scale for the data analysis. An understanding of the scale properties for the questions was crucial because both statistical techniques and interpretations are strictly based upon the level of measurement (Munro and McDoughall 1994). In general, the scales are classified into four groups; nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio (Robson 1993). *Nominal scales* are the least sophisticated; they involve nothing more than simple classification by certain attributes which are then quantified. The normal property of the nominal scale is that classes or groups are assigned to set mutually exclusive subclasses (ibid.). The appropriate statistics used in the analysis of nominal data are non-parametric tests and include the mode, the frequency and in most cases chi-square (ibid.). An *ordinal scale*, also called ranking scale, ranks the objects, that are being studied, according to certain characteristics. For example, ranking of vacation destinations in terms of choice (first, second, third), provides an ordinal scale. Statistics such as the median and percentiles can be used to determine the most popular category (Munro and McDoughall 1994). What cannot be measured is how much more or less popular a particular destination/attribute is in comparison to other measured destinations/ attributes (ibid.).

Interval scales/ratio scales have a constant unit of measurement. This makes it possible to state not only the order of scores but also the distance between individual scores although the zero point on the scale is arbitrary (Moser and Kalton 1979). The most important aspect of obtaining interval-scale data is that parametric statistical tests can be used which are more powerful than non-parametric tests (Munro and McDoughall 1994). Lewis (1984) states that interval scales loose none of the information of nominal and ordinal scales. Drawing on Lewis's (1984) and others' suggestions (Ryan 1995; Smith 1995), all questions were given interval-type scales, where possible, in order to use the traditional statistics such as the mean, standard deviation, test of significance, and factor and multiple regression analysis.

It is important to note that there is a debate about whether statistical analyses used in interval data can be applied to ordinal data, which is still unresolved in tourism (Smith 1995). Several researchers indicate that the use of ordinal data as interval data is strictly unacceptable (Green and Tull 1978; Clark *et al* 1998), whereas a number of statisticians (for example, Nunnaly 1978, Labovitz 1970; 1971; Lord 1953) suggest that some analyses which treat ordinal data as interval data may be acceptable and can lead to accurate conclusions. Labovitz (1970; 1971) goes further in suggesting that almost all ordinal variables can and should be treated as interval variables. Lewis (1983; 1984; 1985) and Bryman and Cramer (1992) suggest that ordinal variables, which have a large number of categories, such as multiple item questionnaire measures or satisfaction measures, may be assumed to have similar properties to true interval variables. Labovitz argues that the amount of error that can occur is minimal, especially in relation to the considerable advantages that can accrue to the analyst as a result of using analysis techniques, like correlation and regression which are both powerful and relatively easy to interpret (in Bryman and Cramer 1992). Similarly, Lord (1953) states that parametric tests can be used with ordinal variables since the tests apply to numbers and not to what those numbers refer (in Cramer 1994).

Many social scientists treated ordinal data obtained through Likert type or semantic differential scales as interval-type data, in order to utilise the above powerful data analysis techniques (for example, Barsky 1992; Cho 1998; Geva and Goldman 1989; Geva and Goldman 1991; Getty and Thomson 1994; Hughes 1991; Johns and Tyas 1996; Juaneda and Sastre 1997; Otto and Ritchie 1997; Pizam *et al* 1979; Reisinger and Turner 1997; Reisinger and Waryszak 1996; Ross and Iso-Ahola 1991; Tribe and Snaith 1998; Weber 1997;Whipple and Thach 1988; Zalatan 1994).

7.3.4.3.5 Scaling technique

Scaling techniques were taken into account. There are several types of scaling techniques proffered in the literature and it was important to know which technique is more versatile and relatively easy to construct and use. Some of the techniques are relatively difficult to construct, time consuming, require specific skills and are not used very often (for example, Thurstone's equal appearing intervals and Gutman scales), whereas others are much easier to develop and are inexpensive (for example, Likert scales and Semantic Differential Scales). Whatever scaling method is chosen, consistent with Robson's (1993) statement, the researcher believes that the scale should be interesting and enjoyable not only because respondents are likely to give considered rather than perfunctory answers but also, in many situations, respondents may not be prepared to co-operate with something that looks boring.

Semantic differential scales and Likert scales are widely used in tourism studies due to their ease of construction and descriptive capabilities, as well as lending themselves easily to many forms of statistical analysis (Danaher and Haddrell 1996; Munro and McDoughall 1994; Ryan 1995; Tull and Hawkins 1993). Although Likert scales, a scale that requires respondents to indicate a degree of agreement or disagreement with a set of statements, are used in the majority of research studies, some researchers argue that the scale leads to some problems. For instance, DeVaus (1996) argues that questions that ask respondents to agree or disagree with a statement can suffer from the tendency of some people agreeing with the statement, regardless of the question content. In their criticism of the Likert type scales used in the Servqual model, Lewis and Mitchell (1990: 13) stress that

> "the problem lies in how much one can express positive and negative feelings about the statements. If one strongly disagrees that a firm provides up to date equipment, then one is indicating that they do not agree, but how much out of date, is it a few years out of date or is it antiquated? If one strongly agrees that the firm provides up to date equipment does up to date include futuristic equipment or equipment, which may be seen as before it's fine? ".

According to Lewis and Mitchell, one way to overcome this problem is to use a bipolar semantic differential scale that will allow respondents greater freedom of expression.

The semantic differential scale, developed by Osgood *et al* (1957), comprises of a set of bipolar adjectives that can be used to assess respondents attitudes towards organisations, brands, activities, vacation destinations and so on (Munro and McDoughall 1994). Respondents are asked to describe some particular concept according to a five or seven point scale by placing a check mark in the position that reflects their feelings (Ryan 1995). Its procedure is flexible and it is easier to use and understand than other scaling methods (Teare and Mazanec 1994). The semantic differential scales have been used successfully in marketing investigations into consumer attitudes dealing with corporate image, brand and advertising image, and in other areas where it is often difficult for consumers to articulate their feelings (Chisnall 1992). The scale allows subjects to express the intensity of their feelings (Veal 1997).

Drawing on its ease of construction and administration, the researcher adopted semantic differential scales. In their development, care was exercised in selecting meaningful adjectives and phrases, which were important to respondents. In the scale construction, the negative and positive poles were alternated between the right and the left ends of scale to prevent a response tendency. Friedman *et al* (1988: 480), for instance, found that

> "Randomly mixing right to left and left to right scales had the effect of reducing the inter-correlations among ten items in the semantic differential scale. On the other hand, placing all the favourable descriptors on the left side of the semantic differential scale had the effect of shifting responses to the left, that is, toward the more favourable side of the scale. Placing all the favourite descriptors on the left side on the semantic differential scale appeared to produce less than consistent results. Thus placing all the favourable descriptors on the left side of

> the scales would seem to have a possible biasing effect. Researchers are advised to use the mixed scales in order to minimise the bias".

Taking account of this finding, the researcher adopted alternating positive and negative poles in each subsequent section rather than changing poles in each subsequent question, in order not to confuse the respondents.

7.3.4.3.6 Mixed wording

In general, the scale development literature advocates the use of items with mixed wording (negative and positive) (Churchill 1979). However, there is a debate over the use of mixed wording. Some advocate its use as it is assumed to reduce the "yeah" and "nay" tendency. Others argue that while it is theoretically appropriate to have such a mix of items, the practice itself does not guarantee the prevention of "yeah" and "nay" saying tendencies. This disagreement has initiated research on whether negative/positive wording impacts on data quality. For instance, Gendall and Hoek (1990: 30), in a study of the use of positive and negative statements, found that

> "Although score of the difference between the equivalent responses to the different versions were quite larger...there was no discernible pattern to these differences and no evidence to support the hypothesis that a positive or negative set of statements has a predictable effect on respondents' answers".

In contrast to Gendall's finding, a recent study has shown that the distribution of negatively worded items was bi-modal while the distribution of positive items was unimodal (Babakus and Boller 1992). This study also demonstrated that, respondents who were given negatively keyed statements required more time to read them, made more comprehension mistakes and were more likely to attain negative emotional connotations when they were given positive items (ibid.). As such results are indications of response quality problems, which result from the use of both negatively and positively worded items, the researcher avoided the use of mixed wording.

7.3.4.3.7 Scale points and labels

Scale points and labels were taken into account. There have been substantial debates concerning the number of scale divisions to be included and the labelling of the scales. Moser and Kalton (1989: 359) review the conventional concern as follows:

> "A decision to be made with rating scales is the number of scale points to use: if the scale is divided too finely the respondents will be unable to place themselves and if too coarsely the scale will not differentiate adequately between them. Often five to seven categories are employed, but sometimes the number is greater. The choice of odd or even number depends on whether or not respondents are to be forced to decide the direction of their attitude, with an odd number there is a middle category representing a neutral position, but with an even number there is no middle category, so that respondents are forced to decide on which side of neutral they belong. Another factor to take into account in fixing the number of categories is that respondents generally avoid the two extreme positions, thus effectively reducing the number they choose between".

In addition to the number of divisions used, the impact of scale labelling on response tendencies has also been recognised. Garlan (1990: 22), in his comparison of various semantic differential scales, some of which contained descriptors and others which did not (see Table 3), concludes

> "If you are surveying a sample of numerate people then the numerical form may be the best, if you are surveying people familiar with abstract thinking the unlabelled semantic differential should be considered, but if you are surveying the general public, or in any doubt about comprehension of the task by your respondents, then the labelled semantic differential scale is the best compromise".

The researcher adopted the use of seven-point labelled scales as these scales have been reported to create variance that is necessary for examining the relationships among variables and create adequate coefficient alpha (internal consistency) reliability estimates (Lissib and Green 1995] in Hinkin *et al* 1997).

Table 23 The types of semantic differential scales used in Garlan's research

The numerical						
Adjective	1	2	3	4	5	*Adjective*
The unlabelled						
Adjective	()	()	()	()	()	*Adjective*
The labelled	Very	Quite	Neither/ nor	Quite	Very	
Adjective	()	()	()	()	()	*Adjective*

7.3.4.3.8 The classification of the respondents

It is suggested that survey instruments should gather data not only on particular attributes or other matters under investigation but also should elicit profiles of the respondents for descriptive purpose (Lewis 1984). This usually involves asking personal information (demographics), which is generally left to the end of the survey instrument in order to avoid crowding the opening minutes with personal questions (Moser and Kalton 1989). However, if there is a need to filter out certain types of respondent, e.g. in quota samples, such questions may be directed early in the questionnaire (DeVaus 1996; Moser and Kalton 1989; Ryan 1995).

7.3.4.4 Pilot Tests

Pilot test is the process of trying out the research techniques and methods that the researcher has in mind, seeing how well they work in practice, and if necessary, modifying plans accordingly (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight 1996). It is an exploratory phase which aims to identify and eliminate problems before the full survey is carried out (Johns and Lee-Ross 1998). It is an essential stage in the development of effective questionnaires (Callan 1997) as "no amount of intellectual exercise could substitute for actually testing an instrument" ([Backstrom and Hursch 1987: 170] in Callan 1997). Blaxter *et al* (1996: 122) stress that

> "You may think that you know well enough what you are doing, but the value of pilot research cannot be overestimated. Things never work quite the way you envisage, even if you have done them many times before, and they have a nasty habit of turning out very differently than you expected. So try a pilot exercise".

"Well-organised piloting reveals possible misinterpretations owing to ignorance or misunderstanding of questions, and indicates differences in the frames of reference between the researcher and respondents" (Chisnall 1992: 118).

> "Questionnaires do not emerge fully-fledged; they have to be created or adapted, fashioned and developed to maturity after many abortive test flights. Pilot work can be of the greatest help in devising the actual wording of questions, and it operates as a healthy check, since fatal ambiguities may lurk in the most unexpected quarters" (Oppenheim 1992: 47).

Thus, upon the completion of the design of the written questionnaires after several drafts, the adequacy of the research instruments was assessed by conducting pilot tests prior to the actual research. It is important to note that there are no general ground rules on the size and the design of the pilot surveys and it is stated that it is a matter of convenience, practicability, time and money (Chisnall 1992; Moser and Kalton 1989). Researchers in the hospitality area, for instance, used 10 participants to pilot test a survey of 140 (Renaghan and Kay 1987), a pilot of 20 for a survey of 200 (Knutson *et al* 1991), 25 for a survey of 500 (Callan 1997) and a pilot test of 40 for a planned survey of 1,000 (Owram 1986) (cited in Callan 1997). In order to provide valid information on the questionnaire design, wording, and measurement scales, in each case, pilot tests were carried out with 30 participants.

In the light of Churchill's (1983), Chisnall's (1992) Moser's and Kalton's (1989), Hinkin *et al*'s (1997), and DeVaus' (1996) suggestions, the pilot tests were designed to assess the ease of handling the questionnaire, the efficiency and its layout, the clarity of definitions and instructions, and the adequacy of the questions themselves. More specifically, during the pilot tests, the researcher checked the following points. (1) Was the wording simple, clear, unambiguous, and free from academic jargon? (2) Were there signs that some people were misunderstanding the questions? (3) Were there too many don't knows? (4) Were the items internally consistent?

Pilot tests should be done under conditions which reflect in miniature the main survey and the respondents should be of the same socio-economic and age distribution as those in the main survey (Chisnall 1992). It is important to note that in the implementation of the pilot surveys, the respondents were not told that the questionnaire was still under construction in order to simulate the final questionnaire administration (DeVaus 1996). By administering a complete questionnaire, this phase enabled further evaluation of the individual items included and of the research instrument as a whole. The results of these pilot tests revealed that there were no major problem relating to the clarity and appropriateness of the items included in the questionnaires, although some minor changes concerning the wording and layout of some questions were made.

In addition to the checks on the item wording, the researcher checked for variations in responses and for the internal consistency of the items used (see Appendix IV, p.456). Examination of the variations was fundamental as questions with a low variation in response make correlation analysis very difficult and produce low correlation (DeVaus 1996). A reliability test (Cronbach alpha) was conducted to assess the internal consistency of the items included in order to understand how well the items measured the same construct and to ensure the unidimensionality of the scale. Based on Hinkin *et al* and Getty and Thomson's suggestions, the researcher checked the item-to-total correlation value which indicated whether the item was within the domain of the concept under investigation. A high inter-item-correlation (0.3 and over) indicates that the item has a strong relationship with the other items and belongs to the scale (Getty and Thomson 1994). These checks revealed that the set of items was internally consistent (the Cronbach alpha values were over 0.80, item-to-total correlation values were over 0.3, and deletion of any item produced no increase in Alpha-if-item-deleted values) and their content was valid, and was capable of capturing the construct under examination. Pilot tests conducted in each step of the investigation will be detailed in their relevant section.

7.3.4.5 Sampling

Following the determination of the data collection technique and the development of the instrument, the next decision in the research was to determine the sampling technique to select a representative sample from which the information will be collected.

Many textbooks emphasise the significance of forming a representative sample, that is a sample that can be treated as if it were the population, but the creation of perfectly representative samples is very rare (Bryman and Cramer 1992; Cannon 1994; DeVaus 1996; Yu and Cooper 1983). The chances of developing a representative sample can be enhanced by probability sampling (Robson 1993), where the probability of the selection of each respondent is known. Probability samples are preferable because they are likely to produce a representative sample and enable estimates of the sample accuracy (DeVaus 1996). By using probability sampling, statistical inferences relating to the population can be made from the responses of the sample. Probability sampling is favoured as it legitimises the generalisation of findings to the population of interest (Lewis 1984). In non-probability sampling, where probability of selection is not known, such statistical inferences cannot be made (ibid.).

There are various forms of probability and non-probability sampling. These include simple random sampling, systematic random sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling, multi-stage sampling, quota sampling, dimensional sampling, convenience sampling, purposive sampling, snowball sampling and so on (Robson 1993). The choice between the forms of sampling depends on the nature of the research problem, the availability of good sampling frame, money and time, and the desired level of accuracy in the sample and the method by which data is to be collected (DeVaus 1996).

Generally speaking, probability sampling requires listing all members of the population (this is called a sampling frame) and then in effect choosing the names randomly. For instance, in order to select a representative sample through a simple random method, one needs to obtain a complete sampling frame, give each case a unique number starting from one, decide on the required sample size, select that many numbers from a table of random numbers and then select the cases which correspond to the randomly chosen numbers (DeVaus 1996). It is important to note here that, although social scientists are all aware of the advantages of probability sampling, as Bryman and Cramer (1992) note, a great deal of research does not use probability samples. For example, Mitchell (1985) in a review of 126 articles in the field of organisation studies, reported that only twenty one were based on probability samples, while the rest used convenience samples. Correspondingly Schwab (1985: 173) notes that

> "Almost all of the empirical studies published in our journal, organisation studies, use convenience, and not probability samples. Thus if one took generalisation to a population using statistical inference seriously, one would recommend rejecting nearly all manuscripts submitted" (in Robson 1993).

Tourism and hospitality researchers have employed various sampling procedures (Oh and Parks 1997). For example, Barsky (1992); Barsky and Labagh (1992); Callan (1994) used random sampling, Pizam and Milman (1993) used systematic random sampling, Saleh and Ryan (1991) used stratified random sampling, and convenience sampling was employed by Getty and Thomson (1994). In this research, as there were no lists of customers or tourists from which a sample could have been selected randomly or systematically, consistent with other researchers (for example, Fick and Ritchie 1991; Johns *et al* 1996; Parasuraman *et al* 1988, Pettijohn *et al* 1997) the researcher used the store intercept design where every n^{th} customer making a purchase at the participating restaurant and every n^{th} tourist departing from an international airport was selected in order to build a representative sample. The representativeness of the selected sample was assessed, where possible, by comparing, for instance, the demographic information of the selected sample with that of the sample population.

7.3.4.5.1 Sample Size

It is well known that the data must be collected from an adequate sample size in order to conduct subsequent analyses appropriately (Hinkin *et al* 1997). The determination of correct sample size is important since it minimises sampling error (the extent that the characteristics of the people surveyed vary from those of sample size) (Lewis 1984). Although it is generally stated that the larger the sample size the smaller the sampling error and the more accurate the research findings (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill 1997), there has been an extensive debate over the sample size needed to appropriately conduct tests of statistical significance.

A review of past studies demonstrates that researchers in tourism and hospitality tend to utilise one of the following techniques in the determination of the sample size.

Some researchers for instance have favoured the use of the statistical theory, which provides formulas that can be used as guidelines (Lewis 1984), while others have justified their sample size based on the sample size recruited in previous studies (Parasuraman *et al* 1988). In these formulas, the choice of sample size is governed by three factors: *the variance of the population, the margin of acceptable error, and the confidence level*, (Lewis 1984; Ryan 1995; Saunders *et al* 1997). The variance of population refers to the standard deviation of the population parameters of what is being measured. The margin of error is concerned with the precision of the estimate or measurement. The confidence level refers to the level of certainty that, the characteristics of the data collected, will reflect the total population. Lewis (1984) states that all these factors require some prior knowledge and researcher judgement, and suggests a simple formula from which to determine the sample size.

$$N: (Z^* \, ED/e)^2$$

Where

N: Sample size

Z: Standardised value of the confidence level desired

ED: Estimated standard deviation of the population

e: acceptable margin of error

Using the 95% confidence level, which has a standardised value of 1.96, is common practice in research (Lewis 1984; Ryan 1995). The estimation of standard deviation is more difficult because it is one statistic that the research is designed to measure. When the standard deviation is unknown, it can be estimated from previous research findings, if any, or by referring to a rule of thumb. One such rule of thumb for estimating ED is to divide the scale range (largest value minus smallest value) by 6. For a scale of one to five, the range is four. Dividing four by six gives an ED of 0.67. An acceptable margin of error is 5 to 15 percent. Putting these numbers into the formula yields the sample size of 170 ($[1.96 \times 0.67/0.10]^2$), and when the acceptable margin of error is reduced from 10 % to 5%, the sample size increases to 690.

Although some researchers seem to favour the use of these sophisticated and complex formulas to determine the appropriate sample size, others argue that the number of variables to be assessed will dictate the sample size needed to achieve robust and reliable results (Hinkin *et al* 1996). For instance, earlier suggestions for item-to-response ratios ranged from 1:4 (Rummel 1970), 1:5 (Hair *et al* 1995) to at least 1:10

(Schwab 1980] in Hinkin *et al* 1997). Moser and Kalton (1989) and Saunders *et al* (1997) point out that the determination of the sample size will be directed by the way the results are to be analysed. Bryman and Cramer (1992), for instance, argue that the reliability of factors, which emerge from a factor analysis, depends on the size of sample, though there is no consensus on what this should be. There is congruence, however, that there should be more subjects than variables. For instance Ryan (1995) suggests that if a factor analysis is to be employed, then there should be never less than five respondents per variable. Hair *et al* (1995) suggest that the researcher should not factor analyse a sample of fewer than 50 observations, and preferably the sample size should be 100 or larger. Another researcher has stated "Statistically significant research findings with approximately 60 study objects usually translates into findings that also have practical significance" (Peterson 1982: 399] in Lewis 1984). More recent studies have demonstrated that a sample size of 150 observations should be sufficient to obtain an accurate solution in explaining factor analysis, as long as item-inter-correlations are reasonably strong (Hair *et al* 1995; Hinkin *et al* 1997; Ryan 1995).

Drawing on the literature review, the research constraints, and the data analysis techniques involved (for example factor analysis and multiple regression analysis), the researcher decided that the sample size should not be less than a 100. This research involved the run of three interrelated surveys, and each survey was carried out with a minimum of 400 individuals (Table 4). In light of the reported sample sizes used in previous studies, the researcher believes that the determined sample size is appropriate and adequate.

Table 4. Sample sizes

	Number of distributed questionnaires	Number of useable questionnaires
First Investigation (Total)	460	401
Performance only	115	106
Importance/Performance	115	105
Importance/Disconfirmation	115	102
Expectation-Performance	115	88
Second Investigation	400	343
Third Investigation	500	449

7.4. Section Three: Research Implementation and Data Analysis

So far, previous sections have presented research hypotheses and procedures pursued in the development of the research instruments. Note that this study consists of three interdependent investigations. The first investigation identifies the measurement framework to be used in the subsequent stages of the research, and involves the comparison of reliability and validity of seven alternative measurement frameworks. The second step explores underlying factors of tourist satisfaction within a destination and examines the extent to which each individual factor, particularly the food service experience, influences overall holiday satisfaction, return intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations. The second step also examines the potential benefits of incorporating relative performance assessment into satisfaction investigations. The third step addresses what brings satisfaction, return patronage and word-of-mouth recommendations and what discourages return business in non-fast-food restaurants in Turkey. This step also explores whether sources of satisfaction differ between segments. The following section now details how research was conducted in each investigation and how the data were analysed.

7.4.1 Research Implementation: Part One

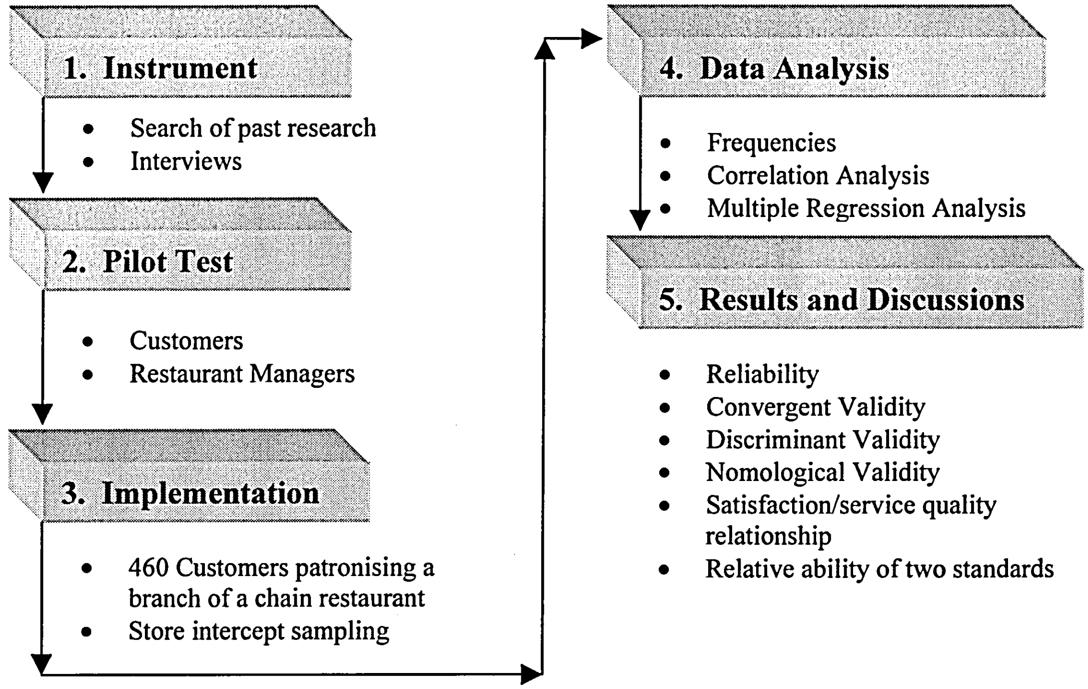
The first part of the study, aiming to scrutinise the reliability and validity of satisfaction measurement frameworks, utilised four different types of questionnaires (see Appendix V, p. 463). The first questionnaire [Q1] was designed to assess only respondents' performance perceptions of service attributes. The second questionnaire [Q2] assessed expectations and performance evaluations. The third questionnaire [Q3] investigated attribute importance and perceptions of performance. The final questionnaire [Q4] was designed to investigate a summated judgmental scale and attribute importance. Research development and implementation procedure is displayed in Figure 7.

Each of the four research instruments were comprised of the same set of 24 questions accompanied by different scales, according to the customer-service measure that the questionnaire was testing. The questions were divided into the following areas:

general information about the purpose of visit, ratings on 12 restaurant-service attributes, ratings on overall service evaluation, behavioural intentions (i.e., would they return and would they recommend), and a demographic profile. The 12 service-attribute items on the questionnaire (atmosphere, cleanliness, seating comfort, menu diversity, food temperature, portion sizes, food prices, service efficiency, staff cleanliness, staff attentiveness, availability of managers, and waiting time) were derived from previous restaurant studies (for example, Murray 1992; Oh and Jeong 1996; Qu 1997), and preliminary interviews, and were based on seven-point semantic-differential scales. A research proposal, together with questionnaires was prepared and presented to two executives of the restaurant chain and changes were made based on recommendations. The reliability and adequacy of the set of 12 items, in assessing customer satisfaction, was verified at the pilot stage of the instrument development. A pilot test with 30 restaurant customers was conducted. The check on the scales reliability and item-to-total correlation values revealed that the set of items were internally consistent, and there were no major problems observed relating to the clarity and appropriateness of the items. The adequacy of the scale was also assessed and verified by two restaurant managers employed in that particular restaurant chain.

The study used a single overall measure of customer satisfaction. Some researchers contend that satisfaction should be measured by a combination of attributes. It is generally assumed that multi-item measures can provide a better sampling of the domain of interest than a single-item-global measure (Oliver 1980). Multi-item scales are also thought to provide a higher level of content validity and have the advantage of allowing the computation of internal consistency reliabilities (ibid.). Others, for instance, Day (1977), who favours the use of an overall measure, claims that there is no difficulty with measuring overall customer satisfaction. Czepiel and Rosenberg (1976) justify the use of a single item overall measure as it represents a summary of subjective responses to several different facets (in LaBarbera and Mazursky 1983). Day *et al* (1982) provide empirical confirmation for the use of single item measure in a study which compared single and multi-item measures of customer satisfaction. They found that the multi-item measure did not perform better in regression models than the single item measure.

Figure 7. Research Development and Implementation: Part One



Drawing on its ease of use and empirical support for an overall measure of satisfaction (Cronin and Taylor 1992; Czepiel and Rosenberg 1976; Day 1977; Halstead 1989; LaBarbera and Mazursky 1983; Reidenbach and Minton 1991; Singh and Pindya 1991; Tse and Wilton 1988), the researcher adopted the use of a single-item overall satisfaction measurement, seven-point "delight–terrible" scale, as it has been reported to be the most reliable customer-satisfaction scale (Danaher and Arweiler 1996; Maddox 1985). In addition, the researcher adopted the use of seven-point bipolar single-item scales to assess intentions to recommend and repeat visit. This is consistent with most customer satisfaction and service quality studies (for example, Getty and Thompson 1994; Parasuraman *et al* 1988; Reidenbaum and Sandifer-Swalwood 1991; Swan and Oliver 1989).

7.4.1.1 The Sampling Procedure

The study setting of this research was a chain restaurant in Sheffield. The actual name of the restaurant is not indicated here to respect its confidentiality. A self-administered survey was carried out with a sample of 460 restaurant customers (115 for each instrument) during a two-week period in June 1997. Forty customers refused to participate and 19 returned incomplete questionnaires, resulting in an *N* of 401 (the usable number of respondents are indicated in Table 4). Fifty-seven percent of the respondents were women, and 76 percent of all respondents had visited the restaurant at least once before. To build the sample, two researchers (the researcher and a graduate student) handed out a questionnaire to every seventh customer on Sundays and to every fifth customer on Wednesdays and Thursdays. The researchers distributed the questionnaires at the door as diners entered the restaurant and collected the questionnaires on their departure.

The distribution of the questionnaires was rotated. Though it might seem preferable to obtain comparative information from the same respondents (and thus eliminate between-subject variability), asking identical questions using four different scales would have introduced a severe respondent-fatigue effect. On the inferred-type questionnaire, respondents were asked to answer questions about their expectations before they ate and about perceptions afterward. The researcher acknowledges Weber's (1997) concern that this approach is open to the influence of "hindsight" bias—particularly if the respondent waited until after dinner to complete the expectations section. However, this possibility had to be accepted and accounted for in the interpretation of results. In the administration of other questionnaires, the respondents were instructed both to state the importance of the service attributes and evaluate the actual service after their meal.

7.4.1.2 Data Analysis

The survey data were quantitatively analysed using a variety of multivariate analysis techniques. The software package used was SPSS (Version 8) for Windows.

Simple frequencies were used in order to analyse the demographic variables. The frequencies of categorical variables such as age, gender, and previous visit were examined in order to determine the proportion of respondents in each category. A series of chi-square tests were performed to investigate whether study samples differ in terms of demographics and visit related variables. A one-way Anova test was utilised to examine whether ratings of four samples differ on such dependent variables as overall satisfaction, return intention and recommendation. These investigations were necessary to ascertain whether differences found in the subsequent analysis, could be attributed to reasons other than the sample difference. These analyses showed that the difference in the ability of the tested measurement frameworks in determining customer satisfaction, could not be due to the sample profile differences.

The collected data was then subjected to a reliability analysis so as to assess the internal consistency of the set of items. Reliability is a measure of the internal consistency of the construct indicators, and depicts the degree to which they indicate the common latent (unobserved) construct (Hair *et al* 1995). Drawing on the limitations of split-halves, alternative-form, and test-retest reliability testing methods (Bryman and Cramer 1990; Carmines and Zeller 1979; Churchill 1983; Moser and Kalton 1989), and consistent with the approach used in much of the related research, Cronbach alpha (α) test was used in order to test the internal consistency of the set of items. In general, a low coefficient alpha ($\alpha < 0.5$) indicates the sample of items perform poorly in capturing the construct (Churchill 1979), and an alpha coefficient of 0.5 or above is suggested to be sufficient to proceed with subsequent data analysis techniques (Nunnaly 1967). Reliability analysis revealed that the total scale reliability was moderately high for all of the measurement frameworks examined, which indicates that the sample of the items performed well in capturing the measured construct.

Consistent with Crompton and Love's (1995) and Dorfman's (1979) suggestions, Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression procedures were employed to test the research hypotheses and investigate the convergent, discriminant and nomological validity, (hence the construct validity) of the satisfaction measurement frameworks under investigation. *Construct validity* lies at the very heart of measurement validity , theory development and testing, and is concerned with the extent to which a particular measure relates to other measures, which are consistent with theoretically derived hypotheses (Carmines and Zeller 1979; Churchill 1979; Peter 1981). It is most directly related to the question of, what the measurement is in fact measuring and to the degree of correspondence between abstract constructs and their empirical measures.

The term construct validity refers to the vertical correspondence between a construct which is at an unobservable and conceptual level, and a purported measure which is at an operational level (Peter 1981). In other words, it is how far a measure really measures the concept that it purports to measure (Bryman and Cramer 1992). In an ideal sense, a measure is construct valid (1) to the degree that it assesses the magnitude and direction of a representative sample of characteristics of the construct and (2) to the degree the measure is not contaminated with elements from the domain of other constructs and errors (Peter 1981).

To be considered as having good construct validity, the scale(s) must satisfy a set of conceptual and empirical criteria as convergent, discriminant, and nomological validity (Churchill 1979). *Convergent validity* of a measure is the extent to which the measure correlates or "*converges*" with other measures designed to measure the same concept, and it indicates any difference have not occurred accident (ibid.). Evidence of convergent validity of a measure is provided by the extent to which it correlates highly with other methods designed to measure the same construct. *Discriminant validity* is another theoretically based way of measuring the underlying truth in a given area (ibid.). It is the extent to which the measure is indeed novel and not simply a reflection of some other variables. Discriminant validity is indicated by low correlations between the measure of interest and other measures that are supposedly, not measuring the same variable or concept. In other words, for a survey to have discriminant validity, the correlation between two different measures of the same variable should be higher than the correlation between the measure of that variable and those of any other variable (Cronin and Taylor 1992).

Efforts to investigate a measure's convergent and discriminant validity are generally classified into "trait validity" investigations, which examine "the amount of systematic variance in a measure's scores and determine whether this systematic variance results in high correlations with other measures of the construct and low correlations with measures of other phenomena" (Peter 1981: 135). Peter (1981) argues that trait validity investigations provide necessary but not sufficient information for accepting construct validity. He goes on to argue that a measure of a construct must also be useful for making observable predictions derived from theoretical propositions, before it can be accepted as construct valid. Thus, in addition to convergent and dicriminant validity, measures must demonstrate nomological validity.

Nomological validity of a measure is the extent to which the measure correlates in a theoretically predicted way with a measure of a different but related construct (Brown *et al* 1993). Attitude theory, for instance, predicts that performance should have a significant impact on behavioural intentions and this is an example of nomological validity. It is also expected that the performance perception should correlate strongly with overall satisfaction. In order to help assess convergent, discriminant and nomological validity within each scale as well as the relative validity of the alternative methodologies, the researcher used an overall customer satisfaction measure, an overall value perception measure, and two behavioural intention measures.

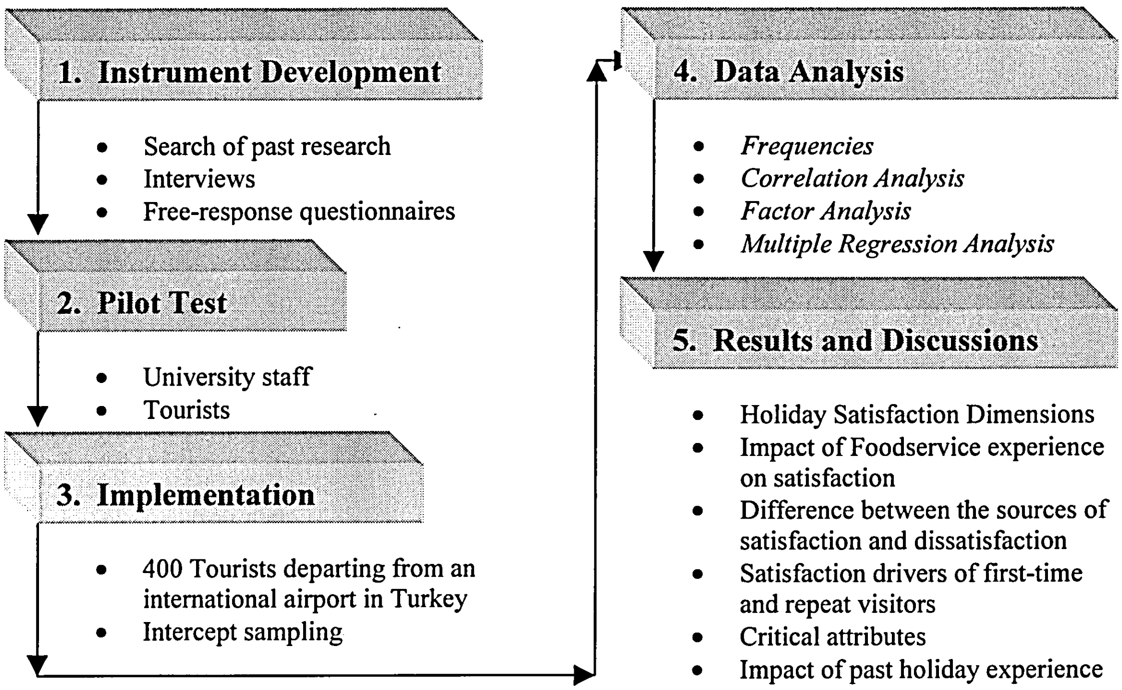
The Pearson Moment Correlation scores were computed for each of the alternative satisfaction constructs, using respondents' scores and their responses to the question; "overall how satisfied are you with the meal experience?" on a seven point scale labelled from delighted to terrible (*Oversat*). In addition, the correlations between the models and two behavioural intentions, Return Intention (*Ri*) and likeliness to Recommend (*Rec*), and a single overall value perception, were calculated. Moreover, the ability of each of the six scales to explain potential variations in customer satisfaction was assessed by multiple regression analysis (ibid.). Each of the twelve attributes were used in the regression analysis. The twelve attributes were eliminated by using a backward stepwise procedure. At each step, the variable with the largest probability-of- F value was removed, provided that the value was larger than 0.10 (ibid.).

A t-test for paired sample analysis was conducted to examine whether respondents' ratings on satisfaction and service quality differ significantly. In order to test the proposition that whether standards against which performance is compared can be confidently used to differentiate between satisfaction and service quality, a correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis were undertaken.

7.4.2 Research Implementation: Part Two

The second part of the research aimed to ascertain the nature and extent of the influence of foodservice experience on holiday satisfaction. The research development and implementation procedures are displayed on Figure 8.

Figure 8. Research Development and Implementation: Part Two



Development of the research instrument involved a fairly extensive investigation, including both secondary and primary research. The item generation and selection process started with a review of academic literature and general reading of holiday magazines and brochures (Echtner and Ritchie 1991; Ross 1994; Veal 1997). An extensive review of past research investigating components of experiences which contribute to tourist satisfaction within different tourism and hospitality contexts, was undertaken in order to aid in the construction of the research instrument (Table 5).

Analysis of literature demonstrated that, as a result of studies conducted with different consumer groups and within different tourism contexts, there was a substantial variation in the number and nature of attributes considered relevant to tourist satisfaction with destinations (Table 5).

Table 5. Previous Studies Reviewed

Destination Services	Chadee and Mattsson (1996), Danaher and Arweiler (1996), Laws (1995), Mill and Morrison (1985), Juaneda and Sastre (1997), Lounsburry and Hoopes (1985), Pizam *et al* (1978), Pizam and Milman (1993), Otto and Ritchie (1997), Ryan (1995), van Raaij and Franken (1984), Weber (1997), Zalatan (1994)
Destination Attractiveness	Calantone *et al* (1989), Crompton (1979), Echtner and Ritchie (1991, 1993), Gartner (1989), Goodrich (1975), Reilly (1990), Yau and Chan (1990), Hu and Ritchie (1993), Phelps (1986) Ritchie and Zins (1978), Var, Beck and Loftus (1977)
Recreation Facilities	Dorfman (1979), Noe and Uysal (1997), Reisinger and Waryszack (1994)
Cultural Tours	Geva and Goldman (1989), Duke and Persia (1996), Reisinger and Waryszak (1995), Whipple and Thach (1988), Hughes (1991)
Hotel Services	Saleh and Ryan (1992), Callan (1996), Gundersen et al (1996), Lewis (1987), Huang and Smith (1996), Getty and Thomson (1994), Wuest *et al* (1996)
Restaurant Services	Reisinger and Waryszack (1996), Stevens *et al* (1995),
Host Culture	Ryan, Jeffcoat, and Jeffcoat (1998), Reisinger and Turner (1997)

Thus, relying merely on attribute lists obtained from secondary sources of information (literature reviews, brochures) as the complete list to study tourist satisfaction was considered to be inappropriate. The list might have been incomplete by failing to incorporate all of the relevant features of destination attractions, facilities, and services. In order to develop a more complete list of attributes that are relevant and salient to tourists, qualitative research in the form of consultations with tourism experts (representatives of travel agents selling tours specifically to Turkey (n=6), Turkish Tourism Bureau, London (n= 2), and Tourism Ministry (n= 1)), informal interviews (n= 20), and free response surveys with open-ended questions (n=120) was undertaken.

A number of researchers have suggested and used conversations with tourism experts as a way of generating attributes (Gartner and Hunt 187; Goodrich 1977; Hunt 1975; Pizam *et al* 1978). One of the main aims of the conversations with tourism experts for this study was to have their opinions on factors having a significant role in tourist evaluations, and to find out destination attributes receiving complaints and suggestions on the ways in which tourism industry can be made more successful and competitive. Consulted individuals pointed to the quality of tourism products as one of the most important determinants of a tourist's satisfaction with a tourism experience. It was emphasised that service quality was imperative in making the tourism industry successful and Turkey's product more competitive, and that the tourism industry would benefit from expanded research on a variety of service quality issues. It also was stressed that to maintain and improve service quality, authorities must identify the dimensions of the product that are most important to tourists so that they can modify their management practices and allocate resources effectively. Representatives of travel agents stated that the rate of tourist complaints on accommodation, cleanliness, attitudes toward tourists, service standards, food quality and variety, and commercialisation and prices was on the increase. They stated that there needed to be a better understanding of the sources of tourist complaints and of the levels and trends in service quality of various sectors operating in the industry, along with an understanding of the changing consumer tastes and expectations. Development of a more customer-based survey instrument that could monitor the quality of tourist experiences with various businesses was suggested to provide managers with an accurate perception of tourists' experiences in the country.

The interviews with prospective travellers aimed to identify general reasons for going on summer holiday and the destination attributes that tourists consider important while on vacation. These interviews were useful in learning more about the destination attributes leading to enjoyable and disappointing holiday experiences and the attributes that would inhibit repeat visits in the future. In addition to interviews undertaken in Sheffield, the researcher conducted qualitative research with actual tourists in Turkey in order to identify and generate a more relevant list of destination satisfaction attributes. The main aim of the free-response-form survey, conducted with 120 tourists departing from Turkey, was to elicit destination attributes receiving tourist complaints and compliments. The elicitation of respondents' complaints and compliments and the reasons for them highlight important dimensions of holiday experience which tourists really care about, and they represent important elements in the formation of satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Cadotte and Turgeon 1988; McCleary and Weaver 1982; Johnston 1995; Johnston and Silvestro 1995). Respondents were required to state the things they liked best about their holiday in Turkey and comment on the reason why they liked these aspects. In order to identify deficiencies in destination services affecting tourist satisfaction, respondents were also required to state the things they found least satisfactory about their holiday in Turkey and the reason why this aspect was unsatisfactory. The results of the qualitative research conducted in the early stage of the scale construction demonstrated that there were distinct attributes leading to a disappointing or satisfactory holiday. Examples of such attributes include:

- friendliness, politeness and helpfulness of local people, host culture,
- availability of good restaurants, availability of quality food and beverage, menu variety, different cuisine,
- cheapness and fairness of prices charged for services and goods, price consistency, good value for money,
- location of the lodging facility, tidiness, quietness and cleanliness, availability of facilities,
- room security, comfort, noise,
- the natural environment, the weather, the conditions of beaches and sea,
- availability of water sports, tours, cruises, entertainment, places to visit, shopping,
- attitudes of service employees, courtesy, competency, responsiveness, quality of service,
- ease of communication, personal safety, and
- traffic, crowdedness, transportation, extent of commercialisation, airport services.

Attributes drawn from literature on destination attractiveness and choice, tourist satisfaction with destinations, recreation facilities, tours, hotels, and restaurants and the results of interviews and tourist compliments and complaints were merged and analysed. The researcher compiled an item list and sent it to a number of prospective tourists (n= 20 individuals at the university), and to a number of tour operators and travel agents (n= 22) in order to check out the appropriateness of the items within the holiday satisfaction context. Two pilot tests, conducted with prospective and actual tourists, followed this (n= 42) in order to assess question wording and measurement scales and fine-tune the item lists. Revisions were made based on the recommendations and reliability analysis (see page 183 for the analysis conducted on pilot test results). Finally, 68 attributes were retained after this process. It is important to note that although the pilot tests revealed that there were no major problems relating to the clarity and appropriateness of the items included in the questionnaire, one mistake was found at the end of the main survey implementation. The researcher had to drop one item from the subsequent data analysis as the bipolar adjectives on this item were wrongly ordered (negative adjective was put on the positive side).

A key issue emerging from the primary and secondary research conducted in the initial stage of the scale construction is that a holiday is an experience made up of many different independent components, such as attractions, facilities, and service quality, with some being more tangible than others. Various positive and negative experiences are likely to occur as a result of interactions with these components, and it is the accumulative effect that will ultimately determine the tourist's overall evaluation of the experience (Pizam *et al* 1978; Whipple and Thach, 1988). Since managing tourist satisfaction is difficult without knowing what service areas matter most in tourist evaluations (Weiermair, 1994), the research instrument aimed to identify destination components and understand the relative contribution of each component to overall tourist impressions. Based on the secondary and primary research, a number of destination components, such as accommodation, catering, hospitality, service standards, facilities, environment, cost of vacationing, and activities were included in the questionnaire. Justifications for the inclusion of individual attributes are discussed in the following paragraphs.

The initial primary and secondary research indicated that controllable and uncontrollable destination factors, such as the natural environment, the scenery, the culture, the climate, and other general features (for example, the cleanliness of beach and sea, and the availability of activities, facilities, and entertainment) might be among the prime determinants of tourist satisfaction (Hu and Ritchie 1993; Pizam and Milman 1993). As was noted in the Introduction Chapter, holiday satisfaction may not only come from beautiful sights but also from the behaviour one encounters, from the information one gets, and from the efficiency with which needs are served (Ohja 1982; Stringer 1981; Sharpley 1994; Pearce 1982; Reisinger and Turner 1997). Tourist impressions of tourist-host interaction may become a significant element in holiday satisfaction because hosts (or service providers) are the first contact point for tourists and remain in direct contact through an entire holiday (Krippendorf 1987; Reisinger andTurner 1997). Authentic interpersonal experiences between hosts and tourists may lead to psychological comfort in satisfying tourists' needs (Stringer 1981). Hoffman and Low (1978), in a study of visitors to USA, found that the most important variable in any decision to return in the future was the visitor's impression of the friendliness of the residents. Research suggests that tourist communication with local people and service providers may foster empathy and a feeling of safety (Reisinger and Waryszack 1996), and this may affect tourist enjoyment of the host environment and their future destination selection decisions (Sirakaya, Sheppard and McLennan 1997; Pizam, Tarlow, and Bloom 1997). Considering the potential influence of tourist-host interactions on tourist satisfaction, the research instrument, along with general features of destination, included the courtesy, friendliness, and helpfulness of local people and employees, the ease of communication, and the extent of commercialisation.

Initial research further suggested that the provision of both physically and psychologically comforting accommodation facilities might be instrumental to the generation of quality holiday experiences (Getty and Thomson 1994; Lewis 1987; Saleh and Ryan 1991; Lounsburry and Hoopes 1985; Tribe and Snaith 1998). In conjunction with the reviewed literature, initial primary research indicated that the location of the accommodation, cleanliness of the hotel and the room, the physical condition of the accommodation, the speed of check-in and out procedures, quietness, adequacy of water-electricity supply, room temperature, comfort, noise level, the quality of facilities offered at the accommodation, and the security might play a part in tourist evaluations. Thus, they were included in the questionnaire.

The service quality delivered in lodging and other tourist facilities, the responsiveness of service personnel to tourist requests and complaints, and the resolution of problems in a proper manner are also suggested to contribute substantially to tourist satisfaction (Bitner *et al* 1990; Huang and Smith 1996; Reisinger and Waryszack 1996). The reviewed literature demonstrates that proper complaint handling would retain or even build customer loyalty (Bitner *et al* 1990; Callan and Moore 1998; Hart *et al* 1990; Huang and Smith 1996; Sparks and Callan 1996; Spreng, Harrell and Mackoy 1995). Thus, the responsiveness of service personnel to tourist requests and complaints and other staff characteristics, such as courtesy, competency, knowledge, friendliness and ease of communication were included. Note that responsiveness explained above has already been recognised by Parasuraman *et al* (1988) as one of the most important service dimensions.

The results of primary and secondary research also pointed out that availability of quality restaurants and the quality of services in these facilities might be among the preconditions for a satisfactory holiday experience (Chadee and Mattsson 1995; Lounsbury and Hoopes 1985; Pizam et al., 1978; Tribe and Snaith 1998). When managed well, the product consumed in restaurants may have the potential to enhance overall holiday satisfaction; however, when handled improperly, the product can significantly mar the entire holiday experience through poor performance (Hanszuch, 1991; Ryan 1997c). Thus, attributes assessing tourists' impressions concerning the quality of food served in restaurants, menu variety, and availability of familiar and local dishes were included in the research instrument.

Initial research has also shown that the prices of services, the price and value relationship, and the extent of commercialisation in the area may become important factors affecting tourist evaluations (Bojanic 1996; Pizam *et al* 1978; Reisinger and Turner, 1997). Feeling safe and comfortable in the area was also included in the questionnaire because personal safety and security were stated to affect tourist enjoyment of the host environment and their future destination selection decisions (Sirakaya *et al* 1997; Pizam *et al* 1997). Public transport was included because it is one of the main components of the tourist product (Cooper *et al* 1993) which is extensively used by tourists during their holiday. Efficiency of airport services was also included since this factor may play a part in tourist evaluations, as the airport service encounter is generally the initial and the last experience the tourist has with the destination (Laws 1995).

The final research instrument comprised of 112 items grouped into four major areas. In the first section, general information about the respondent and their holiday in Turkey were obtained (see Appendix VI, p. 478). This section was composed of 11 questions. The second section, composed of 20 attributes based on a 7-point scale ranging from important to not important, was constructed for segmentation purpose and was used to assess the level of importance attached to holiday motives (Haukeland 1992). The third section, composed of 67 questions based on a 7-point bipolar scale, was structured to measure levels of tourist impressions with attractions, facilities, and services identified by the research instrument. The literature suggests that both Likert-type and semantic differential scales can be employed for the purpose of evaluating tourist experiences with destination services because they are effective in measuring consumer attitudes and are easy to construct and manage (Ross 1994; Echtner and Ritchie 1991; Ryan 1995; Westbrook and Oliver 1991). In line with Cadotte and his colleagues (1987) experience-based-norm notion, respondents were asked to compare the performance of their current visit with that of the last summer holiday destination that they had visited (past experience confirmation [PEC]) using a three point scale.

The final section was structured for the purpose of measuring respondents' satisfaction with their holidays, their likelihood to revisit in the future, and their likelihood to recommend it to others. A single Delighted-Terrible satisfaction scale assessed respondents' overall evaluation with regard to total satisfaction (Maddox 1985). A three-point better than/worse than scale was included to assess how good the holiday was in comparison to expectations. Respondents' satisfaction with foodservice was assessed on a seven-point scale. In addition, overall dis/confirmation of past experiences was measured by a three-point single better than- similar- worse than measure. Respondents' return intention and word of mouth recommendation were assessed by single overall measures (Lewis and Abraham 1981). One of the main purposes of asking questions concerning overall satisfaction with the entire holiday, likeliness to return and likeliness to recommend, was to assess the relative importance of holiday components. Respondents were also given ample space to make any further written comments (compliments and complaints). The questionnaire was four pages long (double-sided) and was in English only.

7.4.2.1 The Sampling Procedure

As this survey aimed to cover the prime components of tourist holiday satisfaction, the best time to question tourists was just before they left Turkey. Given this fact, the Dalaman Airport was chosen for the research. This airport is one of the two main airports situated in the Aegean Region of Turkey- a region, which attracts almost 40% of the total tourist arrivals to the country (TTM 1993). The researcher sought permission to distribute the questionnaires at the Airport's passenger departure lounge. This was an extremely good time and place to conduct the survey, as by this time, the departing tourist had checked in, been through the Custom Office and Immigration, had bought their souvenirs, and now, in most cases had time to spare (Danaher and Arweiler 1996). Tourists were favourably disposed to answer questions about their vacations, possibly because the interview coincided with a time when they were already reflecting upon their holiday.

This survey was carried out with 400 tourists during a three-week period in September 1997. Given the flight time and language (English only), 35 tourists refused to participate, and 29 returned questionnaires were incomplete. Of all the respondents, 55% were female, and 70% were first-time visitors. Given the flight destinations at the time of research implementation, the majority of respondents were British (80%), followed by Germans, Benelux, Scandinavian, Italian and others. Based on the time of the international flights on the chosen days, the researchers (the researcher and a graduate student) entered the departure lounge before the tourists arrived and distributed questionnaires randomly to every n^{th} tourists entering the departure lounge.

7.4.2.2 Data Analysis

As in the case of the previous step of the investigation, the software package SPSS (Version 8) for Windows was used in the data analysis. The scale was first subjected to a reliability analysis to assess the quality of the measure. Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability of the measurement scale. The total scale reliability was high (0.95), indicating that the sample of items performed well in capturing the measured construct. The correlation and multiple regression procedures were employed to examine the construct validity of the performance only scale in assessing tourist satisfaction. Following the examination of the validity and reliability of the instrument, a series of one-way Anovas and t-tests were carried out to ascertain whether significant differences existed, among respondents ratings, from different nationalities, age groups, sexes, and first-time and repeat visitors on the dependent variables (satisfaction and behavioural intentions).

The analysis of the prime holiday dimensions and their extent of influence on total holiday satisfaction and behavioural intentions, involved the use of Multivariate Analysis, in this case, factor and multiple regression analysis. The purpose of using factor analysis in this study was to create correlated variable composites from the original attribute ratings, and to obtain a relatively small number of variables, which explain most of the variance among the attributes. Factor analysis is a complex statistical technique that is used to identify a relatively small number of factors, which represent the relationships among sets of many interrelated variables. Factor analysis combines correlated variables into new factors and it proceeds sequentially, i.e., identifying the first factor, and then the second and so forth. There are usually four steps involved in factor analysis (Hedderson 1991). In the first step, the correlation matrix is computed and variables that do not appear to be related to other variables are identified from the matrix. In the second step (factor extraction), the number of factors necessary to represent the data and the method for calculating them, are determined. The third step, rotation, focuses on transforming the factors to make them more interpretable. The final step involves the computation of the factor scores, which are then used in variety of other analyses (for example in regression analysis) (ibid.).

The most common factor analysis method is the Principal Component analysis, which forms a linear combination of the observed variables. The first principal component is the combination that accounts for the largest amount of variance in the sample, while the second component explains the next largest variance. Although the factor matrix obtained in the extraction phase indicates the relationship between certain factors and individual variables, it is generally difficult to identify meaningful factors based on this matrix. At this stage, the variables do not appear to be correlated in any interpretable pattern. Therefore, the rotation phase of factor analysis attempts to transform the initial matrix into one that is easier to interpret. The most common method of rotation is the Varimax, which minimises the number of variables that have a high loading on a factor. This improves the interpretability of the factors.

Factor analysis is useful particularly in assessing tourist satisfaction since the tourism product is made up of many interrelated components, each of which requires a separate measure of satisfaction (Pizam *et al* 1978). The Principal Components and Orthogonal (Varimax) rotation methods were employed, in the factor analysis, so as to summarise most of the original information to a minimum number of factors, for predictive purposes (Hair *et al* 1995). The appropriateness of the factor analysis was examined by correlation, measures of sampling adequacy (MSA) and reliability alpha, to ensure that the data set was appropriate for factor analysis.

The purpose of regression analysis in this study was to explore how the holiday dimensions (for example, hospitality, foodservice experience), derived from the factor analysis, related to the dependent variable of "total satisfaction" (Danaher and Haddrell 1996). Regression analysis is one statistical technique that can be used to delve into the problem of identifying how decisions are made or how judgements are reached (Lewis 1985). This technique is said to be a practical and powerful tool that can be used in gathering critical information for a variety of management decisions. The purpose of using overall satisfaction, as a dependent variable in this study, was to identify the relative importance of the dimensions derived from the factor analysis in determining or predicting a tourist's overall holiday satisfaction. Subsequent Multiple Regression analyses were run to examine the effect of each emergent factor in determining return intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations. Regression analyses were also run to examine the dimensions affecting satisfaction of first-time and repeat visitors, and a t-test analysis was undertaken, to ascertain whether service perceptions of first-time and repeat visitors differ.

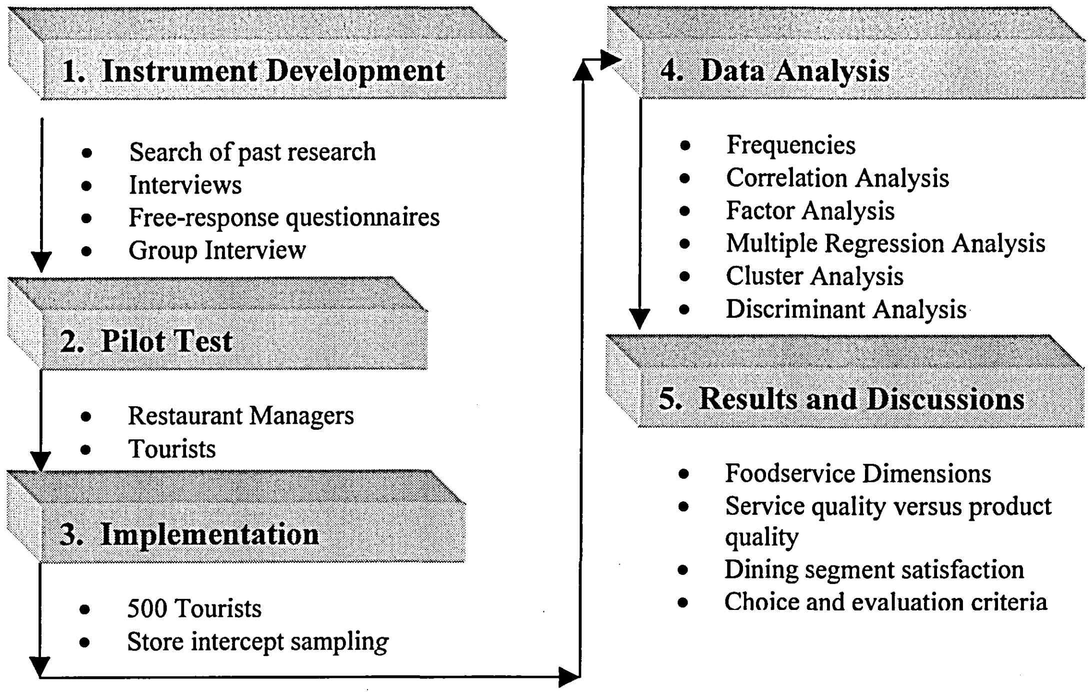
Respondents' written compliments and complaints at the end of the questionnaires were subjected to a content analysis to identify the extent of influence of, if any, the food service experience on the overall holiday experience. The content analysis was used to identify satisfiers, dissatisfiers and criticals in the context of holiday experiences. The relationship between foodservice satisfaction and overall holiday satisfaction was assessed through one-way Anova procedures. Subsequent one-way Anova analyses were also conducted to identify the extent of the influence of tourists' past holiday perceptions on their current holiday evaluations.

7.4.3 Research Implementation: Part Three

The final part of the research ascertains the causes and correlates of dining satisfaction and behavioural intentions. The research development and implementation is depicted on Figure 9. The instrument development started with the literature review. At this stage, previous research carried out in the restaurant industry was extensively reviewed and items used by other researchers were gathered (for example, Almanza *et al* 1994; Bojanic and Rosen 1995; Dube *et al* 1994; Johns *et al* 1996; Johns and Tyas 1996; Kim 1996; Lee and Hing 1995; Lee and Ulgado, 1997; Martin 1986; Murray 1992; Oh and Jeong 1996; Qu 1997; Pettijohn *et al* 1997; Reisinger and Waryszack 1996; Stevens *et al* 1995). Secondly, a number of informal interviews were carried out with university students and administration staff. Moreover, questionnaires consisting of three open-ended questions were sent to a number of people (n=76 return out of 100) selected from the General Electoral List of Sheffield. The first question was designed to elicit what customers expect from restaurants at their accommodation or outside their accommodation while they are on summer holiday abroad. Respondents were also required to indicate the features that differentiate a good restaurant from a bad one. The respondents were further requested to describe one of their best and worse dining experiences that they ever had while on summer holiday abroad.

Furthermore, a group of tourists (n=97) were administered PAT surveys consisting of two sections at their departure from Turkey. In the first section, the respondents were asked to indicate the aspects that they had liked about restaurant services in their holiday and the reason why they liked that aspect (compliments). The second section of the questionnaire aimed to elicit what participants found unsatisfactory about restaurant services in their holiday and why that aspect was unsatisfactory (complaints). The respondents were also asked to state the restaurant group that they had frequented most during their holiday.

Figure 9. Research Development and Implementation: Part Three



Finally, a one-session group interview was undertaken with six participants in order to complement the above exploratory approaches and to get a detailed perspective. Participants were told that the purpose of this group discussion was to solicit views of customers, such as themselves, on characteristics of satisfactory foodservice experiences in non-fast-food restaurants. Participants were encouraged to offer any points of view, which they had on the subject. Participants were first asked to write down their thoughts about what they consider important for a foodservice experience to be satisfactory. After about ten minutes, each participant was asked, in turn, to share thoughts they had written and then asked to elaborate on their comments. The session, which was exploratory in nature, lasted approximately an hour. Participant responses were analysed and grouped under a number of headings, including; product, service environment, service quality, service personnel behaviour, menu, price and other.

The statements elicited by the open-ended questions, the items used by other investigators, and informal interview results were merged and then content analysed. The aim of this merger was to identify service dimensions and put individual items into their relevant dimensions, rather than randomly listing them on the questionnaire. Based on the content analysis, seven food service experience dimensions were identified and tentatively named. These were *food quality, menu variety, amenities, location/atmosphere, food value/ price, service quality/service staff,* and *cleanliness*. Several items were grouped under these tentative dimensions. Then, the face validity of the items was established by asking individuals (both potential restaurant customers and restaurant managers) to rate the appropriateness of each item.

Randomly selected academics from the School of Leisure and Food Management at Sheffield Hallam University were sent the list of items and were asked to eliminate inappropriate items. In addition, telephone interviews were conducted with 14 local restaurant managers to find out their opinions about the appropriateness and usefulness of the items. These two groups were included to provide both user and provider perspectives on the important dimensions of food service experience. The items were deleted or retained based on the recommendations. Finally, 44 items were retained to elicit customers' food service performance evaluations in non-fast-food restaurants.

In order to provide valid information on the questionnaire design, wording, and measurement scales, a pilot test with 30 tourists was carried out. Pilot tests revealed that the questions posed were not vague and no uncommon words to the respondents were used, and the questions were not outside the respondents' experiences. This suggests that the actual research, when run, would not suffer from non-response (or refusal to answer particular questions), which produces difficulties at the data analysis stage and leads to serious reductions in sample size. A reliability test and examination of inter-item-correlations revealed that 44 items included in the pilot research instrument were internally consistent. Overall, there was no major problem relating to the clarity and appropriateness of the items included in the questionnaire. Only a few minor amendments concerning the wording were made.

The final research instrument was developed to examine tourists' opinions of the prime components of their dining experiences within independent non-fast-food restaurants (see Appendix VII, p.487). The second aim of the research instrument was to understand the development of customer satisfaction, in different customer groups, by segmenting them on the basis of their restaurant selection. Components such as food and beverage quality, service quality, the restaurant environment, menu diversity, and cost of dining were investigated. The research instrument comprised of over 110 items grouped into four major areas: general information about the respondent and dining occasion, ratings on 42 attributes of restaurant selection, ratings on 44 attributes of restaurant service performance, and ratings on overall dining satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Respondents were also given ample space to make any further written comments (compliments and complaints). The questionnaire was three pages long (double-sided) and was written in English and German.

The respondents were first required to indicate the importance of 42 items when selecting a restaurant on a 7-point scale. The respondents then were required to assess the performance of restaurant services on 7-point semantic differential scales. A single satisfaction scale assessed respondents' overall evaluation with regard to total satisfaction. Consistent with previous parts of the research, the Delighted-Terrible scale was employed for measuring tourist satisfaction with food service experience. Similarly, respondents' return intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations were assessed by single overall measures. In addition, in order to compare the predictive power of the performance only model with that of the dis/confirmation scale (better than to worse than expected), a single measure of better than expected/worse than expected scale was included. Respondents were also provided ample space to express their comments relating to restaurant services at their destination.

7.4.3.1 The Sampling Procedure

Given such research constraints as limited time and money, it was impossible to run a countrywide research covering all restaurants in Turkey. The restaurant market that was examined was independent (non-hotel) restaurants. The independent restaurant group to be examined consisted of non-fast-food restaurants (full service restaurants situated in the Aegean Region of Turkey) as statistics obtained in the early stage of the research, revealed that this group was the one favoured mostly by the majority of incoming tourists when dining out. Non-fast food restaurants were selected because (1) sit-down table service operations, provide more opportunities to examine interaction between customers and employees than a fast food or cafeteria type operation and (2) although this category dominates the restaurant industry, there has been limited research undertaken on independent restaurants, as opposed to multi-unit fast food chains (Jogaratham, Tse and Olsen 1999).

The second step involved the determination of the research implementation method. A review of previous research methodologies in the literature suggested three different implementation methods. The first method to administering questionnaires to the respondents while they were in the restaurant and after they had finished their meal. Second was to distribute questionnaires (within an envelope together with a cover letter and a prepaid envelope) to respondents on their way out. Third, to ask tourists to evaluate their most recent dining experience, within a non-fast-food restaurant, in a convenient place rather than within the restaurant itself.

Finding out which method was most convenient to the respondent, hence likely to yield the most reliable information, involved a consultation with several tourists and managers and a pre-trial. Consulted individuals indicated that the first method would be inconvenient to the respondents. The main reason stated was that the administration of the questionnaire, coincides with a time that people would like to continue their night-out. The second reason was the inadequate lighting, which might have prevented reading of the form. The majority of restaurants provide subdued lighting so as to create a romantic atmosphere in the evenings. The presence of children at the time of completion, was stated as another factor.

The restaurateurs approached for research permission, were also found to be very uncooperative, which was really disappointing. Unfortunately, in contrast to their Western counterparts, carrying out surveys within restaurants, hence acquiring substantial knowledge through surveys, is not very common among restaurateurs in Turkey. The distribution of questionnaires to customers had been perceived as a "disturbance to customers' dining experience". In addition, restaurateurs stated that, such administration of questionnaires would result in a longer stay of patrons after their meal and would adversely affect the table turnover at busy times of the night.

Drawing on the comments of individuals consulted, administering questionnaires to tourists while they were in the premise, seemed to be very difficult which in turn might have a detrimental impact on the quality of the data collected. It is also important to state here that the second approach had not been tested owing to the fact that the response rate could have been low. This is because the respondents were on holiday. Being on a holiday would have led participants not to send the forms back on time or simply forget to complete them.

Given the difficulties relating to the research implementation within the restaurants, the researcher had to test the third alternative by running a small scale of the research with a number of tourists (n=30) before their departure at an international airport in Turkey. In order to eliminate any possible effect of memory lapse, participants were requested to evaluate their most recent (within the last two days) dining experience within a non-fast-food restaurant outside their accommodation. None of the respondents reported any problem on recalling and evaluating their last dining experiences. Assessment of customers' last experiences with a product or a service is found in other studies, with no limitations reported (for example, Clow *et al* 1996; Parasuraman *et al* 1988). Based on the positive comments of the respondents about the convenience of time and place and ease in recalling, the actual research was run with tourists departing from an international airport in Turkey.

The survey was carried out with 500 tourists during a 18 day period in May-June 1998. Given their flight times, 31 tourists refused to participate and 20 returned questionnaires that were incomplete. Thus the response rate for the independent restaurant questionnaire was 0.89. Of all the respondents, 56% were female, and 54% had eaten out in the restaurant on more than one occasion. Of all the restaurants, 51% were situated in Marmaris, 5 % in Fethiye, 1 % in Bodrum, and 43% in other resorts including TurgutReis and Hisaronu. Given the flight destinations at the time of research implementation and growing number of British tourists, the majority of respondents were British (64%), followed by Scandinavian (11.5%), German (10.5%), and others (including Italian, French and Russian).

The researcher assessed the sample representation by comparing the nationalities of the sampled tourists with the tourist departure list obtained from the Airport Authority. The comparison of the list of departing nationalities with the selected sample demonstrated that the departing tourists were commensurably represented in the sample. Based on the time of the international flights on the chosen days, the researchers (two) entered the departure lounge before the tourists arrived and distributed questionnaires randomly to every *n*th tourists entering the departure lounge. The respondents were pre-screened on the basis of their last dining experience within a non-fast-food restaurant outside their accommodation. Participants were initially asked if they had dined in a non-fast-food restaurant on the last two days of their holiday. Only those participants whose answer was yes were administered the independent restaurant questionnaire. This screening resulted in 449 usable questionnaires for independent restaurants.

7.4.3.2 Data Analysis

Multivariate Analysis (factor, multiple regression, cluster and discriminant analyses) was conducted in order to find out the prime food service dimensions, their extent of influence on total dining satisfaction, and tourist dining segments. The factor analysis was employed to create correlated variable composites from the original attributes ratings. The second objective of the factor analysis was to obtain a relatively small number of variables, which explain most of the variance among the attributes from which to apply the derived factor scores in the subsequent multiple regression analysis. The Principal Components and Orthogonal (Varimax) rotation methods were employed in the factor analysis so as to summarise most of the original information in a minimum number of factors for prediction reasons (Hair *et al* 1995). The appropriateness of the factor analysis was examined by correlation, measures of sampling adequacy (MSA) and reliability alpha to ensure that the factor analysis was appropriate to the data (ibid.).

The purpose of regression analysis in this study was to explore how the foodservice dimensions, which were derived from the factor analysis, related to the dependent variable of "total dining satisfaction". The purpose of using overall satisfaction as a dependent variable in this study, was to identify the relative importance of the dimensions derived from the factor analysis, in determining or predicting a tourist's overall satisfaction with the food service experience. Subsequent Multiple Regression analyses were run to identify the factors that determine tourists' likeliness to return and, likeliness to recommend. A content analysis was also run on the comments of respondents to verify the accuracy of the quantitative data analysis findings (triangulation).

Cluster and Discriminant analysis were used to determine tourist-dining segments. Cluster analysis provides a measurement that indicates the extent to which some groups of things are alike and the extent to which groups are distant (Lewis 1984). There are basically two main approaches to cluster analysis; (1) *a priori* approach, and (2) clustering/ *post hoc* approach (Smith 1995; Oh and Jeong 1996). *A priori* segmentation is a procedure whereby the researcher selects the entire outset as the basis for defining the segment. In tourism studies, purpose of travel, mode of travel, use of travel agents, use of package tours, accommodation types, destinations, distance travelled, length of time spent in planning the trip, and the duration of the trip have been used as useful *a priori* descriptors (Smith 1995). A *post hoc* approach involves clustering respondents according to the similarity of their multivariate profile regarding such characteristics as purchasing behaviour, needs, or attitudes (Crawford-Welch 1991).

The use of socio-demographics as segmentation variables, has taken much criticism (Crawford-Welch 1991; Haley 1985; Loker and Perdue 1992; Oh and Jeong 1996; Swinyard 1977). Oh and Jeong (1996), in their study on segmenting fast food restaurant customers, reported that market segmentation by well-documented demographic variables such as gender, age, and household income was not successful in understanding market -specific customer expectations because the demographic-based markets, could not isolate market-specific expectations successfully. They state that what customers expect from fast-food restaurants, may not be clearly identified by simply looking at their age, gender, and household income. Similarly, Crawford-Welch (1991) criticised the utilisation of demographics as segmentation variables and stated that "descriptive data, by their very nature, are of little analytical worth in that they are not capable of implying causality and are, in turn, poor predictors of behaviour" (p. 301). Similarly, Swinyard (1977) emphasised that socio-demographics, have very low discriminatory power in responses between segments.

In recent years, benefit segmentation has emerged as an effective approach to market segmentation by which it is possible to identify market segments, by casual, rather than descriptive factors. The belief underlying this strategy is that, benefits which people are seeking in consuming a given product, are the basic reasons for the existence of true market segments and are better determinants of behaviour than other approaches (Loker and Purdue 1992). One of the major benefits of this approach is that it enables a service provider to implement different marketing strategies, for different segments, by offering unique benefits sought by each segment (Woo 1998). It is reported that benefits predict behaviour better than personality and lifestyle, volumetric, demographic or geographic measures, which merely describe behaviour without explaining it (Haley 1985; Young *et al* 1980; Crawford-Welch 1991; Loker and Perdue 1992). As restaurants provide a bundle of services, it seems appropriate to consider the benefits in terms of attributes of the total service product provided (Bahn and Granzin 1985). In this study, as the researcher did not know the exact market profile, *a priori*, the factor-clustering approach was employed to segment tourists into homogeneous groups that differed from each other on the basis of opinions regarding which attributes were important when selecting a restaurant. A number of statistical techniques were utilised to meet the objectives set for the final part of this research.

Factor analysis was used to extract factors from the 42 attributes of restaurant selection. Reliability analysis was utilised to estimate the reliability coefficients for each factor. Factor scores were then used in a hierarchical cluster analysis to obtain some idea about the number of homogeneous groups represented by the data. Quick cluster analysis was run on the total number of respondents. Discriminant analysis was then employed to profile the groups obtained in the quick cluster technique according to demographic and other related data. Multiple regression analysis was then employed to analyse the formation of customer satisfaction within each group. Customers' overall satisfaction was predicted by regressing the subjects' satisfaction scores on the factor scores, of restaurant evaluation. This regression analysis was repeated for each resulting cluster. A correlation analysis was undertaken to examine the difference between the relative importance of tourists' restaurant choice and evaluation criteria.

7.5 Research Limitations

It should be conceded, however, that there were some limitations within the study. The first limitation relates to the timing of the research implementation. Note that the investigations ascertaining holiday satisfaction dimensions and drivers of foodservice satisfaction, were conducted during a specific period in the summer season (in September, and in May-June respectively). It could be argued that the study results might be different, if the surveys were to be conducted in different months of the season or in different seasons. The second limitation of the research relates to the location where the actual research had been conducted. Respondents were surveyed at an international airport situated in the south-west of Turkey, thus, the generalisability of the research findings decreases as the results represent perceptions of tourists departing from this specific airport only. There might be differences in perceptions of tourists in different regions of Turkey. The third limitation on the generalisability of the research findings stems from the use of one-language-only in the research ascertaining tourist satisfaction dimensions. The use of English only in this particular investigation might have limited the representation of those tourists unable to speak this language. This limitation has been tackled in the final investigation, exploring foodservice experience components, by designing two versions of the questionnaire (English and German).

Another likely limitation of this study could be the use of quantitative investigations into a very complex concept of satisfaction. In order to minimise the effect of this limitation, in this study the quantitative research was complemented with qualitative research. The study's focus on the influence of the tangible and intangible service characteristics on customer satisfaction rather than on that of the likely impact of interpersonal aspects (for example, customer emotions, their mood, and their equity perceptions, etc) might constitute a limitation. Exclusion of interpersonal aspects from the study by no means write off their potential impact on customer satisfaction. Future research needs to be conducted to determine what and how inter-personal aspects affect customer perceptions of tourism and hospitality services.

It should be noted that as a consequence of the uncooperative attitudes of restaurateurs, the researcher resorted to conduct the survey ascertaining tourist perceptions of foodservice experiences outside restaurants. It is preferred that research into the service experience should be as recent as possible, that is research should be done as close to the consumption of an actual service as possible so that the evaluation remains fresh in consumers' minds. In order to overcome the likely impact of memory loss, the researcher surveyed those respondents who had dined in a non-fast-food independent restaurant, within the last two days of their holiday.

It is important to note that tourists might make trade-offs of a weakness in one attribute with a strength of another to reach satisfaction or return judgements. In other words, a customer may accept a reduction in the menu in exchange for more attentive service. Although multivariate data analysis techniques employed in this study, helped the researcher identify the relative weight of individual components on tourist satisfaction, it should also be conceded that, due to the research instrument design, it was not possible to illustrate what kind of compromises (or trade-offs) were made by tourists.

7.6 Summary

This chapter outlined the research methodology adopted in this study. The research aims, objectives, and hypotheses are discussed in the first section. Next, the steps pursued in the development of the research methodology, the considerations taken into account in the research instrument development, and the justification of the sampling procedure adopted in the study are explicated. This section is followed by the presentation of research implementation conducted in each investigation of the research. In separate sections pertaining to the research implementation of each investigation, the followings area presented: the development of the surveys, the sampling procedures, and the data analysis techniques. Finally, limitations of the study are discussed. The next chapter presents findings and discussions pertaining to each investigation.

CHAPTERVIII

Results and Discussions: Part One

8.1 Introduction

Numerous hospitality and tourism studies, highlight the difficulties that may be encountered in the measurement of customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction. These difficulties relate to the reliability and validity of the proposed satisfaction measurement frameworks, particularly of the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm, in determining customer satisfaction. The scrutiny of the reliability and validity of the measurement frameworks is of utmost importance, as accurate assessment of customer satisfaction depends on highly reliable and valid measures. Secondly, the relationship and difference between the concepts of customer satisfaction and service quality, has not been clearly established, as both constructs are based on similar conceptual and operational frameworks. It is therefore important to establish whether these two concepts are distinguishable, and whether the use of different comparative standards can be confidently used to differentiate between the two. Thirdly, the literature review revealed that the issue of comparison standard was crucial in customer satisfaction investigations, as the use of different standards is argued to yield different levels with which performance is compared. It is, therefore, important to establish the relative ability of different comparison standards in predicting customer satisfaction, and whether the use of different standards yields different results in terms of customer satisfaction.

More specifically, in this first part of the research, a comparative study scrutinising the validity of the seven different measurement frameworks was undertaken in order to advance the research. The measurement frameworks that were compared and contrasted were- performance only (*Per*); performance weighted by importance (*Perim*); importance minus performance (*Imper*); direct dis/confirmation (*Dis*); direct dis/confirmation weighted by importance (*Disim*); performance minus predictive expectations (*Perpredex*), and performance minus ideal expectations (*Pershould*). Second, the similarity and difference between customer satisfaction and service quality, and the need to differentiate these concepts was examined. Third, the ability of two comparison standards- the predictive and should expectations- in determining customer satisfaction was ascertained.

Given that performance is the closest match with the human cognitive process and its ease of application, this study hypothesised that **(1)** a performance-only approach is a more satisfactory framework for measuring customer satisfaction than the other six alternatives, and **(2)** weighting performance and direct confirmation–disconfirmation scores by importance would not improve substantially the predictive validity of these methodologies. The study further proposed that **(3)** customer satisfaction and service quality constructs may not be substantially different, and **(4)** the use of different comparison standards may yield different customer satisfaction results. An investigation into the relationship and difference between customer satisfaction and service quality, and the effect of different comparison standards, involved the use of correlation, multiple regression, one-way Anova and t-test for paired sample analyses. Finding out which measurement framework is more appropriate was achieved by examining the construct validity of the seven different measurement models under investigation.

Note that construct validity is concerned with the extent to which a particular measure relates to other measures, which are consistent with theoretically derived hypotheses (Carmines and Zeller 1979; Churchill 1979; Peter 1981). It is most directly related to the question of what the measurement is in fact measuring and to the degree of correspondence between abstract constructs and their empirical measures (Churchill 1979; Peter 1981). To be considered as having good construct validity, the scale(s) must satisfy a set of conceptual and empirical criteria as convergent, discriminant, and nomological validity (Churchill 1979).

Convergent validity of a measure is the extent to which the measure correlates or "*converges*" with other measures designed to measure the same concept, and it indicates any difference that have not occurred accidentally (ibid.). Evidence of the convergent validity of a measure is provided by the extent to which it correlates highly with other methods designed to measure the same construct. The *Discriminant validity* is another theoretically based way of measuring the underlying truth in a given area (ibid.). It is the extent to which the measure is indeed novel and not simply a reflection of some other variables. The Discriminant validity is indicated by low correlations between the measure of interest and other measures that are supposedly not measuring the same variable or concept. In other words, for a survey to have discriminant validity, the correlation between two different measures, of the same variable, should be higher than the correlation between the measure of that variable and those of any other variable (Cronin and Taylor 1992). The *Nomological validity* of a measure, is the extent to which a measure correlates in a theoretically predicted way with a measure of a different but related construct (Brown *et al* 1993). Attitude theory, for instance, predicts that performance should have a significant impact on behavioural intentions and this is an example of nomological validity. It is also expected that the performance perception should correlate strongly with overall satisfaction.

In order to help assess convergent, discriminant and nomological validity within each scale, as well as the relative validity of the alternative methodologies, the researcher used an overall customer satisfaction measure, overall value perception measure and two behavioural intentions measures.

8.1.1 Findings

A self-administered survey was carried out with a sample of 460 restaurant customers (115 for each instrument) during a two-week period in June 1997. Forty customers refused to participate and 19 of the returned questionnaires were incomplete, resulting in an *N* of 401. Fifty-seven percent of the respondents were women, and 76 percent of all respondents had visited the restaurant at least once before. The usable number of questionnaires was as follows; 106 in performance only, 88 in performance-minus-expectation, 102 in direct disconfirmation, and 105 in performance weighted by importance (Table 6).

The analysis of the collected data employed the SPSS (version 8). Scores on expectations were subtracted from scores on performance perceptions in order to construct difference scores. Similarly, computation of the weighted dis/confirmation and the weighted performance scores involved multiplication of respondents' scores on performance with their scores on item importance (Barsky and Labagh 1992). Individual item scores for perceptions and expectations, difference scores (perception minus expectation), weighted performance (performance multiplied by importance), difference score (importance minus performance), direct disconfirmation, and weighted disconfirmation (direct disconfirmation multiplied by importance) were totalled to obtain overall scores for each respondent. These scores were then correlated with respondents scores on a single item, this being return intentions, a single item recommendation score, a single item overall value score, and a single item measure of overall satisfaction.

Table 6. Sample Profile

	Instrument 1 [Performance Only]	Instrument 2 [Expectation-Performance]	Instrument 3 [Disconfirmation]	Instrument 4 [Weighted Importance]
Gender				
Male	46	42	48	43
Female	58	46	54	62
Age				
under14	11	6	5	8
15-24	12	8	7	12
25-34	28	27	31	36
35-44	26	24	20	19
45-54	15	10	16	14
over 55	14	13	23	14
Accompany				
Alone	-	1	1	-
Accompanied	106	87	101	105
Previous Visit				
First-time	27	21	32	26
Repeat customer	78	67	70	79
Visit purpose				
Business	-	2	2	6
Celebration	20	22	12	21
Intimate	11	20	15	13
Other	57	47	61	54

8.1.1.1 Comparison of Sample Profiles

It is important to discount differences in the characteristics or profiles of the four separate samples as these may explain the differences between customer satisfaction measures. The sample profiles of each survey were compared. Consistent with Childress and Crompton's suggestion (1997), a series of chi-square (χ^2) tests were conducted on demographic and visit related variables (age, sex, purpose, previous visit, dining alone or accompanied). No significant differences were found between these variables, suggesting that differences found in the subsequent analysis could reasonably be attributed to reasons other than the sample differences (Table 7).

Table 7. Results of chi-square

Characteristics	χ^2	*D.F.*	*Significance*
Age	20.154	15	.166
Alone-accompanied	2.232	3	.526
Sex	2.495	3	.476
First-Time/ Repeat Visitor	2.703	3	.441
Purpose	13.558	3	.139

In addition, a series of one-way Anova tests were performed to compare data from the four different instruments in terms of respondents' overall satisfaction, likeliness to return, likeliness to recommend and overall value perception (Table 8).

Table 8. Results of one-way Anova

Variables	*F Ratio*	*F Probability*	*DF*	*N*
Overall satisfaction	.5175	.6705	3	401
Return intention	.7869	.5019	3	400
Recommendation	1.5662	.1973	3	398
Overall value	.4311	.7308	3	401

No two groups are significantly different at the 0.05 level and 0.01 level.

No significant difference ($p > 0.01$) was found among the respondents' ratings of four instruments on the overall satisfaction, likeliness to return, likeliness to recommend and overall value. This suggests that differences found in the analysis in terms of the ability of different measurement frameworks in determining customer satisfaction, could not be due to the sample profile differences.

8.1.1.2 Reliability Test

The collected data was then subjected to a reliability analysis so as to assess the internal consistency of the set of items. Reliability is a measure of the internal consistency of the construct indicators, and depicts the degree to which they indicate the common latent (unobserved) construct (Hair *et al* 1995). Cronbach's alpha (α) test was used in order to test the internal consistency of the set of items. In general, a low coefficient alpha ($\alpha < 0.5$) indicates the sample of items perform poorly in capturing the construct (Churchill 1979), and an alpha coefficient of 0.5 or above is suggested to be sufficient to proceed with subsequent data analysis techniques (Nunnaly 1967). Cronbach's alpha tests used in this study revealed that the total scale reliability was moderately high for all of the measurement frameworks examined, which indicates that the sample of the items performed well in capturing the measured construct (see Table 9).

8.1.1.3 Correlation and Multiple Regression Analysis

Consistent with Crompton and Love's (1995) and Dorfman's (1979) suggestions, Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression procedures were employed to investigate the convergent, discriminant and nomological validity, (hence the construct validity) of the satisfaction measurement frameworks under investigation (Table 9).

Table 9. Results of the Reliability, Multiple Regression and Correlation Analyses

			Correlation with...			
Model [*n*]	**α***	**R****	**Overall satisfaction (Oversat)**	**Return (Ri)**	**Recommend (Re)**	**Overall value**
Q1: Performance only [106] (Per)	.6287	.73905	.5792	.3662	.4418	.5152
Performance weighted by importance	.7713	.63844	.6861	.6144	.5842	.5587
Q2: Performance component of the performance weighted by importance scale [105]	.7517	.65573	.6981	.6136	.5777	5393
Importance minus performance	.7836	.52880	-.6157	-.5460	-.4391	-.5140
Q3: Confirmation–disconfirmation [102]	.9136	.52616	.4591	.2015	.2942	.4025
Confirmation–disconfirmation weighted by importance	.9150	.51140	.4456	.2019	.2937	.3996
Q4: Performance minus predictive expectations [88]	.6162	.30693	.3868	.3170	.2345	.3722
Predictive Expectations	.7349	.	.3328	.3816	.4725	
Performance component of the performance minus predictive expectations scale	.7882	.68432	.6132	.5992	.6084	.6096
Performance minus Should expectations	.7480	.65517	.5859	.5139	.5085	.5753

* Coefficient alpha. ** Multiple Regression value. N: number of respondents

The Pearson Moment Correlation scores were computed for each of the alternative satisfaction constructs, using respondents' scores and their responses to the question; "overall how satisfied are you with the meal experience?" on a seven point scale labelled from delighted to terrible (*Oversat*). In addition, the correlations between the models and two behavioural intentions, Return Intention (*Ri*) and likeliness to Recommend (*Rec*), and a single overall value perception were calculated. Moreover, the ability of each of the six scales to explain potential variations in customer satisfaction was assessed by multiple regression analysis (ibid.). Each of the twelve attributes was used in the regression analysis. The twelve attributes were eliminated by using a backward stepwise procedure. At each step, the variable with the largest probability-of- F value was removed, provided that the value was larger than 0.10 (ibid.).

8.1.1.3.1 Convergent and Discriminant Validity

An examination of Table 9 demonstrates that the perceptions only scale consistently produced higher correlation and multiple regression values than did the other scales. The result of correlation analysis of *Oversat* with *Per* scale indicated a relatively high correlation between the two measures (.5792) that is statistically significant ($p<.01$). The results in the Table 9 demonstrates statistically significant ($p<.01$) high correlations between the *Oversat-Per* (.6981), *Oversat-Perim* (.6861) and *Oversat - Imper* (-.6157) scales. There was a moderately high correlation that is statistically significant ($p<.01$) between *Oversat-Dis* (.4591) and *Oversat-Disim* (.4456) scales. There was also a high correlation (.6132) that is significant ($p<.01$) between *Oversat* and the performance component of the *Perpredex* scale. However, there was a moderate correlation between the *Oversat-Perpredex* scale (.3868). Similarly, the results of multiple regression values indicate that the performance only method (*Per*) has a higher correlation and a higher ability to explain more of the variation in the *Oversat* than the other methodologies.

Additional analysis was undertaken to examine the contribution of the expectation component of the *Perpredex* scale in determining customer satisfaction. That is, whether the complete *Perpredex* scale provides any additional information beyond that already contained in the perception component of the scale. If the conceptualisation of customer satisfaction as a difference score is indeed the most valid measure, the correlation between the difference scores and overall satisfaction must be greater than that of the perceptions component. An examination of the correlation analysis shows that the correlation between the *Perpredex* and *Oversat* is weaker (.3868) than the correlation between the perceptions component and *Oversat* (.6132). An examination of the multiple regression values indicates the same result. It is clear from this finding that the inclusion of expectations leads to a suppressing effect rather than explain variance in this important variable. Similarly, the correlation and multiple regression values of *Pershould* scale are not higher than that of the performance component of the scale. This result suggests the efficacy of using only performance perceptions to measure customer satisfaction, as the difference score does not appear to enhance the scale's ability to explain satisfaction.

Higher convergent validity of the perceptions only, is consistent with other previous studies carried out in service quality (for example, Brown *et al* 1993; Babakus and Mangold 1992; Babakus and Boller 1992; Childress and Crompton 1997; Crompton and Love 1995; Cronin and Taylor 1992; Parasuraman *et al* 1991, 1994) and customer satisfaction literature (Dorfman 1979; Panton 1999). In addition, an examination of Table 9 demonstrates some degree of discriminant validity for the models, as correlation with *Oversat* was higher than with other correlations. For instance, comparing the values of correlations in perception only scale, reveals that the correlation value is higher for satisfaction, the construct the scale purports to measure, than for value, a different construct.

8.1.1.3.2 Nomological Validity

The next step was to see how well the particular measure related to measures of other constructs to which the construct is theoretically related. That is, did the measures of customer satisfaction under investigation correlate in the theoretically predicted way with a measure of a different but related construct? Again an examination of the correlation coefficients in Table 9 indicates nomological validity for the *Per* model as it correlated in the theoretically predicted way with the Return and Recommendation.

The nomological validity of the *Perim* and *Imper* scales has also been justified as the correspondence between the models and behavioural intentions was as predicted. With regard to the *Dis and Disim* scales, the correlation coefficients demonstrated that there is moderately low correspondence between the models and the two behavioural intention variables.

However, there exists an important issue bearing on the nomological validity of the *Perpredex* (performance minus predictive expectations) scale. The correlation coefficient demonstrates that there is a relatively low correlation between the *Ri-Perpredex* and *Rec-Perpredex.* An examination of correlation coefficients further demonstrates that the perception component of the difference model alone, performs better than the *Perpredex* scale, while the expectation component has a relatively small correlation with measures of other theoretically related constructs. The perception component outperforms *Perpredex* in predicting the *Ri* and *Rec (*.59 to .31 and .60 to .23 respectively). By the same token, an examination of the correlation values of the *Pershould* scale (performance minus should expectations) demonstrates that the performance component again, outperforms the *Pershould* scale in predicting the return intentions and recommendation. The same is true for predicting overall value. Once again, it is clear from this finding that the inclusion of expectations, leads to a suppresser effect rather than explaining variance in these important variables. This finding, consistent with the findings of Brown *et al* (1993) and Cronin and Taylor (1992), suggests that although the inferred method of *EDP* is intuitively appealing, the calculated difference scores do not provide additional information in predicting behavioural intentions.

There is also another important issue, which relates to the appropriateness of the use of the difference score in assessing customer satisfaction. In theory, the difference score is supposed to represent a construct that is distinct from the constructs represented by its component measures. The examination of correlations between the difference score and its components (performance, predictive and should expectations), however, revealed that the difference score was highly correlated with perceived performance. The correlation between the difference score and performance is (.5438) ($p<.01$), and between predictive expectations is (-.3262). Similarly, the correlation value between the difference score and performance is

(.7885) (p<.01), and between should expectations is (-.6073) (p<.01). This suggests that the difference score measure cannot be discriminated from one or both of the component measures used to obtain the difference. Thus, any correlation between a difference score and another variable, may be an artefact of the relationship between the component measures used to form the difference score and the other variable. This finding provides empirical support for the contention held by Gronross (1993) who argued that "measuring expectations is not a sound way of proceeding anyway, because experiences are in fact perceptions of reality, and inherent in these perceptions are the prior expectations" (p. 56). Similarly, Llosa *et al* (1998) have emphasised that estimates of perceptions might already include a perception-minus-expectation mental process. The dominant component in the difference score is clearly the perception score, and the validity of adopting the use of difference scores is questionable.

Additional analysis was undertaken to provide an insight into whether the inclusion of importance brings about any substantial change in the models' ability in predicting behavioural intentions and satisfaction. An examination of the weighted performance and disconfirmation scores suggests that, weighting an attribute performance by its importance does not provide additional information in predicting satisfaction, behavioural intentions and overall value. For instance, an examination of Table 9 demonstrates that behavioural intentions correlated almost identically with perception scores of the *Perim* scale and *Weighted Perim* scale. The correlation value (.6136) between the performance component of the performance weighted by importance scale and return intentions, was not statistically significant from that of the performance weighted by importance scale and return intentions (.6144). Similarly, the performance component of the performance, weighted by importance scale and the performance weighted by importance scale, correlated with recommendation almost identically (.5777 and. 5842 respectively). The same result was true for the correlation of overall satisfaction ratings with the performance component of the *Perim* scale and of the performance weighted by importance scale (.6981 and .6861). The same result is observed in *Disim* scale- the correlation between the disconfirmation only component of the *Disim* scale and overall satisfaction (.4591) was almost identical to the correlation between the *Disim* scale and satisfaction (.4456). These empirical findings suggest that weighting performance by importance does not appear to strengthen the relationship between the scales, customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions.

8.1.1.3.3 Consistently High Scores on Expectations

In practice when people are asked to indicate an expected level and an existing performance level, for example "*how much was expected*" and "*how much there is now*", they rarely rate the former lower than the latter (Babakus and Boller 1992; Dorfman 1979). This phenomenon was found in the results of *Perpredex* and *Pershould* scales. The overall mean score of the predictive expectations (.8639) with a standard deviation of 0.6, was higher than the mean perceptions score (.5919) with a standard deviation of 0.67, that is statistically significant ($p < .05$). Similarly, the overall mean score of the should expectation (1.67) (standard deviation 0.52) was significantly higher than that of performance.

This tendency, where scores on expectations are consistently higher than performance component, is found in the results of Bojanic and Rosen (1994), Fick and Ritchie (1991), Parasuraman *et al* (1988, 1991, 1994), Smith (1995) and Tribe and Snaith (1998). For instance, Smith (1995) reported that the mean score for the expectation scale in her study was 6.401 (standard deviation of 0.347), and it was reported as being 6.22 in Parasuraman *et al*'s (1991) study. These results suggest that there is little point in including expectations in a measuring instrument as the scores are almost always consistently high and they do not vary. This result also brings into the probability of response bias that might stem from the so-called I-have-High-Expectation social norm, which may prompt respondents to indicate markedly high expectation scores.

8.1.1.3.4 Unexpected Satisfaction

A cross tabulation of inferred dis/confirmation mean scores and ratings of respondents on overall satisfaction, revealed that although inferred dis/confirmation mean scores show that respondents' expectations were not met (performance lower than expectations), a considerable number of respondents (n=42) were relatively satisfied (19.8% were slightly satisfied and 32.1% were pleased). This implies that customers may be satisfied despite the fact that the service experience did not fulfil their initial expectations. A similar trend was found in Hughes' (1991), Pearce's (1991), Weber's (1997), Smith's (1995) and Thirkell's (1980) research. For instance, in her study on tourist satisfaction, Hughes (1989) reported that even though experiences did not fulfil expectations, a considerable number of tourists were relatively satisfied. Similarly, Smith (1995) in her study on clinic customers observed that respondents were extremely pleased with the clinic even when an aggregate performance-minus-expectation score was negative (P<E). This finding brings into question the assumption of the EDP that when performance falls short of expectations, customers are dissatisfied. This result suggests that satisfaction may not be due to the disconfirmation of expectations alone.

8.1.1.3.5 Logical Flaw

Another potential problem relates to the logic of the *Perpredex*. This model is based on the assumption that everyone has prior expectations about the service experience. Confirmation or disconfirmation of expectations cannot occur without these pre-usage expectations. However, prior expectations may not be established clearly enough to serve as a basis for a comparison to an experience. In the administration of the *Perpredex* questionnaire, a number of respondents indicated they had no expectations. This casts some doubts over the logic and appropriateness of using the *Perpredex* scale for assessing customer satisfaction.

A further shortcoming of the *Perpredex* scale relates to its administration. Measuring expectations and perceptions simultaneously is not suggested, as expectations might be overstated/understated if the customer has a negative/positive experience, resulting in a larger/smaller gap than would normally be the case. In this study therefore, the expectation scores were solicited prior to the service being provided so as to eliminate the possible risk that expectations will be contaminated by perceptions of the actual service. However, the use of dual-administration was found to be much more difficult and prone to bias as some respondents did not complete the expectation part at the required time.

Another limitation with the use of difference scores is that the difference scores may result in misleading interpretations (Teas 1993). For example, on a seven point scale, there are six ways of producing a performance minus expectation score of *-1* (P=1 - E =2; P= 6 - E= 7) and seven ways of producing a performance minus expectation score of *zero* (P =1 - E =1; P= 7 - E= 7). In order to test whether these tied difference scores of zero or -1 signify equal customer satisfaction in each case, the respondents with a difference score of zero and minus one were selected and their scores on overall satisfaction were examined. The results elicited that respondents with a difference score of -1 (n= 57) rated different satisfaction levels. Of the respondents who indicated the difference score of minus one, 28 percent stated that they were slightly dissatisfied, 45 percent stated that they were pleased, 10 percent stated that they were slightly dissatisfied. Unquestionably, as Teas argued (1993), these tied difference scores of minus one do not signify equal customer satisfaction in each case. However, the logic of the EDP predicts otherwise.

By the same token, although it has moderate correlation with the overall satisfaction measure, the diagnostic ability of the direct dis/confirmation only scale (*Dis*) is questionable. The scale is not always able to indicate whether high or low expectations were confirmed or disconfirmed. Intuitively speaking, there would be a dramatic difference in customer satisfaction between meeting (*as expected*) or exceeding (*better than expected*) customer's low expectations and meeting or exceeding high expectations. Therefore, the direct dis/confirmation scale seems to be of little use for diagnostic analysis. In addition, the procedure of multiplying direct disconfirmation score with importance does not yield any different results from that of direct disconfirmation alone.

8.1.1.4 Customer Satisfaction and Service Quality

As stated earlier, there is a great deal of confusion among researchers about the distinction and the relationship between the concepts of customer satisfaction and service quality. This confusion stems primarily from the fact that both customer satisfaction and service quality concepts have been founded on similar conceptual and theoretical frameworks. For example, customer satisfaction researchers maintain that customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction is an evaluation based on the perceived discrepancy between customers' prior expectations of a product and the actual performance of that product, as perceived after consumption (the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm) (Tse and Wilton 1988). Service quality researchers, on the other hand, generally define service quality to be a comparative function between consumer expectations and actual service performance (the Gap Model). Given the similarity, some researchers consider service quality and customer satisfaction as similar constructs (for example, Dabholkar 1993, 1995; Spreng and Singh 1993), while others maintain that they are two distinct constructs. (Cronin and Taylor 1992; Parasuraman *et al* 1988; Oliver 1993)

In their attempt to differentiate service quality from customer satisfaction, Parasuraman and his co-authors (1988, 1991, 1994) maintained that the standards, against which performance is compared, are different in service quality and customer satisfaction. More specifically, Parasuraman *et al* and some other service quality researchers (for example Bitner 1990; Bolton and Drew 1991; and Zeithaml *et al* 1993) proposed that in measuring service quality, the level of comparison is what a consumer should expect against what is received, whereas in measures of customer satisfaction, the appropriate comparison is what a consumer would expect against what is received. Oliver (1993) argues that service quality and customer satisfaction judgements may result from a comparison with different expectations for the same attribute (i.e., should expectations for quality and predicted expectations for satisfaction). In other words, these contentions suggest that *should expectations* represent the true and the only standard that ought to be utilised in service quality investigations. If this contention holds true, then logically dis/confirmation of should expectations should correlate higher with the service quality measures than it does with the satisfaction measure. Dis/confirmation of should expectations should also explain a higher variance in service quality than in customer satisfaction.

An examination of the correlation values between the *Pershould* scale (Table 10), which used "should expectations" as the standard, and an overall satisfaction measure, however, suggested otherwise. The correlation between the *Pershould* scale and the overall satisfaction measure is much stronger (.5859) than the correlation between the *Pershould* scale and the overall quality measure (.4957). A similar trend was also observed in the multiple regression analysis in that; disconfirmation of should expectations explained a higher variance of the overall measure of satisfaction than overall service quality (R= .65517 and .59468 respectively) (Table 10).

Table 10. Disconfirmation of Should Expectations

	Correlation Value (*Pershould*)	Multiple Regression Value
Satisfaction (Oversat)	.5859*	.65517
Service Quality (Oversq)	.4957*	.59468

**The difference between the values is statistically significant at 0.01 level.*

The higher variance explained in the *Oversat,* as opposed to the smaller variance explained in the *Oversq,* suggests that disconfirmation of should expectations is a better predictor of customer satisfaction than service quality. This finding supports the contention of Hemmasi *et al* (1995) that researchers who employ the Servqual and its scoring algorithm (performance minus should expectations) appear to be essentially capturing a measure more closely related to consumer satisfaction than service quality. This finding indicates that the general assumption that the standards against which performance is compared, can be confidently used to discriminate between service quality and satisfaction is incorrect.

An additional analysis was carried out to examine the strength and direction of the relationship between the customer satisfaction and service quality constructs (Table 11). In order to simplify the analysis, the categories on the seven-point *Oversat* and *Oversq* measures were regrouped into three categories ([dissatisfied, neutral, satisfied] and [poor quality, neutral, high quality]). For instance, respondents who rated terrible-slightly dissatisfied-and dissatisfied were grouped to form the dissatisfied category. Then, a one-way Anova test was employed in order to understand whether there is a significant difference between the scores of three groups on *Oversat* and *Oversq*. The results of the one-way Anova test demonstrated that respondents who indicated that the overall service quality was poor (Group 1) rated significantly ($p<.01$) lower scores on overall satisfaction (Table 11). Respondents who indicated high service quality (Group 3) rated significantly higher scores on overall satisfaction. By the same token, one-way Anova test between scores of three satisfaction groups, elicited that respondents who indicated high satisfaction (Group 3), rated significantly high scores on overall quality. The strength and the direction of the link between satisfaction and service quality offer a great deal of support for ways in which each construct influences each other.

Table 11. Comparison of Respondents' Scores on Overall Quality and Satisfaction

Groups	Oversq [Mean]	Groups	Oversat [Mean]
(I)Dissatisfied [28]*	-.75	(I)Poor Quality [34]	-.50
(II)Neutral [25]	.24	(II)Neutral [28]	.70
(III)Satisfied [348]	1.65	(III)High Quality [339]	1.74
	I<II<III		I<II<III
	$F= 89.204; p< .000$		$F= 97.328; p< .000$

*Number of respondents

This suggests that from a managerial viewpoint, trying to differentiate between service quality and customer satisfaction may be unnecessary, as a positive service quality perception appears to enhance customer satisfaction, and a negative quality perception brings about customer dissatisfaction. In other words, providing a high level of service quality for the customer during service encounters, is likely to leave the consumer satisfied and vice versa.

The results of the correlation analysis further suggested that the constructs of customer satisfaction and service quality were highly correlated (.77), which suggests that service quality and customer satisfaction constructs may share some common ground. The high correlation between these two concepts has also been observed in other studies (for example, Ekinci and Riley 1998, Cronin and Taylor 1992). For instance, in Cronin and Taylor's research, the correlation between these two concepts was 0.82. These consistent results suggest that service quality and customer satisfaction might be one manifestation of a similar construct, such as the "service evaluation" as suggested by Iacobucci *et al* (1994). An additional t-test for paired sample analysis was undertaken in order to examine whether respondents' scores on satisfaction and quality differ significantly (Table 12). The result of the t-test analysis revealed that there was no significant difference ($p<.01$) between respondents' scores on overall satisfaction and overall quality. The mean score for the overall satisfaction was 1.3827, with a standard deviation of 1.189. Identically, the mean score for overall quality was 1.3704, with a standard deviation of 1.209. The t-value was .14 and 2-tail significance was .892, which indicated that the difference was insignificant at .01 level. This implies that although conceptually it might be possible to distinguish between service quality and customer satisfaction, operationally this might be difficult.

Table 12. t-test for Paired Samples

Scale	Satisfaction		Quality		t value	2 tail significance
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*		
Perprex [88]*	1.3827	[1.189]	1.3704	[1.209]	.14	.892
Perim [105]	1.5699	[1.255]	1.3763	[1.382]	-1.92	.057
Disim [102]	1.4302	[.977]	1.4651	[1.059]	.40	.688
Per [106]	1.3908	[1.223]	1.2414	[1.294]	1.31	.193
Combined [401]	1.4467	[1.1652]	1.3631	[1.2426]	1.687	0.92

*Number of respondents

An examination of the correlation between the service quality and customer satisfaction measures and the return intentions measure, further reveals that both constructs significantly and almost identically correlate with this important variable. The correlation between *Oversat* and *Ri* is .78 and *Oversq* and *Ri* is .77, which is significant at .01 level. It would be appropriate to state that there may be a strong and almost an identical link between service quality, customer satisfaction and return intentions. In order to examine the link between these two concepts and the return intentions, respondents' scores on service quality and satisfaction were compared against their scores on return intentions (Table 13). The results of the one-way Anova analysis indicate that respondents who indicated high quality perception rated significantly high scores on return intentions. Similarly, satisfied respondents rated significantly high scores on return intentions variable.

Table 13. Comparison of Respondents' Scores on Return Intentions

Groups	Return [Mean]	Groups	Return [Mean]
(I)Dissatisfied [28]*	-.66	(I) Poor Quality [34]	-.44
(II)Neutral [25]	.64	(II) Neutral [28]	.64
(III) Satisfied [348]	1.95	(III) High Quality [339]	1.98
	I<II<III		I<II<III
	F=86.677; p<.000		F= 95.506; p<.000

*Number of respondents

In addition, in order to identify the extent of the influence of customer satisfaction and service quality on return intentions, a Multiple Regression Analysis was employed (Table 14). Respondents' ratings on return intentions were regressed on their *Oversat* and *Oversq* scores. Results of the multiple regression analysis indicate that both customer satisfaction and service quality do have a significant effect on consumers' return intentions. The standardised coefficients (Beta) indicate that these two concepts have a similar degree of impact on the determination of return intentions (Beta= 477 and .403 respectively).

Table 14. Relative influence of service quality and customer satisfaction on Ri.

	B	Beta	t	Sig.	R^2:	F
Satisfaction	.440	.477	4.813	.000	.687	85.673
Quality	.366	.403	4.066	.000		
Constant	.434		3.967	.000		

8.1.2 Discussion

8.1.2.1 Hypothesis 1

H_1 "A performance only framework will be a more satisfactory framework for measuring customer satisfaction in the tourism industry than other alternatives".

The results of correlation and multiple regression analyses explicitly reveal that the performance only scale performed better in determining customer satisfaction than weighted performance, direct disconfirmation, and weighted disconfirmation scales. The empirical evidence also indicates that the performance scale alone, predicts overall satisfaction and behavioural intentions at least as well as the complete expectancy–disconfirmation model. These results suggest that the more direct measure of perceived performance may be a more useful predictor of customer satisfaction than more complex composite measures of disconfirmation of expectations. Thus, the first proposition concerning the higher convergent validity and predictive power of the performance only model, in predicting customer satisfaction, is supported by the results of multiple regression and correlation coefficients.

More specifically, the results suggest that although the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm has been widely adopted by researchers, the validity of assessing satisfaction through this paradigm in a service delivery context, is disputable. The results of analyses undertaken, confirmed the proposition which suggests that the inclusion of expectations, leads to a suppresser effect rather than explaining variance in such important variables as behavioural intentions and satisfaction. Considering the results of the analyses, it is appropriate to argue that including the confirmation–disconfirmation calculation, as an intervening variable, may be unnecessary because when a service product performs well, the consumers seem to be satisfied regardless of any confirmation–disconfirmation effect. This is not surprising since **(1)** performance bears a pre-eminent role in the formation of customer satisfaction because it is the main feature of the consumption experience, and **(2)** when customer expectations are clearly set, such as in the case of continuously used services or when there is high familiarity with the service, the confirmation–disconfirmation process may not operate, unless performance is clearly outside the range of experience-based norms. In sum, compared to other alternative measurement frameworks, the perceived performance has proven to be more straightforward, convenient, and typical of the human cognitive process.

As was stated in the preceding chapter, the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm supposes that satisfaction results from the meeting of customer expectations or when their expectations are exceeded by performance; dissatisfaction is induced when performance falls short of initial expectations. Results of a comparative analysis of the respondents' scores on overall satisfaction with their difference scores, however, have shown that this proposition, which is held by the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm, in this case is incorrect. It is clear from the findings that the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm fails to explain why respondents rate satisfaction although their difference scores suggest otherwise (negative disconfirmation). One possible explanation to this phenomenon could be deduced from the Dissonance theory, which suggests that when there is a discrepancy between what is expected and what is received, customers may tend to reduce this tension by changing their perceptions of the product, and try to be content with the situation. Another possible explanation for this could be that some consumers may use minimum acceptable as a comparative standard in certain situations, and the performance above the minimum acceptable but below the predicted expectations may not necessarily create dissatisfaction. Another explanation could be that, customers might engage in a trade-off process, where a strength of an attribute may compensate for the weakness(es) of another attribute, and may lead to overall satisfaction. Alternatively, the tolerance-level or zone-of-indifference concept, which the EDP fails to take into consideration, might explain why those customers, whose expectations are unmet, report satisfaction. This concept suggests that purchasers are willing to accept a range of performance around a point estimate as long as the range could be reasonably expected (Oliver, 1997). If customer tolerance of some deviation from expectations exists, a level of service less than the expected, does not generate dissatisfaction (Saleh and Ryan 1991).

The results also indicated that respondents' scores, on the expectation components of the scale, were consistently and significantly higher than that of the performance component. This finding suggests that it is difficult to satisfy customers as their expectations will never be met, or even exceeded. Defining customer satisfaction as exceeding expectations, however, lends itself to a peculiar effort to manipulate expectations. For instance, to ensure that expectations are exceeded, some researchers have asserted that service providers should understate (under-promise) the firm's capability of delivering these experiences in promotional efforts. For example, Pizam and Milman (1993: 208) suggest that "it would be more beneficial to create modest and even below realistic expectations". Though this is a sensible and potentially effective suggestion in theory, it is questionable whether it can and should be operated in practice (Weber 1997). One problem is that customers may not want to spend time and money in a restaurant, in the first place, if promotional efforts convey the possibility of the restaurant being unable to adequately fulfil certain expectations. Moreover, establishing a threshold at which expectations are raised high enough to attract customers, but low enough to allow for expectations to be exceeded, is obviously difficult, if at all possible (ibid.).

It is also important to draw attention to the fact that the use of the confirmation-disconfirmation calculation process, may lead to wrong interpretations. As was shown in the results, in contrast to the logic of the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm, the difference score of, for instance, zero or minus one, does not signify equal customer satisfaction in each case. In addition, the use of the performance-minus-expectation procedure has other limitations. For instance, assume that a respondent indicates that his or her expectation on an attribute is at the highest level (for example, 7 on a seven-point scale). If he or she thinks that the attribute performed better than what she or he had expected, the respondent can only choose the number 7 on the perceived performance scale, as it is the highest value. The calculated difference score (0) suggests that while the expectation was met, it does not highlight the fact that, according to the respondent, it was exceeded.

8.1.2.2 Hypothesis 2

H_2 "Weighting performance and direct disconfirmation scores by importance will not make a substantial improvement on the predictive validity of these methodologies".

The findings of the study provides support for the second proposition which states that, inclusion of importance scores do not make any substantial difference in the predictive power of the models. Weighting performance or disconfirmation by importance did not increase the correlation and multiple regression values. However, although weighting importance did not appear to improve reliability and validity of the *Perim* and *Disim* models substantially, plotting the scores of importance and performance on a horizontal and vertical axis, has the advantage of being easily interpreted by managers (Crompton and Love, 1995). This could be of critical value for managers who are pressed for time and are without access to sophisticated software packages. This approach could yield invaluable information for managers as allocation of resources to the most effective areas, requires a clear understanding of what aspects customers consider important in their evaluation of the service experience.

8.1.2.3 Hypothesis 3

H_3 "Customer satisfaction and service quality constructs may not be substantially different in consumers' minds, and that the proposition suggesting the standards against which performance is compared distinguishes between the two may not be used confidently to differentiate between service quality and customer satisfaction".

In addition to the debates on the validity of measurement frameworks and comparison standards, the literature review shows that many discussions have focused on the similarity and difference between service quality and customer satisfaction. It is important to remember that some academics have suggested the use of different standards in order to distinguish between these two concepts. The findings of this study, however, suggest that the standard against which performance is compared cannot be confidently used to discriminate between service quality and customer satisfaction.

It has also been shown, through t-test for paired samples, that overall satisfaction measure and service quality measure were not significantly distinguishable. The results of the study further suggest that the distinction between service quality and customer satisfaction may be unnecessary, as positive service quality perceptions enhance customer satisfaction, and negative quality perceptions create customer dissatisfaction. In other words, providing a high level of service quality for the customer, during service encounters, is likely to leave the consumer satisfied. In addition, the high correlation between the two concepts may suggest that service quality and customer satisfaction might be one manifestation of a similar construct, such as the overall service evaluation as suggested by Iacobucci *et al* (1994).

8.1.2.4 Hypothesis 4

H4 "The ability of comparison standards in determining customer satisfaction will be different and that the use of different standards will yield different results in terms of satisfaction".

Although statistical analyses undertaken here confirmed the superior validity of the performance only measurement framework, some researchers may still argue that the use of performance only is not adequate on its own, and they may employ the measurement framework which involves a comparison between perceived performance and a pre-determined standard. If the EDP is to be used, then caution must be exercised on the selection of the comparison standard. At present, there is no consensus on which standard is the most appropriate in explaining customer satisfaction. This study therefore examined the relative ability of two comparison standards; these being the predictive and should expectations. The results of this study clearly demonstrated that the choice of the comparison standard is extremely important because different types of standards, yield different comparison levels, against which perceived experience was compared, and consequently produce different results in terms of satisfaction. Although predictive expectations have been widely adopted as the sole comparison standard in many investigations, the results of this study revealed that "predictive expectation-based" measures, have only modest correlation with satisfaction, whereas a "should expectation-based" disconfirmation measures have higher correlations and a greater ability to explain variance in satisfaction.

In essence, the results of this study challenge the validity of using predictive expectations, particularly in customer satisfaction investigations with familiar services. An examination of multiple regression and correlation values revealed that disconfirmation of "should expectations" is a better predictor of customer satisfaction than disconfirmation of "predictive expectations", as it explains greater variance in customer satisfaction and correlated higher than does disconfirmation of predictive expectations. This finding suggests that some comparison standards, in this case "should expectations", may be better than others at explaining satisfaction, and that the relationship between disconfirmation and satisfaction may depend on the standards used to measure them. This finding is consistent with that of Barbeau (1985), Cadotte *et al* (1987), LaTour and Peat (1979), Spreng and Olshawsky (1993), Swan and Trawick (1979), whose studies suggested that the disconfirmation of should expectations, may be a better predictor of satisfaction than the disconfirmation of predictive expectations. Findings of the study also suggest that if satisfaction ratings are contingent on which standard is used, then, as Woodruff and his colleagues (1991) pointed out, the conventional commitment to expectancy disconfirmation by academics, may be detrimental to advancing knowledge that is critical to understanding customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

8.1.3 Conclusion

The results of the analyses undertaken in this part of the research suggest that the perceived performance only model is a more appropriate, convenient and valid framework in assessing customer satisfaction with services. The performance-minus-expectation procedure is found unnecessary, as it does not add any additional information beyond that already contained in the perception component of the scale. It was also observed that, asking the same questions twice to the same respondent, was tedious and tiring. By the same token, the performance-multiplied by-importance procedure was found redundant, as the inclusion of importance scores does not make any substantial increase in the predictive power of the models. The study findings also indicate that some comparison standards may be better than others at explaining customers satisfaction, and the conventional commitment to the use of predictive expectations, as the sole comparison standard of customer satisfaction investigations, is disputable. The findings also indicated that those researchers suggesting that disconfirmation of should expectations is the conceptual and operational foundation of service quality construct, should revise their contention about the conceptualisation of the concept. In essence, these findings shed crucial light on the determination of the scale to be used in assessing tourist satisfaction with the holiday and food service experience in Turkey.

CHAPTERVIII

Results and Discussions: Part Two

8.2 Introduction

The total tourist product is composed of various tangible and intangible characteristics, and hence, it is likely that tourist satisfaction may accumulate through their encounters with different service organisations and individuals during the holiday. Within this context, the foodservice experience, an inseparable part of tourist holiday experience, may contribute to tourists satisfaction with the entire holiday. The foodservice experience may become instrumental in engendering tourist loyalty, ensuring positive word-of-mouth recommendations, and creating differential advantage.

Despite the fact that eating out is an important part of the tourist experience, there is a distinct paucity of research concerning the contribution of foodservice experience in the formation of overall holiday satisfaction. High foodservice quality may contribute to feelings of overall satisfaction as it provides some of the most positive memories of a vacation. Conversely, poor foodservice quality may impair all of the pleasant memories surrounding a holiday experience. This suggests that unless properly managed, the foodservice experience may have the potential to induce high levels of dissatisfaction with the entire holiday, and it can have a potentially negative effect on a destination's image. This in turn may hamper return business. Improvement of the quality of tourists' foodservice experiences may have considerable implications for destination authorities aiming to enhance overall tourist satisfaction.

Given the limited research on this subject, this part of the study intends to identify the extent to which the foodservice experience impacts on overall holiday satisfaction and on behavioural intentions. This study hypothesised that a high satisfaction with foodservice experience should increase the overall satisfaction with the holiday, the likeliness of repeat visitation and positive word-of-mouth recommendation. Conversely, dissatisfaction with the foodservice experience should lead to a low level of overall satisfaction with the holiday. In addition, it is proposed that some attributes in a given holiday experience are likely to lead to dissatisfaction when they are not performed well, but they may not result in high satisfaction when they have been performed well. Within this context, this study proposes that foodservice experience could be a *critical* factor in the formation of tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Thus, examining whether it is a *critical* element in tourist satisfaction bears important implications for destination managers due to its potential influence on a destination's image.

8.2.1 Research Instrument

Based on its ease of application and potentially high construct validity, confirmed by the earlier stage, the performance only scale was adopted in order to assess and identify the relative effect of individual dimensions on tourist satisfaction. The respondents were required to assess the performance of facilities and services (67 items) on 7-point semantic differential scales. Respondents were then asked to compare the performance of their current holiday destination on each attribute with that of their most recent summer holiday destination, on a three point Better than-Similar-Worse than scale (Past Experience Confirmation [PEC]). The main aim underlying the inclusion of the PEC scale was to provide destination managers with practical information that might be instrumental in contriving strategic plans.

The study adopted the use of a single 7-point Delighted-Terrible overall measure of tourist satisfaction. Respondents' overall satisfaction with food and beverage, their return intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations were assessed by single 7-point overall measures. One of the main purposes of gauging overall satisfaction with the entire holiday and with behavioural intentions was to assess the relative importance of each holiday component, in determining the level of tourist satisfaction and behavioural intentions. A single question concerning overall satisfaction with the foodservice experiences was asked in order to assess its relationship with overall holiday satisfaction and behavioural intentions. In addition, a single overall three-point *better than expected/ worse than expected* scale was included in order to examine the ability of the disconfirmation of expectation scale in determining overall holiday satisfaction. Respondents were also required to indicate whether they found their current holiday value for money on a 7-point bipolar scale.

The research was carried out with 400 tourists departing from an international airport in Turkey during a three-week period in September 1997. Twenty eight tourists refused to participate because of their flight time and language difficulties, and 29 returned incomplete questionnaires. An examination of the incomplete questionnaires, whose demographic details sections had been completed, demonstrated that the demographic profiles of these non-respondents were similar to the rest of the sample group, which suggests that non-response bias was not an issue. 58% of the respondents were female and 69.2% were first-time visitors. Given the flight destinations at the time of survey implementation and the growing numbers of British visitors to Turkey in recent years, the majority of respondents were British (80%), followed by Germans, Benelux, Scandinavian, Italian and others (Table 15). The accuracy of the sample representation was assessed by comparing the list of departing tourists, acquired from the Airport authority with the actual sample profile. This comparison suggests that the departing tourists within this period of time were commensurably represented in the sample.

Table 15. Sample Profile

	N		N
Age		**Nationality**	
under14	3	German	26
15-24	77	British	280
25-34	98	Italian	4
35-44	68	Scandinavian	9
45-54	69	Benelux	18
over 55	22	Other	5
Been to Turkey?		**Gender**	
First-Time Visitors	234	Male	141
Repeat Visitor	104	Female	199
How many times have you been to Turkey?		**Length of Holiday**	
		A week	92
Once	49	Two Weeks	239
Twice	15	More	9
More	37		
Accommodation		**Resort**	
Hotel	244	Marmaris	149
Other	93	Fethiye	49
		Bodrum	30
		Other	111

8.2.2 Findings

The analysis of the prime holiday dimensions and their extent of influence on total holiday satisfaction and behavioural intentions involved the use of Multivariate

Analysis, in this case, factor and multiple regression analysis (Danaher and Haddrell 1996). The Principal Components and Orthogonal (Varimax) rotation methods were employed in the factor analysis so as to summarise most of the original information to a minimum number of factors for predictive purposes (Hair *et al* 1995). The appropriateness of the factor analysis was examined by correlation, measures of sampling adequacy (MSA) and reliability alpha to ensure that the data set was appropriate for factor analysis.

The criteria for the number of factors to be extracted were based on the Eigenvalue, the percentage of variance, the significance of factor loading, and the assessment of structure (ibid.). Only the factors with Eigenvalue equal or greater than one were considered significant (ibid.). The rationale behind the consideration of the significant factors was that these factors were able to account for the variance of at least a single variable (Lewis 1985). The solution that accounted for at least 60% of the total variance was considered as a satisfactory solution (ibid.). A variable was considered to be significant and was included in a factor, when its factor loading was greater or equal to 0.50 (ibid.). Although lower criteria (.30 to .40) are often used for factor loading, the higher criterion was selected to ensure that items were not inappropriately categorised (Wuest, Tas and Emenheiser 1996).

The purpose of regression analysis in this study was to explore how the holiday dimensions (for example, hospitality, foodservice experience), derived from the factor analysis, related to the dependent variable of total satisfaction (Danaher and Haddrell 1996). Subsequent Multiple Regression analyses was run to examine the effect of each emergent factor in determining return intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations. In addition, respondents' written compliments and complaints at the end of the questionnaires were subjected to a content analysis to identify the extent of influence of, if any, the food service experience on the overall holiday experience.

A regression equation model of overall satisfaction was hypothesised as follows:

$$S = {}_0 + {}_1F_1 + {}_2F_2 + ... + {}_nF_n$$

Where,

S- dependent variable (overall satisfaction)
0-regression of coefficient of intercept

1-n- regression coefficients of independent variables
F_1 -F_n-independent variables
and random error.

8.2.2.1 Instrument Reliability and Validity

The scale was first subjected to a reliability analysis to assess the quality of the measure. Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability of the measurement scale. The total scale reliability was high, 0.95, indicating that the sample of items performed well in capturing the measured construct (Nunnaly 1967). Following the reliability test, the construct validity of the total scale was assessed. That is, whether the scale measures what it purports to measure. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression procedures were employed to examine the construct validity of the performance only scale in assessing tourist satisfaction. Individual item scores for perceptions were totalled to obtain an overall score for each respondent. This score was then correlated with respondents scores on an overall satisfaction, return intentions and recommendation measures. By the same token, the correlation between satisfaction, behavioural intentions, and the respondents scores on the disconfirmation of expectation (DE) and the disconfirmation of past experience (PEC) scales were examined (Table 16).

Table 16. Correlation Analysis

	Satisfaction	DE	WOM	Return	PEC	Performance
Satisfaction	-					
DE	-.459*	-				
WOM	.662	-.549*	-			
Return	.549	-.459*	.723	-		
PEC	.460*	-.342	.425*	.345*	-	
Performance	.648*	-.291	.577*	.549*	.352	-
	R= 0.82					
	R^2 = 0.68					

*Significant at .01 level

The convergent validity of the performance scale in determining tourist satisfaction was supported as the scale correlated relatively high (0.65 p<0.01) with the overall measure of tourist satisfaction. An examination of the correlation results (see Table 16) further demonstrates that the scale has nomological validity as the correspondence between the models and the two behavioural intentions was as predicted. The Discriminant validity of the scale was also supported as the correlation between the two measures of satisfaction was higher than the correlation between the scale and other variables. In addition, respondents' scores on the overall satisfaction scale were regressed on their perception scores of 67 destination attributes in order to examine the extent to which perception scores explained any variance. A relatively high score of R^2 (%68) provides additional support for the ability of the performance scale to explain the variance in the overall satisfaction scale. This is a consistent finding with that of the preceding part of the research which revealed that perceived performance is an appropriate framework to study consumer satisfaction concept.

An examination of the Table 16 also reveals that the correlation between the single disconfirmation of expectations measure (DE) and satisfaction was weaker (-.46) than that of performance alone (.65), suggesting that the performance alone scale outperforms the disconfirmation of expectations in predicting overall holiday satisfaction. In addition, an examination of the correlation values between PEC and overall satisfaction reveals that the PEC correlates moderately with the overall satisfaction (.46). However, this correlation is weaker than that of performance alone. The results of the reliability and validity tests suggest that the scale used in the research measured what it intended to measure, and thus allowed the researcher to proceed with the analysis.

Following the examination of reliability, a series of one-way Anovas and t-tests were carried out in order to ascertain whether significant differences existed among respondents ratings from different nationalities, age groups, sexes, and first-time/repeat visitors on overall satisfaction, return intentions, and recommendations. Significant differences ($p < .05$) were found among the respondents ratings from different age groups on overall satisfaction, recommendations, and return intentions, and the Least Significance Difference (LSD) test was used to highlight where these differences were occurring (see Table 17). The results indicated that the differences were at their greatest between age groups six and two, three and four, and between five and one, two and three, indicating that a difference between the older and younger groups within the sample. Satisfaction, return intentions, and recommendation ratings of the older age group were significantly higher than the younger age groups.

Table 17. Age by Dependent Variables (one-way Anova)

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Prob.
Satisfaction	5	15.6713	3.1343	**2.6628**	**.0224**
Return	5	45.7960	9.1592	**5.3121**	**.0001**
Recommendation	5	31.0062	6.2012	**4.1815**	**.0011**

Significant differences ($p < .05$) were also found between ratings of first-time and repeat visitors (Table 18). Satisfaction ratings of repeat tourists were significantly higher than that of first-time visitors. By the same token, repeat visitors' ratings on return intentions and word-of-mouth recommendation were significantly higher than first-time visitors.

Table 18 Difference between First-time and Repeat Visitors' Mean Scores

	First-time [234]*	Repeat [104]	DF	T-Value	Significance
Satisfaction with Holiday	5.9316	6.1961	334	**-2.04**	**.042**
Return Intentions	5.3377	5.9900	326	**-4.12**	**.000**
Recommendation	5.7212	6.2475	325	**-3.59**	**.000**

*Number of respondents

No significant differences ($p > .05$) were found among ratings of different nationalities on overall satisfaction and recommendation but there was significant difference with respect to return intentions. In addition, no significant difference ($p > .05$) was found between the ratings of males and females on these variables (Table 19).

Table 19. Difference between Male and Female Mean Scores

	Male [141]* [Mean]	Female [199] [Mean]	DF	t-Value	Significance
Satisfaction with Holiday	6.0643	5.9848	336	**.66**	**.512**
Return Intentions	5.6058	5.5052	329	**.67**	**.505**
Recommendation	6.0000	5.8125	328	**1.35**	**.177**

*Number of respondents

8.2.2.2 Results of Factor Analysis

The Eigenvalues suggested that a 16-factor solution explained 69% of the overall variance before rotation. A visual inspection of correlation matrix revealed that the majority of correlations were significant at 0.01 level, which suggests that there was an adequate basis to proceed on to the next level of examination of adequacy for factor analysis. The overall significance of the correlation matrix was examined by the Bartlett test of Spherity. The test revealed that the overall significance of the correlation matrix was 0.0000 with a Bartlett test of Spherity value of 9250.5358 (Table 20). It indicated that the data matrix had sufficient correlation to the factor analysis (Hair *et al* 1995). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin overall measure of sampling adequacy was 0.88, which was meritorious (ibid.), suggesting that data were appropriate to factor analysis. In sum, the examination of the correlation matrix, measures of sampling adequacy (MSA), partial correlation among variables and reliability alpha revealed that the data were appropriate to factor analysis.

Table 20 Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		**.882**
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. chi-square	**9250.536**
	Df	2211
	Sig.	**.000**

Varimax rotation was used to produce orthogonal factors, which provided simpler and theoretically meaningful solutions. From the Orthogonal (Varimax) rotated factor matrix, 16 factors with 58 variables were defined by the original 67 variables, which loaded most heavily on them (loading 0.50) (Table 21). The analysis produced a clean factor structure with relatively higher loading on the appropriate factors. Most variables loaded heavily on one factor, and did not load heavily on others. This reflects the fact that there was minimal overlap among these factors and all factors were independently structured. The communality of each variable was relatively high ranging from 0.54 to 0.83. This indicates that the variance of the original values was captured fairly well by the 16 factors (ibid.).

The 16-factor structured in a relatively more workable and meaningful number of composite dimensions, which could be more easily interpreted and used for the further regression analysis. Each factor was named based on the common characteristics of the variables it included (Table 21). The first factor, food quality, explained 27% of the total variance. It was composed of the variables of food tastiness, food quality, food temperature, food portions, presentation of dishes, hygienic food preparation, menu variety, availability of dishes liked, and availability of traditional dishes. The second factor, service quality, composed of service efficiency, friendliness, staff competency, staff responsiveness to complaints and requests, and explained 7% of the total variance. The composition of the remaining factors is displayed on Table 21.

A composite reliability was calculated to measure the internal consistency of each factor. The results showed that the reliability coefficients for factors exceeded the recommended level of 0.50 (ranging from 0.53 to 0.90) (Nunnaly 1967), and thus, all factors were retained in the subsequent multiple regression analysis (Table 21). After the rotation, the 16 factors explained 69.1% of variance. It might be concluded that these 16 dimensions were perceived as particularly important by the sample of tourists holidaymaking in Turkey.

Table 21. Reliability and Composition of Factors

Factor Name	Eigenvalues	Variance (%)	Reliability	Loadings
Factor1: Food Quality	**18.130**	**27.06**	**.9011**	
Tastiness of food served in the area				.74243
Quality of food and beverage				.71911
Temperature of food served				.63882
Portions of food				.68601
Presentation of dishes				.73088
Hygienic food preparation				.67355
Variety of menu				.73581
Availability of dishes liked				.79621
Availability of traditional food				.52161
Factor 2: Service Quality	**4.532**	**6.76**	**.8730**	
Efficiency of check-in/check-out at the accommodation				.55674
Friendliness of service at my accommodation				.76588
Efficiency of service at accommodation				.72101
Responsiveness of staff to request				.67910
Responsiveness of staff to complaint				.69331
Competency of staff				.79104
Factor Name	**Eigenvalues**	**Variance (%)**	**Reliability**	**Loadings**
Factor 3: Hygiene and Accommodation	**2.872**	**4.28**	**.8703**	
Cleanliness of the accommodation				.82772
Cleanliness of restaurant at accommodation				.60639
Cleanliness of the room				.83935
The physical condition of accommodation				.78732
Quality of facilities offered at accommodation				.62273
Comfort of the room				.78631
Adequacy of water and electricity supply				.55363
Factor 4: Hospitality	**2.766**	**4.12**	**.8780**	
Courtesy of residents				.72264
Courtesy of employees				.62907
Willingness of employees to help				.71162
Willingness of residents to help				.71420
Friendliness of people				.76867
Feeling safe in the area				.59303

Factor Name	Eigenvalues	Variance (%)	Reliability	Loadings
Factor 5: Tourist facilities	**2.303**	**3.43**	**.8683**	
Efficiency of services at tourist facilities				.76332
Courtesy of services at tourist facilities				.65173
Waiting time for service at tourist facilities				.73237
Quality of services at tourist facilities				.71473
Convenience operating hours at tourist facilities				.54344
Accuracy of bill and tariffs at tourist facilities				.57806
Factor 6: Beach and environment	**2.172**	**3.24**	**.7633**	
Cleanliness of the beach and sea in the area				.75691
Availability of facilities at the beach				.67954
Crowd level in the area				.52265
The natural environment in the area				.59490
Comfort of sunbathing on the beach				.59056
Factor 7: Price and value	**1.823**	**2.72**	**.7893**	
Prices of food and drink				.79515
Value of the food services for price charges				.75821
Value of goods and services for the price charges				.50608
Factor 8: Entertainment	**1.657**	**2.47**	**.6965**	
Quality and availability of entertainment				.55447
Availability of tours and cruises				.66284
Quality and availability of restaurants				.65914
Factor 9: Quietness	**1.524**	**2.27**	**.7498**	
Noise level at restaurant/bars				.72149
Noise level at accommodation				.72695
Factor 10: Convenience	**1.445**	**2.15**	**.5343**	
Location of the restaurant/bars				.62217
Location of the accommodation				.54051
Operating hours of the restaurant/bars at accommodation				.71917
Factor 11: Communication	**1.436**	**2.14**	**.7438**	
Ease of communication with locals in your language				.61139
Communication in your language with the staff				.68806
Factor 12. Security	**1.276**	**1.90**	**.6991**	
Safety at hotel				.50385
Security of room				.50578
Factor 13: Water sports	**1.165**	**1.73**	**-**	
Availability of water sports				.79969
Factor 14: Transportation	**1.122**	**1.67**	**-**	
Efficiency and timeliness of public transport				.82193
Factor 15: Airport Services	**1.074**	**1.60**	**-**	
Efficiency of check-in and check-out at the Airport				.74114

Factor Name	Eigenvalues	Variance (%)	Reliability	Loadings
Factor 16: Weather	**1.022**	**1.52**	-	
The weather conditions in the area				.72063

Total variance 69.1

8.2.2.3 Effect of Foodservice on Holiday Satisfaction

In order to understand which of the factors have a significant effect on tourist satisfaction, the respondents' ratings on overall satisfaction were regressed against their factor scores. The result of multiple regression of the 16 holiday dimensions against the dependent variable (overall satisfaction) is displayed in Table 20. The regression equation characteristics of overall holiday satisfaction indicated an R^2 of 0.53, indicating that 53% of the variation could be explained by this equation. The F-ratio of 23.84 was significant (Prob. < .0000). The relatively high measure of R^2 (0.53) indicates that the predictor variables perform well in explaining the variance in overall satisfaction. The highly significant F ratio indicates that the results of the equation could hardly have occurred by chance (behavioural scientists consider an R^2 of 0.50 to .60 quite good) (Lewis 1984). In order to have an accurate interpretation of this study's predictor variables, a stepwise regression procedure was employed (Hair *et al* 1995). In this procedure, the first variable entered into the equation was the one that accounts for the most variance in the dependent variable (Table 22). The remaining variables were entered one at a time in descending order of the amount of remaining variance they explain. The procedure was discontinued when this procedure resulted in an insignificant increase in R^2.

The t-statistic test was used for testing whether the 16 independent factors contributed information to the prediction of the dependent variable "overall holiday satisfaction". In this study, if the t-value of an independent variable was found to be significant at a 0.05 level, that variable was considered in the model. 10 out of the 16 factors emerged as significant (sig. T < 0.05) independent variables in the regression analysis (see Table 20). The exclusion of six dimensions does not necessarily mean that they are unimportant to tourist satisfaction. They are still important in an absolute sense, though they are not relative to other dimensions in predicting tourist satisfaction (Oh and Mount 1998).

Table 22. Factors Determining Overall Satisfaction

Factors	B	SE B	Beta	Tolerance	VIF	T	Sig T	$Beta^2$	R^2	F =
Hospitality	.349115	.051981	.316109	1.000	1.000	6.716	.0000	0.099	**.52815**	**23.841**
Hygiene/ Accommodation	.346155	.051981	.313429	1.000	1.000	6.659	.0000	0.098		
Service Quality	.330115	.051981	.298905	1.000	1.000	6.351	.0000	0.089		
Food Quality	.325312	.051981	.294556	1.000	1.000	6.258	.0000	0.086		
Convenience	.307558	.051981	.278480	1.000	1.000	5.917	.0000	0.077		
Beach/Environment	.177183	.051981	.160432	1.000	1.000	3.409	.0008	0.025		
Tourist Facilities	.145494	.051981	.131738	1.000	1.000	2.799	.0056	0.017		
Price/Value	.124049	.051981	.112321	1.000	1.000	2.386	.0179	0.012		
Water Sports	.112267	.051981	.101653	1.000	1.000	2.160	.0319	0.010		
Quietness	.112015	.051981	.101424	1.000	1.000	2.155	.0323	0.010		
(Constant)	6.0000	.051865				115.685	.0000			

Durbin-Watson: 1.89187

The results of regression analysis showed that each coefficient carried positive signs, as expected. This indicated that there was a positive relationship between those variables and the dependent variable (overall holiday satisfaction). It also suggested that the overall holiday satisfaction of a tourist depended largely on these factors. They were, therefore, the determinant factors or the best predictors of overall holiday satisfaction. It could be concluded that the overall holiday satisfaction increases when there is an increase in these dimensions.

The relative importance of dimensions was first examined by comparing the magnitude of regression coefficients (partial correlation coefficient β). The first dimension with the greatest effect on overall satisfaction was Hospitality (β= 0.35, Prob. < 0.0000) followed by Hygiene/ Accommodation (β= 0. 34, Prob.< 0.0000), Service quality (β= 0.33, Prob.< 0.0000), Food quality (β= 0.32, Prob.< 0.0000) and Convenience (β= 0.30, Prob. < 0.0000). Secondly, the magnitude of each of the independent variables' t-statistics was used as an indicator of relative importance as some authors, such as Bring (1994), argue that the beta coefficients may not give a very reliable measure of the relative importance of regression independent variables. An examination of the t-values revealed an identical descending order of factors contributing to overall holiday satisfaction.

Given the relative factor weights ($Beta^2$), it could be said that Hospitality dimension ($Beta^2$= 0.10) was almost six times as powerful in determining satisfaction as the Beach/Environment in the area ($Beta^2$ = 0.016). The hospitality dimension was almost eight times as powerful as Price/value of services ($Beta^2 = 0.012$) in influencing satisfaction. In addition, Food Quality ($Beta^2 = 0.086$) has almost seven times as much impact on determining satisfaction as Price/value of services ($Beta^2 = 0.012$). Further, the results predicted that, the probability of a tourist's overall holiday satisfaction changes by 2.28 (0.34 + 0.34 + 0.33+ 0.32 + 0.30 + 0.17 + 0.14 + 0.12 + 0.11 + 0.11) for each unit change in the ten variables. The units refer to one unit on the seven-point scale. It can be argued that an increase in these variables results in an increase in overall satisfaction.

Consistent with the suggestions of Hair *et al* (1995), the assumptions of linearity, independence of residuals, and normality underlying regression analysis, and the influential data points (outliers) were examined by student residuals, standardised residuals, and Leverage and Cook Distance tests. There was no violation of the assumptions. It has been noted that one of the most important assumptions of multiple regression is the assumption that the variables are independent. Multi-collinearity occurs when a single predictor variable is highly correlated with a set of other predictor variables (Hair *et al* 1995). It was therefore important to examine the data for multi-collinearity in order to understand whether the factors are closely related and affect each other. Multi-collinearity is usually regarded as a problem because it means that the regression coefficients may be unstable (Bryman and Cramer 1992). A common method for examining the regression equation for multi-collinearity is to calculate the Variance Inflatory Factor (VIF). The values of VIF and tolerance for each variable, and the tests of the extent of multi-collinearity and collinearity, indicated that there was no multi-collinearity in the model (Table 22). No VIF value exceeded 10.0, and the values of tolerance showed that in no case did collinearity explain more than 10% of the any predictor variable's variance (Table 22). The Durbin-Watson value was 1.829 indicating that there was no residual correlation in the model. Consistent with the suggestion of Hair *et al* (1995), the results were validated by dividing the sample into two sub-samples to estimate the regression model for each sub-sample, and comparing the results (ibid.). Comparing overall model fit demonstrated that there was a high level of similarity between the results in terms of R^2 (overall = 0.53; split-sample 1= 0.51; split-sample 2= 0.55), the standard error (overall = 0.77; split-sample 1= 0.74; split-sample 2= 0.85), and individual coefficients (Probs. < 0.05).

8.2.2.3.1 Effect of Foodservice on Behavioural Intentions

In order to understand the factors that contribute most to likeliness to return and to recommend, the respondents' ratings on return and recommendation were regressed on their factor scores. It would be comforting to find a similar set of attributes coming out as being important as in the previous regression (Table 22), otherwise it would be difficult to decide how best to proceed with any performance improvement programme (Danaher and Haddrell 1996). The results of the regression analysis are presented in Tables 23-24.

The results in Table 23 indicate that the most significant factor affecting tourists' return intention was food quality (6.373, .0000), followed by hospitality, service quality, hygiene and accommodation, quietness, beach and environment, convenience and tourist facilities. An examination of Beta^2 scores suggests that food quality (Beta^2 = 0.127) was almost eight times as powerful as tourist facilities in the area (Beta^2 = 0.016) in determining repeat visit. The food quality factor has almost four times as much impact on return intentions as the quality of beach and the surrounding area environment (Beta^2 = 0.033).

Table 23. Determinants of Return Intention

Factors	B	SE B	Beta	Tolerance	VIF	T	Sig T	Beta^2	R^2	F
Food Quality	.409896	.064319	.357157	.992072	1.008	6.373	.0000	0.127	**.3861**	**15.49**
Hospitality	.396186	.069593	.320294	.984362	1.016	5.693	.0000	0.099		
Service quality	.311072	.073919	.236822	.983915	1.016	4.208	.0000	0.056		
Hygiene/ Accommodation	.248715	.065261	.213687	.991129	1.009	3.811	.0002	0.045		
Quietness	.239281	.065184	.205211	.997069	1.003	3.671	.0003	0.042		
Beach/ Environment	.212029	.065404	.181790	.990913	1.009	3.242	.0014	0.033		
Convenience	.182040	.067017	.152314	.990993	1.009	2.716	.0072	0.023		
Tourist Facilities	.152246	.065717	.129963	.990136	1.010	2.317	.0215	0.016		
(Constant)	5.670675	.064645				87.721	.0000			

Durbin-Watson: 2.15097

The results in Table 24 suggest that the factor with the greatest impact on word of mouth recommendation was the hospitality (5.501, p< .000) followed by food quality, service quality, beach and environment, hygiene and accommodation, and convenience. A close examination of the Beta^2 scores reveal that hospitality (Beta^2 = 0.088) was almost two times as powerful as quality of the beach and environment in the area ($Beta^2 = 0.046$) in influencing people to recommend the destination to others. In addition, the $Beta^2$ scores suggest that food quality ($Beta^2 = 0.086$) has almost two times as much impact on tourist word-of-mouth recommendations as the area's quality of the beach/environment.

Table 24. Determinants of word-of-mouth recommendation

Factors	B	SE B	Beta	Tolerance	VIF	T	Sig T	$Beta^2$	R^2	F
Hospitality	.302418	.059878	.297245	.983804	1.016	5.051	.0000	0.088	**.3252**	**15.90**
Food Quality	.288383	.057576	.293552	.992071	1.008	5.009	.0000	0.086		
Service Quality	.301511	.067141	.266037	.970980	1.030	4.491	.0000	0.070		
Beach/ Environment	.215869	.058736	.216363	.983233	1.017	3.675	.0003	0.046		
Hygiene/ Accommodation	.191991	.058309	.192515	.996841	1.003	3.293	.0012	0.037		
Convenience	.186764	.057573	.190602	.987062	1.013	3.244	.0014	0.036		
(Constant)	6.014707	.056667				106.141	.0000			

Durbin-Watson: 2.11527

The results predicted further that the probability of a tourist's likeliness to return and likeliness to recommend changes by 2.11 and 1.48 respectively for each unit change in the variables. The units refer to one unit on the seven-point scale. It can be argued that an increase in these variables results in an increase in likelihood to return and likelihood to recommend the holiday experience to others.

8.2.2.4 Sources of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

In this section, a Multiple Regression analysis was employed in order to examine whether sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction are different. The respondents who indicated slight and extreme dissatisfaction formed the dissatisfied group (N: 34), and the respondents who indicated slight and extreme satisfaction formed the satisfied group (N: 307). The dissatisfied groups' scores on the overall satisfaction scale were regressed on their factor scores in order to identify holiday components leading to dissatisfaction (Table 25). By the same token, satisfied respondents scores on the overall satisfaction scale were regressed on their factor scores in order to identify the factors leading to satisfaction within this group.

Table 25. Sources of Dissatisfaction

Variables	B	SE B	Beta	Tolerance	VIF	T	Sig T	R^2	F
Communication	-.461907	.119642	-.656988	.651110	1.536	-3.861	.0020	**.754**	**5.719**
Airport Services	-.409582	.119076	-.730942	.417538	2.395	-3.440	.0044		F< .003
Food Quality	-.289669	.149147	-.468848	.323550	3.091	-1.942	.0741		
Service Quality	-.312324	.106697	-.683392	.345935	2.891	-2.927	.0118		
Hospitality	.218174	.087695	.385339	.785968	1.272	2.488	.0272		
Facilities	.462548	.128357	.627265	.622298	1.607	3.604	.0032		
Price-value	-.272364	.118011	-.463488	.467522	2.139	-2.308	.0381		
(Constant)	3.290210	.201493				16.329	.0000		

Durbin-Watson: 1.68057

An examination of the Table 25 reveals that poor performance on communications, airport services, food quality, service quality, hospitality, facilities and price and value represent the main causes of dissatisfaction. On the other hand, the results displayed in Table 26 demonstrate that the sources of satisfaction are slightly different from sources of dissatisfaction, including convenience, water sports, food quality, service quality, accommodation, hospitality, beach and environment, and entertainment.

Table 26. Sources of Satisfaction

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	Tolerance	VIF	T	Sig T	R^2	F
Convenience	.232200	.044252	.299265	.983446	1.017	5.247	.0000	**.379**	**14.82**
Water sports	.076760	.041420	.104957	.997305	1.003	1.853	.0654		
Food quality	.220608	.044313	.283757	.984693	1.016	4.978	.0000		
Service quality	.212157	.050027	.245695	.953049	1.049	4.241	.0000		
Accommodation	.237109	.046222	.291664	.989568	1.011	5.130	.0000		
Hospitality	.213360	.045892	.267168	.968671	1.032	4.649	.0000		
Beach-environment	.128341	.044814	.165872	.953601	1.049	2.864	.0046		
Entertainment	.107633	.043476	.141547	.978608	1.022	2.476	.0142		
(Constant)	6.182507	.042935				143.996	.0000		

Durbin-Watson:1.95588

8.2.2.5 First-time and Repeat Visitors' Perceptions of Destination Services

In order to explore whether first-time and repeat visitors differ in their perception of destination service attributes, a series of t-test analysis were conducted on these groups' item mean ratings. The results indicated that these two groups perceived the performances of some areas differently. Twenty four items showed perceptual significant differences between the two groups (Table 27). For instance, repeat visitors perceived the food quality to be better than did first time visitors (t = -2.74, p<.01). First-time visitors rated service quality dimension lower than did repeat visitors (t= -2.05, p<.05). Repeat visitors rated accommodation more highly than did first time visitors (t = -2.17, p<.05). Hospitality dimension was perceived to be higher by the repeat visitor group than did first time visitor group (t = -2.70, p<.01) (see Table 27).

Additional t-test analysis was undertaken to understand whether there was any statistically significant difference between the ratings of first time and repeat visitors on overall satisfaction and repurchase intentions (Table 27). The results showed significant differences between the ratings; repeat visitors found their holiday more satisfactory than did first time visitors (t= -2.04, p<.05). The results also indicated that repeat visitors indicated higher return intention than did first time visitors (t= -4.12, p<.01). A chi square analysis was undertaken, in order to understand whether this difference stemmed from any potential difference between sample demographics and other holiday related elements such as length of holiday, accommodation type, resort area. Results showed no statistical difference between repeat and first time visitors on these variables (p>.05).

Table 27. Comparison of Item Mean Scores of First-time and Repeat Visitors

Factor Name	First-time Visitors	Repeat Visitors	t value
Factor1: Food Quality	5.35	5.74	-2.74**
Tastiness of food served in the area	5.63	5.88	-1.50
Quality of food and beverage	5.43	5.83	-2.27*
Temperature of food served	5.21	5.78	-2.81**
Portions of food	5.17	5.69	-3.0**
Presentation of dishes	5.51	5.71	-1.16
Hygienic food preparation	5.07	5.50	-2.36*
Variety of menu	5.42	5.61	-.89
Availability of dishes liked	5.34	5.86	-2.65**
Availability of traditional food	5.39	5.73	-.1.70
Factor 2: Service Quality	5.69	5.97	-2.05*
Efficiency of check-in and check-out at the accommodation	5.96	6.37	-2.69**
Friendliness of service at my accommodation	6.06	6.11	-.34
Efficiency of service at accommodation	5.59	5.71	-1.03
Responsiveness of staff to request	5.57	5.88	-1.61
Responsiveness of staff to complaint	5.35	5.86	-2.28*
Competency of staff	5.82	6.06	-1.48
Factor 3: Accommodation/Hygiene	5.27	5.59	-2.17*
Cleanliness of the accommodation	5.80	6.0	-1.14
Cleanliness of restaurant at accommodation	6.02	6.28	-1.97*
Cleanliness of the room	5.32	5.74	-2.23*
The physical condition of accommodation	5.32	5.65	-1.75
Quality of facilities offered at accommodation	5.03	5.17	-.73
Comfort of the room	5.15	5.54	-1.98*
Adequacy of water and electricity supply	4.99	5.44	-2.07*

Factor Name	First-time Visitors	Repeat Visitors	t value
Factor 4: Hospitality	5.81	6.16	-2.70**
Courtesy of residents	5.73	6.22	-2.83**
Courtesy of employees	5.74	6.01	-1.53
Willingness of employees to help	5.91	6.01	-.63
Willingness of residents to help	5.53	5.91	-2.28*
Friendliness of people	5.90	6. 38	-2.94**
Feeling safe in the area	6.09	6.44	-2.43**
Factor 5: Tourist facility services	5.46	5.73	-2.17*
Efficiency of services at tourist facilities	5.27	5.74	-2.97**
Courtesy of services at tourist facilities	5.69	5.93	-1.59
Waiting time for service at tourist facilities	4.99	5.46	-2.47**
Quality of services at tourist facilities	5.26	5.68	-2.68**
Convenience operating hours at tourist facilities	5.92	5.91	.11
Accuracy of bill and tariffs at tourist facilities	5.57	5.78	-1.19
Factor 6: Beach and environment	4.80	5.14	-2.23*
Cleanliness of the beach and sea in the area	5.01	5.33	-1.45
Availability of facilities at the beach	5.10	5.34	-1.14
Crowd level in the area	3.90	4.36	-2.00*
The natural environment in the area	4.58	4.94	--1.65
Comfort of sunbathing on the beach	5.48	5.69	-1.01
Factor 7: Price and value	5.31	5.40	-.49
Prices of food and drink	5.06	5.18	-.55
Value of the food services for price	5.57	5.62	-.25
Value of goods and services for the price charges	5.69	5.85	-1.00
Factor 8: Entertainment	5.66	5.87	-1.66
Quality and availability of entertainment	4.95	5.36	-2.01*
Availability of tours and cruises	6.10	6.15	-.30
Quality and availability of restaurants	5.87	6.11	-1.45
Factor 9: Quietness	4.36	4.95	-3.11**
Noise level at restaurant/bars of accommodation	4.30	4.80	-2.41**
Noise level at accommodation	4.42	5.10	-3.15**
Factor 10: Convenience	6.0	6.19	-1.60
Location of the restaurant/bars	6.04	6.41	-2.45**
Location of the accommodation	5.75	5.99	-1.39
Operating hours of the restaurant/bars	6.24	6.27	-.18
Factor 11: Communication	5.28	5.19	.5
Ease of communication in your language with locals	5.27	5.16	.54
Communication in your language with the staff	5.29	5.26	.15
Factor 12. Safety	6.05	6.27	-1.74
Safety at hotel	6.33	6.56	-1.80
Security of room	5.77	5.98	-1.25
Factor 13: Water sports			
Availability of water sports	5.86	5.58	1.44
Factor 14: Transportation			
Efficiency of public transport	6.02	6.20	-1.00

Factor Name	First-time Visitors	Repeat Visitors	t value
Factor 15: Airport Services			.
Efficiency of check-in and check-out at the Airport	5.26	5.18	.34
Factor 16: Weather			
The weather conditions in the area	6.90	6.82	1.49

Entries are mean values
*p<. 05.
**p<.01.

8.2.2.5.1 Determinants of First-time and Repeat Visitors Satisfaction

In order to explore which of the factors have a significant effect on tourist satisfaction, the repeat and first-time visitor groups' ratings on overall satisfaction were regressed against their factor scores. The regression equation characteristics of overall holiday satisfaction for first-time visitors, indicated an R^2 of 0.51, suggesting that 51% of the variation could be explained by this equation (Table 28). The F-ratio of 19.862 was significant ($p< .01$).

The relative importance of dimensions was examined by comparing the magnitude of regression coefficients. The first dimension with the greatest effect on first-time visitors overall satisfaction was service quality (Beta = .373) followed by accommodation (Beta = .337), convenience (Beta = .310), hospitality (Beta = .274), food quality (Beta = .245), transportation (Beta= .132) and price and value (Beta = .110). Given the relative factor weights ($Beta^2$), it could be said that service quality dimension ($Beta^2 = 0.139$) was almost eleven times as powerful in determining satisfaction of first-time visitors as the price and value dimension ($Beta^2 = 0.012$). The service quality dimension was almost eight times as powerful as transportation ($Beta^2 = 0.017$) in influencing satisfaction of first-time visitors. In addition, service quality dimension was twice as influential in first-time visitors satisfaction judgements than hospitality ($Beta^2 = .075$). Accommodation dimension had almost nine times as much impact on determining satisfaction of first-time visitors as price and value of services did ($Beta^2 = 0.012$).

Table 28. Impact of Holiday Dimensions on Satisfaction of First-time and Repeat Visitors

		Beta	t	F	R^2
	Service Quality	.373	6.539	19.862	.51
	Accommodation	.337	5.902		
	Convenience	.310	5.426		
First Time Visitors	Hospitality	.274	4.788		
	Food Quality	.245	4.263		
	Beach and Environment	.223	3.858		
	Transportation	.132	2.299		
	Price and Value	.110	1.915		
	Constant		108.025		
	Hospitality	.444	6.010	18.775	.75
	Accommodation	.414	5.733		
	Service Quality	.334	4.552		
Repeat Visitors	Food Quality	.324	4.302		
	Transportation	.269	3.636		
	Tourist Facility Services	.209	2.808		
	Convenience	.156	2.082		
	Quietness	.150	1.956		
	Constant		64.687		

A subsequent regression analysis was run to explore the relative importance of holiday dimensions on repeat visitors holiday satisfaction (Table 28). The results of the regression analysis yielded that 75 percent of the variance in repeat visitors' satisfaction was explained by this equation. The F ratio was 18.775. The results demonstrated that the set of dimensions affecting repeat visitors satisfaction was somewhat different from that of first time visitors. The dimensions affecting repeat visitors' satisfaction were hospitality, accommodation, service quality, food quality, transportation, tourist facility services, convenience, and quietness. An examination of $Beta^2$ values suggested that hospitality dimension ($Beta^2$= .197) was almost nine times more influential in affecting repeat visitors' satisfaction than the quietness dimension ($Beta^2$= .022).

8.2.2.5.2 Determinants of First-time and Repeat Visitors Repurchase Intentions

Subsequent multiple regression analyses were employed to ascertain how repeat and first-time visitors developed their intention to return to the destination. In this case, each groups' (first-time and repeat visitors) ratings on their willingness to return were regressed against their factor scores. Table 29 contains the results of the regression analyses. As can be seen, the set of dimensions affecting first time and repeat visitors' return intentions to the destination, was not identical. For first time visitors, food quality, service quality, hospitality, beach and environment, convenience, tourist facility, water sports, safety, and accommodation appeared to be significant predictors of return intentions (p<. 01). A comparison of regression coefficients indicated that food quality was a stronger predictor of first-time visitors return intentions than was service quality (Table 29). Service performances by these nine dimensions could account for 39 percent of variance in first-time visitors' willingness to return.

Table 29. Impact of Holiday Dimensions on Return Intentions of First-Time and Repeat Visitors

		Beta	t	F	R^2
	Food Quality	.376	5.754	10.426	.39
	Service Quality	.271	4.092		
	Hospitality	.254	3.888		
First Time Visitors	Beach Environment	.205	3.139		
	Convenience	.185	2.829		
	Tourist Facility	.165	2.511		
	Water Sports	.154	2.335		
	Safety	.151	2.302		
	Accommodation	.139	2.112		
	Constant		70.520		
	Hospitality	.437	4.143	8.274	.44
	Accommodation	.313	2.983		
	Quietness	.252	2.330		
Repeat Visitors	Safety	.227	2.120		
	Food Quality	.218	2.047		
	Constant		45.937		

Performances of hospitality, accommodation, quietness, safety, and food quality were statistically significant in explaining repeat visitors' return intentions (F= 8.274). Beach and environment, water sports, convenience, service quality and tourist facility services were not important in determining repeat visitors' return intentions when they were compared with the performances of other dimensions in the same model. Based on the size of the coefficients, it was found that the hospitality dimension contributed more than safety, quietness, accommodation, and food quality dimension in explaining repeat visitors' willingness to return to the destination. Combined, these five units could account for at least 44 percent of the repeat visitors' return intentions.

8.2.2.6 Association between Foodservice and Holiday Satisfaction

The impact of satisfaction with food and beverage on total holiday satisfaction and behavioural intentions, was assessed empirically by examining the association between the respondents' score on satisfaction with food and beverage and their scores on overall holiday satisfaction and other dependent variables (see Table 30). The respondents scores on an 7-point overall food service satisfaction scale were broken down into three groups; satisfied, neither nor, and dissatisfied. Then each group's scores on holiday satisfaction, return intentions, and recommendation were examined in order to understand whether there exists a linkage between satisfaction with the food service experience and overall holiday satisfaction, return intentions, and positive word-of-mouth recommendations.

Table 30. Link between Foodservice, Holiday Satisfaction, and Behavioural Intentions

	Dissatisfied	Neither /nor	Satisfied	F Value	F Prob
Overall Satisfaction	4.83 (36)*	5.26 (26)	6.22 (279)	**36.592**	(.000)
Return Intention	4.39 (33)	4.80 (26)	5.76 (273)	**21.799**	(.000)
Recommendation	4.57 (33)	5.19 (26)	6.12 (272)	**32.485**	(.000)

* The number of respondents in each category

The results of the one-way Anova tests revealed that those respondents who were dissatisfied with food and beverage rated significantly lower scores ($p<0.05$) on the overall holiday satisfaction scale (mean = 4.83), while those respondents who were satisfied with the food and beverage services, rated significantly higher scores ($p<0.05$) on the overall holiday satisfaction scale (mean = 6.22). A similar trend was found with respect to the likelihood to return and the intention to recommend the holiday to others. Those respondents who were dissatisfied with food and beverage rated significantly lower scores on the scales assessing their return intentions and intentions to recommend (mean = 4.39 and 4.57 respectively). Respondents who indicated satisfaction with the food and beverages rated significantly higher scores on return intention and recommendation scales (mean = 5.76 and 6.12 respectively).

8.2.2.7 The Content Analysis

In addition to the regression analyses, respondents' written comments at the end of the questionnaires were subjected to a content analysis. Although written complaints and compliments are not likely to be representative of the customer's complete experience with service, compliments and complaints do highlight specific dimensions of the service experience which customers really care about and therefore, these attributes are salient in the post-use evaluation process (Cadotte and Turgeon 1988; Johnston and Silvestro 1995). The content analysis of the respondents' free responses, involved a number of interconnected stages ranging from sifting to coding and sorting (Table 29-30). In order to identify the range of factors that led to compliments and complaints, the respondents answers obtained in the final section of the questionnaires, were first transcribed, coded, and then grouped (Table 31-32).

By conducting a content analysis on the positive comments of the respondents, 15 attributes leading to compliments, were identified (Table 31). The positive comments, which highlighted the friendliness, politeness and helpfulness of the local people, were grouped under Hospitality. By the same token, the positive comments concerning the taste of the food served in the area, menu variety, the availability of quality food and beverage were merged to form the Food Quality factor. Similarly, the positive comments regarding the cheapness and fairness of the prices charged for the services and goods in the area, and price consistency, were combined to make up the Prices factor. The positive comments about the location of the lodging facility, tidiness, quietness and cleanliness of the lodging facility were combined to form the Accommodation factor. The positive comments about the scenery and natural environment, for example fascinating and breathtaking view, unspoilt natural environment, formed the Scenery factor. The respondents also commented that the holiday was good value for money and that the atmosphere was relaxing. A number of respondents also stated that there was plenty to do and they had a wonderful time with their friends as a result of the quality nightlife available in the area (Entertainment). A number of respondents further complimented on the safety aspect of their holiday. The following table provides examples of the positive comments and their groupings.

Table 31. Examples of the Compliments

Climate

The climate was very hot and sunny. As we are from UK, where the weather cold and dull, we enjoyed two weeks of sunshine.

The climate combined with the culture and accommodation resulted in a pleasurable holiday.

In other European countries the weather is often unpredictable. You always like the guarantee of sunshine.

Food Quality

Good selection of vegetarian food in most of the restaurants which is very different from my experience in many other countries. Good choice of food and drink at reasonable prices which made a change from other countries as you got better value for money. The food and atmosphere in restaurants were brilliant.

Hospitality

Everyone did their best to fulfil your needs and make sure you are having a good time. To make you feel welcome in a country, which is new to you, not making you feel uncomfortable. Helping you to understand their cultures as you would want them to understand yours.

The Turkish people made it so easy to communicate with them. I also found that some of the shopkeepers helped me to get better prices from their competitors. I did some of the excursions and I found the jeep safari was an excellent way of seeing some this country's history. We also saw a lot of green islands on the boat trip. The Turkish people are very good with children and this made me feel at ease, I did not have to watch their every move.

The friendly waiters, cleaners bar owners always have a word to say, and ask how you are. Also they are very helpful and are always happy to please.

I liked this holiday. The people always spoke to you as much as they could in English. The food was always good and at a good price. The apartment was the biggest we have stayed in yet. It was also kept very clean with maid service everyday. There was always plenty of things to do and plenty of trips to choose from.

The people were so friendly, polite and helpful and always cheerful.

I found the Turkish people very friendly and they could not do enough for you. The Turkish people were very trustworthy therefore you feel safe whilst on holiday.

Price- Value for Money

The clothes were very cheap (affordable) and there were lots of nice shops to browse around which was good.

A meal for two is approximately £10 and is very filling and tasty, very good value for money. Everyone likes to feel they are getting a bargain and also quality, albeit food or goods were exceptional for money.

We found the cost of living very cheap. This was excellent as we are a family of five on a budget.

Scenery- Environment

Breathtaking scenery views, very green when you consider the temperature. Surprisingly clean, with the temperature being very hot, things easily begin to look dirty, smelly, but the shop sellers and restaurateurs are always cleaning their premises.

On the scenery side, you have your beaches which are enclosed on all sides by the mountains. If you venture from the beach into the mountains you are greeted by another chance of scenery of surpassingly green valleys, which you would not expect from such a dry country. Small villages where the local people make you most welcome. On tradition and culture, I think that is most important for developing countries to keep hold of these. For if all countries loose their traditions and cultures there would be no point in travelling away from your own country for a holiday. As I think this is an important part for your reason of going away.

Atmosphere

The most important feature of a holiday for me is to feel as if I am in a different country but to still have all the comforts of home. It is very easy to relax quickly. Turkish people do not make the life difficult.

I am relaxed and feeling better able to deal with stress and pressure and dog eats dog way of life in the UK.

Safety

Being a female travelling alone can be difficult but in this case I felt very comfortable, safe and not the least threatened.

The respondents' complaints were also transcribed, coded, and then grouped to identify the common factors leading to a disappointing holiday (Table 32). The negative comments relating to the rudeness of the shopkeepers towards tourists, formed the Shopkeepers Attitude factor. The negative comments which concern the poor quality of the food provided and limited food choices, were merged to form the Food Quality factor. By the same token, the negative comments concerning the state of hygiene prevalent in restaurants and in public toilets, were combined to form the Hygiene factor. An examination of the tourists' negative comments also revealed that traffic congestion led to disappointment. The poor service efficiency within the airport had also resulted in a number of complaints. A number of tourists also complained about the commercialisation and inconsistency of prices within resorts. Examples of the complaints made by the respondents are provided in the following Table 32. The content analysis of tourists' negative comments identified 19 attributes, which were derived from the tourists complaints.

Table 32. Examples of the Complaints

Food

The hotel food could have been better, it should be catered more for British tourists because there were more of them than others.

We both had upset stomach vomiting from eating contaminated food. Most of the guests at our hotel were ill .If you want people to come to Turkey food hygiene should be taught to chefs. The people were wonderful, the natural environment, weather are wonderful but being ill ruined our holiday.

I found the quality and variety of food to be disappointing even though I was very careful with what I ate, I unfortunately still managed to become ill.

Hygiene

I have stayed in the same hotel in Marmaris 8 times and though its facilities have improved the service has declined. I was constantly having to ask for clean linen, bins to be emptied and the room cleaned.

The cleaning in our apartment was not very good, our toilet was not cleaned once in two weeks. Lights were turned off at one hotel bar at 12 o'clock you either went somewhere else or go to bed. The Turkish men were too sleazy and hassled us non-stop. The beach was not that nice, but there is not much you can do about that. There was no air conditioning.

The hotel was appalling. Hygiene causes great problems when you are on holiday.

Mainly the hotel hygiene which caused nine days of my families holiday to be ruined and also not suitable for disabled people. When walking round markets and shops not being able to looking properly without blocks chatting you up pinching your bum or trying to force you to buy something.

Beaches

It was a shame to see some beaches strewn with litter. It really spoilt the surrounding beauty

Airport Services

All round very satisfied with resort, accommodation local people, things to do, places to go. Company people we met helped improve the holiday more. The only downside was the airport staff, useless, no information desk for emergencies, delays. But would come back, cheers.

Over development

It was the first inclusive holiday, although we did eat out few times I felt that we missed much of the local atmosphere in taking this type of holiday. The amount of new unfinished development spreading along the coast is unsightly and I wonder how local facilities/infrastructure will be able to cope in a few years time.

Entertainment

There could have been more entertainment for the children and family, there were only bars and eating-places no live entertainment.

Safety

Too many drivers on the roads in cars, buses and motor bikes. Some restaurants are expensive. You have to look around to get a better deal. Roads, paths, not very safe, uneven. Imported goods expensive in supermarkets.

Staying at the Montana Pine Resort was a luxury experience everything was perfect although if I came back, again it would have to be in a quality hotel with the same standards. My only real complaint about this holiday was treacherous drive to & from the airport .I have a phobia flying but I found the transfer journey both ways to be hell. If I was to come back I would have to hire my own car bring that holiday expense right up. Alternatively this country should have strict speed limits then may be fewer tourists would die each year!! 2700 people (both Turkish, European) died to date this year!! How many more must die so tragically? Something must be done. There should be speed limit on street than runs through Marmaris.

Attitudes of Shopkeepers

Some of the local male businessmen did a lot more than try to sell their merchandise. We had more than a few experiences of males being extremely abusive towards making very lurid suggestions, using bad language so bad I cannot repeat (believe me I am no prude) and on one occasion my holiday mate was physically attacked and threatened by a local tour rep when we made a slight complaint about the horrific service we were receiving. We were warned against these companies but like the most have to give them a try because of the low prices they are forced into offering as a result of fierce competition- do not be fooled by so called good value. We would not use such a company again which is a great shame for the local people for them tourism is their livelihood- as not all are bad as we found out on another excursion with a very good local company.

We do realise that the way people act are socialised in vastly different from country to country and were well aware of the position of men and women in Turkey. Could it be that this is rapidly changing, hopefully to the good. However we also realised that we were subject to this disgusting treatment purely because in such a tourist resort like all the others.

Local people are only interested in your money- so it is a shame when you cannot trust anyone and may easily mistake a genuinely helpful/friendly people. In the mountain villages we visited, the men, women, and children were very friendly, really. I feel this was real Turkey, or should I say preferred Turkey and again it is shame that a lot of tourists may not get to see this side of Turkey (and perhaps do not want to) and may then have a one sided view of the country.

I found that the local residents on holiday on our resort were extremely impolite to tourists and refused to queue like the rest of us. The staff at our resort were excellent only the local residents made you feel like second class citizens. If this what Turkish people are like, we won't be returning.

The taxi drivers are good but as soon as you leave the airport they tend to charge you too much. The odd stretch of beach covered with plastic begs, etc., which is a shame.

Not being on package tour meant we had to find our own transport to our resort which the taxi drivers picked up on straightway and used it to their advantage.

The frequency of the appearance of the compliments and complaints is displayed in Table 33. The following dimensions ranked in the top ten of the compliment list (in order of frequency): hospitality (30%); food quality (11%); weather (10%); prices (8%); accommodation (7%); entertainment (6%); relaxing atmosphere (5%); scenery (5%); interesting places to visit (3%); and safety (2%). The following dimensions ranked in the top ten of the complaint list (in order of frequency): food quality, attitudes of shopkeepers, accommodation, hygiene, noise, traffic conditions, commercialisation, beach conditions, airport services, safety and entertainment (Table 33).

The percentages in the Table 33 simply indicate the relative frequency of the complaints and compliments. The factors with relatively high ratings are regarded as the areas that receive most complaints and compliments (Cadotte and Turgeon 1988). The factors with low ratings are the areas that received few comments. In this study, consistent with Guerier *et al's* (1994) approach, factors having low compliments and high complaints are termed dissatisfiers, while the factors with low compliments and low complaints are termed neutrals. Factors with high compliments and low complaints are named satisfiers, and factors with high compliments and high complaints are labelled criticals.

Table 33. Results of the Content Analysis

COMPLIMENTS	Freq.	Percent	Rank	COMPLAINTS	Freq.	Percent	Rank
Hospitality	83	0.282	1	**Food/Drink Quality**	26	0.174	1
Food/Beverage Quality	32	0.108	2	**Attitudes of shop keepers**	24	0.161	2
Good Weather	29	0.098	3	**Accommodation**	22	0.147	3
Prices	23	0.078	4	**Hygiene**	22	0.147	3
Accommodation	22	0.074	5	**Commercialisation**	10	0.067	4
Entertainment	18	0.061	6	**Noise**	9	0.060	5
Good value for money	16	0.054	7	**Traffic conditions**	7	0.046	6
Scenery	14	0.047	8	**Beach/Sea conditions**	6	0.040	7
Relaxing atmosphere	14	0.047	8	**Safety**	5	0.033	8
Interesting places to visit	11	0.037	9	**Airport services**	4	0.026	9
Safety	8	0.027	10	**Entertainment**	3	0.020	10
Cleanliness of sea/beach	7	0.023	11	Maintenance	2	0.013	11
Shopping	6	0.020	12	Local facilities	2	0.013	11
Helpful staff	5	0.017	13	Communication	2	0.013	11
Quietness	4	0.013	14	Boring	1	0.006	12
Transport Efficiency	2	0.006	16	Crowded	1	0.006	12
				Quietness	1	0.006	12
				Over-development	1	0.006	12
				Swimming pool	1	0.006	12
TOTAL	294			**TOTAL**	149		

8.2.2.8 Performance Relative to Competitors

As was stated earlier, in this competitive tourism environment, the long-term success of a destination is likely to be affected by performances of other destinations. Providing better performances than rival destinations would lead to a more positive tourist attitude toward the destination. In order to test whether the nature of past holiday experiences with similar destinations influences current satisfaction and behavioural intentions, a one-way Anova test was employed (Table 34). The results showed that those respondents who indicated that their present holiday was better than their past holiday, rated significantly higher scores on satisfaction and return intentions (F = 47.24 and 20.89 respectively). Those respondents who stated that their past holiday was better than the present holiday, rated significantly lower scores on these important variables (Table 34). Thus, based on this result, it can be noted that the degree of past holiday performance might become important in determining current holiday satisfaction and willingness to come back to the destination. This suggests that what competition has to offer plays significant role in determining consumer behaviour.

Table 34. Confirmation of Past Experience by Dependent Variables

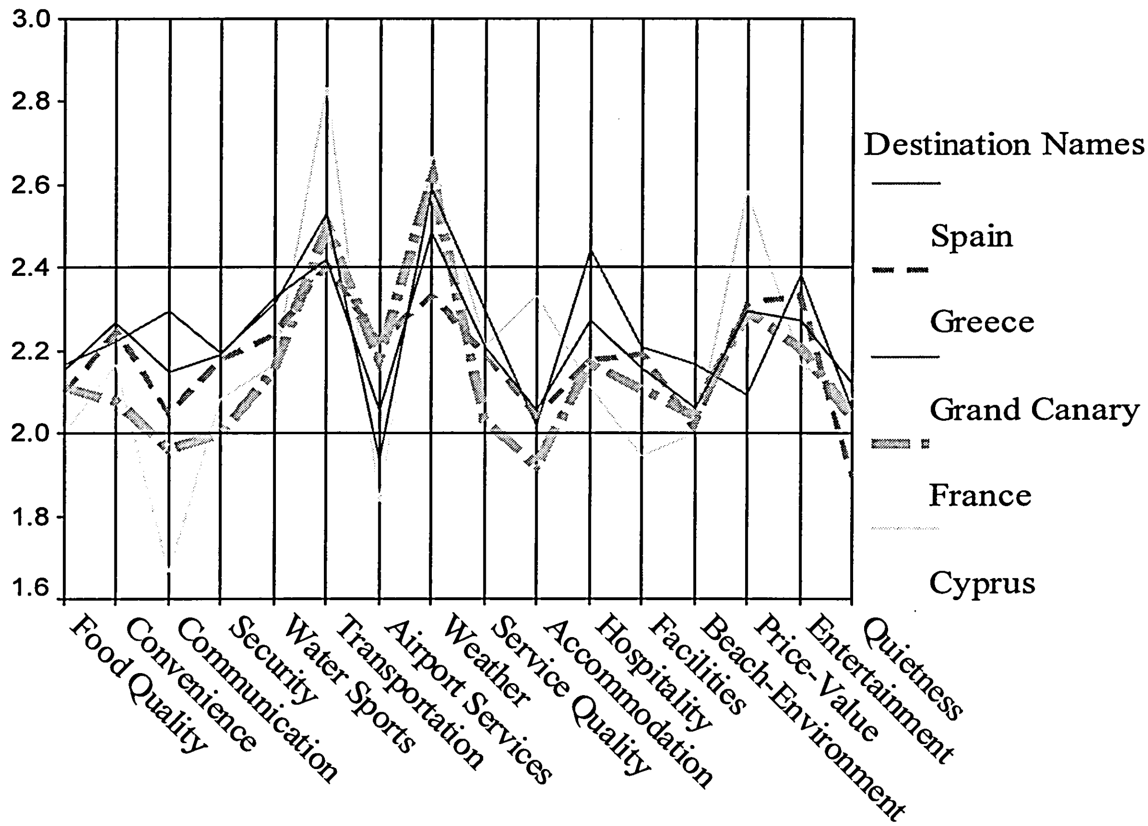
	Better (I) [118]*	Similar (II) [149]	Worse (III) [35]	F Value	Difference
Satisfaction	6.4831	5.3792	4.6286	47.2418	III > II; III > I; II > I
Return Intention	6.0261	5.4658	4.4242	20.8936	III > II; III > I; II > I
Recommendation	6.4643	5.7959	4.7059	33.2769	III > II; III > I; II > I

*Number of respondents

In order to ascertain how tourists perceived the current service-units' performances in comparison to other destinations that they had been to, their ratings on the PEC item scales were assessed. As previously noted, participants rated the performance of 67 attributes on a seven point semantic differential scale, ranging from 1 to 7, and then compared this performance level against their experiences with other destinations on a three-point scale (better/similar/worse, ranging from 1 to 3). Participants were asked to state the name of the previous summer holiday destination that they had visited. A total of 265 respondents completed this part of the questionnaire. The following destination names were stated: Spain (39.6%), Greece (17.5%), Gran Canary (7.1%), France (5.2%), Cyprus (2.6%) and others. An aggregate comparative score was computed for each of the dimension derived from the factor analysis. In this study, the comparison mean scores below 2.00 were considered to indicate that the destination performs lower than the rival destination. The range between 2.00 and 2.4 was considered to indicate that the destination provides a similar level of performance. The comparison mean scores above 2.4 were interpreted as the destination performing better than the rival destination (Figure 10).

As can be seen, there were only a few holiday dimensions where the present tourist destination performed better than some other rival tourist destinations. For instance, compared to Cyprus, a better performance was perceived on price-value and transportation dimensions. Transportation was also perceived to be better by the sample in comparison to Spain, France, Greece, and Gran Canary. The hospitality dimension was perceived to be slightly better in comparison to Gran Canary. The performances of accommodation and airport services were perceived to be lower in comparison to France. The perceived performance of beach and environment, airport services, communication, and facility services dimensions was rated lower in comparison to Cyprus. Quietness was rated slightly lower than Greece. On the remaining units, it appears that the performance was perceived to be similar to other destinations.

Figure 10. Performance Relative to Other Destinations



8.2.3 Discussion

8.2.3.1 Hypothesis 5

H_5 "Holiday satisfaction is multifaceted. It will be affected by a number of holiday components, and that some components will have a greater effect on tourists' overall satisfaction, intention to recommend the destination to others and to return to Turkey".

The results of factor analysis suggest that the holiday experience involves several different components. The satisfaction components that emerged as being important in this study were food quality, service quality, accommodation and hygiene, hospitality, tourist facilities, beach and environment, price and value, entertainment, quietness, convenience, communication, safety, water sports, transportation, airport services and the weather. This suggests that the holiday experience is an amalgam of different services and products, and that tourist satisfaction or dissatisfaction is likely to be accumulated through numerous interactions with each of these components during the holiday. That is, satisfaction with the individual elements that compose the holiday experience, adds up to overall holiday satisfaction.

The results of the multiple regression analysis suggest that ten out of the 16 dimensions have a significant and different influence on the formation of overall satisfaction with the entire holiday. The variety of identified holiday dimensions that influence satisfaction means that, destination authorities must consider the synergy that exists between these dimensions in order to provide a high quality product and standard of service. This implies that a detailed understanding of the holistic perspective of the holiday experience is essential to manage tourist satisfaction more effectively. This finding provides strong support for the hypothesis that holiday satisfaction is affected individually and differently by a number of holiday components.

8.2.3.2 Hypothesis 6

H_6 "High (low) satisfaction with the food service experience will increase (decrease) overall satisfaction with the holiday, return intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations".

The significant contribution of the foodservice experience to overall holiday satisfaction (see Table 22) suggests that the foodservice experience, holds an influential role in determining overall holiday satisfaction. The influential role of the food service experience on future behavioural intentions is also evident (Tables 23-24). The research revealed a strong positive relationship between satisfaction with foodservice experiences and holiday satisfaction. This provides additional support for the proposition that the food service experience is important to tourist satisfaction. This finding supports the study hypothesis that high satisfaction (dissatisfaction) with food and beverage increases (decreases) the overall satisfaction (dissatisfaction) with the holiday, and the likeliness of repeat visit and word-of-mouth recommendations.

In addition, the findings of the study revealed that the hospitality dimension, consisting of attitudes of local people and service employees toward tourists, holds a central role in delivering a quality and satisfactory holiday experience to tourists and in creating repeat business. The result of the study suggests that the behaviour of service providers such as hoteliers, restaurant employees, and local residents can contribute measurably to the formation of tourist satisfaction. This finding confirms Ohja's (1982) and Pearce's (1982) contentions that tourist satisfaction does not only come from good sights and facilities, but from the behaviour that tourists encounter on their holidays. That is, the positive perception of the human element of service delivery, and in particular the perception of tourist-service providers and tourist-local people encounters, is essential to the formation of tourist satisfaction. It can also be inferred from the results of the multiple regression analyses that positive tourist perceptions, of local people and service providers, may motivate tourists to make return visits, while a negative tourist perception of service providers, may deter tourists from returning. All of this suggests that the expressive performance that corresponds to the psychological level of performance (for example, the hospitality), is a vital ingredient of tourist satisfaction. The emergence of hospitality as a significant factor suggests that comprehensive investigations should be undertaken in order to ascertain the causes of and correlation between tourist dis/satisfaction with hospitality dimension.

8.2.3.3 Hypotheses 7 and 8

H_7 "Sources of satisfaction may be different from sources of dissatisfaction", and

H_8 "The foodservice experience may be a critical factor, which has the potential to induce high levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the entire holiday".

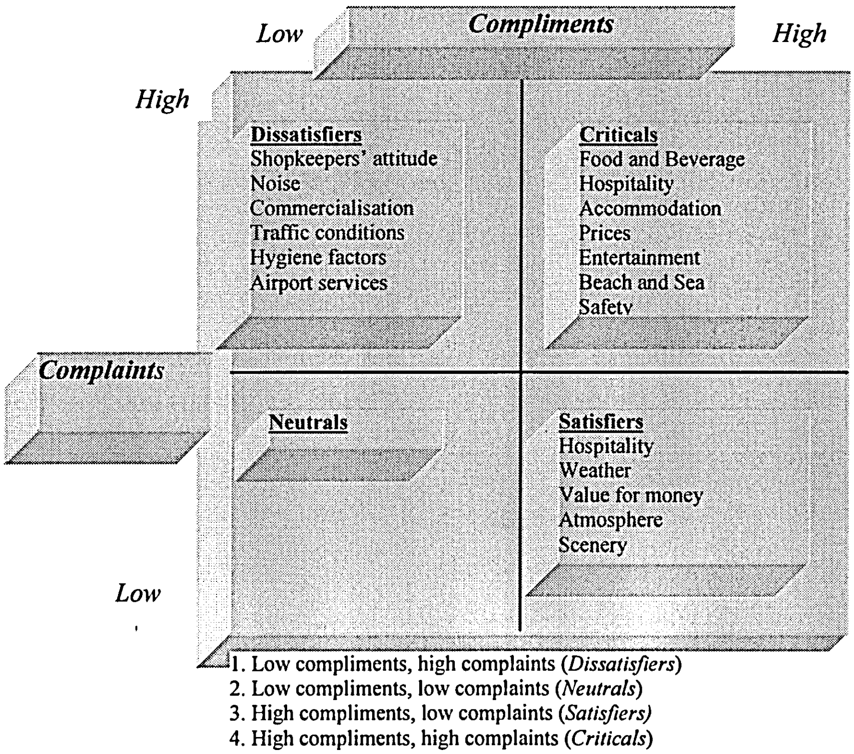
This study proposed that there might be some destination attributes that are salient in their potential to generate satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Consumers tend to judge products on a limited set of attributes, some of which are relatively important in determining satisfaction, while others are not critical to consumer satisfaction but are related to dissatisfaction when their performance is unsatisfactory. Confirmation of this contention was found in Herzberg *et al*'s (1959) early study which indicated that job attributes, whose presence or absence caused satisfaction, were not the same as those that caused dissatisfaction. Building on Herzberg et al's findings, others have also argued that some attributes in a given service experience may lead to dissatisfaction when they are not performed, but they may not result in high satisfaction when they are performed well (Bitner *et al* 1990; Cadotte and Turgeoon 1989; Johnston and Silvestro 1990).

It was essential to identify those destination attributes, which elicit both compliments and complaints, as they have the potential to promote or to undermine a destination's image. In order to examine whether there are any destination attributes, which may have this effect, a content analysis was conducted. A comparative assessment of the results suggests that there are some destination attributes which tourists are more likely to complain about rather than to compliment. Shopkeepers' attitudes toward tourists, noise, over-pricing, traffic conditions, hygiene, and airport services were all sources of complaints, and no tourists complimented these attributes (Figure 11).

Based on Guerrier *et al*'s (1992) classification, these attributes can be named as dissatisfiers as their low performance caused negative feelings or dissatisfaction (Figure 11). On the other hand, tourists highly complimented some dimensions where they do not complain. The findings suggest that the high performance on the following features- hospitality, weather conditions, value for money, relaxing atmosphere, scenery, and interesting places to visit, appears to elicit strong positive feelings/satisfaction leading to complimentary behaviour (satisfiers).

In addition, food quality, prices, accommodation, entertainment, beach and sea conditions and safety appear in both the most frequent complaint and compliment lists, indicating that these factors, are capable of eliciting both positive and negative feelings (criticals). In addition, an investigation of responses revealed that hospitality (in the form of local people and employees' attitude toward tourists) elicited high compliments and no complaints. However, shopkeepers' attitudes toward tourists, which may be seen as part of the overall hospitality of the area, received many complaints. Thus, the hospitality may be included in the critical factor list (Figure 11).

Figure 11. Matrix of compliments and complaints



Based on the results of the content analysis, it could be stated that the food service experience constitutes an integral part of the overall holiday experience. An examination of the content analysis results (Table 33) demonstrates that the foodservice experience has the potential to induce both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. This indicates that the foodservice experience has the capacity to provide tourists with some of the highest and lowest points of their total holiday experience. Based on these findings, it is argued that the foodservice experience may be a *critical factor*, which represents both a threat and an opportunity to destination authorities. An appropriate conclusion would appear to be that, current and future businesses of a destination may be affected positively or negatively due to the nature and the extent of satisfaction with the foodservice experience. This finding confirms the research hypothesis that the food service experience may be a critical factor.

In addition, the results of the content analysis and the regression analysis, of the dissatisfied and satisfied tourists, provide some degree of support for the assumption that there may be differences between the causes of dissatisfaction and satisfaction. Drawing on this evidence, it is appropriate to state that the conventional theory which assumes that satisfaction and dissatisfaction operate as two extremes on one continuum, needs to be revised. The results of the regression analysis and content analysis provide some support that tourist satisfaction can be explained on more than one continuum. The first is for satisfaction (satisfaction versus no-satisfaction), the second is for dissatisfaction (dissatisfaction versus no-dissatisfaction), and the third one is for common factors that can cause both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

8.2.3.4 Hypothesis 9

H_9 "Repeat visitors and first-time visitors will base their return intention judgements on different set of holiday components, and the relative importance of these components will be different between these two groups, and that satisfaction and return intention levels of repeat visitors will be higher than that of the first-time visitors".

The results of the study provide strong support for this hypothesis. The perceived item performance, satisfaction level, and intention to return indicated by repeat and first-time customers, are significantly different; repeat visitors rated a higher perceived performance, higher satisfaction and a stronger willingness to come back. This finding suggests that destination marketers should focus on retaining the repeat visitor market, as they promise more future business than do first time visitors. Destination managers need to offer competitive benefits such as hospitality, quality accommodation, quality food, safety and quietness, to retain the repeat visitor market. In the long term, this strategy should lead to a gradual reduction in marketing expenditures (Oh and Mount 1998).

The results demonstrated that repeat and first-time visitors may develop their satisfaction and return intentions based on different aspects of destination services. It was found that service quality, accommodation, convenience, hospitality, food quality, beach and environment, transportation, and price and value were significant in comparison to other components, in the formation of first time visitors' holiday satisfaction. Whereas, hospitality, accommodation, service quality, food quality, transportation, convenience, and quietness were found to be significant in determining holiday satisfaction of repeat visitors. The beach and environment and price and value did not emerge as important in the formation of repeat visitors' holiday satisfaction. Exclusion of these components does not necessarily mean that they are unimportant to repeat visitors' satisfaction. They are still important in an absolute sense, though they are not relative to the other components in predicting tourists' satisfaction (Oh and Mount 1998).

This study also found that hospitality, accommodation, quietness, safety, and food quality contributed significantly to repeat visitors' return intentions. Interestingly, however, food quality, hospitality, accommodation, safety, service quality, beach and environment, convenience and water sports were significant in predicting first-time visitors' willingness to come back. This difference might stem from how visitors form their first impressions. For instance, service quality, water sports, convenience and beach and environment may be more influential in forming first-time visitors' initial impression. Then tourists' impression with these services get weaker as tourists become more familiar with service quality, water sports, convenience, and beach and environment, from their repeated visits; this could cause an insignificant contribution of these dimensions to explain repeat visitors' return intentions.

These findings prove the usefulness of segment-specific satisfaction investigation and suggest that destination marketers, may need to emphasise different aspects of their destination when they communicate with different target markets. Marketing messages emphasising superior service quality, water sports, convenience and beach and environment may be an effective strategy in developing new markets and, alternatively, emphasising hospitality, accommodation, quietness, safety and food quality, may appeal better to repeat visitors. Both tourists groups consider food quality, accommodation, hospitality and safety, most important to motivating their willingness to come back. These might be considered as essentials of satisfaction and loyalty.

8.2.3.5 Hypothesis 10

H_{10} "Respondents current satisfaction, intention to return or recommend the destination to others will be influenced by the nature of their previous holiday experiences at other destinations"

This study further investigated the usefulness of the incorporation of the relative performance assessment into tourist satisfaction research literature. Though great demand exists for such comparative research between destinations, the focus of past research on the use of the confirmation of the past experience concept, is mainly theoretical. For instance, researchers maintain that consumers who have extensive experience with the product category might use one of the experience-based norms, such as the average performance, favourite or last used product (Spreng and Dixon 1992, Woodruff *et al* 1991, and LaTour and Peat 1980 [the Comparison Level Theory]). On the other hand, those who have little experience may use what others have received, what is promised, or their expectations. According to this school's assumption, the comparison level can be influenced by the perceived capabilities of destinations or brands other than the one purchased and used. For instance, the service performance experienced in a favourite restaurant, may set the comparison standard for appraising the perceived service performance of a dining experience in a new restaurant. This school has maintained that prior experience is probably the most important determinant of consumer satisfaction because personal experience is more vivid and salient.

It is evident from the results of the study that the incorporation of the relative performance of a destination into tourist satisfaction assessments can provide crucial information to managers. It is clear from the results that there may be a link between the extent of past holiday experience and present holiday satisfaction and future behavioural intentions, and thus, destination managers need to know tourist perceptions of rival destinations. Those respondents who stated that their past holiday was better, rated low scores on satisfaction, return intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations (Table 34). This finding supports the research hypothesis that the extent and nature of tourist satisfaction with their previous holiday experience influences their satisfaction. This finding also suggests that destination authorities aiming to generate repeat business, must **(1)** identify significant factors leading to a quality holiday experience, and **(2)** assess the performance of these factors relative to their competitors in order to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the destination. For instance, based on the findings (Figure 10), it can be argued that the holiday dimensions where performance was rated lower than that of competitors (for instance, accommodation, airport services, communication, quietness, facilities, and beach and environment) may represent a threat, as lower performance in these areas may prompt tourists not to return. On the other hand, areas whose performance is rated better than that of competitors (for example, hospitality, entertainment, and transportation) make up the strengths of the destination. Performance in these areas should be maintained. Finally, performance of the holiday dimensions, which were rated similar to other competing destinations, may constitute both threats and opportunities for destination managers. In the long term, remaining competitive might become difficult for those destinations in Turkey, if destination authorities do not strive to improve the performance of these areas so as to create differentiation.

8.2.3.6 Hypothesis 11

H_{11} "The performance alone framework is a reliable and valid framework to study tourist satisfaction".

The results of the correlation and multiple regression analyses provide substantial support for the ability of the performance alone scale in determining tourist satisfaction. This is a consistent finding with that of the preceding part of the research.

8.2.4 Conclusion

There seems to be limited understanding of the nature and extent of the influence of different service components on the assessment of tourist experience, and of the extent to which tourist experiences, with other holiday destinations, influence the evaluation of satisfaction with their current holiday. There is also little or no information readily available relating to which service components are salient in their potential to cause satisfaction or dissatisfaction. It is obvious that development of a framework is needed which may help destination managers identify the service components which are most critical to a destination's success, the components which are the most problematic, areas which have the greatest room for improvement, and the areas which have the greatest potential for differentiating the destination from its competitors. In order to address these considerations, tourists perceptions of destination service attributes were examined in this part of the study.

The study findings confirmed the research hypotheses that the foodservice experience holds a significant role in tourist satisfaction and behavioural intention judgements and represent a critical component, which has the potential to inhibit as well as promote a destination's image. Although the food component of the holiday experience is generally taken for granted during the destination choice stage, based on the study findings, it could be argued that the food aspect might grow in importance once tourists reach their destinations. This is not surprising as during their holidays, tourists often spend a considerable amount of time on breakfast, lunch, and dinner. Foodservice may be regarded as one of the most significant parts of the overall holiday experience, as it presents an opportunity for tourists to get to know the local culture and traditions. Dining out on vacations is an occasion where tourists want to sit down and relax following their full day. This is to say that the potential carry-over effect (the halo effect) of the low quality foodservice experience on overall satisfaction may be stronger and more influential than a negative experience with another element of the holiday (for example, poor view through the room). It can be stated that a satisfactory holiday, rests on the quality of the foodservice experience, as poor foodservice quality can taint all the pleasant memories surrounding the holiday experience.

Contrary to uncontrollable holiday elements (for example, discomfort induced by the presence of others or by the bad weather), the quality of the foodservice experience can be controlled and improved. Improvement of the food service experience, however, rests heavily on the extent of management knowledge about consumer behaviour and satisfaction within restaurants. In order to help increase understanding of what constitutes a quality and satisfactory foodservice experience and how it can be enhanced, a comprehensive investigation was undertaken in the next part of the study.

CHAPTERVIII

Results and Discussions: Part Three

8.3 Introduction

This final part of the research sets out to; (1) ascertain the reliability and validity of performance only models in assessing tourist satisfaction with restaurant services; (2) identify factors which determine tourist satisfaction with restaurant services; (3) examine the extent of individual factor's influence on overall dining satisfaction and behavioural intentions; (4) identify factors that are considered important by tourists when selecting restaurants on holidays; (5) cluster tourists into groups based on their restaurant selection factors; and (6) examine the development of customer satisfaction within each cluster. This research proposes that the performance only scale, is a valid and reliable framework to assess tourist satisfaction, with tourists' foodservice, experiences in restaurants. Secondly, this study argues that segmentation of the total tourist population into distinct groups will provide better market-specific insights, and that sources of dining satisfaction will be different between these segments. Finally, this study proposes that tourists' pre-visit and post-visit judgements, concerning restaurant services, might not be identical.

8.3.1 Research Instrument

The research instrument utilised in this section, was developed to examine tourists' opinions of the prime components of their dining experiences within independent non-fast-food restaurants. Components such as food and beverage quality, the service quality, the restaurant environment, the menu diversity, and the cost of dining were investigated. The research instrument was comprised of over 110 items and grouped into four major areas: general information about the respondent and dining occasion, ratings on 42 attributes of restaurant selection, ratings on 44 attributes of restaurant service performance, and ratings on overall dining satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Respondents were also given ample space to make any further written comments (compliments and complaints). The questionnaire was three pages long (double-sided) and was written in English and German.

The respondents were required to indicate the importance of 42 items when selecting a restaurant, while on holiday, on a 7-point scale (extremely important to not important at all). The respondents were then required to assess the performance of restaurant services on 7-point semantic differential scales. A single satisfaction scale assessed respondents' overall evaluation with regard to their total dining satisfaction. Consistent with previous parts of the research, the Delighted-Terrible scale was employed for measuring tourist satisfaction with the foodservice experience. Similarly, respondents' return intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations were assessed by single overall measures. In addition, in order to assess the predictive power of the performance only model, in determining customer satisfaction against that of the disconfirmation of expectations, disconfirmation of past experience, and disconfirmation of needs, three single 7-point overall disconfirmation scales were included.

The actual survey was carried out with 500 tourists who had dined in independent restaurants departing from an international airport during an 18-day period in May-June 1998. The actual research was run at the airport due to the permission-related difficulties that the researcher encountered in implementing the surveys in restaurants. Given their flight times, 31 tourists refused to participate and 20 returned incomplete questionnaires. Of the respondents, 44 % were male and 54% had eaten out in the restaurant on more than one occasion (Table 35). Of all the restaurants, 51% were situated in Marmaris, 5 % in Fethiye, 1 % in Bodrum, and 43% in other resorts including TurgutReis and Hisaronu.

Given the flight destinations at the time of survey implementation, together with the growing number of British tourists, the majority of respondents were British (64%), followed by Scandinavian (12%), German (11%), and others (including Italian, French, Russian, and Benelux). The accuracy of the sample representation was assessed by comparing the list of departing tourists acquired from the Airport authority with the actual sample profile. This comparison suggests that departing tourists within this period of time were commensurably represented in the sample.

Table 35. Sample Profile

	N		N
Nationality		**Gender**	
German	48	Male	193
British	281	Female	252
Scandinavian	52		
Others	56		
Age		**Length of Holiday**	
under 14	5	Less than a week	2
15-24	42	A week	206
25-34	129	Two weeks	228
35-44	104	More	10
45-52	107		
over 55	54		
Have you been to Turkey?		**Accommodation**	
No	227	Hotel	286
Yes	217	Others	148
Last Restaurant in		**Dining party**	
Marmaris	221	Alone	8
Fethiye	23	Accompanied	424
Bodrum	3		
Other	192		
Purpose		**Been to the restaurant before?**	
Casual Dining	374	Yes	239
Special Occasion	27	No	200
Other	32		
The restaurant type			
High scale	100		
Mid Scale (Budget)	313		

8.3.2 Findings

8.3.2.1 Reliability and Validity Analysis

The restaurant performance scale was first subjected to a reliability analysis to assess the quality of the measurement tool. Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability of the measurement scale (Churchill 1979). The total scale reliability was high (0.94) indicating that the sample of the items performed well in capturing the measured construct (Nunnaly 1967).

Following the reliability test, the construct validity of the restaurant performance scale was assessed. As in the case of the previous data analysis, the Pearson Product

Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression procedures were employed to examine the construct validity of the performance only scale in assessing tourist satisfaction. Individual item scores for perceptions were totalled to obtain an overall score for each respondent. This score was then correlated with respondents scores on a single overall satisfaction, return intentions, recommendations, and value perception measures. By the same token, scores of respondents on the single disconfirmation of expectation (DE), disconfirmation of past experience (DPE), and disconfirmation of needs (DN) are correlated with these four dependent variables (Table 36).

Table 36. Results of the Correlation Analysis

	Performance Alone	DE[1]	DPE[2]	DN[3]
Satisfaction	.7402	.5928	.5104	.6769
Return Intention	.6577	.5835	.5953	.6420
Word-of-Mouth	.6529	.5840	.6076	.6537
Value perception	.6070	.5525	.4397	.5738

1. DE: Disconfirmation of expectations (better/worse than expected).
2. DPE: Disconfirmation of past experience (how good the performance was in comparison to best dining experience).
3. DN: Disconfirmation of needs (to what extent the customer needs were met by the restaurant services).

The convergent validity of the performance scale in determining tourist satisfaction with restaurant services, was supported as the scale correlated relatively high (0.74) with the overall measure of tourist satisfaction. An examination of the correlation results (see Table 36), further demonstrates that the scale has nomological validity as the correspondence between the models and the two behavioural intentions, was as predicted. The Discriminant validity of the scale was also supported as the correlation between the two measures of satisfaction, was higher than the correlation between the scale and other variables. In addition, respondents scores on the overall satisfaction scale was regressed on their perception scores of 44 restaurant service attributes, to examine the extent to which perception scores can explain the variance in this variable. A relatively high score of R^2 (.70) provides additional support for the ability of the performance scale to explain the variance in the overall satisfaction scale.

An examination of the Table 36 also reveals that the correlation between the single disconfirmation of expectations measure (DE) and satisfaction, was weaker (0.59) than that of performance alone (0.74), suggesting that the performance alone scale outperforms the disconfirmation of expectations in predicting overall satisfaction with restaurant services. In addition, an examination of the correlation values between DPE and overall satisfaction reveals that the DPE correlates moderately with the overall satisfaction (0.51), however, this correlation is weaker than that of performance alone. Similarly, an examination of the correlation values between overall satisfaction and the disconfirmation of needs scale (DN), demonstrates that the performance only model outperforms the DN model in predicting customer satisfaction with restaurant services. The results of the reliability and validity tests suggest that the scale used in the research, measured what it intended to measure. This finding provides adequate support for the validity of using the performance only scale to predict tourist-dining satisfaction.

8.3.2.2 Results of Factor Analysis

The Principal Component factor method was used to generate the initial solution. The Eigenvalues suggested that a 10-factor solution explained 64.5% of the overall variance before rotation. The results of one-tailed significance test, of the correlation matrix, indicated that majority of correlations were significant at the 0.01 level. The overall significance of the correlation matrix was 0.0000 with a Bartlett test of Spherity value of 5085.7953. It indicated that the data matrix had sufficient correlation to the factor analysis (Hair *et al* 1995). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin overall measure of sampling adequacy was 0.93, which was marvellous (ibid.) suggesting that the data were appropriate to factor analysis. In sum, the examination of correlation matrix, measures of sampling adequacy (MSA), partial correlation among variables and reliability alpha revealed that the data was appropriate to factor analysis. Varimax rotation was used to produce orthogonal factors to achieve simpler and theoretically meaningful solutions. From the Orthogonal (Varimax) rotated factor matrix, 10 factors were identified, with 37 variables loaded most heavily on them (Table 37).

The analysis produced a clean factor structure. Most variables loaded heavily on one factor, but did not load heavily on others. This reflects the fact that there was minimal overlapping among these factors and all factors were independently structured. The communality of each variable was relatively high ranging from 0.43 to 0.75. This suggests that the variance of the original values was captured fairly well by the 10 factors (ibid.).

Each factor was given a label which was based on the common characteristics of the variables it included (Table 37). The first factor explained 34 percent of the total variance. The variables that composed this factor were service standard, consistent service quality, service courtesy, staff friendliness, staff knowledge of food etc., helpfulness, communication, staff competency, and attentive service. This factor was labelled as Service Quality because the variables composed in this factor relate mainly to the service standard and staff attitude. Product Quality was chosen to identify the second factor, since the variables that loaded highly on this factor were those variables dealing with food quality. The Product Quality factor explained 5.4 percent of the variance and had an Eigenvalue of 2.35. The third factor was labelled as Menu Diversity since the following menu related variables made up this factor; the menu variety, the availability of menu items, the availability of the dishes liked, the availability of local dishes, the availability of the beverages liked, and the healthy food choice. This factor explained 5.1 percent of the total variance and had an Eigenvalue of 2.23. Hygiene was selected to identify the fourth factor since variables dealing with staff cleanliness, the tidiness of restaurant, the restaurant cleanliness, and the appearance of staff consisted of this factor. This factor explained 4 percent of the total variance. The remaining factors were labelled as follows: Convenience and Location, Noise, Service Speed, Value and Price, Facilities, and Atmosphere. The labels selected to identify the remaining factors together with their compositions and explained variance are displayed on Table 37.

A composite reliability of the construct was calculated to measure the internal consistency of each factor (reliability alpha for two factors could not be assessed as these factors were composed of one variable only). The results showed that the reliability coefficients for factors exceeded the recommended level of 0.50 (ranging from 0.64 to 0.90) (Nunnaly 1967). After the rotation, the 10 factors explained 65.4% of variance. It might be concluded that these 10 dimensions were perceived as particularly important by the sample of tourists who dined in non-fast-food restaurants outside their accommodation in Turkey.

Table 37. Reliability and Composition of Restaurant Evaluation Factors

Factor Name	Factor Loadings	Mean	Eigenvalues	Variance (%)	Reliability
Factor 1. Service Quality			**15.06**	**34.2**	**.9063**
Service standards	.54335	5.66			
Consistent service quality	.51983	5.28			
Service courtesy	.62275	6.21			
Friendly restaurant managers/staff	.63951	6.20			
Knowledge of the staff	.66044	5.75			
Willingness to help	.72324	6.20			
Communication with the staff	.60341	5.33			
Competent restaurant staff	.74190	5.92			
Attentive restaurant staff	.78413	5.98			
Factor 2. Product Quality			**2.35**	**5.4**	**.9042**
Food Quality	.73233	5.76			
Food Portions	.62586	5.34			
Food Tastiness	.75729	5.77			
Food Temperature	.67403	5.75			
Food Presentation	.71101	5.99			
Food Preparation Consistency	.71193	5.77			
Non- greasy food	.52362	5.30			
Factor 3. Menu Diversity			**2.23**	**5.1**	**.8088**
Menu variety	.62499	5.27			
Availability of menu items	.69244	5.89			
Availability of dishes liked	.73487	5.90			
Availability of local dishes	.63429	5.67			
Availability of beverages liked	.61575	6.02			
Healthy food choice	.54050	5.34			
Factor 4. Hygiene			**1.77**	**4.0**	**.8136**
Cleanliness of restaurant staff	.60983	6.15			
Cleanliness of the restaurant/utensils	.54619	5.83			
Tidiness of the restaurant	.61739	5.79			
Appearance of staff	.60821	5.90			
Factor 5. Convenience and Location			**1.41**	**3.2**	**.6490**
Location of the restaurant	.61164	5.73			
Crowd level in the restaurant	.66140	5.28			
Operating hours	.52870	6.07			
Factor 6. Noise			**1.19**	**2.7**	**.6853**
Quietness of the restaurant surrounding	.72182	4.57			
Quietness of the restaurant	.78276	4.77			
Factor 7. Service Speed			**1.16**	**2.6**	**.6592**
Waiting time for dishes	.80539	4.57			
Efficiency of service	.54044	5.76			
Factor 8. Price and Value			**1.12**	**2.5**	**.7149**
Food prices	.81528	5.45			
Value of food for the price charged	. 67035	4.75			
Factor 9. Facilities			**1.04**	**2.4**	**_**
Children Facilities	.78242	5.58			
Factor 10. Atmosphere			**1.01**	**2.3**	**_**
The atmosphere in the restaurant	.77200	4.75			

8.3.2.3 Determinants of Dining Satisfaction

The results of multiple regression of the ten food service dimensions against the dependent variables (overall satisfaction, return intention, and recommendation) are displayed in Table 38. The regression equation characteristics of overall dining satisfaction indicated an R^2 of 0.58, indicating that 58% of the variation could be explained by this equation. The F-ratio of 24 was significant (Prob. < 0.0000). The relatively high measure of R^2 (0.58) indicates that the predictor variables perform well in explaining the variance in overall satisfaction. The significant F ratio indicates that the results of the equation could hardly have occurred by chance. In order to have an accurate interpretation of this study's predictor variables, consistent with the previous part of the research, a stepwise regression procedure was employed (Table 38).

The t-statistic test was used for testing whether the ten independent factors contributed information to the predicator of the dependent variable "overall dining satisfaction". In this study, if the t-value of an independent variable was found to be significant at 0.05 level, that variable was considered in the model. Nine out of the ten factors emerged as significant (sig. t < 0.05) independent variables in the regression model. Exclusion of noise dimension does not necessarily mean that noise is not important to tourists' dining satisfaction. It is still important in an absolute sense, though it is not relative to the other services in predicting tourists' dining satisfaction.

Table 38. Determinants of Dining Satisfaction

Variables	B	SE B	Beta	Tolerance	VIF	T	Sig T	$Beta^2$	R^2	F
Service Quality	.646037	.071912	.474574	.951377	1.051	8.984	.0000	.225	**.58318**	**24.406**
Product Quality	.413277	.067438	.342111	.851891	1.174	6.128	.0000	.117		
Hygiene	.381277	.068248	.295517	.948834	1.054	5.587	.0000	.087		
Menu Variety	.296650	.065686	.244293	.907321	1.102	4.516	.0000	.059		
Price/Value	.280026	.065548	.226456	.944822	1.058	4.272	.0000	.051		
Convenience/ Location	.207649	.062763	.174271	.956851	1.045	3.308	.0012	.030		
Service Efficiency	.188374	.058571	.167684	.976641	1.024	3.216	.0016	.028		
Atmosphere	.206757	.071542	.157615	.892579	1.120	2.890	.0044	.024		
Amenities	.200758	.070156	.154823	.906967	1.103	2.862	.0048	.023		
Constant	5.601974	.065031				86.144	.0000			

The results of regression analysis showed that each coefficient carried positive signs, as expected (Table 38). This indicates that there are positive relationships between those variables and the dependent variable "overall dining satisfaction". It also suggests that the overall dining satisfaction of these tourists, depends largely on these factors. They are, therefore, the determinant factors or the best predictors of tourist overall dining satisfaction. It can be concluded that overall dining satisfaction increases when there is an increase in these dimensions.

The relative importance of the dimensions was examined by comparing the magnitude of regression coefficients. The first dimension with the greatest value was Service Quality dimension (β= 0.64, Prob. < 0.0000) followed by the Product Quality (β= 0. 41, Prob.< 0.0000), Hygiene (β= 0.38, Prob.< 0.0000), the Menu Variety (β= 0.29, Prob.< 0.0000) and the Price and Value (β= 0.28, Prob. < 0.0000). Secondly, the magnitude of each independent variables t-statistic was used as an indicator of relative importance. An examination of the t-values revealed a similar order of factors contributing to overall dining satisfaction (Table 38). Given the relative factor weights ($Beta^2$), it could be stated that service quality ($Beta^2$ = .225) has almost nine times as much impact on dining satisfaction as Atmosphere ($Beta^2$= .023). The impact of the service quality and staff attitude dimension on dining satisfaction was twice as high than that of the product quality dimension ($Beta^2$= .117), and three times higher than that of the cleanliness dimension ($Beta^2$= .087). The examination of the relative factor weights demonstrates that the influence of the service quality dimension, on the development of dining satisfaction, is four times higher than that of the value-price dimension. The results further predicted that the probability of a tourist's overall dining satisfaction changes by 2.68 (0.64 + 0.41 + 0.38+ 0.29 + 0.28 + 0.20 + 0.20 + 0.20+ 0.18) for each unit change in the eight variables. The units refer to one unit on the seven-point scale.

Consistent with suggestions of Hair *et al* (1995), the assumptions of linearity, independence of residuals, and normality underlying regression analysis, and the influential data points (outliers) were examined by student residuals, standardised residuals, and Leverage and Cook Distance tests. There was no violation of the assumptions. The values of variance of inflation (VIF) and tolerance for each variable, the tests of the extent of multi-collinearity and collinearity indicated that there was no multi-collinearity in the model (Hair *et al* 1995). No VIF value exceeded 10.0, and the values of tolerance showed that in no case did collinearity explain more than 10% of any of the predictor variable's variance. The Durbin-Watson value was 1.601 indicating that there was no residual correlation in the model (Hair *et al*, 1995).

8.3.2.3.1 Determinants of Behavioural Intentions

Subsequent regression analyses were run to identify dimensions which contributed to return intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations. In these analyses respondents' scores on return intention and word-of-mouth questions were regressed on the factor scores. An investigation of the results indicated that service quality, product quality, menu variety, noise, cleanliness, and facility dimensions contributed significantly to tourists' repeat visit intentions (Table 39). An inspection of the relative factor weights reveals that the service quality dimension ($Beta^2$= .163) has almost six times more impact on return intention judgements than the cleanliness dimension ($Beta^2$= .025). Similarly the service quality dimension bears twice as much weight on return intentions than menu variety ($Beta^2$= .084), and one and half times more weight than the product quality dimension ($Beta^2$= .114).

Table 39. Determinants of Return Intentions

Variables	B	SE B	Beta	Tolerance	VIF	T	Sig T	$Beta^2$	R^2	F
Service Quality	.478799	.078002	.403806	.962475	1.039	6.138	.0000	.163	**.40438**	**16.180**
Product Quality	.375016	.073978	.337842	.937791	1.066	5.069	.0000	.114		
Menu Variety	.310230	.070997	.289871	.946475	1.057	4.370	.0000	.084		
Noise	.260990	.073509	.231000	.983976	1.016	3.550	.0005	.053		
Hygiene	.174977	.071823	.158289	.986670	1.014	2.436	.0161	.025		
Amenities	.154119	.073055	.137476	.980835	1.020	2.110	.0366	.018		
(Constant)	6.078057	.069144				87.905	.0000			

Durbin-Watson: 1.63146

The examination of the results demonstrated that almost a similar set of variables (service quality, product quality, menu diversity, noise, and service speed) contributed measurably to word-of-mouth recommendation of the restaurant services (Table 40). Consistent with its influence on return intentions, an inspection of the relative factor weight clearly shows that service quality ($Beta^2$= .207) bears almost twice as much more weight on word-of-mouth recommendations than product quality ($Beta^2$= .134), almost six times more weight than the noise dimension ($Beta^2$= .035), six and half time more weight than service speed ($Beta^2$= .032), and almost eight times more weight than the menu diversity ($Beta^2$= .026).

Table 40. Determinants of Word-of-Mouth Recommendation

Variables	B	SE B	Beta	Tolerance	VIF	T	Sig T	$Beta^2$	R^2	F
Staff/Service Quality	.796	.110	.455	.961	1.041	7.233	.000	.207	**.381**	**20.048**
Product Quality	.600	.104	.367	.944	1.059	5.791	.000	.134		
Noise	.310	.102	.188	.983	1.017	3.027	.003	.035		
Service Speed	.267	.093	.179	.986	1.015	2.884	.004	.032		
Menu Diversity	.260	.101	.162	.956	1.046	2.569	.011	.026		
Constant	5.753	.100				57.261	.000			

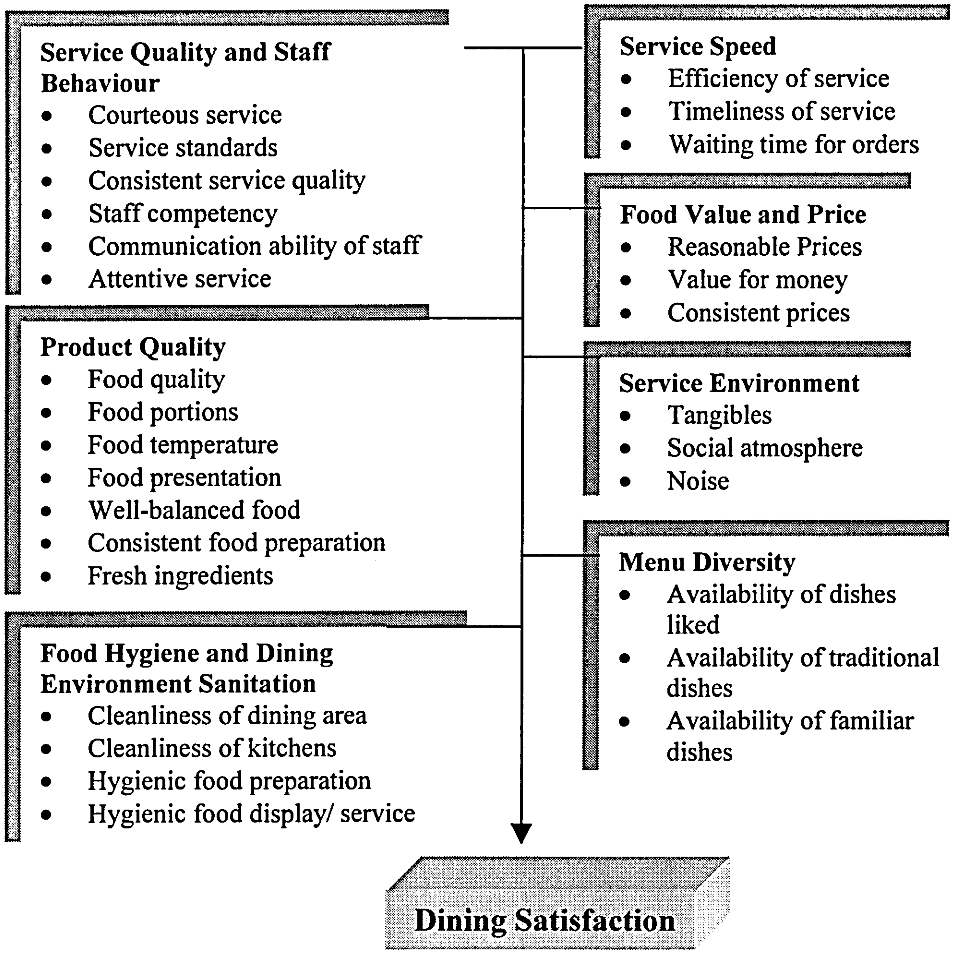
Durbin-Watson: 1.644

8.3.3 Triangulation through Qualitative Data Analysis

The results of multivariate analyses undertaken in the preceding section suggest that tourist-dining satisfaction could be influenced measurably and differently by a number of components. This part of the data analysis ascertains the accuracy of the resulting set of components through a qualitative analysis, which involves a content analysis of the comments and statements of the respondents. It is important to remind the reader that the qualitative data examined in this section has been derived from interviews that the researcher carried out with a number of people, from completed open-ended questionnaires which elicited reasons for satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and from comments that respondents provided at the end of the questionnaires.

This analysis produced over 30 service elements leading to dining dis/satisfaction (Figure 12). These elements were classified into representative main groups. In the classification process, the researcher sorted responses dealing with similar themes and then labelled the group in accordance with its composite characteristics. For instance, written comments dealing with service courtesy, service standards, consistent service quality, staff competency, communication, attentiveness, and staff knowledge were formed the service quality and staff attitude dimension. Overall, an examination of the qualitative data suggests a similar set of dimensions affecting tourists dining satisfaction. Seven main dimensions leading to satisfaction and dissatisfaction were identified. The set of dimensions emerged from the qualitative data analysis consists of service quality and staff attitude, service speed, menu diversity, product quality, cleanliness, value and price, and service environment, which involves location, noise, and restaurant atmosphere. Figure12 exhibits the main dining satisfaction dimensions and their sub-dimensions.

Figure 12. Determinants of Tourist Dining Satisfaction



8.3.3.1 Service Quality and Staff Behaviour

An examination of the beta coefficients and t values obtained from the stepwise regression analysis indicates that the Service Quality-Staff Behaviour dimension, is one of the most significant determinants of tourist dining satisfaction (Beta= .47, t= 8.94, p<.0000). According to the stepwise regression results, the customer perceptions of the restaurant staff is influential not only in the formation of satisfaction but also in judgements of repeat visit intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations (Beta= .40, t= 6.138, p<.000, and Beta= .36, t= .579, p<.000 respectively). The emergence of the service quality and staff behaviour dimension as one of the most significant determinants, is not surprising for two reasons. First, the service experience in a restaurant involves not only the consumption of food but also the manner in which the product is delivered, and second, like other tourism services, hospitality services rely heavily on the development of positive perceptions of service and its personnel. The work of the restaurant is much more than merely getting the food on the table. Employee attitudes during service encounters, determine how consumers perceive the quality level of the experience. Positive perception of the human element of foodservice delivery, is, therefore, critical in the formation of tourist dining satisfaction.

In parallel to quantitative findings, comments of respondents provide strong support for the impact of service staff attitude on dining satisfaction. For instance, one of the respondents who found his restaurant experience satisfactory stated that "*I found it enjoyable because of the waiters who were very courteous. This welcomes you into the restaurant and you would probably return*" (Respondent 14). Similarly, a female respondent who found her dining experience satisfactory stated that "*The staff at bars and restaurants are always very friendly and welcoming. They were very obliging and will explain all dishes and ingredients, it is very important especially for vegetarian diners. In England, staff at restaurants appear very indifferent to business. It makes a nice change to see smiling faces, combined with good service and good food, thoroughly enjoyable meals*" (Respondent 31). Another respondent stated that "*We dined almost every night at the Moonlight in Icmeler. As soon as you walked in they knew you, and showed you to the same table. They were very nice people. We told everyone in our hotel (believe it) to go there and most of them did and they all enjoyed it too*" (Respondent 58).

An inspection of the respondents' comments at the end of the questionnaires suggests that staff attitude and service is significant in creating a welcoming dining atmosphere. One of the respondents, for instance, stated that " *I think a good restaurant is one where the food is good, offers you a selection of dishes to suit tastes and pocket, and most importantly friendly staff that make you feel comfortable and welcome*" (Respondent 44). An examination of the comments of satisfied tourists further revealed that the attitudes of restaurant staff could contribute to the enhancement of the dining experience. For instance, one of the respondents expressed that "*All of the staff were very friendly and clean, and the overall service provided was excellent very prompt and efficient, the service and friendliness added that little bit extra to our evenings out at the restaurants. This service and good food encouraged us to return again and also recommend places to other holiday makers*"

(Respondent 44). Another respondent expressed the reason for her satisfaction with the dining experience as "*Waiters made us feel special as a customer, not just a number on a table* " (Respondent 46).

The analysis of the respondents' comments further demonstrated that when the performance of service is surly, it has the capability of inhibiting the dining satisfaction as well as repeat business, not only for the given restaurant, but also for the destination. For instance, one of the respondents stated that a "*Friendly welcome is important for obvious reasons. Last year my holiday was totally spoilt by hassle from waiters outside every restaurant we walked passed ....we even went round the backs of hotels to avoid this constant hassle. It is for that reason I won't go again* (This respondent was referring to an incident that took place in Icmeler, Turkey)" (Respondent 30). Similarly, another respondent stated that "*Poor service experience is the one where the food is stale, the place is dirty, the service is very slow, and the staff are over attentive or patronising or overtly sexual* (particularly if you are a woman). *All of this makes you feel uncomfortable and you are unlikely to return*" (Respondent 46). These comments suggest that customer perception of service personnel is capable of both promoting as well as damaging a restaurant's current and future business.

In addition, inspection of comments provides a strong degree of support for the significant impact of the conversation ability of restaurant staff, in the customers' language, to the formation of dining satisfaction. A satisfied respondent stated what he found satisfactory as "*Waiters could converse /communicate effectively even if English is not too hot*" (Respondent 44). Similarly, another respondent viewed the ability of waiters to converse in the customer's language as an enhancing factor and stated that "*The waiters could converse very well in English. This welcomes you to the restaurant* " (Respondent 14). Communication is important since it facilitates both sides understanding of one another, and thus, reduces the discomfort that might be experienced by tourists being in a foreign environment.

It also seems that the service provider's attitude, behaviour and verbal skills may lead to a greater customer satisfaction than a very mechanistic delivery experience. The high quality convivial dimension of service may even compensate for the low quality procedural dimension of service (Martin 1986). The fact that sometimes good service is capable of redeeming the poor performance of other service aspects is demonstrated by the respondents' comments. For instance, one of the respondents indicated that "*When dining, how friendly the staff are is very important. If they are good, you relax and enjoy your meal, if they are not, it is awful*. Cleanliness is another important aspect. *But if the staff are great you do not notice as much.* But if it is really bad, staff cannot make it better" (Respondent 14). The reverse could also be true. For instance, one of the respondents stated that "*I never mind waiters for good, freshly cooked food*" (Respondent 24). This may suggest that consumers may make trade-offs of one attribute for another in order to reach a decision, i.e., a weakness in one attribute is compensated by a strength in another.

In sum, it can be said that staff attentiveness, staff competency, willingness to help, knowledge of the staff about menu, friendliness, service courtesy, communication with the staff, service standards and service quality consistency are the aspects that customers consider important for a pleasurable experience. A remark made by one of the respondents almost sums up what is required from the restaurant service personnel: "*I would prefer professionalism, charismatic staff and management, who love what they do and take pride in everything from shining glass, quality of food, etc.*," (Respondent 35).

8.3.3.2 Product Quality

The results of the stepwise regression analysis clearly demonstrate that the Product Quality dimension is another significant determinant of tourist dining satisfaction (Beta= 34, t= 6.12, p< .0000). By the same token, subsequent regression analyses reveals that product quality, contributes measurably to repeat visit intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations. The results of the qualitative analysis confirm the influence of the product quality on dining satisfaction.

An examination of the comments of the respondents indicates that one of the factors that contribute significantly to dining and holiday satisfaction is food quality. One of the satisfied respondents stated that " *Quality food makes for a relaxing holiday, great holiday memories and excellent value for money*" (Respondent 51). The examination of the comments suggests that food portion is an important part of the product quality dimension. For instance, one of the respondents who found her dining experience satisfactory stated that "*the food was of good quality and there was big amounts of everything. If I did not like one part of the food there was enough to fill me up, e.g., side dishes*" (Respondent 57). The comments further reveal that food temperature might become a source of either satisfaction or dissatisfaction. For instance, one of the respondents who was disgruntled with his dining experience expressed that "*Temperature of food was not always adequate. This is surely a problem when serving meats. Butter tasted off due to poor refrigeration*" (Respondent 80). An examination of the respondents' comments further suggests that consistency of food preparation could stimulate repeat business, and that failure to maintain consistency of preparation could be easily discerned by the customer which results in dissatisfaction and future business loss. One of the dissatisfied respondents, for instance, remarked that "*On this occasion the food was not as good as our first visit, some dishes ordered were wrongly prepared*" (Respondent 192). Similarly, another dissatisfied respondent stated that "*there was an inconsistency in the food that was served. The same dish ordered one day might be different in the next day in terms of size and accompaniments*" (Respondent 414). These comments suggest that tourists desire food which is of a high quality, generous portions, attractively presented dishes, food cooked with fresh ingredients, food served at correct temperature (i.e., hot food hot), food well balanced, and food prepared consistently.

8.3.3.3 Service Speed

An examination of the stepwise regression analysis and respondents' comments indicates that the Service Speed dimension, is another significant determinant which affects customer dining satisfaction and dissatisfaction measurably (Beta= .16, t= 3.21, p<.0016). The emergence of service speed as one of the satisfaction determinants is not surprising, as tourists experience a considerable amount of stress while waiting to be served. The significance of the service speed, in the evaluation of dining experience, can be inferred from respondents' comments. For instance, one of the respondents listing the most significant aspects that he looks for in restaurants stated that "*The most important things to me are the quality and speed of service.*

Why, because there is nothing worse than a slow service particularly when you are very hungry" (Respondent 15). Another respondent explained the reason why she found her dining experience satisfactory as "*The speed at which our orders were taken, the continuing process of the meal, not too fast, not too slow.* Attentive to our needs during our meal nothing was too much trouble, little extras, fetching cigarettes" (Respondent 46). A number of respondents viewed service speed as a critical factor in differentiating a good restaurant from a bad one. One of the respondents, for instance, stated that "A good restaurant is where you have *quick and efficient service, not having to wait a long time to be served. I do not like to be kept waiting too long*" (Respondent 16).

In addition, an examination of comments revealed that restaurant customers might require different service speeds. For instance, one of the respondents remarked that "*I prefer prompt service but not rushing you. ...Friendly service but not over friendly*" (Respondent 36). Similarly, another respondent stated that "*A good restaurant is where service is good and seats customers quickly and efficiently. Orders are taken when customers are ready and the food is presented hot with style and correctly*" (Respondent 31). Criticising the slow service in the restaurant, another respondent cynically expressed that "*Well...lets say this, by the time I got my starter I could have built my own 19th century castle using only my legs while being blindfold*" (Respondent 68).

An examination of the comments further revealed that the speed of service could elicit not only compliments but also complaints, and thus, it might become a source of dissatisfaction. For instance, one of the respondents who found his dining experience unsatisfactory stated one of the reasons as "*the way the waitress empty the ashtrays every time you finish a fag. You find it hard to relax because they are at your table every five minutes changing your cutlery*" (Respondent 8). Another respondent who complained about overly fast service stated that "*I did not like the waiters hovering around to remove cutlery and crockery before we had even finished*" (Respondent 19). Similarly, another respondent stated that "*Sometimes I found that they were too attentive on clearing tables, as you could barely put your cutlery down and the plate was gone (mind you it is not much of a complaint)*" (Respondent 84). Considering these comments, an appropriate conclusion would appear to be that depending on the circumstances, tourists might require faster or slower services. It is true that when a tourist is given a slow service, s/he will be unhappy, but the same is true if a customer is rushed through a meal. This suggests that waiting time and experience seems to be potentially central to customer experience and satisfaction because it is an identifiable and memorable part of the total experience.

8.3.3.4 Value and Price

An examination of the stepwise regression results further indicates that the Food Value and Prices dimension affects the tourists' dining pleasure significantly (Beta= .17, t= 4.72, $p<.0000$). It was revealed through the analysis of respondents' comments that tourists wanted to be assured that they were paying fair and reasonable prices. The following comment of one of the respondents illustrates the general concern with the fairness of the prices. When he was asked what type of restaurants he would prefer on holiday, the respondent stated that he would prefer restaurants which "*provide good quality food at reasonable prices serving both a selection of traditional and foreign dishes. I would like to be assured of quality and not pay inflated prices because I am a tourist*" (Respondent 34).

Another respondent interviewed replied to the question investigating key service aspects that she considers important as "Good food, *good value*, friendly attitude, good standard of hygiene. *I want to feel relaxed and that I am not being ripped off*" (Respondent 9). One might become curious why value and prices become important to tourists with a relatively high discretionary budget. The following comments provide some explanation to this question. One of the respondents, for instance, stated that he looked for *value for money* because "*I like to think our hard earned cash is spent wisely*" (Respondent 26). Another respondent stated that she sought reasonable prices because "*There were four people to buy for so the price was important*" (Respondent 23). Somewhat for a different reason, another respondent remarked that "*Quality of food for the price, do not want to pay for a fancy decor, etc.*,"(Respondent 17). These comments suggest that product value and prices may be significant determinants of dining satisfaction.

8.3.3.5 Cleanliness

An examination of the stepwise regression analysis results demonstrates that the Cleanliness dimension is among the most significant determinants of tourist dining satisfaction (Beta= 29, t= 5.58, p<.0000). In addition, subsequent stepwise regression analysis also reveals that cleanliness contributes measurably to repeat visit intentions (Beta= 15, t= 2.44, p<.0161). Similarly, analysis of comments suggests that failure to provide food hygiene induces unpleasant dining and holiday experiences. The following example illustrates the effect of poor hygiene on overall outcome of the holiday experience. A respondent who was asked to share one of her worst dining experiences stated that she had had to give up her holiday in the early days, as she had suffered serious food poisoning, and had had to be flown home.

Similarly, one of the respondents pointing to the lack of hygiene that prevails in some restaurants stated that "*In some restaurants you can see into the kitchen, food left displayed in counters. A Turkish night in the restaurant left us with upset stomach, as well as other guests which we think it is due to food being left out on tables for a long periods of time*" (Respondent 22). Another respondent pointed that there was "*poor hygiene, lack of food safety; knowledge of food safety especially in warm ambient temperatures where food poisoning organism multiply at a rapid rate*" (Respondent 82). These comments suggest that restaurateurs in Turkey need to pay more attention to cleanliness both inside the dining area and the kitchens in order to prevent food-born diseases and increase the customers' confidence in the restaurant. Given the comments of respondents, it could be said that cleanliness is one of the prerequisites of an enjoyable dining experience, as failure to provide cleanliness is hazardous to the health of customers which in turn spoils the entire holiday experience.

An examination of the comments provided by the respondents further suggests that cleanliness reduces the level of risk and uncertainty involved, in the purchase of the restaurant service product. Pointing to the importance of a hygienic appearance, one of the respondents, for instance, stated that "*If the restaurant has a clean appearance it makes you more confident that food has been prepared in clean kitchens*" (Respondent 43). Similarly, another respondent commented that "*I liked that you* *could see the kitchen in most restaurants so you could see food being cooked hygienically*" (Respondent 57). The following comment provided by one of the respondents sums up how cleanliness is regarded by consumers "*Cleanliness is next to godliness*" (Respondent 58). This is not an overstatement since the food related diseases, resulting from poor food hygiene in storage, preparation, and display are capable of destroying a holiday – a time which has been longed for by the individual. Undoubtedly, tourists desire to dine in sanitary environments, and that the assurance of a sanitary environment should increase the probability of consumer purchasing and repatronage of the service.

8.3.3.6 Menu Variety

The results of the stepwise regression analysis indicate that the Menu Diversity dimension is a significant determinant of tourist dining satisfaction (Beta= .24, t= 4.5, $p<.0000$). The results of the subsequent multiple regression analysis, that was run to identify dimensions affecting return intentions, further reveal that menu variety contributes measurably to repeat visit intentions (Beta= .28, t= 4.3, $p<.0000$).

The significance of menu variety on the creation of dining satisfaction is also evident in respondents' comments. An examination of the comments provided suggests that the availability of local dishes is indeed a source of satisfaction. One of the respondents stated that "*I would like to have a sense of the country's culture. Not something that is bland or false because there is no point being abroad if you do not experience a taste of the place rather than commercial, tourist fodder. I do not expect it but I always hope for vegetarian options*" (Respondent 14). Similarly, another respondent stated that "*I do not like restaurants which try to cook English food when I go on holiday, I want to try different meals. A good restaurant is one that offers a variety of local dishes, cooked healthy and tastes great*" (Respondent 2). Correspondingly, another respondent stated that "*While on holiday I prefer good quality food reflecting the local cuisine traditions, authentic cuisine of the region/ country with local wines, why else go abroad*" (Respondent 11).

An examination of the respondents' comments further revealed that availability of familiar dishes is another source of dining satisfaction. For instance, one of the respondents indicated that "*I would prefer restaurants serving both a selection of traditional and foreign dishes. This is because I like to sample local cuisine, but also be able to buy familiar dishes*" (Respondent 21). Similarly, another respondents who found his meal experience satisfactory indicated the reason as "*The choice of food. It was particularly good to see the option of plain burger and chips, if you were not feeling up to indulging in the traditional Turkish dishes*" (Respondent 79). Another satisfied respondent stated that "*There was a good choice of English and Turkish food. Very important for families with children as children like food they are familiar with, while adults can try new food*" (Respondent 52). It can be inferred from the above comments that satisfaction of one individual in the party with the dining experience could influence others' dining satisfaction. In addition, a review of respondents' comments suggests that there are different types of consumers who prefer, and are satisfied by, a limited menu. For instance, one of the respondents stated that "*I prefer a not too extensive menu, as it might indicate the quality is not good (probably sticking to one type speciality of food, rather than trying to cater for all tastes*" (Respondent 29). These comments suggest that the menu and its diversity are important components that influence dining satisfaction.

8.3.3.7 Service Environment

The results of the analysis undertaken in this part of the research suggest that in addition to the attitudes of the service providers, menu diversity, value and price, product quality, and service speed, there are other elements that contribute measurably to the level of satisfaction with the dining experience. The ambience of the restaurant also appears to contribute significantly to tourists' enjoyment of the dining experience.

The emergence of atmosphere and service environment as a significant determinant of tourist dining satisfaction is not surprising since customers tend to stay for an extended period of time in restaurants. As a consequence, the facility itself may have a substantial effect on tourists' satisfaction with the dining experience, and holds a key role in determining whether a tourist will repatronise the restaurant. An examination of the comments suggests that a pleasing service environment (or atmosphere) can determine the degree of overall satisfaction and repeat patronage. One of the respondents who found her dining experience satisfactory, for instance, indicated that "*There was a good atmosphere in the restaurant and people were very friendly, helpful, and everything was very clean. The atmosphere made the places interesting and would keep you occupied while waiting for your meal*" (Respondent 57).

An examination of the qualitative data further reveals that a restaurant's atmosphere involves not only the physical surroundings but also the people including both the servers as well as other customers dining in the restaurant. Pointing to the significance of social atmosphere in her dining experience, one of the respondents stated that *"It is much more enjoyable if there are happy people and good food*" (Respondent 63). Similarly, another respondent who counted atmosphere among the most important aspects, in order for the dining experience to be satisfactory stated that "*I like a nice choice of food, and also like places that are clean and happy people around me*" (Respondent 34). In addition, an examination of respondents' comments further reveals that noise could be another important source of dining dissatisfaction. A respondent for example complained that "*Sometimes the music is too loud and could not enjoy a chat over your meal and would need to shout*" (Respondent 42).

The following comment of a respondent summarises the aspects which contribute most significantly to the enjoyment of dining experience on holidays "*Friendly staff, a relaxed atmosphere and good value for money, well presented dishes and always fresh. Friendliness of waiters helps you feel more at home when choosing meal in a foreign country. They were always available to help on request nothing was too much trouble. The food was always presented well and although you sometimes had to wait a while for your meal after ordering, you did not mind as the food was prepared there, and you knew it was fresh*" (Respondent 42).

8.3.4 Analysis of Tourist Dining Segments

As was stated earlier in Chapter three, the main focus of the previous studies, was generally, to ascertain the applicability of various satisfaction measurement frameworks in determining customer satisfaction. These studies seem to have focused on the development of satisfaction at aggregate market level. As a consequence, there is limited understanding of the development of satisfaction, within possible segments, that might exist within the market. This is rather surprising because an understanding of the development of customer satisfaction, within different segments, is vital as a result of highly fragmented market structure. Having identified the determinants of customers dining satisfaction in the preceding section, this part of the thesis sets out to extend the limited body of knowledge by establishing whether the sources of satisfaction differ within each customer segment.

It is important to note that the majority of segmentation studies in the restaurant sector, were carried out within fast-food restaurants and little segmentation research was undertaken with tourists on holiday. In order to advance the knowledge on this subject, in this section a cluster analysis was conducted on tourists' restaurant selection attributes. Cluster analysis provides a measurement that indicates the extent to which some groups of things are alike and the extent to which groups are distant (Lewis 1984). *A priori*, the factor-clustering approach, was employed to segment tourists into homogeneous groups that differed from each other on the basis of opinions regarding which attributes were important when selecting a restaurant. Specifically, the study objectives were to determine (1) whether tourists could be grouped together based on similarities and differences in benefits sought, (2) whether statistically significant differences existed between the resulting segments on the basis of demographic and visit-related variables, and (3) whether sources of satisfaction might be different within each resulting segment. A number of statistical techniques were utilised to meet the objectives set for the final part of this research (Figure 13). The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 8) was used to analyse the data.

Figure 13. Statistical Techniques Utilised in Factor-Cluster Analysis

FACTOR ANALYSIS	Factor analysis was used to extract factors from the 42 attributes of restaurant selection.
RELIABILITY ANALYSIS	Reliability analysis was utilised to estimate the reliability coefficients for each factor.
HIERARCHICAL CLUSTER ANALYSIS	Factor scores were then used in a hierarchical cluster analysis to obtain some idea about the number of homogeneous groups represented by the data.
K-MEANS CLUSTER	Quick cluster analysis was run on the total number of respondents.
DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS	Discriminant analysis was then employed to profile the groups obtained in the quick cluster technique according to demographic and other related data.
MULTIPLE REGRESSION	Multiple regression analysis was then employed to analyse the formation of CS within each group. Customers' overall satisfaction was predicted by regressing the subjects' satisfaction scores on the factor scores of restaurant evaluation. This regression analysis was repeated for each resulting cluster.

8.3.5 Factor Cluster Segmentation

Factor-cluster segmentation, as the name implies, is a two-step procedure (Smith 1990). The first step involves the definition of important characteristics of the segments through a factor analysis of a large number of descriptive variables. These variables are then used to cluster individuals into statistically homogeneous segments. Consistent with the suggestions of Bailey (1990), Calantole and Johar (1984); Everitt (1993), Sigh (1995), and Punj and Stewart (1983), in this study, customer restaurant selection dimensions, identified by the factor analysis, provided the data to cluster analysis instead of the original ratings on variables. This is because the raw (original) variables contain interdependence that is likely to bias the cluster analysis results (Smith 1995). By contrast, the use of dimensions removes such interdependencies by representing data by a relatively independent and parsimonious set of factors. Correspondingly Mo *et al* (1994) point that factors scores are more reliable than single original variables because they are weighted as linear combinations of variables and are more readily interpreted than a large number of variables. Applications of cluster analysis using factor scores, derived from factor analysis in marketing, have often been suggested (Sigh 1995).

8.3.5.1 Step One: Factor Analysis

In order to reduce the total number of items into a more workable number of composites, the attributes of restaurant selection were first factor analysed. Consistent with the previous part of the research, the Principal Component Factor analysis with Varimax rotation was used because these methods were found to yield the most interpretable results (Loker and Perdue 1992). The Eigenvalues suggested that a nine-factor solution explained 61.2% of the overall variance before rotation. The overall significance of the correlation matrix was 0.0000 with a Barlett Test of Spherity value of 6741.7003. It indicated that the data matrix had a sufficient correlation to the factor analysis. The Keiser-Meyer-Olkin overall measure of sampling adequacy was 0.91, and suggests that data was appropriate to factor analysis. From the orthogonal factor matrix, nine factors with 28 variables were defined. The analysis produced a clean factor structure with relatively higher loadings on the appropriate factors. The communality of each variable was relatively high ranging from 0.42 to 0.76. This indicates that the variance of the original values was captured fairly well by the nine factors.

Each factor name was based on the characteristics of its composing variables (Table 41). The first factor was labelled as Service Quality, as this factor was formed by the variables of high standard of service, efficient service, attentive service, competent staff, helpful staff, staff appearance and prices shown clearly. This factor explained 29 percent of the total variance and had an Eigenvalue of 12.29 (Table 41). The second factor was labelled as Product Quality and Hygiene as this factor was markedly comprised of food quality and hygiene related variables. This factor explained 8 percent of the total variance and had an Eigenvalue of 3.33. The third factor was named as Adventurous Menu, as variables of adventurous menu, a place frequented by locals, availability of interesting dishes, and availability of local food composed this factor. The fourth factor was labelled as Food Value and Price since this factor consisted of reasonable food prices and food value for money. The following factor was labelled as Atmosphere since activity and entertainment in the restaurant, and a lively atmosphere constituted this factor. The next factor was labelled as Healthy Food, as nutritious food and choices of balanced food formed this factor. The next factor was labelled as Location and Appearance since variables of impression from the road and convenient location, made up this factor. Non-smoking was chosen to identify the next factor. The final factor was labelled as Visibility of Food Preparation Area.

8.3.5.2 Step Two: Reliability Analysis

A composite reliability of the construct was calculated to measure the internal consistency of each factor. The results showed that the reliability coefficients for factors exceeded the recommended level of 0.50 (ranging from 0.54 to 0.88) (Table 41) (Nunnaly 1967). It might be concluded that these 9 dimensions were perceived as particularly important, by the sample of tourists, in selecting restaurants on holiday.

8.3.5.3 Step Three: Cluster Analysis

The cluster analysis was used to identify and classify tourists on the basis of the similarities of their characteristics, in this case on the attributes of restaurant selection. As mentioned earlier, factor scores estimated from a 9-factor rotated solution were utilised to determine the number of homogenous groups represented by the data. Because the cluster analysis is known to be sensitive to the outliers, the data was first examined for outlying observations. It is important to note that the factor scores are standardised variables. Consequently, values exceeding +3.0 or below-3.0 are potential outliers (Singh 1995). On examination, the outlying observations (N: 25) were deleted so as to make cluster analysis safe for the entire data (Hair *et al* 1995).

There are two categories in cluster methods; *the hierarchical clustering* and *non-hierarchical clustering*. The former one classifies cases into groups, the process being repeated to form a tree structure, which displays the fusion, or divisions that have been made at each stage. These trees are known as dendograms.

Table 41. Reliability and Composition of Restaurant Selection Factors

Factor Name	Loadings	Mean	Eigenvalues	Variance (%)	Reliability
Factor 1. Service Quality and Staff Attitude			**12.29**	**29.3**	**.88**
Service standard	.534	5.82			
Service Efficiency	.566	5.61			
Attentive Service	.576	5.70			
Helpful Staff	.772	6.17			
Competent Staff	.752	6.02			
Staff Appearance	.533	5.48			
Prices shown clearly	.739	6.06			
Factor 2. Product Quality and Hygiene			**3.33**	**7.9**	**.86**
Food Preparation consistency	.660	5.98			
Food Tastiness	.589	6.01			
High Quality Food	.681	5.98			
Fresh Ingredients	.718	6.21			
Hygienic Food Preparation	.765	6.40			
Staff Cleanliness	.625	6.55			
Factor 3. Adventurous Menu			**2.45**	**5.9**	**.79**
Adventurous Menu	.687	4.88			
Availability of Local Dishes	.773	5.38			
Availability of Interesting Food	.770	5.04			
A Place Frequented by Locals	.689	4.50			
Factor 4. Price and Value			**1.64**	**3.9**	**.65**
Reasonable Food Prices	.632	5.76			
Food Value for Money	.695	5.90			
Hearty Portions	.569	5.20			
Factor 5. Atmosphere and Activity			**1.36**	**3.3**	**.63**
Restaurant Atmosphere	.772	5.32			
Activity and Entertainment	.695	3.74			
Factor 6. Healthy Food			**1.2**	**2.9**	**.81**
Availability of Healthy Food	.759	4.90			
Nutritious Food	.788	4.82			
Factor 7. Location and Appearance			**1.17**	**2.8**	**.54**
Impression from the Road	.713	5.10			
Convenient Location	.684	4.67			
Factor 8.			**1.12**	**2.7**	**–**
Availability of non-smoking area	.723	4.49			
Factor 9.			**1.09**	**2.6**	**–**
Visibility of Food Preparation Area	.617	4.58			

* Reliability alpha for two factors could not be assessed as these factors were composed of one variable only

Hierarchical clustering can be agglomerative or divisive. In agglomerative hierarchical clustering, clusters are formed by grouping cases into bigger and bigger clusters until all cases are members of a single cluster. In divisive hierarchical clustering, all variables are grouped in a single cluster and then the clusters are divided until each variable is a separate cluster. Non-hierarchical techniques include optimisation and partitioning techniques, density or mode-seeking techniques, and clumping techniques (Everitt 1993). These techniques select one or more cluster centres as the starting point. Objects are then assigned to a particular cluster using either minimum threshold distances or making assignments to the centre nearest to each object.

There is no definite answer to which clustering method should be used (Hair *et al* 1995). Nouris (1994) argues that when the sample size exceeds several hundreds, a non-hierarchical clustering method is suggested. Given the sample size consisting of several hundreds, a non-hierarchical clustering approach (K-means) was adopted. In K-means, the individuals are iteratively moved between clusters so as to minimise the variability within clusters and maximise the variability between clusters (Ahmed *et al* 1998). However, the use of K-means requires a priori specification of the number of clusters to be extracted. Consistent with Hair *et al* (1995) and Alzua *et al's* (1998) suggestion, a hierarchical technique (Complete Linkage with squared Euclidean Distance) was conducted on a randomly selected sub-sample to obtain some idea about the number of clusters. In doing so, the advantages of this hierarchical method were complemented by the non-hierarchical method to "fine-tune" the results. The squared Euclidean distance with complete linkage was chosen as it was recommended for providing " relatively compact, hyperspherical clusters composed of highly similar cases" (Aldenderfer and Blashfield 1984: 40).

The major difficulty in conducting cluster analysis is that, the best way to determine the appropriate number of clusters is yet to be resolved (Alzua *et al* 1998). Aldenderfer and Blashfield (1984) state that the correct number of clusters is typically determined by heuristic procedures. Lewis (1984) suggests that plugging different numbers of clusters, into the data until repeated clustering iterations give the best number of clusters, is a very basic approach to deal with this problem. Similarly, Hair *et al* (1995) concede that the selection of the number of clusters still remains a major issue. They suggest that the distances between clusters at successive steps may serve as a useful guideline, and the analyst may choose to stop when this distance exceeds a specified value or when the successive distances, between the steps, make a sudden jump. A jump implies that two relatively dissimilar clusters have been merged, and thus, the number of clusters prior to the merger is the most probable solution (Norusis 1994). Others have chosen the comparison of cluster means on each dimension and an assessment of the distinctiveness of clusters as a means for determining the number of clusters (Ahmed *et al* 1998). Given the above guidelines, a visual inspection was carried out of the horizontal icicle dendogram on the computer printout and the sudden jumps in the algorithm schedule. This inspection suggested that a three, four and five cluster solution might be appropriate. Subsequently, consistent with Woo's (1998) approach, K-means cluster analysis was performed on the three different cluster solutions (N: 3, 4, and 5). Comparing the results obtained from these solutions, the five-cluster solution was selected for further analysis because it provided the greatest difference between clusters and it yielded the most interpretable results (Madrigel and Kahle 1991).

8.3.5.4 Step Four: Discriminant Analysis

In order to test whether significant differences in restaurant selection criteria exist across segments, a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted using the segments as the independent variable and the nine factors as dependent variables. Wilks' lambda was .06 and significant at .000 level, which indicated overall differences between clusters. It is important to note that a fundamental assumption of MANOVA was satisfied, as test of equality of group covariance matrices using Box's M (Box's M= 3449.778, F= 1.81 with 180, 117504 df, p= .000) indicated that the covariance were equal. Then, a univariate F test was used to investigate the sources of these group differences. The results revealed that clusters were significantly different on all determinant restaurant selection factors.

The identified cluster structure was then subjected to Discriminant analysis to double-check in part, the classifications' reliability (Rangan *et al* 1992). Discriminant analysis was employed to see how well the nine factors predicted membership in each cluster. It calculates the weights of different combinations of the nine determinant restaurant selection factors in order to maximise the distance between five clusters. The stepwise procedure was used to analyse the determinant restaurant selection factors since the research objective was to determine the best discriminating factor set between clusters. The stepwise procedure began by selecting the single best discriminating factor. This factor was then paired with each of the other determinant factors. The second factor was chosen that was best able to improve the discriminating power of the function in combination with the first factor and so forth (Yoon and Shafer 1996). The Discriminant analysis indicated that nine of the factors significantly predicted cluster membership at a significant level of .0000. This suggests that these factors are significant discriminators. The classification results for the use of the analysis indicated that the Discriminant analysis model could correctly classify 95.7 percent of the individuals into groups.

Discriminant analysis was further used to develop cluster profiles by using demographic information and occasion related data, which was not involved in the cluster procedure. The demographic information used in the analysis included gender, age, nationality, and occasion related data included the type of dining occasion, party size, and the degree of familiarity with the restaurant. The Discriminant analysis indicated that only the age was a significant discriminator at 0.05 level (the significance was 0.0529). The analysis of variance procedures were then used to determine whether statistically significant differences existed between the factor mean scores of each cluster. A Duncan range test (the alpha level was set at 0.01) was used to determine which means were significantly different (Table 42).

Table 42. Segment Mean Scores

	Factor 1 [Service]	Factor2 [Product]	Factor3 [Menu]	Factor4 [Value]	Factor5 [Atmosp]	Factor6 [Healthy]	Factor7 [Location]	Factor8 [Smoke]	Factor9 [Visibilit]
Cluster 1 [58][a]	-.08785	**.29073**	-.23853	**.52866**	-.15460	-.61848	-1.10189	**.11793**	**.18646**
Cluster 2 [50]	**.34055**	-.93254	-.71444	**.28207**	-.10756	**.17885**	**.15976**	-.02219	-.48819
Cluster 3 [45]	.05908	-.03919	**.62119**	-.59885	-.14155	-.96049	**.50339**	-.74047	-.30311
Cluster 4 [92]	.15151	.08121	**.42359**	**.46662**	**.60355**	**.42266**	**.37907**	**.35181**	**.28568**
Cluster 5 [59]	-.28657	**.55615**	.03498	-.77846	-.62475	**.54155**	.11434	.12983	-.09315
Results of ANOVA	F= 4.031 p<.003	F=58.718 p<.000	F=34.934 p<.000	F=9.082 P<.000	F=3.324 P<.008	F=38.428 P<.000	F=20.057 P<.000	F=25.392 P<.000	F=10.065 P<.000

[a] number of respondents

8.3.5.4.1 Cluster 1: Value-Oriented

As in the factor analysis, each cluster was labelled in accordance with the characteristics of its composites. For example, this cluster was identified as Value-oriented segment as tourists in this group attached highest importance to value for money in selecting a restaurant. The first cluster contains 19 percent of the total cluster sample (58 of 304). It has a high mean score for Factor 4 (.53) (Table 42), which indicates that this group of tourists select restaurants which provide food value for money. There is also a relatively high mean score for Factor 2, which suggests that this group attach a great deal of importance to product quality and hygiene when selecting a restaurant. In addition, based on the mean scores on Factor 8 and 9, it could be said that this group is also concerned with the availability of non-smoking areas and with the visibility of the food preparation area. This group, on the other hand, has the lowest mean score for Factor 7 (-1.10), which indicates that they do not take location of the restaurant into consideration in their selection. In addition, mean scores on Factor 6 suggest that tourists in this group are not overly concerned about availability of healthy and nutritious food choices either. Moreover, given their mean scores on Factor 3, it is appropriate to state that this group does select restaurants which offer local or adventurous food. In addition, atmosphere and service quality are not particularly important in their restaurant selection.

8.3.5.4.2 Cluster 2: Service-Oriented

This group accounts for the 16 percent of the sample. Given the mean scores, it can be stated that this group attaches the highest importance to the availability of quality service when selecting a restaurant. The value of food is another factor which is taken into account when selecting a restaurant. This group also attaches moderate importance to the availability of healthy choices and the restaurant's location. In contrast to Group 5 and Group 1, this group does not take product quality into consideration when selecting a restaurant. In addition, the low mean score on Factor 3 suggests that, in contrast to Groups 3 and 4, the availability of local and interesting food does not appear to play a significant role in this group's decision making process.

8.3.5.4.3 Cluster 3: Adventurous-Food-Oriented

This cluster accounts for 15 percent of the total cluster sample. An examination of the mean scores displayed in Table 42 reveals that this group attaches the highest importance to the availability of local, new, and interesting food when selecting a restaurant. This group has also a high mean score for Factor 7, which suggests that location of a restaurant plays a relatively significant role in the selection process. In addition, given the mean scores on Factor 6, it could be said that the availability of healthy and nutritious food choices are not particularly important to this group. In contrast to Value-Oriented tourist group, this group does not attach any importance to prices. In addition, contrary to the fourth cluster, mean scores on Factor 5 indicates that atmosphere does not play significant role in decision making process. Based on their mean scores on Factor 8 and 9, it can be stated that the availability of non-smoking areas and the visibility of the food preparation area do not have any influence on this group's restaurant selection.

8.3.5.4.4 Cluster 4: Atmosphere-Oriented

This cluster makes up 30 percent of the total cluster sample. In contrast to other groups, this group does not have negative mean scores on any of the selection factors which suggests that all of the factors are taken into account in selection. Contrary to the value-oriented, service-oriented, and healthy food-oriented groups, this group has the highest mean score for Factor 5, which indicates that this group searches for a restaurant that is capable of offering a convivial dining atmosphere and offers a good time. This group is also concerned about prices when selecting a restaurant. The availability of local and interesting food and the availability of nutritious and healthy food are the next two most important requirements. Moreover, based on their mean score on Factor 7, it could be argued that the restaurant's location is an important factor in influencing the selection. The remaining factors also appear to have a moderate importance in restaurant selection.

8.3.5.4.5 Cluster 5: Healthy-Food Oriented

This cluster contains 19 percent of the total cluster sample. Contrary to the value-oriented group, this group has one of the highest mean scores for Factor 6, which indicates that they search for restaurants which offer healthy food choices. Product quality and hygiene is another highly important requirement of this group when selecting a restaurant. Based on their mean score on Factor 7, it could be said that this group is also concerned about location. In addition, based on the mean scores for Factor 8, it seems that this group attaches a moderate importance to the availability of non-smoking areas when selecting restaurants. On the other hand, this group has the lowest mean score for Factor 4, which suggests that price is not an important consideration for this group in selecting a restaurant. Given their mean score on Factor 5, it appears that this group does not take atmosphere into consideration when selecting restaurants. Low mean scores on Factor 1 implies that this group does not attach importance to service quality when selecting a restaurant.

8.3.5.5 Step Five: Assessment of satisfaction within Each Cluster

In the preceding section, the factor-clustering approach was employed to identify homogeneous groups within the sample. By conducting the factor-cluster analysis, five distinct tourist groups have been identified, these being (1) value-oriented, (2) service-oriented, (3) adventurous food-oriented, (4) atmosphere-oriented, and (5) healthy food-oriented. This section now proceeds with analysing the formation of satisfaction in order to ascertain the factors contributing to overall satisfaction within each segment.

This study proposes that the determinants of dining satisfaction may be different within the dining segments. Having identified the clusters based on the set of restaurant selection dimensions, in this step, the Multiple Regression technique was utilised and each segment's satisfaction scores were regressed on the factor scores of performance perception. The results of multiple regression of the ten dining evaluation dimensions, against the dependent variable of overall satisfaction in each cluster, are displayed in Table 43. The evaluation dimensions are service quality, product quality, menu diversity, hygiene, convenience and location, noise, service speed, price and value, the restaurant facilities, and its atmosphere.

The regression equation characteristics of overall dining satisfaction of each cluster are .68, .86, .60, .45, and .83 respectively, indicating that 68%, 86%, 60%, 45%, and 83% of the variation could be explained by the equations (Table 43). The F ratios of 11, 27,20, and 21 were all significant at .000, and 9 was significant at .004. The high measure of R^2 indicates that predictor variables performed well in predicting satisfaction and the significant F ratio indicates that the results of the equations could hardly have occurred by chance in each case.

Table 43. Results of Multiple Regression

Segments	Multiple R	R^2	F value	Significance
Value-Seekers	.826	.682	11.781	.000
Service-Seekers	.930	.864	27.077	.000
Adventurous Food-Seekers	.775	.600	9.006	.004
Atmosphere-Seekers	.675	.455	20.459	.000
Healthy Food-Seekers	.913	.833	21.272	.000

The results of the regression coefficients in each case (except menu diversity in Group 2) showed that each coefficient carried a positive sign indicating that there was a positive relationship between those variables and the satisfaction scores of the clusters being analysed (Table 43). This suggests that the overall dining satisfaction of each clusters depends largely on these factors which emerged as being significant. They were therefore the determinant factors of overall dining satisfaction. The relative importance of factors was examined by comparing the magnitude of regression coefficients and t values.

Value-Seekers: An examination of the results obtained from the stepwise multiple regression analysis suggests that four factors appeared to be important in the development of dining satisfaction (Table 44). The first factor with the greatest effect on dining satisfaction of this group was product quality, followed by service quality, menu diversity, and noise. An inspection of the coefficients demonstrates that all coefficients carry a positive sign, indicating that there is a positive relationship between these four dimensions and overall satisfaction. That is, any attempt to increase performance on these dimensions should increase satisfaction proportionately.

Table 44. Determinants of Dining Satisfaction: Segment One

Segment 1	B	S. Error	Beta	T	Sig T
Product Quality	.961	.172	.762	5.598	.000
Service Quality	.844	.182	.574	4.623	.000
Menu Diversity	.646	.220	.391	2.985	.008
Noise	.366	.172	.259	2.130	.045
Constant	5.329	.190		28.025	.000

Service-Seekers: An examination of the stepwise regression results indicate that there are four dimensions which contribute significantly to overall dining satisfaction of this group (Table 435. The first factor with the greatest effect on dining satisfaction of this group is service quality, followed by product quality, menu diversity, and speed of service. It is important to note that apart from the menu diversity, all of the other dimensions have a positive sign, indicating that there is a positive relationship between the performance of these dimensions and overall satisfaction. There is, however, a negative relationship between menu diversity and overall satisfaction, the more diverse the menu, the less satisfaction it will create.

Table 45. Determinants of Dining Satisfaction: Segment Two

Segment 2	B	S. Error	Beta	T	Sig T
Product quality	.672	.123	.507	5.484	.000
Service Quality	.467	.129	.375	3.629	.002
Menu Diversity	-.748	.208	-.330	-3.598	.002
Service Speed	.307	.122	.256	2.511	.022
Constant	6.458	.121		5.331	.000

Adventurous Food-Seekers: According to the stepwise regression results, there are two significant factors which contribute to overall dining satisfaction in this group (Table 46). The most significant factor affecting dining satisfaction was service quality, followed by convenience and location.

Table 46. Determinants of Dining Satisfaction: Segment Three

Segment 3	B	S. Error	Beta	T	Sig T
Service Quality	1.065	.272	.739	3.917	.002
Convenience- Location	.566	.220	.484	2.566	.025
Constant	5.271	.274		19.235	.000

Atmosphere-Seekers: An examination of the stepwise regression analysis results reveals that there are two significant dining satisfaction determinants (Table 47). The results indicate that product quality, and price-value are the significant contributors to the dining satisfaction of this group. The results further shows that there is a positive relationship between the resulting dimensions and dining satisfaction, which suggests that any increase in any of these dimensions would increase dining satisfaction commensurably.

Table 47. Determinants of Dining Satisfaction: Segment Four

Segment 4	B	S. Error	Beta	T	Sig T
Product quality	.780	.143	.577	5.468	.000
Price and Value	.369	.104	.376	3.564	.001
Constant	5.873	.107		54.876	.000

Healthy Food-Seekers: An examination of the stepwise regression analysis suggests that there are four significant satisfaction determinants (Table 48). The most significant determinants of dining satisfaction of this group were the service quality, followed by product quality, facilities, and menu diversity.

Table 48. Determinants of Dining Satisfaction: Segment Five

Segment 5	B	S. Error	Beta	T	Sig T
Service Quality	.619	.092	.697	6.702	.000
Product Quality	.654	.122	.543	5.366	.000
Facilities	.329	.089	.372	3.691	.002
Menu Diversity	.310	.087	.375	3.543	.003
Constant	5.574	.098		56.908	.000

8.3.5.6 Satisfaction and Choice Determinants

In this section in order to provide an understanding into whether the relative importance of tourists' pre-visit and post-visit judgements are similar, consistent with Whipple and Thach's (1989) approach, a correlation analysis was undertaken. An examination of the importance mean scores for the entire sample suggests that staff cleanliness, hygienic food preparation, fresh ingredients, helpful staff, service friendliness, clear prices, staff competency, food tastiness, consistent food preparation, and high food quality are the top ten most important selection attributes (Table 49).

Table 49. Relationship of Importance of Services to Satisfaction and Future Visit

Choice Rank	Variables	Importance	Correlation (Return)	Return Rank	Correlation (Satisfaction)	Sat. Rank
1	**Staff Cleanliness**	**6.55**	.1635**	5	.1817**	8
2	**Hygienic Food Preparation**	**6.40**	.0149	-	.0371	-
3	**Fresh Ingredients**	**6.21**	.0152	-	.0160	-
4	**Helpful staff**	**6.17**	.1159*	13	.1659**	10
5	**Service Friendliness**	**6.16**	.2756**	1	.2988**	1
6	**Prices Shown Clearly**	**6.06**	.0121	-	.0719	-
7	**Staff Competency**	**6.02**	.0670	-	.1119*	18
8	**Food Tastiness**	**6.01**	.0685	-	.1049*	19
9	**Consistent Food Preparation**	5.98	.1048*	14	.1001	-
10	**High Food Quality**	5.98	.0745	-	.0629	-
11	**Food Value**	5.90	.1505**	6	.2617**	2
12	**High Service Standard**	5.82	.1893**	2	.2525**	3
13	**Reasonable Prices**	5.76	.1306*	11	.1479**	14
14	**Food Presentation**	5.75	.1463**	7	.2122**	5
15	**Attentive Service**	5.70	.1737**	4	.2441**	4
16	**Service Efficiency**	5.61	.0612	-	.1482**	13
17	**Seating Comfort**	5.57	.1359**	8	.1692**	9
18	**Availability of Dishes Liked**	5.51	.0911	-	.0790	-
19	**Staff Appearance**	5.48	.1322*	10	.2095**	6
20	**Local Dishes**	5.38	.0441	-	.0105	-
21	**Menu for all**	5.31	.0916	-	.1841**	7
22	**Heart portions**	5.20	.1336*	9	.1532**	12
23	**Noise**	5.15	.1777**	3	.1149*	17
24	**Impression from the road**	5.10	.0805	-	.1150*	16
25	**Waiting time for dishes**	5.10	.1017	-	.1215*	15
26	**Convenient Ordering**	5.08	.1283*	12	.1547**	11
27	**New and Interesting Dishes**	5.04	.0481	-	.0011	-

* Sig. at .05; ** sig. at. 01

An inspection of the correlation values between the variables and overall satisfaction, demonstrates that some variables with high pre-visit stated importance do not contribute significantly to tourist dining satisfaction and return judgement, or their contribution is relatively low as opposed to their importance in selection. For instance, the results suggest that tourists attached the greatest importance to staff cleanliness when selecting a restaurant. However, the examination of correlation values indicates that the contribution of staff cleanliness to satisfaction is relatively low (r= .18) as opposed to that of staff friendliness (r= .30), which ranked as the fifth most important selection attribute. By the same token, mean importance scores indicate that helpful staff is another significant selection variable (mean = 6.17). However, the results indicate that attentive staff, to which respondents attached significantly lower important weights (mean = 5.70), as opposed to helpful staff, seems to correlate more highly with overall satisfaction and return intentions than does helpful staff.

It is important to note that some variables, which do not even seem to bear importance in tourists' restaurant selection, are moderately correlated with satisfaction and repeat-purchase intentions, and is significant at .01 level. For instance, the overall mean importance score for the entire sample on the communication ability of restaurant staff was relatively low (4.76). However, although this variable appeared not to be that important in the selection, the correlation value between this variable, satisfaction and behavioural intention (r= .28, and r= .1241 respectively) suggests that the communication ability of the staff becomes an important variable in satisfaction judgements. This provides some degree of support that an attribute, which is not considered important in the initial selection decision, could become a significant determinant of satisfaction and repeat patronage.

In addition, a comparative approach was undertaken to examine whether choice and satisfaction criteria are different between tourist segments. In the previous section, the results of an analysis of variance indicated that the *Value segment* attaches significant importance to value and prices of food, followed by moderate importance to food quality when selecting a restaurant. In other words, given their high mean scores on these two service dimensions, it could be argued that price and value, and food quality are the basic requirements that are sought by this group. The results of the regression analysis suggest that only the food quality plays significant role in the formation of customer satisfaction within this group. Interestingly however, although this group is concerned about the food value and prices when selecting a restaurant, the value and price of food does not appear to be a determinant factor in dining satisfaction.

Similarly, an examination of the analysis of variance results displayed in Table 37 suggests that the *Service-Oriented segment* places relatively high importance on service quality, followed by food value and prices, the availability of healthy food choices, and location when selecting a restaurant. An examination of the results indicates that the determinant factors which contributed to this group's dining satisfaction are somewhat different from their restaurant selection criteria. An examination of the Multiple Regression results demonstrates that only one of the four selection criteria (the service quality) contributed significantly to dining satisfaction. It is essential to note that although food quality did not appear as a significant consideration in the selection process of the *Service-oriented segment*, it emerged as the most significant contributor to dining satisfaction.

By the same token, an examination of the previous analysis of variance reveals that the *Adventurous Food-Oriented segment* searches for adventurous food but also takes location into consideration when selecting a restaurant. An investigation of the regression analysis results suggests that service quality, which did not play a significant role in this group's restaurant selection decision, appears to be a major determinant of dining satisfaction. A similar finding was revealed in the examination of selection and evaluation criteria of the *Atmosphere-Oriented segment*. It is important to remind the reader that the Atmosphere-Oriented group emerged as the only group, which placed moderate to high importance to all of the restaurant selection dimensions. An examination of the results of variance analysis and stepwise regression analysis indicates that not all of them, but only a few of the factors considered important when selecting a restaurant, contributed significantly to the dining satisfaction of this group. The explicit and consistent divergence between the selection criteria and evaluation criteria is also found in the analysis of *Healthy Food-Oriented segment*. For instance, although service quality appeared to be an insignificant factor to the selection of restaurants by the Healthy Food-Oriented segment, it contributed significantly to the dining satisfaction of this group.

This finding provides some degree of support for the proposition that the relative importance of pre-visit and post-visit judgement criteria are not identical. This finding is in line with the results of Whipple and Thach (1989) who reported that "utilising repeated measures of Anova, two service features (tour escort service and convenience of departure points) and one attraction (sightseeing) were singled out as being the attributes which contributed significantly to satisfaction with the trip and intention to book another tour. These three variables were not rated as most important in the travellers' tour selection process" (p. 16).

8.3.5.7 Areas in the Need of Improvement

In addition to the identification of satisfaction determinants and selection factors, an analysis of mean scores of the dimensions was undertaken to pinpoint the areas in need of improvement. The mean scores of each determinant factor were computed by summing the performance scores of the variables which composed the factor (Table 50). An analysis of the mean scores of the determinant factors highlighted which of the factors received high or low performance ratings. The performance of each variable was assessed on a 7-point differential scale (the higher the score, the better is the performance).

Table 50. Dimension Mean Scores

	Mean	Std Dev		Mean	Std Dev
Noise	4.68	1.37	**Product Quality**	5.66	1.06
Amenity	4.72	1.82	**Menu Diversity**	5.67	1.09
Atmosphere	4.75	1.53	**Convenience**	5.69	1.08
Value and Price	4.92	1.39	**Service Quality**	5.87	1.00
Service Speed	5.42	1.28	**Hygiene**	5.88	1.01

According to the results displayed in Table 50, it seems that restaurants investigated did not particularly perform well on any of the determinant factors and performed moderately on six of the ten determinant factors (note that none of the performance mean scores of factors exceeded 6). In particular, the results demonstrate that the restaurants in the sample have relatively low performance on *noise, amenity, atmosphere,* and *price*. Given the significance of *amenities, price* and *convenience* in the development of satisfaction, restaurateurs need to improve the performance of these areas in order to achieve higher satisfaction levels.

8.4 Discussion

8.4.1 Hypothesis 12

H_{12} "Satisfaction with foodservice experience will be determined by a number of components, and that service quality component of the foodservice experience will have the greatest effect on tourist satisfaction, and the likelihood to recommend or return to the restaurant".

The results of analyses undertaken in this part of the research reveals that the context of the meal experience, as well as its evaluation, is multifaceted. The study findings suggest that the tourist foodservice experience involves several independent components. The components which emerged as being important were service quality, product quality, menu diversity, cleanliness, convenience-location, noise, service speed, value-price, restaurant facilities and atmosphere. It is important to note that in order to make triangulation of the findings, the respondents written comments were analysed. The results of the qualitative data analysis confirmed the impacts of these dimensions on the determination of tourist dining satisfaction. Based on these findings, it can be stated that the foodservice experience is an amalgam of different service and product components, and that tourist dining satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a cumulative process which is based on evaluations of these components during the dining experience.

It is important to note that one of the major obstacles to understanding customer dining satisfaction arises from the lack of knowledge about how dining satisfaction judgements evolve during the dining experience. In order to address this issue, a stepwise regression analysis was conducted on the restaurant evaluation factors by using the participants' responses on overall dining satisfaction as the dependent variable and evaluation factor scores as the independent variables. The results of the stepwise regression analysis suggest that nine out of ten dimensions have a significant influence on the formation of overall satisfaction with the dining experience. The results further indicated that there was a positive relationship between the dimensions and dining satisfaction, and that one unit change in the performance of any of these dimensions brings about a unit change in the overall satisfaction gained by visitors. The range of foodservice dimensions suggests that restaurant managers must consider the synergy that exists between these dimensions in order to provide a high quality experience that satisfies restaurant customers.

The results of the stepwise regression analysis indicate that service quality has the most significant effect on tourist dining satisfaction. This is followed by product quality. This finding, supporting the research hypothesis, implies that not only the core tangible product of a restaurant (the food) but also its intangible product (the service), contributes significantly to tourist dining satisfaction. It suggests that restaurateurs in Turkey may be better off focusing not only on the core product but also on the manner in which that product is delivered. Considering the finding of the study, it can be argued that in order to ensure continuing customer patronage and to build a new customer base, service personnel attitude towards customers is critical. As Cino (1989: 6) notes "no matter how good basic service offering or how brilliant the marketing plan, it all comes down to nought if there is a breakdown at the most critical interface: the point at which the customer comes into contact with the company's employee". Similarly, research carried out by the National Institute for the Foodservice Industry in the USA revealed that an attitude of indifference or unconcern by one or more employees of a restaurant accounted for the vast majority of the reasons (68%) why customers will stop patronising a restaurant (Miller 1992). By the same token, Bitner *et al* (1990) reported that visitor satisfaction and repeat visitation were dependent on the quality of person to person encounters between visitors and front-line employees.

The examination of the foodservice components which contribute to dining satisfaction indicates that the staff's ability to speak with customers in their own language influences tourists' evaluations of service delivery significantly. Consistent with findings of Reisinger and Waryszak (1996), McArthur (1988) and the preceding section of the research, this finding implies that the inability of restaurant personnel to communicate with tourists could disappoint the patrons and discourage repeat visits not only to the given restaurant but also to the destination. Reisinger and Waryszak, in their research on Japanese tourists, for instance, found that communication with the service providers was of significant importance to the Japanese when they evaluate restaurant services. They reported that "according to the Japanese tourists, although English is compulsory at schools, it is very difficult for them to learn English language. Japanese are shy and try not to speak their English in front of the native English speakers in order to avoid embarrassment. Therefore, they expected Australian service providers to have a basic command of their language" (p. 67). An appropriate conclusion would appear to be that, the communicative ability of restaurant staff is essential for tourists on holidays, since it reduces any misunderstanding between the staff and customers, and reduces the discomfort that might ensue otherwise.

The results further indicate that service speed is an integral part of the dining experience, and thus will have a measurable impact on dining satisfaction. The analysis suggests that in order to achieve dining satisfaction, tourists should not be rushed and they should not be rendered a slow service. Prompt greeting and seating, acknowledging customer's presence, and informing them about the time that cooking takes, all seems to be essential to tourist dining satisfaction. This finding indicates that the length of time that tourists must wait for service, might be very important to their assessments of the service quality of eating-out establishments.

The research findings also indicate that service environment is a vital component in tourists' restaurant evaluations. This is not a surprising finding as service performance takes place in an environment involving the physical facility, atmosphere, waiting times, service personnel and so on. Pointing to the effect of the service environment, Shostack (1985: 251), for instance, notes that "Customers have a difficult time trying to objectively determine, particularly prior to purchase- they look for the physical evidence at hand for verification. The symbolic nature of apparel and appearance plays very heavily on both their willingness to try a service and their satisfaction with it". Consistent with Bitner's (1992) conclusion, this finding of the present research implies that the service environment can affect tourists' emotional, cognitive and psychological responses, which in turn influences their evaluations and behaviour. For instance, a study undertaken by Hopkinson *et al* (1966) revealed that comfort of subjects increased at relatively low levels of light, whereas comfort decreased with high levels of light (in Baker and Cameron 1996). In addition, the study findings demonstrate that not only does the physical environment and customer-service interaction influence dining evaluation, but also customer-customer interactions play an important part too. This suggests that management must pay attention to another important dimension of the service environment- *the social environment*, which includes other customers who share the service experience.

The findings of the study provide further strong support for the existence of satisfiers, dissatisfiers, and for the critical attribute concept which suggests that in a given service context, there might be components that are capable of inducing both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. An examination of the positive and negative comments of the respondents illustrates that, particularly the components of menu diversity, service quality and staff behaviour, value and price, service speed, and product quality could become a source of either satisfaction when performance is high, or dissatisfaction when the performance is poor. An examination of the qualitative data revealed that tourists may make trade-offs of a weakness with strength of another to reach satisfaction or return judgements. In other words, a customer may accept a reduction, for instance, in the menu in exchange for more attentive service. It is important to note that the results of the stepwise regression analyses indicated that, each dining component carries a different weight in the development of dining satisfaction and repeat-purchase decisions. However, due to the design and main objectives of the study, it is not possible to illustrate what kind of compromises are made by customers in a given dining occasion. Further research needs to be carried out on this subject, as an understanding of the relative importance of the dining components and potential compromises is vital to establish strategic management priorities. Given the relative importance of the dining components, the restaurant managers are advised to prioritise the allocation of their resources to the improvement of service quality, food quality, service speed, menu diversity, and atmosphere, as these are likely to increase tourists' repeat-purchase.

8.4.2 Hypothesis 13

H_{13} "The tourist total dining market is not homogeneous and there will be different tourist segments seeking different benefits from restaurants, and that sources of dining satisfaction will differ among these segments".

The study findings provide strong support for this hypothesis. The results of the research suggest that tourists, while on their holidays, take into account a number of factors when selecting a restaurant. The selection factors which emerged as being important were service quality, product quality, adventurous menu, value and price, atmosphere, healthy food, location, the availability of non-smoking area, and visibility of the food preparation area. The emergence of service quality, as the factor which explains most of the variance in selection, suggests that, in general tourist look for restaurants where the staff might be courteous and friendly and where service is of a high quality. This finding is also confirmed by the qualitative data, which indicated that friendly service was sought, as this would enhance the eating-out experience.

Based on the results, it can be said that tourists prefer restaurants, which prepare dishes with fresh ingredients, which are cooked and served in a hygienic environment. This implies that restaurateurs should highlight the freshness of ingredients and the existence of immaculate sanitary conditions in their promotional messages. The examination of the selection criteria further suggests that tourists prefer restaurants which serve tasty dishes of high quality and they prefer dishes prepared consistently. For instance, an inspection of the respondents' comments suggests that consistency of food preparation could stimulate repeat business, and that failure to maintain consistency of preparation results in dissatisfaction and future business loss. This finding suggests that restaurateurs aiming to attract and retain tourists, should highlight the consistency of food preparation in their promotional messages.

In addition, based on the results of factor analysis, it can be stated that tourist are looking for adventurous menus which enables them to taste local and interesting food. This is not surprising as the majority of people view tasting local dishes as a means of learning more about the traditions and culture of the host country. This finding which suggests the importance of menu diversity in dining satisfaction is consistent with that of other studies (for example, Reisinger and Waryszak 1996; Zimmerman 1995). For instance, Zimmerman notes that Japanese tourists like their own food and they appreciate it when they are served with their own Japanese specialities. However when they leave their country, they want to sample other food as part of the discovery of different cultures. Reisinger and Waryszak reported that tourists (Japanese) wished to taste Australian food and have Japanese food available in case they did not like Australian food. This suggests that menus should be balanced in order to accommodate different needs. At one end of the need continuum there may be tourists, who have a want for familiar food, and at the opposite end of the continuum, is the tourist who wants to try different cuisine.

Based on the results, restaurateurs might be better off highlighting the nutritiousness of the dishes, as it appears to bear a considerable effect on restaurant selection. The emergence of healthy food and nutritious food preferences is not surprising because, growing awareness of the link between diet and disease has initiated an increased focus on healthy eating habits (Clay *et al* 1995). This finding is consistent with the recent study undertaken by the National Restaurant Association in the USA (1990), which reported that consumer attitudes and nutrition affected their food choices as well as their choice of restaurants. The study findings also suggest that restaurateurs should highlight the value for money in their promotional messages in order to assure customers. The results further suggest that atmosphere is a key factor which attracts tourists to the restaurants. This finding is consistent with that of Farra (1996), Auty (1992), and June and Smith (1987). In addition, the findings of the study further indicate that the availability of a non-smoking area and the visibility of the food preparation area could lead to a competitive advantage.

It was stated that there might be different markets seeking different needs and understanding what various markets want from a given restaurant, is key to attracting customers, understanding dining satisfaction, and maintaining a repeat customer base (Kivela 1998). Market segment analysis enables managers to investigate the differential influence of specific service variables across segments. Surprisingly however, although the value and benefits of market segmentation have been justified, the level of awareness concerning the significance of market-segmentation analysis in foodservice operations in Turkey, is very limited. In order to draw attention to the potential benefits of segmentation, this study investigated whether the total tourist market could be segmented based on restaurant selection attributes. The results of the study indicated that there might be different segments that are seeking different set of benefits. The study findings reveal that there are five distinct tourist segments among the sample. The first segment was identified as *value-seekers* since this group places a high importance on value for money, the prices of food and product quality. Based on the level of importance that tourists place on choice variables, the other segments were identified as *atmosphere-seekers*, *service-seekers*, *adventurous food-seekers*, and *healthy food-seekers*. The results of the analyses indicate that some choice variables become determining factors for selection, and that the determining factors differ, for each market segment. Multiple regression analyses also revealed that sources of satisfaction differed between the dining segments. This suggests that restaurateurs should isolate the determining factors in order to penetrate into particular market segment.

8.4.3 Hypothesis 14

H_{14} "Some service attributes that do not play an important role in tourists' restaurant selection decisions may become decisive factors in their satisfaction and return intention judgements. That is, the relative importance of pre-visit and post visit judgement criteria may not be identical".

In addition, the analysis provides some degree of support for the proposition, which states that tourists' pre-visit and post-visit judgement criteria might be different. This finding is consistent with the findings and arguments of a number of researchers. For instance, Whipple and Thach (1989) noted the dissimilarity with pre- and post evaluation criteria and stated that " There is evidence that pre-purchase choice criteria and post-purchase choice criteria are not the same" (p. 16). A study undertaken by the American Hotel Motel Association on hotel choice and repeat business, documented the difference in ranking of the criteria before and after purchase. By the same token, McGill and Iacobucci (1992) reported that "the comparison of subjects listing of features that affected their level of satisfaction in the post-experience questionnaire were not entirely consistent with the listing of factors that they expected to affect their level of satisfaction in the pre-experience questionnaire" (p. 571). Similarly, Gardial and her colleagues (1994) examined consumers' thoughts regarding the stages of selecting a product, evaluating its performance, and judging their satisfaction. Their study showed important differences in the criteria used at the pre-purchase and post-purchase phases.

The emergence of a disparity between the selection and evaluation criteria brings forward a critical question. "*Will a tourist be satisfied if selection criteria are fulfilled adequately by the service provider, or will other attributes which do not play a role in the selection process become more important in the formation of dining satisfaction and customer loyalty*"? Although many of the choice dimension set will also be used in forming satisfaction judgements, the assumption that the choice dimension set and the satisfaction set are identical appears to be incorrect. This explicit divergence between selection factors and satisfaction determinants suggests that, management should incorporate different service aspects into marketing and into their organisation's service improvement efforts (Mount 1997). Management should emphasise hygiene (staff cleanliness and hygienic food preparation), service quality (staff helpfulness, friendliness, competency), food quality (fresh ingredients, food tastiness, high food quality), and assurance of fair price in their marketing communication messages. Management should deliver a high standard of service with friendly and attentive staff appearing clean in order to generate customer satisfaction and repeat business. Management should also take seating comfort and noise level into their service improvement efforts along with attractively presented, and acceptable sized dishes. Further research should be undertaken to identify the specific restaurant selection attributes that attract customers and the specific service attributes that encourage repeat patronage.

8.5 Conclusion

It was emphasised that improvement of tourist foodservice experience, thus overall holiday satisfaction, rests heavily on the extent of management knowledge about consumer behaviour. In other words, understanding what brings satisfaction, what promotes repeat business and what may discourage return business is vital for strategic management decisions. Despite its prominence, a review of the literature reveals that there has been limited research conducted with regard to the extent to which each service component, in a given dining experience, contributes to tourist dining satisfaction and repeat-business. As a consequence, there is little guidance for destination authorities when planning strategies to enhance tourist dining experience, and thus, overall tourist satisfaction. Drawing on such gaps in the tourist dining experience literature, this final part of the research ascertained the factors which determined tourist satisfaction with restaurant services, and examined the extent of each factor's influence on overall dining satisfaction and behavioural intentions. The study also highlighted the importance of incorporating segmentation concept into satisfaction investigations. Segment specific satisfaction analysis was found to provide crucial management information. Having discussed the major research findings, the following chapter presents the implications of the research and provides recommendations for further investigations.

CHAPTER IX

Conclusion and Research Implications

9.1 Conclusions

Customer satisfaction is an important topic both for researchers and managers because a high level of customer satisfaction leads to increases in repeat patronage among current customers and aids customer recruitment by enhancing an organisation's market reputation (Augustyn & Ho, 1998; Weber, 1997; WTO, 1988, 1995). Successfully being able to judge customers' satisfaction levels and to apply that knowledge is a critical starting point to establish and maintain long-term customer retention and long-term competitiveness (Henning-Thurau & Klee, 1997). Given the vital role of customer satisfaction, one should not be surprised that a great deal of research has been devoted to investigating the process by which customers form judgements about a service experience (Yuksel & Rimmington, 1998b). As a result, customer satisfaction measurement has become one of the most frequent applications of market research in the 1990s.

Despite the noticeable progress has been achieved in the application of customer-satisfaction information within service industries, this area of research is still replete with many conceptual and practical difficulties and under-examined research issues. The research on customer satisfaction has often been either over-simplified or too complicated. Satisfaction research has generally lacked managerial focus and unfortunately in most cases it has not produced actionable information that identifies relative organisational strengths and weaknesses. Researchers seem to have been largely concerned with the conceptual antecedents of customer satisfaction. Little attention seems to have been paid to the development of informative and straightforward models that help managers understand what customers regard as the components of a satisfactory service experience, and how these elements can be better managed to improve satisfaction and repeat business. There is also an absence of consensus on how best to conceptualise customer satisfaction. Satisfaction remains an elusive, indistinct and ambiguous construct (Crompton and Love 1995). Strictly speaking, an accurate measurement framework cannot be devised unless the concept to be measured is defined clearly.

Another continuing debate in the customer satisfaction measurement literature is the question of how one can and ought to measure customer satisfaction (Maddox, 1985; Panton, 1999; Yuksel & Rimmington, 1998). The existence of several satisfaction measurement frameworks is causing confusion among practitioners, as no consensus has been reached on which framework is best suited to assess customer satisfaction. There also remains an uncertainty as to the reliability and validity of these proposed satisfaction measurement frameworks, particularly of the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm, in determining customer satisfaction (Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001). The scrutiny of the reliability and validity of the measurement frameworks is of utmost importance, as success of satisfaction improvement programmes relies heavily on reliable and valid information.

The majority of satisfaction theories concur that satisfaction is a relative concept, always judged in relation to a standard. The selection of appropriate standard of comparison that ought to be used in research, however, represents a dilemma for both managers and researchers, partly because there is not sufficient research evidence available to answer precisely what comparison standard consumers use in different situations (Gardial et al., 1993; Woodruff, 1993). While different forms of standards have been proposed in the marketing and consumer behaviour literature, with the exception of predictive expectations, other standards have received little empirical research in tourism and hospitality literature (Oh & Parks, 1997). There is also limited understanding of whether the use of different comparison standards yields different results in terms of satisfaction. Ascertaining the relative ability of different comparison standards in predicting customer satisfaction, and exploring whether the use of different standards yields different results in terms of customer satisfaction, is therefore warranted to advance the customer satisfaction research.

Furthermore, the relationship, as well as the difference between the customer satisfaction and other related constructs, notably service quality, is confusing because both constructs are founded on a similar conceptual framework. This confusion has delayed the introduction of customer satisfaction and service quality paradigms into hospitality and tourism research (Oh and Parks 1997). It is therefore important to clarify whether these two concepts are distinguishable, and whether the use of different comparative standards could be confidently used to differentiate between the two.

Additionally, the concept of tourist satisfaction seems to have been examined mainly from anthropological, sociological and psychological perspectives. While these perspectives are critical to the understanding of the concept, they are not readily transferable into managerial actions. A comprehensive understanding of the structure of the satisfaction construct in a given service experience is essential not only for measurement and monitoring purposes, but also for providing greater insight into the process of satisfaction formation (Singh 1991). In order to implement a program aiming to attain and maintain a high level of quality and satisfaction, managers must determine the elements of the product which satisfies customers.

Moreover, the majority of past satisfaction studies seem to have explored tourist satisfaction at either an aggregate or an individual level. Surprisingly however, no or limited effort has been made by researchers to scrutinise satisfaction at a segment level. Research into segment-specific-satisfaction assessment is warranted partly because the tourist market is not homogeneous and that the nature and relative importance of service/product attributes might differ across market segments (Pizam & Milman, 1993). An understanding of what different markets regard as the components of a satisfying service/product experience and of whether these segments develop their return intention judgements based on different service/product attributes is managerially important. Knowing what segments require, and developing strategies to satisfy these specific requirements is the ultimate key to access growing markets and to maintain repeat business.

Furthermore, the dominant assessment frameworks used in the customer satisfaction research, such as the Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm, fail to provide information that diagnoses relative organisational strengths and weaknesses, which is imperative in developing competitive actions against competitors. The EDP is unable to accommodate the potential effect of customer perceptions of performance of alternative product(s) on evaluation judgements of the focal product/service. As the majority of customers have experiences with other hospitality and tourism organisations, it is likely that in their evaluation they will make implicit or explicit comparisons between the facilities, attractions, and service standards of alternative organisations (Laws, 1995). Development of new customer satisfaction research approaches that lead to an understanding of customers' perceptions of the firm relative to other firms is imperative as it offers substantial benefits to managers. It may enable comparison of performance elements between organisations and may provide a better understanding of how a given organisation performs (Baum, 1999; Laws, 1995; Pearce, 1997). It may provide more objective foundation for evaluating the strengths and weaknesses of the company, provide better understanding of how competitive advantage can be gained (Pearce, 1997), and provide useful insights in to the design of a positioning strategy (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999).

In order to advance the academic research on customer satisfaction and provide some guidelines on ways, in which tourist foodservice experience and holiday satisfaction can be assessed and enhanced, a three-step analytical framework, each step building on the previous part, was developed in this study. The first step of the analytical framework identified the measurement framework to be used in the subsequent stages of the research, and involved a comparison of the reliability and validity of seven alternative measurement frameworks. The second step ascertained the underlying factors of tourist satisfaction within a destination and examined the extent to which each individual factor, particularly the foodservice experience, influenced overall holiday satisfaction, return intentions, and word-of-mouth recommendations. The second step also examined the potential benefits of incorporating relative performance assessment into satisfaction investigations. The third step of the framework provided insights into what brings satisfaction, return business and word-of-mouth recommendations and what discourages return business in non-fast-food restaurants in Turkey. This step adopted a factor-clustering method in order to explore whether sources of satisfaction differ between segments.

9.1.1 The First Investigation

Strong support was found for the research hypotheses pertaining to the first part of the research. Among other alternative measurement frameworks tested in this study, the perceived performance only model was found to be a more appropriate, convenient and a valid framework for assessing customer satisfaction with services. The performance-only model outperformed the disparity models, which involved a comparison between a predetermined standard and the perceived performance, and the multiplication models, where performance was weighted by the attribute importance, in predicting customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions. The validity of assessing customer satisfaction through the Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm (EDP), in a service delivery context, was found to be questionable. Although the EDP has been widely adopted by tourism and hospitality researchers, the assumption held by the conventional EDP, which states that, satisfaction resulting from the meeting or exceeding of customer expectations and dissatisfaction is induced when performance falls short of initial expectations, appears to be incorrect. A number of respondents whose difference scores indicated that service performance fell short of their expectations did not report dissatisfaction but expressed satisfaction with the overall service. Satisfaction may not be due to the disconfirmation of expectations alone.

The performance-minus-expectation procedure was found unnecessary, as it did not add any additional information beyond that already contained in the perception component of the scale. The inclusion of expectations led to a suppressing effect rather than improving the model's ability in explaining variance in such important variables as satisfaction and behavioural intentions. The logic of the traditional EDP, which supposes that a difference score of zero (or -1) would mean equal customer satisfaction in each case, was found to be substantially disputable. In contrast to what the EDP predicts, tied difference scores of zero (or –1) did not to mean equal satisfaction to every customers. The diagnostic ability of the direct disconfirmation has a major drawback partly because it could not indicate whether the expectations being confirmed or disconfirmed were high or low. In this study, satisfaction assessment through weighting of attribute importance by performance, favoured by some hospitality researchers, was found unnecessary, as it did not increase the model's predictive power. These findings suggest that a more direct measure of perceived performance may be a more useful predictor of customer satisfaction than more complex composite measures of disconfirmation of expectations.

If disparity theories are to be employed by researchers, then the choice of a comparison standard, in satisfaction assessments, becomes critically important, as different types of standards may yield different comparison levels against which perceived experience is compared, and may produce different results in terms of satisfaction. In this study, the relative ability of two comparison standards in determining customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions was compared; these were the "should" and "predictive" expectations. Although predictive expectations have been widely adopted as the sole comparison standard in many investigations, the results of the study suggested that a "predictive expectation-based measure" had only modest correlation with satisfaction, whereas the "should expectation-based disconfirmation measure" had a higher correlation and greater ability in explaining variance in satisfaction. The findings of the present study suggest that satisfaction ratings might be contingent upon which comparison standard is used. If so, then historical commitment to the Expectancy-Disconfirmation paradigm, which supposes that predictive expectations are the sole comparison standards, might be detrimental to advancing knowledge critical to understanding customer satisfaction.

The findings pertaining to the first investigation also provided critical insights into the ongoing debate concerning the similarities and differences between the concepts of customer satisfaction and service quality. It is evident from the findings that attempting to differentiate between these two evaluative concepts might be futile and operationally extremely difficult. Based on customers' ratings, these two constructs seemed to be indistinguishable and had a similar level of effect on customers' behavioural intentions. The assumptions held by some researchers suggesting that specific comparison standards are used in the development of satisfaction and service quality judgements, was found to be incorrect. The results did not support the conventional assumption which states service quality is a function of disconfirmation of should expectations, whereas satisfaction is a function of disconfirmation of predictive expectations.

9.1.2 The Second Investigation

The study findings relating to the second stage of the research yielded invaluable insights into the holistic nature of tourist satisfaction, and filled an empirical vacuum in this area of academic research. The analytical framework developed in this part of the research revealed that tourist satisfaction, could be affected by a variety of destination services and that the variety of identified holiday components suggests that, destination authorities, must consider the synergy that exists between these components. Scrutiny of the relative importance of these components is crucial, as understanding which components matter most and how they could be best manipulated, is essential to the delivery of quality touristic experiences. Among the many satisfaction dimensions that emerged in this study, negative tourist perceptions of local people and service providers were found to deter tourists from returning to Turkey, while positive perceptions of this aspect could motivate tourists to return. This finding suggests that tourist satisfaction and repeat business does not only come from beautiful scenery and good facilities but also from the behaviour that tourists encounter during their holiday. The significance of the hospitality component, in tourist satisfaction requires considerable attention from destination authorities. The authorities must identify causes of tourist dis/satisfaction with the local people, and devise effective strategies to overcome possible difficulties.

Within the context of the holiday experience, tourists' impressions of foodservice experiences were found to be decisive factors in tourist holiday satisfaction and return intention judgements. The negative impression of this component was found to be capable of overriding other more positively perceived components. A positive link was found between foodservice impressions and holiday satisfaction which suggests that destination authorities should attach a priority to ensuring that tourists have high quality and enjoyable foodservice experiences. If not, this memorable part of the holiday experience cannot be compensated for, which in turn may lead to dissatisfaction and to a potential loss of future business. This component was therefore identified as critical because it holds the potential both to inhibit, as well as to improve a destination's image. The potential influence of tourists' foodservice impressions, in engendering repeat business suggests that destination authorities must consider the improvement of this component, as it may have the potential to become a leading element in generating a differential edge over other competing destinations.

The results of the content analysis of questionnaires and of the regression analysis of the dissatisfied and satisfied tourists, provide some degree of support for the assumption that there may be differences between the causes of dissatisfaction and satisfaction. Tourists might judge the destination's performance on a set of attributes, some of which are relatively important in determining satisfaction, while others are not too critical to tourist satisfaction, but related to dissatisfaction when their performance is not satisfactory. Some attributes in a given service experience may lead to dissatisfaction when they are not performed right (for example, cleanliness, traffic conditions, commercialisation, airport services), but they may not result in high satisfaction when they have been performed well. Managers are encouraged to pursue similar procedures involving both qualitative and quantitative analysis in order to identify satisfiers, dissatisfier and criticals. Managers are cautioned not to put too much time and effort into those areas where achieving high performance may not be noticed and rewarded by customers. Maintaining services at an adequate level in these areas might be a more rational approach. Drawing on this research evidence, it would be appropriate to state that the conventional theory which assumes that satisfaction and dissatisfaction operate as two extremes on one continuum needs to be revised. Consistent with Pizam's (1994) contention, the results of the regression analysis and content analysis provide some support for the contention that tourist satisfaction can be explained on more than one continuum. The first is for satisfaction (satisfaction versus no-satisfaction), the second is for dissatisfaction (dissatisfaction versus no-dissatisfaction), and the third one is for common factors that can cause both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

One of the suggestions of this study was to turn the focus of satisfaction research from individual or aggregate level analysis to segment-specific satisfaction analysis, as it provides better diagnostic information. In this respect, perceptions of first-time and repeat visitor segments were compared to identify whether there were differences. The perceived item performance, satisfaction level, and intention to return scores indicated by repeat and first-time customers were significantly different; repeat visitors rated a higher perceived performance, higher satisfaction and a stronger willingness to come back. Based on the study results, it could be argued that different segments might develop their satisfaction and return intentions based on different aspects of destination services and segment-specific-satisfaction analysis is therefore useful. For instance, service quality, accommodation, convenience, hospitality, food quality, beach and environment, transportation, and price and value were found to be significant to first-time visitors in comparison with other components. Whereas hospitality, accommodation, service quality, food quality, transportation, convenience, and quietness were found to be significant in determining holiday satisfaction of repeat visitors. The beach and environment, and price and value, did not emerge as important in the formation of repeat visitors' holiday satisfaction. However, exclusion of these components does not necessarily mean that they are unimportant to repeat visitors' satisfaction. They are still important in an absolute sense, but not on relative terms to the other components in predicting tourists' satisfaction.

This study also found that hospitality, accommodation, quietness, safety and food quality contributed significantly to repeat visitors' return intentions. Interestingly, however, food quality, hospitality, accommodation, safety, service quality, beach and environment, convenience and water sports were significant in predicting first-time visitors' willingness to come back. This difference might stem from how visitors form their first impressions. For instance, service quality, water sports, convenience and beach and environment may be more influential in forming first-time visitors' initial impressions. Subsequently, tourists' impression with these services get weaker as tourists become more familiar with service quality, water sports, convenience, beach and environment from their repeated visits; this could cause less significant contribution of these dimensions to explain repeat visitors' return intentions.

The study also found a link between tourists' impressions of their previous holiday destinations and their evaluation of current holidays. Those respondents who stated that their previous holiday, in another destination, was better, rated significantly lower scores on current satisfaction, return intention and word-of-mouth recommendation measures. This confirms the contention that performance levels, delivered by a rival destination, might affect tourist satisfaction and future intentions toward the present destination (i.e., the perceived performance of one product may affect evaluative judgements of another). The incorporation of the past experience disconfirmation scale (relative performance assessment model), in this research, proved to be beneficial, as it helped identify the strengths and weaknesses of the destination. The holiday components whose performance is rated lower than that of its competitors (for instance, accommodation, airport services, communication, quietness, facilities, and beach and environment) represent a threat to the destination's future success as lower performance in these areas might prompt tourists not to return. Areas whose performance is equivalent to other competing destinations constitute both threats and opportunities for destination managers. In the long term, remaining competitive might become difficult for those destinations in Turkey if destination authorities do not strive to improve the performance of these areas so as to create product quality differentiation. Whereas, areas whose performance is rated better than that of competitors (for example, hospitality, entertainment, and transportation) account for the strengths of the destination. Performance in these areas should be maintained.

9.1.3 The Final Investigation

The findings of the final investigation, provided invaluable insights into what brings satisfaction, what service aspects are considered important in repeat visit judgements and word-of mouth recommendations, and what may discourage such repeat business to restaurants, at tourist destinations. It is evident from the findings that dining satisfaction is influenced by a number of service components. However, food quality did not emerge as the most significant dining satisfaction factor. It was the manner in which the product is delivered which accounted for the greatest impact on tourist dining satisfaction and return intentions. In addition to the attentive and friendly service, the communication ability of restaurant staff in the customer's language was found to be essential for tourist dining satisfaction largely because it reduces any misunderstanding between the staff and their customers, and reduces the discomfort that might ensue.

The service environment was found to be another vital component in tourists' restaurant evaluations. This is not surprising since customers tend to stay for an extended period of time in the restaurant where service performance takes place, in an environment, involving the physical facility, atmosphere, waiting times, service personnel and so on. Not only does the physical environment influence dining evaluation, satisfaction, and return intentions but also customer-customer interaction (the social environment) plays an equally important part. This suggests that restaurant managers must pay attention to the social environment, which includes other customers who share the service experience. The study findings also indicate that the length of time that tourists wait for service might be very important in their assessments of the quality of eating-out experiences. In order to achieve dining satisfaction, tourists should neither be rushed or be rendered a slow service.

This study suggested that the incorporation of segmentation and satisfaction research provides critical facts that will allow managers to make informed decisions. To this end, based on tourists' familiarity information (first-time and repeat visitors), a segment-specific satisfaction analysis was conducted in the second part of the research. This final part of the research advanced the segment-specific-satisfaction analysis further and, developed a factor-clustering analytical framework, to examine whether tourists could be grouped together based on certain similarities and differences in the benefits that they sought from restaurants. The analysis identified five distinct tourist-dining segments. The first segment (Value Seekers) was found to be more concerned with product value when making their restaurant selection decision. The second segment (Service Seekers) appeared to attach greater importance to quality service when selecting a restaurant. The third segment (Adventurous Food Seekers) was found to take the opportunity of tasting new, interesting, and local dishes more into account in their selection decisions. This segment was found not to be particularly concerned with the nutritiousness and healthiness of the food. The fourth segment (Atmosphere Seekers) sought restaurants capable of offering a pleasant atmosphere and availability of good time. The final segment (Healthy Food Seekers) was found to be more concerned with the availability of healthy food when selecting a restaurant.

These findings suggest that managers can enhance their sales volume and profits by developing market specific strategies, based on a sophisticated approach to segmentation, rather than on the basis of their intuition. However, although the benefits of becoming and remaining close to target customers are obvious, market segmentation based on scientific methods in foodservice operations, particularly in tourist resorts, is not generally practised. It appears that restaurateurs in tourist resorts are trying to appeal to all potential customers and they seem to believe that by segmenting the market, they will weaken their sales volume. Crawford-Welch (1994), for instance, observes that hospitality operators have traditionally based their marketing practices on their own intuition and mainly on price since they assume that price is the most effective weapon in the battle for market share. This over-emphasis on price as the sole means of attracting and retaining customers, however, has led to the development of the so-called "profitless prosperity syndrome" (Crawford-Welch 1994) whereby restaurateurs can often sell their products but the price is not high enough to ensure adequate profit levels. As a consequence, the rate of business failures are high (English *et al* 1995), particularly in tourist resorts.

Contrary to managers' over-emphasis on price, the findings of this research suggest that there are other elements impacting on customer restaurant selection decisions and that the relative importance of each element, differs between different segments' selection decisions. With the information yielded in this study, restaurant managers can make informed decisions. Once they have determined the viable market for their business, they can flag up those aspects that would appeal to the targeted segment in their communications. Restaurateurs targeting the Healthy-Food-Seekers segment, for instance, might be better off highlighting the healthiness of the dishes and should provide information about food nutrition. Those restaurateurs that have identified Adventurous-Food-Seekers, as their viable customer group among other segments that they attract, should emphasise that customers choosing their restaurants may prefer to taste authentic local dishes in order to learn more about the traditions and culture of the host country.

One of the assumptions of this study was that, sources of satisfaction would be different between segments and that, tourists' pre-visit and post-visit judgements, would not be similar. The study found strong support for this assumption. Some restaurant service attributes did not play a significant role in selection but became a decisive element in satisfaction and repeat visit judgements. For instance, the overall mean importance score for the communication ability of the restaurant staff was relatively low. However, although it appeared not to be that important in the selection decision, the correlation value between this variable and return intentions and satisfaction suggested that the communication ability of the staff became an important variable in these judgements. A similar result was found in the comparison of selection and satisfaction determinants of the segments defined in the study. This finding suggests that although many of the choice variables will also be used in forming satisfaction and return intention judgements, the assumption that tourist' pre-visit and post-visit judgement set are identical, seems to be incorrect.

9.2 Research Implications

There are both theoretical and practical implications of this study. By knowing how to effectively measure customer satisfaction within the tourism and hospitality area, this research provides a contribution to an under-researched area of consumer behaviour. Destination and facility managers will benefit from this research, as a proper customer satisfaction measurement will provide more accurate and meaningful customer feedback (www.tregistry.com/s0114536.htm, 1998). Despite dominance of the EDP in assessments of customer satisfaction with hospitality and tourism services, this research has demonstrated that there are a number of unresolved theoretical and practical issues concerning its validity and reliability. This raises doubts about whether information derived from this model is as reliable and valid as has been suggested and whether formulating management and marketing strategies based on the results derived from the EDP is appropriate. Assessment of customer satisfaction through customers' performance perceptions alone was found to be free from the complications that surround the EDP.

For Turkish tourism, this study which supports the view that "what is not measured cannot be managed", presents some useful information for the areas of management and marketing. The marketing and management implications of the research are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Marketing: Within the context of marketing, these results demonstrate that different tourist segments may develop their satisfaction and return intention judgements based on different aspects of the destination. Thus, destination marketers may need to emphasise different aspects of their destination when they communicate with different target markets. For example, marketing messages emphasising superior service quality, water sports, convenience and beach and environment may be an effective strategy in developing new markets and, alternatively, emphasising hospitality, accommodation, quietness, safety and food quality may appeal more to repeat visitors. Both first-time and repeat visitors groups consider food quality, accommodation, hospitality, and safety most important in motivating them to come back. These might be considered as essentials of tourist satisfaction and loyalty. Based on the study results, it could be said that the focus of destination marketers should be on retaining the repeat visitor market, as they seem to promise more future business than do first-time visitors. However, unless managers strive to convert first-time visitors into repeat customers, the number of current repeat customers might shrink in the future (Oppermann 1998), as a result of customer defection to rivals or other natural causes, which may in turn drive the destination out of business.

Identification of the relative product strengths has also marketing implications. In a recent study comparing images of destinations, Baloglu and McCleary (1999) identified that the primary attributes such as historical, cultural and natural attractions do not serve as differentiating factors between the destinations. They found that all four destinations studied were perceived similarly by respondents on these important factors. They concluded that although these factors should still be emphasised in marketing communications due to their importance in travellers' decision making, authorities should also emphasise secondary factors in their communications to set the destination apart from its competitors. These include value for money, accommodations, local cuisine, beaches, and water sports, quality of infrastructure, environment, nightlife and entertainment and hygiene and cleanliness (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). It is therefore feasible to suggest that destination authorities can use the destination strengths relative to its competition identified in this study in their marketing communications in order to differentiate the destination from its competitors.

Management: The study results also have important consequences in the areas of performance evaluation and destination management. The study provides some useful information which will guide destination managers to manipulate key components, in order to create a quality tourist experience, and thus, repeat business.

Quality and satisfaction improvement is a vital ingredient in the strategy for making destinations more competitive. Communicating quality and satisfaction starts with an understanding of those destination's components which are most important to tourists. Destination managers need to ensure that the sub-components of tourism (for example, catering, lodging, transport, entertainment) work together in a systematic and synergistic fashion to secure the delivery of quality experiences to the tourist.

Destination managers in Turkey should place greater emphasis on a number of components affecting the overall quality of the tourist experience because of their ability to predict tourist satisfaction. Within these components, results suggest that destination management should focus more on the delivery of hospitality, quality service and accommodation, and a foodservice experience with attentive service, along with a knowledgeable, communicable, and friendly staff, at a fair price.

The results of the study also provides some evidence that there might be some destination attributes which are relatively important in determining satisfaction (essentials), while there might be other destination attributes which are not too critical to satisfaction, but related to dissatisfaction when their performance is not satisfactory (dissatisfiers). There might also be other attributes whose delivery will enhance tourist perceptions and lead to satisfaction, while if they are not delivered they will cause dissatisfaction (foodservice quality, hospitality, accommodation). The managerial implication of this is that only an adequate level of performance should be delivered in areas where achieving high performance will not be noticed and rewarded by the tourists. Putting too much time and effort into improving performance in these areas beyond the adequate will be a waste of effort. Destination managers should focus their effort on the performance improvement of critical attributes (foodservice quality, hospitality, accommodation, and service quality) since these attributes may have the potential to promote, as well as damage a destination's image.

The Relative Performance Assessment (RPA) model developed in this research has also implications for destination management. What the competition has to offer can play an important role in determining consumer behaviour, and thus, the provision of comparative information is required to assist destination managers in planning appropriate competitive actions against competitors. Destination management needs to incorporate the relative performance assessment into their periodic tourist satisfaction assessments, as any information without relative performance would be incomplete. Destinations failing to pay attention to the performance delivered by rivals, not knowing their relative shortcomings, and overlooking the improvement of tourist experience and satisfaction are more than likely going to loose their market share. The RPA model may be utilised as a means of understanding external product strengths and weaknesses and of where Turkish tourism stands on service performance relative to her competitors.

The study results provided useful information on service aspects that might be taken into consideration when tourists are making a restaurant selection decision. This information might be useful in tailor-making restaurant products and services to meet these requirements, in order to attract and retain certain groups of customers. The results suggest that in general, tourists look for restaurants where staff might be courteous and friendly and, where service is of a high standard. Tourists also seem to prefer restaurants, preparing tasty dishes of high quality, with fresh ingredients, which are cooked and served in a hygienic environment. Another variable contributing to the selection of one restaurant over another appears to be the menu diversity. Tourists seem to look for adventurous menus that enables them to taste local and interesting food. This is not surprising, as the majority of tourists may view sampling of local dishes as a means of learning more about the traditions and culture of the host country. Sampling of local food might extensively contribute to the discovery of the host culture, however, the menu needs to be balanced in order to cater for different needs. This is because at one end of the need continuum there might be people who have a desire for familiar food, and at the opposite end of the continuum, there might be the tourist who want to try different cuisine.

The availability of nutritious dishes may be an important consideration in tourists' restaurant selection decision. The preference to restaurants offering healthy and nutritious food is not surprising because of the growing awareness of diet and the disease link, which initiated an increased focus on healthy eating habits. This suggests that consumer nutrition attitudes may influence their food choices as well as their choice of restaurants. The study findings also indicate that tourists consider the value and price of dishes when selecting a restaurant. Thus, the right combination of product quality, fair price, and good service may provide a competitive edge for restaurants.

The results suggest that destination and facility management should take the segmentation concept on board seriously because segment specific models allow managers to investigate the differential effects of the various attributes on perceptions across segments. As such, marketing managers will have a better understanding of what attributes of the service or the holiday are most important to each segment. The identification of segments, through selection variables, can promote better marketing, as the focus would be more precise.

It is, however, important to note that it is one thing to attract customers, but to secure repeat business is another. Thus, segment-specific-satisfaction analysis is required, as it helps understand segment-specific satisfaction elements, which is essential in developing appropriate management actions.

The disparity between tourists' pre-visit and post-visit judgements indicates that restaurant managers may be better off designing slightly different strategies to attract and retain restaurant customers. Organisations should incorporate important pre-choice attributes into their marketing campaigns, and incorporate a combination of relative importance of post-purchase evaluation criteria and performance on those attributes into their organisation's service improvement efforts (Mount 1997).

Overall, the analytical framework developed in this study filled an empirical vacuum in the tourist satisfaction assessment literature. The study provides a diagnostic set of procedures which can be of assistance to destination and facility managers in their efforts to identify the service components most critical to the destination success, highlight components which cause the most trouble, elucidate the components in need of improvement, and flag up the components that have the greatest potential for differentiating their destination from others. However, it should be conceded that, the findings of this study relating to the holiday dimensions, restaurant service dimensions, as well as satisfiers, dissatisfiers and criticals, cannot be generalised beyond Turkey as they are not universal. Customer satisfaction depends on the destination area, its specific facilities, attractions, weather, and so forth. However, an appropriate conclusion would appear to be that destinations bearing features similar to those of Turkey could use the same dimensions as identified here. It should also be acknowledged that application of rigorous and complex statistical techniques employed in this study might not be practical and possible for a manager lacking resources (software) and/or statistical expertise. Nevertheless, as satisfaction measurement will eventually pay off, managers lacking statistical expertise can plug this gap either by simplifying the procedures employed in this study or by liaising with other organisations specialised in data collection and analyses.

9.3 Recommendations for Further Research

Accurate measurement of customer satisfaction is a prerequisite for developing effective management strategies. Only with reliable customer feedback, gathered through an adequate and appropriate assessment framework, can destination and facility managers be in possession of facts that will allow them to implement satisfaction improvement programmes. Thus, further empirical research is necessary to analyse the concept of customer satisfaction in the tourism and hospitality context and to test the reliability and validity of the EDP and other frameworks in its measurement in different hospitality and tourism settings. There is a need to clarify whether the use of prior expectations and disconfirmation measures are applicable in all situations, and whether the use of a direct measure of perceived performance in certain situations is a better predictor of customer satisfaction. There is also a need to understand the formation of expectations in the tourism and hospitality context, its role in customer choice, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions, and the relative ability of other comparison standards in determining customer satisfaction. From a management point of view, there is also a need to develop straightforward and informative frameworks that could measure customer satisfaction in various tourism and hospitality establishments and provide guidelines on ways in which elements in the service environment can be managed to increase customer satisfaction and repeat business. There is also a need to develop new models which integrate the relative performance concept into satisfaction assessment. Several research suggestions are discussed in the following paragraphs.

<u>Pre-purchase versus Retrospective Expectations:</u> One of the main difficulties associated with the EDP is its main assumption that customers have precise expectations about all service attributes prior to a given purchase or service experience. In certain situations, however, the validity of this assumption is questionable. When a service or a product is new, and meaningful (or precise) expectations have not been formulated, the use of expectation-based measurement in

the assessment of consumer satisfaction is highly controversial. The use of prior expectations as the standard of comparison is also inappropriate when consumption involves multiple encounters (i.e., consumption occurs over an extended period of time). In service experiences, involving multiple encounters and taking place over time and space (e.g., vacations), a shift in the post-purchase standard of comparison is likely to occur, as a result of change in needs, as well as, in the importance of various product attributes. It is, therefore, reasonable to argue that, standard(s) at the time of evaluation rather than prior expectations may be used in the judgement process. Thus, one of the interesting areas to research would be to ascertain whether customers do process their initial expectations that they have before the purchase in their final product /service performance evaluations, and whether standards that may emerge after or in the process of consumption influence their judgements.

Customer Experience and Expectations: The use of prior expectations in the assessment of customer satisfaction may be redundant when there is a high familiarity with the product or service, as the level of expectations is likely to be very similar to the actual performance. Thus, in such situations, a more direct measure of perceived performance may be a more useful and straightforward method to study customer satisfaction than more complex composite measures of expectation disconfirmation. In order to establish which framework is a better predictor of customer satisfaction and a more straightforward way of assessment in the hospitality and tourism contexts, further empirical research into different hospitality and tourism services is needed. There is also a need to understand whether the "expectation-disconfirmation process" operates in every tourism and hospitality service consumption situation, and if it does, what are its causal influences. Another interesting area to research would be to investigate whether performance ratings involve implicit comparison judgements.

Ability of Expectations and of other Comparative Standards in Predicting Satisfaction: The results of the research suggest that predictive expectation-based disconfirmation measures, at best, yield only modest correlation with satisfaction measurements. This gives rise to the question of whether predictive expectation standard best predicts customer satisfaction. There are other forms of comparison standards, such as minimum tolerable, desired, deserved and experience-based norms (Miller 1977; Sirgy 1984; Spreng and Olshavsky 1993; Tse and Wilton 1988;

Woodruff *et al* 1983), which have not been fully researched in hospitality and tourism satisfaction studies. Understanding which standard (or combination of standards) may be most appropriate to study consumer satisfaction in different situations would be beneficial (i.e., would other forms of standards predict satisfaction better?).

Undertaking comparative research is, therefore, imperative to test the relative ability of different comparison standards, in predicting customer satisfaction within different hospitality and tourism settings, and to ascertain whether the use of different standards yields different customer satisfaction results. For instance, it would be interesting to investigate whether comparing predictive expectations, perceived desires or experience-based norms to post-purchase performance will yield the same results in terms of customer satisfaction in the tourism and hospitality contexts.

Logical Inconsistency: Another main difficulty with the EDP is its assumption that customers will evaluate services favourably, as long as their expectations are met, or exceeded. However, when consumer behaviour is constrained to purchasing a product that the consumer expects to perform poorly, and it does, the EDP wrongly assumes that the consumer will be satisfied. This logical inconsistency needs to be addressed.

The use of desires as the standard of comparison may eliminate this logical inconsistency, as it changes the prediction of customer satisfaction level (Spreng *et al* 1996) (if the less desirable product performed as undesirable as the consumer had expected, the consumer could be quite dissatisfied). The use of desires or needs, as the standard of comparison may also be more appropriate when a service experience or a product is new, and a consumer has no expectations about it. In particular, as desires or needs (e.g., desire for variety) drive the consumption, then the post-purchase comparison process may involve evaluating the extent to which the product or service fulfils customer desires or needs rather than expectations created by advertisement. Further research is necessary to test the ability of the desire-congruency, as well as the need fulfilment, to explain customer satisfaction in the tourism and hospitality contexts.

Ability of Predictive- Expectations in Predicting Behavioural Intentions: The conventional EDP suggests that if the product performance is consistent with consumer expectations, then customers will be satisfied and they will be more likely to repurchase. However, as common experience suggests such relationships between satisfaction and repurchase expectations may not always hold. Consumers may switch to competitive brands even if their predictive expectations are met. The point in question is that whether only the fulfilment of brand expectations, created by advertisement, plays the most important role in the determination of post-purchase behaviour such as repurchase, switching, and recommendations.

There might be a difference between the nature of standards and the extent of their influence on the determination of affective (i.e., satisfaction) and behavioural outcomes (i.e., repurchase). Satisfaction may be determined by evaluating a product's ability to fulfil one's current desires, wants, needs or expectations. The brand expectations, however, might be less influential in the formation of behavioural intentions. In addition to product availability and accessibility, the behavioural intentions may simply be determined by the extent to which the brand performs better or worse in comparison to other alternative products. If this is the case, then developing management and marketing strategies for repeat business based on results of disconfirmation of expectation measures alone is inadvisable. Further research is necessary to determine the ability of expectations in predicting behavioural intentions, and understand whether consumers use different comparison standards when arriving at their satisfaction and behavioural intention judgements.

<u>Satisfaction- End Result of a Single or a Multiple Evaluation Procedure:</u> Another main difficulty with the EDP is the fact that it views expectations as the primary determinant of customer dis/satisfaction, however the cause of dis/satisfaction may not be the dis/confirmation of expectations alone. For example, a cost conscious customer may feel highly dissatisfied with the service when s/he finds out that the cost of the same service, to another customer was less, even though the customer's scores on predictive expectations minus perceived performance may suggest satisfaction. Similarly, restaurant customers may develop dissatisfaction if their perception of service transaction fairness (for example, price paid vs. level of service delivered) is beyond the acceptable range. Alternatively, a hotel customer may be satisfied even though the performance delivered, lagged behind what s/he had predicted, but was above the minimum acceptable level. Thus, in order to increase the

model's ability in accounting for customer satisfaction and provide a much richer picture of it, the effects of equity perceptions and customer tolerance levels on the development of customer satisfaction judgements need to be recognised and incorporated into the assessment framework.

The Equity construct may be useful in capturing satisfaction in situations, where satisfaction is evaluated relative to other parties in an exchange, and the outcomes of all parties, sharing the same experience, are considered in the evaluation (Oliver and DeSarbo 1989). The determination of consumer tolerance levels (or the minimum acceptable service levels), on the other hand, may guide managers not to put too much time and effort on areas where high performance would not be noticed and rewarded by customers. Maintaining the service performance at adequate levels in these areas might be a cost-effective strategy. It is, however, important to note that different consumers may operate at different tolerance levels and that the tolerance level might change, depending on the importance of the occasion, the mood of the customer and so on. Identification of the tolerance level may be potentially difficult (see Parasuraman *et al* 1994). Nevertheless, the inclusion of overall measures to assess customer opinions about the fairness of the service experience in comparison with the time and money spent and with their opinions about the adequacy level of services, may lead to a greater diagnostic ability.

Combination of Quantitative and Qualitative Methods: There are various methods to assess opinions, including questionnaire surveys, group interviews, and individual interviews. While some defend quantitative research and consider it to be superior to qualitative research, others argue that qualitative research offers richer insights than quantitative research. The popularity of surveys among researchers and practitioners derives from its directness, ease of administration and interpretation, clarity of purpose and face validity. Although surveys provide formal feedback to the company and send a positive signal to customers that the organisation is interested in them, their extent of strength in capturing true feelings of customers is debatable. Common sense would suggest that a balance in quantitative and qualitative methods is required in all research to capitalise on the strengths and compensate for the weaknesses of each method. The combination of quantitative and qualitative models will enable researchers to corroborate findings derived from the quantitative analysis and provide some richness into how customers arrive at their satisfaction judgements. Thus, an inclusion of open-ended questions at the end of pre-coded survey instruments, requiring respondents to list the things that they liked best (or disliked) about their experience and explain the reasons why they liked (disliked) these aspects, may encourage respondents to give extensive answers, and thus, provide managers with critical information, which may not be available otherwise. An appropriate application of a combination of these methods may enable an organisation to receive up-to-date information concerning the products and services offered, identify the unit(s) that is scoring low in terms of customer satisfaction, and develop prompt actions to corrects areas of weaknesses.

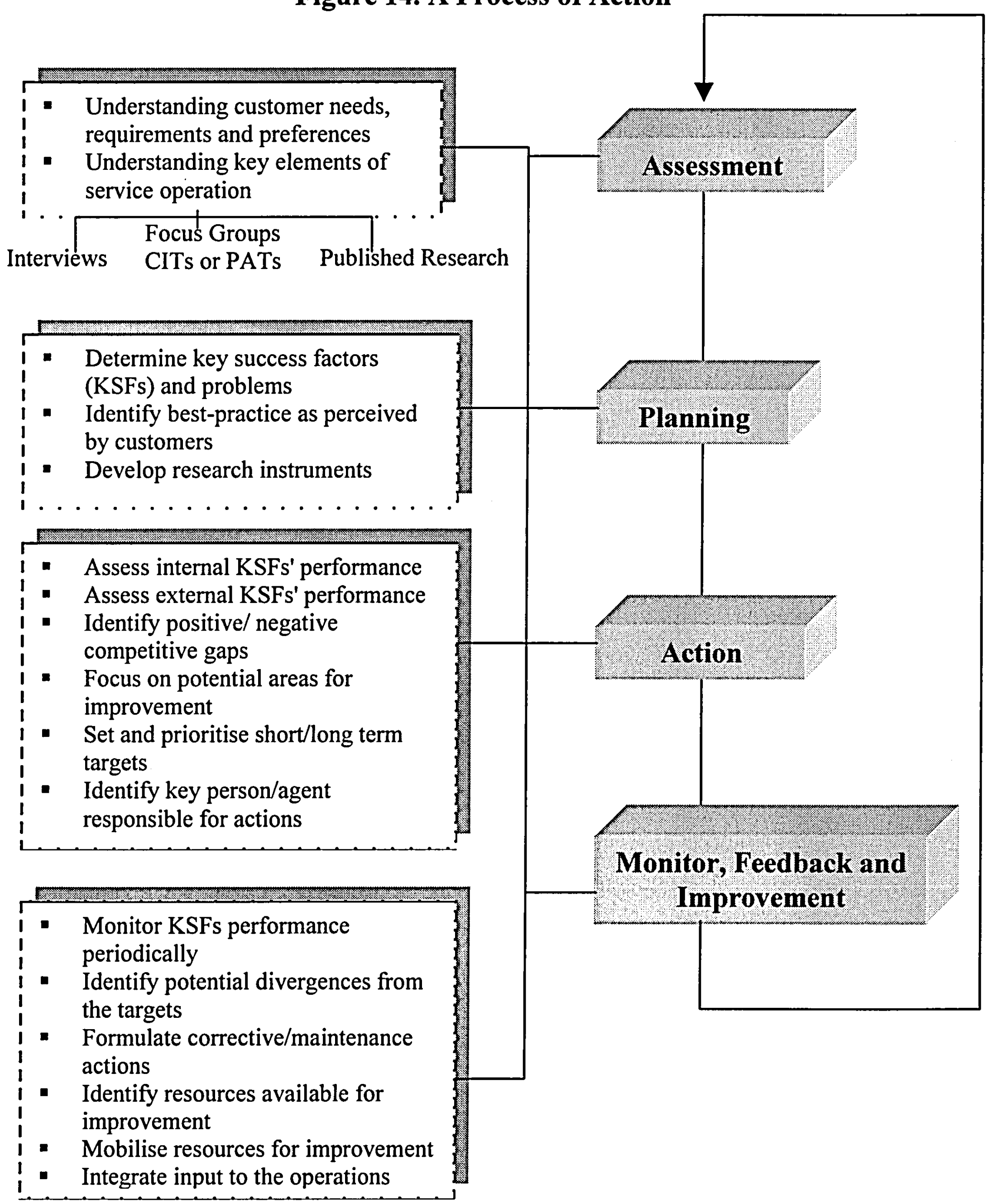
Evidence of Validity: No matter what measurement framework is used, researchers need to provide evidence about the extent to which that particular assessment framework measures what it intends to measure (i.e., the construct validity). One way to examine this is to ascertain the vertical correspondence between the construct, which is at an unobservable and conceptual level (e.g., satisfaction), and the employed model at the operational level. An inclusion of overall measure(s) of satisfaction and behavioural intentions in instruments can enable researchers to examine the correlation between the employed model and the satisfaction construct (the convergent validity) and to investigate the extent to which the measure correlates in a theoretically predicted way with a measure of a different but related construct (e.g., return intentions) (nomological validity). The provision of the evidence for convergent and nomological, and thus construct validity, indicates that results derived from the framework can be used with a greater confidence in developing appropriate management strategies.

Consumer Trade-offs: The trade-off process that consumers use in reaching satisfaction and return intention judgements in tourism and hospitality service settings, could be another interesting area to research. An examination of the qualitative data revealed that tourists might make trade-offs of a weakness with strengths of another to reach satisfaction or return judgements. The results of the stepwise regression analyses indicated that each dining component carries a different weight in the development of dining satisfaction and repeat-purchase decisions. However, due to the design and main objectives of the study, it was not possible to illustrate what kind of compromises were made by customers in a given dining occasion (i.e., how much reduction in the menu (or increase in price) may customer accept in exchange for more attentive service?). Further research needs to be conducted on this subject, as understanding of the relative importance of the dining components and potential compromises is vital to establishing strategic priorities.

Relative Performance Assessment: As a result of ever-intensifying competition, managers of hospitality and tourism establishments are increasingly in need of comparative information in order to identify the relative internal and external product strengths and weaknesses, which is critical in formulating competitive actions against competitors. Competitive gaps may occur between a destination's service/product performance and another destination(s) offering the same product/service. It is highly likely that tourism and hospitality organisations, as well as destinations, failing to pay attention to the performance delivered by rivals, not knowing their relative shortcomings, and overlooking the improvement of customer experience and satisfaction stand to loose their market share. Comparison against other organisations in the product class may be more relevant to satisfaction and behavioural intention judgements than are ordinary predictions of service attribute performance (Barsky 1996; Gardial *et al* 1993; Cadotte *et al* 1987; Oliver 1997). Thus, designing instruments that could capture customer perceptions of a given organisation's internal, as well as, relative (external) performance is an essential means of pinpointing where an organisation or destination stands on service performance relative to its competitors and to an understanding of how competitive advantages can be gained. Management may be better able to assess their current internal practices and to take corrective actions via resource allocations where possible.

A four-step RPA model is suggested (Figure 14). The *assessment* and *planning* stages of the suggested RPA model involve an understanding of key success factors and problems related to products and procedures in generating or inhibiting customer satisfaction and repeat business, identification of the "best practice" perceived by customers in the same product/service category, and development of the research instrument. Identification of key success factors and problems is a process of learning from customers and at this stage researchers and managers may employ both qualitative and quantitative techniques such as interviews, critical incident technique, focus groups and/or customer surveys. This stage should highlight the crucial issues that need to be investigated for improvement. Following this is the *action stage,* where facility or destination managers should assess how their organisation is doing on key success factors identified in the previous stage (internal performance) and how they perform in comparison to their competitors (relative performance). For instance, following the evaluation of performance delivered on key components, respondents, having experiences with other brands in the same product/service class, can be instructed to compare their product perceptions to their last used, average or best product experiences.

Figure 14. A Process of Action



Next, the managers should identify the competitive gaps that may exist between internal and external performance, decide areas for potential improvement, and set and prioritise targets for short and/or long terms. The managers should monitor their internal and external performance delivered on key success factors on a regular basis and locate variances from the targets. They should formulate actions to close, exceed or maintain the identified gap(s) (strengths and weaknesses) and mobilise resources to make service improvements.

It is important to note that surveys analysing both internal and relative performance perceptions with a large number of service attribute questions may suffer from respondent fatigue. An alternative, simpler and a shorter survey instrument, which allows respondents to determine service attributes by themselves instead of being restricted to a pre-established set of attribute questions determined by researchers, needs to be developed. For example, Kreck (1998) has recently proposed an instrument including two categories of questions; (1) identification and ranking of three most important service attributes to the customer and (2) assessment of performance delivered on these attributes (Table 51).

Table 51. A Respondent-Centred Instrument

1. Based on your experience as a user of hotels what are the three most important service characteristics that come to your mind immediately when using lodging facilities.

Most Important Characteristic:________________________
Second Important Characteristic:________________________
Third Important Characteristic:________________________

2. Based on your current visit to hotel, how would you rate the hotel's efforts in which you stayed on the three service characteristics that are important to you?

	Poor						Excellent
First Characteristic:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Second Characteristic:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Third Characteristic:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Source: Developed from Kreck (1998)

The diagnosticity of this instrument may be strengthened by the inclusion of an additional set of questions dealing with relative performance perceptions, which can provide essential information on how customer-determined service attributes can be managed to increase repeat business and to create a competitive advantage (Table 52).

In this respect, respondents can be instructed to rank the three most important service characteristics that come to their minds immediately when staying at a hotel or dining at a restaurant. Respondents then can be asked to evaluate the performance of those service characteristics that they ranked on a numerical scale (for example, five or seven point poor to excellent scale). Finally, respondents can be instructed to compare the performance of these characteristics to their last used or best-brand experience. This proposed model, built on three principles, including identification of critical service characteristics to customer satisfaction, assessment of performance delivery on these areas, and evaluation of relative performance on them, does not require sophisticated analyses techniques which have been utilised in this research. Managers can gather invaluable information through simple groupings and frequency counting.

Table 52. Relative Performance Assessment

3. Think about the best hotel stay you have experienced. Based on your best hotel experience, how would you rate this hotel in comparison to three service characteristics that are important to you?

	Better						Worse
First Characteristic:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Second Characteristic:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Third Characteristic:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Other comments:____________________________________

Please state the name of the hotel where you have had your best stay experience:____________________________________

Demographic/visit related information:____________________________
Behavioural intentions:____________________________________

It is clear that hospitality and tourism managers need to undertake periodic tourist satisfaction assessment, as satisfaction cannot be improved without measuring it. However, they also need to incorporate relative performance measurement into their investigations, as any information without relative performance is incomplete. Further research is necessary to extend the application and refinement of the relative performance assessment model to other tourism, hospitality, and leisure services.

<u>Segment-Specific-Satisfaction:</u> Finally, an interesting area of research could be to extend segment-specific satisfaction analysis to other hospitality and tourism services (for example, accommodation, tours and excursions, recreational activities, etc.).

Identification of segments can promote better marketing and management of these services, as the focus can be more concise.

9.4 Recommendations for Destinations

The challenge of providing high quality tourist experiences becomes less difficult when managers know what tourist needs are and correctly assess the importance that tourists attach to individual elements that make up the total tourist experience. Given the criticality of satisfaction data in developing management strategies and the scarcity of research on this concept in Turkey, the study results have important implications for the Turkish Tourism Ministry, which has the opportunity to make recommendations to the various tourism sectors that operate in Turkey. The current level of overall satisfaction with the vacation in tourist destinations in Turkey appears to be largely determined by the level of tourist impressions of hospitality, service quality, accommodation, catering and other tourist facilities, and activities in which the tourist participated. Therefore, there is considerable responsibility on the part of those who operate these facilities to ensure that current levels of satisfaction with their businesses are maintained or improved. This responsibility is particularly critical given that these components impact significantly on likelihood of recommending, an important factor in generating favourable word-of-mouth.

In today's highly competitive market, the destination's survival depends greatly on its ability to provide superior tourist experiences, which generate tourist satisfaction. Tourist satisfaction cannot be guaranteed unless the destination establishes its service performance measures and compares its performance against that of other destinations using such measures. Therefore, the relative performance framework suggested in this study has practical significance for destination managers. In particular, this framework can help destination managers to determine where their destination stands on service performance level relative to other destinations, and consequently identify specific areas of comparative advantages and disadvantages. The destination manager may formulate viable service improvement strategies using the proposed methodology.

The results of the study could also have several implications for decision-makers in the restaurant industry. The relative importance of certain product/service attributes differs across market segments. Therefore, when studying the satisfaction of tourists with the product/services offered, a restaurateur, or managers of other industries, should conduct this separately for each market segment. Since no tourism organisation can produce a product or service that will satisfy all markets, it is imperative that the relative importance of each product/service attribute for each segment be determined on a periodic basis and then decisions made whether to target these segments or not. In addition to studying the relative importance of restaurant components and their impact on overall dining satisfaction, the study also ascertained whether there were differences in determinants of satisfaction between first-time and repeat visitors. There were significant differences among first-time and repeat visitors, which may have implications on both marketing efforts designed to encourage previous visitors to return Turkey and efforts directed primarily at persuading new visitors to visit Turkey.

Two additional recommendations relating to the significance of satisfaction data collection and the need for training and education in the restaurant industry are discussed in the following paragraphs.

The Relationship between Foodservice Experiences and Tourist Holiday Satisfaction:
The holiday service delivery system represents a product chain that stretches across different components of the total experience. Each link in the product chain constitutes an experience and each experience has a varying value or potential to influence satisfaction with overall holiday experience. Within this context, the study findings indicated that tourists' foodservice experiences were an integral part of the holiday experience, which might lay the foundation for, and shape the nature of holiday experience.

Despite its complementary and supporting role, however, the significance of the catering sector seems to have been overlooked by destination authorities in Turkey. There are many reasons, as was discussed in the Introduction Chapter, that may justify why the nature of the relationship between the restaurant industry and tourism at destinations should be investigated, with the ultimate purpose of improving the quality of tourists' foodservice experiences. The study revealed that restaurateurs, striving for competitive advantage, should focus their attention on service improvement. It can be stated that setting new or improving existing standards in the industry through education and training can enhance the service quality. This may require the establishment of a new institution or expanding the role of the Turkish Tourism Ministry so that in addition to a promotional role, it has the role of provision of expertise and consultative services to the local restaurant industry, including service quality and language training. Education meetings with local restaurant industry managers, together with representatives of other industries, should be run in order to create and increase the quality awareness and illustrate the extent to which each industry affects the global satisfaction and the image. Central or local enforcement agencies should also be set up in order to inspect the catering facilities, along with other tourist facilities, for potential health hazards and for their compliance with the industry standards.

Establishment of a Centre for Periodic Satisfaction Data Collection: Following the early success of tourist resorts in Turkey in the late 1980s and early 1990s, the majority of destination and facility managers have become complacent and think that they would enjoy easy expansion forever and can just sit back and watch the foreign currency roll in. However, the recent figures of World Tourism Organisation (2000) suggest that there was a substantial drop in the number of tourist arrivals (from nine million to six million) and in the revenue (from $7 billion to $5 billion) in 1999.

In order to survive in highly competitive tourism markets, attain a good share of tomorrow's clients, and ensure tomorrow's jobs for employees, the destination managers and industry operators should consider improvement of the quality and competitiveness of the tourist experiences they provide. The development of a competitive quality tourist product, however, starts with an understanding of those aspects that matter most in tourists' holiday experiences, and how they can be best managed to generate the desired experience. Decision-makers in the sectors operating in the industry must take a collective approach to satisfy tourists through the provision of quality tourist experiences in each assigned encounter in the total holiday delivery process and by understanding the relative importance of individual factors making up the tourist experience. They must find out the areas in need of improvement and sense changes in consumer demand, and then respond accordingly. This requires the undertaking of periodic satisfaction research, which has to be responsive to the needs of different stakeholders operating in the industry. It should provide crucial information that identifies service attributes that are of most importance to customers and diagnose relative product strengths and weaknesses. This information should then lead to the formulation and application of appropriate performance maintenance and/or improvement programmes.

Despite its crucial role, however, collection of satisfaction data has been relatively inadequate in Turkey. The research that was conducted by the Turkish Tourism Ministry (TTM) up until 1993 does not lend itself to the development of sound management and marketing strategies for a number of reasons. Firstly, the TTM survey is unable to provide guidelines on ways in which elements in the holiday environment can be identified and managed to increase customer satisfaction and repeat business. The survey does not provide information concerning the relative contribution of individual elements to tourist satisfaction. This information is crucial, as it enables managers not to waste resources by allocating them on areas that are considered irrelevant or unimportant by tourists. Secondly, in this era of global competitiveness, destinations must strengthen their competitive edge by surpassing the service performance of other competing destinations. While the provision of a competitive tourism product has become the main slogan of authorities in Turkey, it is yet to be integrated into the current management philosophy. The TTM survey, for instance, does not provide comparative information on the performance of the country's main competitors. Consequently, it can be argued that destination managers are incapable of establishing Turkey's current position on service performance relative to other destinations. With the absence of such facts, the formulation of effective performance maintenance and/or corrective actions against competitors is substantially thwarted.

Thus, the establishment of a new institution, or collaboration of TTM with other organisations, which could carry out systematic and comprehensive research into trends in the tourism sector, tourists' perceptions of destination facilities and services, and what other destinations have to offer, would be one effective way to diminish research deficits. Conducting customer satisfaction research (CSR) is imperative, as it provides critical managerial information and enables communication with customers (Peterson & wilson, 1992; Pizam & Ellis, 1999). An undertaking of CSR is likely to provide crucial information on attributes that are considered to be the most important by customers, the relative importance of the attributes in customer decision making, and how well the destination or organisation is currently meeting its customer needs. The CSR results would greatly facilitate timely recognition of changes and problems, suggest appropriate actions, and thus help to lower the probability of customer defection and image-related problems. Another important function of CSR is that it demonstrates an organisational interest in communication with customers, which gives a sense of importance and recognition (Pizam & Ellis, 1999). In essence, destinations and organisations can benefit from the application of CSR, as it enables the organisation to get close to the customer, to achieve consumer driven improvement, to evaluate processes devised for continuous service improvement and to understand competitive strengths and weaknesses.

Accessibility: The degree to which a market segment can be reached and served.

Actionability: The degree to which effective programmes can be developed for attracting and serving a given market segment.

Agglomerative methods: Hierarchical procedure that begins with each object or observation in a separate cluster. In subsequent steps, object clusters that are closest together are combined to build a new aggregate cluster.

Alpha-Coefficient: Measure of internal consistency. It is important to note that the value of the alpha co-efficient depends on the average interim correlation and on the number of items in the scale. Specifically, as the average correlation among items and the number of item increases, the value of the co-efficient alpha increases (Carmines and Zeller 1979). It should be noted that adding items to a scale could reduce the scale's reliability, if the additional items substantially lower the average interim correlation.

Alternative Form Method of Reliability: Alternative-form method involves two testing situations with the same people. Unlike the test-retest method, the same test is not given on the second testing but an alternative form of the same test is administered. The main limitation of the alternative-form method of assessing reliability is the practical difficulty of constructing alternative forms that are parallel. "It is often difficult to construct one form of a test much less two forms that display the properties of parallel measurements" (Carmines and Zeller 1979: 41).

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): Statistical technique to determine if there are differences between two or among three or more groups on one or more variables. The F test is used in ANOVA.

Atmosphere: A critical element in services which is appreciated through the senses. Sensory terms provide descriptions for the atmosphere as a particular set of surroundings. The main sensory channels for atmosphere are sight, sound, scent and touch.

Attitude: A person's enduing favourable or unfavourable cognitive evaluations, emotional feelings, and action tendencies toward some object or idea.

Augmented product: Additional consumer services and benefits built around the core and actual products.

Backward elimination: Method of selecting variables for inclusion in the regression model that starts with all independent variables in the model and then eliminates those variables that do not make a significant contribution to prediction.

Barlett test of sphericity:	Statistical test for overall significance of all correlations within a correlation matrix.
Belief:	A descriptive thought that a person holds about something.
Benefit segmentation:	Dividing a market into groups according to the different benefits that consumers seek from the product.
Beta coefficient:	Standardised regression coefficient that allows for a direct comparison between coefficients as to their relative explanatory power of the dependent variable.
Chi-Square:	Used to test the null hypothesis that nominal characteristics are not associated. The chi-square tests the null hypothesis that proportions are equal.
Cluster seeds:	Initial centres or starting points for clusters. These individual values are selected to initiate non-hierarchical clustering procedures. Clusters are built around these pre-selected seeds.
Coefficient of Determination (R2):	Square of the correlation coefficient. It tells the proportion of variation in the dependent variable that is associated with variation or changes in the independent variable.
Cognitive dissonance:	Buyer discomfort caused by post-purchase conflict.
Collinearity:	Expression of the relationship between two (collinearity) or more independent variables (multi-collinearity). Two predictor variables are said to exhibit complete collinearity if their correlation coefficient is 1 and a complete lack of collinearity if their correlation coefficient is 0. Multicollinearity occurs when any single predictor variable is highly correlated with a set of other predictor variables.
Communality:	Amount of variance an original variable shares with all other variables included in the analysis.
Competitive advantage:	An advantage over competitors gained by offering consumers greater value by providing more benefits.
Complete Linkage:	Agglomerative algorithm in which the clustering criterion is based on the maximum distance between objects in two clusters. At each stage of the agglomeration , the two clusters with the smallest maximum distance)(or minimum similarity) are combined.
Concurrent Validity:	When the criterion exists in the present, the concurrent validity is assessed by correlating a measure and the criterion at the same

point in time. In other words, concurrent validity is the extent to which "one measure of a variable can be used to estimate an individual's current score on a different measure of the same, or closely related, variable" (Tull and Hawkins 1993: 318). For example, a verbal report of voting behaviour could be correlated with participation in an election (Carmines and Zeller 1979).

Content Validity: Content validity depends on the extent to which an empirical measurement reflects a specific domain of content (Carmines and Zeller 1979). In other words, content validity estimates are essentially "systematic, but subjective, evaluations of the appropriateness of the measuring instrument for the task at hand" (Tull and Hawkins 1993: 317).

Core product: Answers the question of what is the buyer really buying.

Correlation Coefficient (r): Measure of linear relationship between two numerical measurements made on the same set of persons, places, or things. It ranges from +1 to –1, with 0 meaning no relationship.

Correlation: Extent of association between and among variables.

Criterion Validity: Criterion-related validity is relevant when "the purpose is to use an instrument to estimate some important form of behaviour that is external to the measuring instrument itself, the latter being referred to as the criterion" (Nunnaly 1978: 87). The degree of criterion-related validity depends on the extent of the correspondence between the test and the criterion.

Degrees of Freedom: Calculated from the total number of observations minus the number of estimated parameters.

Demographic segmentation: Dividing a market into groups based on demographic variables such as age, gender, family size, family life cycle, occupation, religion, education, race and nationality.

Dendogram: Graphical representation (three graph) of the results of a clustering procedure in which the vertical axis consists of the number of clusters formed at each step of the procedure.

Dependent Variables: Those variables whose values are responses, outcomes, or results. They are predicted by the independent variables. They are also called the response variables.

Destination: A package of tourism facilities and services which, like any other consumer product or service, is composed of a number of multidimensional attributes. These attributes include not only the historical sites, amusement parks, and spectacular scenery, but also the services and facilities which cater to the everyday needs of tourists.

Direct disconfirmation The consumer's evaluation of the product/service performance relative to pre-purchase expectations.

Divisive method: Clustering procedure , the opposite of agglomerative method, that begins with all objects in a single large cluster, that is divided into separate clusters based on the most dissimilar objects.

Eigenvalue: Column sum of squared loadings for a factor, also referred as the latent root. It represents the amount of variance accounted for by a factor.

Extensive problem solving: Buyer behaviour in cases in which buyers face complex buying decisions for more expensive, less frequently purchased products in an unfamiliar product class. Buyers engage in extensive information search and evaluation.

External Reliability: External reliability refers to the degree of consistency of a measure over time.

Face Validity: Content validity has been termed by some researchers as face validity, which refers to non-expert judgements of individuals completing the instruments or executives who must approve of its use (ibid.). In content validation, "the researchers or some other individual or group of individuals assesses the representativeness, or sampling adequacy, of the included items in light of the purpose of the measuring instrument" (Tull and Hawkins 1993: 317).

Facilitating products: Those services or goods that must be present for the guest to use the core product.

Factor: Linear combination of the original variables. Factors also represent the underlying dimensions (constructs) that summarise or account for the original set of observed variables.

Factor Loading Correlation between the original variables and the factors, and the key to understand the nature of the particular factor. Squared factor loadings indicate what percentage of the variance in the original variable is explained by a factor.

Factor score: Composite measures crated for each observation on each factor extracted in the factor analysis. The factor scores can be used to represent the factor(s) in subsequent analyses.

Functional quality: The quality of the process of delivering the service.

Importance: The weight or significance that the customer attaches to a service attribute.

Independent Variables:	Also called explanatory or predictor variables because they are used to explain or predict a response, outcome, or result-the dependent variable.
Internal Consistency:	The assumption regarding internal consistency of a set of items is that if a set of items is really measuring some underlying trait or attitude, then the underlying trait causes the covariation among the items. The higher the correlation, the better the items are measuring the same underlying construct (Churchill 1983).
Internal Reliability:	Internal reliability is particularly important in connection with multiple item scales. It raises the question of whether each scale is measuring a single idea and hence whether the items that make up the scale are internally consistent (ibid.).
Limited problem solving:	Buying behaviour in cases in which buyers are aware of the product class but not familiar with all the brands and their features. Buyers engage in limited information search and evaluation.
Linear Regression:	Process of determining a regression or prediction equation to predict Y from X.
Market segmentation:	The process of dividing a market into distinct group of buyers who might require separate products and/or marketing mixes.
Measurability:	The degree to which the size and purchasing power of a market segment can be measured.
Measure of sampling adequacy:	Measure calculated both for the entire correlation matrix and each individual variable evaluating the appropriateness of applying factor analysis. Values above .50 for either the entire matrix or an individual indicate appropriateness.
Moment of truth:	A moment of truth occurs when the employee and the customer have a contact.
Motive (drive):	A need that is sufficiently pressing to direct the person to seek satisfaction of that need.
Multiple Regression:	Method for determining a prediction equation to predict Y from a set of variables, X1, X2...Xn.
Multivariate Analysis:	Analysis of multiple variables in a single relationship or set of relationships.
Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA):	Statistical method that provides a holistic test when there are multiple dependent variables and the independent variables are nominal.

Multi-collinearity: Extent to which a variable can be explained by the other variables in the analysis. As multi-collinearity increases, it complicates the interpretation of the variate as it is more difficult to ascertain the effect of any single variable, owing to their interrelationships.

One-way ANOVA: Used to test for differences when you have one dependent variable with numerical data.

Outlier: In strict terms, an observation that has a substantial difference between the actual value for the dependent variable and the predicted value.

P Value: Probability of obtaining the results of a statistical test by chance. The p value is the probability that a difference at least as large as the obtained difference would have come about if the means were really equal.

Paired t test: Also called a dependent t test or one-sample test. It is a statistical method for comparing the difference or change in a numerical variable that is observed for two paired or matched groups.

Perceived performance: The subjective evaluation made by the consumer after a service encounter.

Perception: The process by which an individual selects, organises, and interprets information inputs to create a meaningful picture of the world.

Post-purchase behaviour: The stage of the buyer decision making process in which consumers take further action after the purchase based on their satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Predictive expectations: The service that the consumer anticipates during a visit to a particular service establishment.

Predictive validity: It is the extent to which "an individual's future level on some variable can be predicted by his or her performance on a current measurement of the same or different variable" (Tull and Hawkins 1993: 318). For instance, a test used to screen applicants for a particular task could be validated by correlating their test scores with future performance in fulfilling the duties and responsibilities associated with that work. Similarly, one may predict the levels of repeat visitation with the same tour operator by examining the levels of satisfaction derived from a holiday organised by that tour operator. In this case the validity would be shown by the subsequent levels of repeat bookings that were made by highly satisfied holidaymakers (Ryan 1995).

Product: Anything that can be offered to a market for attention, acquisition, use, or consumption that might satisfy a want or need. It includes physical objects, services, persons, places, organisations, and ideas.

Psychographic segmentation: Dividing a market into different groups based on social class, life style, or personality characteristics.

Quality: Doing the right things right and consistently.

Reliability: It is noted that a scale is only reliable to the extent that repeat measurements made by it under constant conditions will yield the same results (Moser and Kalton 1989).

Service: Any activity, benefit or satisfaction that is offered for sale. It is essentially intangible and doers not result in ownership of anything. Its production may or may not be tied to a physical product.

Service encounter: A[period of time a consumer directly interacts with a service.

Split-Half Method of Reliability: The split-half method, the earliest measure of the internal consistency of a set of items, involves division of the items into two equivalent halves. The total scores for the two halves are then correlated, and this is taken as the measure of reliability. This approach, however, is likely to yield different reliability results as the division of the items is made randomly. Churchill (1983), for instance, notes that there are 126 possible splits for a 10-item scale, and thus 126 possible reliability coefficients.

Statistical Significance: Result that occurs by chance within specified limits, say, 1 time in 20, with a p value less than or equal to .05.

Stepwise estimation: Method of selecting variables for inclusion in the regression model that starts with selecting the best predictor or the dependent variable. Additional independent variables are selected in terms of the incremental explanatory power they can add to the regression model.

Substantiality: The degree to which a segment is large or profitable enough.

Technical quality: The quality of the core product that the guest receives in the transaction. In a hotel, it is the room. In a restaurant, it is the meal.

Test-Retest Method of Reliability The test-retest method, a measure for external reliability, which refers to gauging reliability by repeating the scale on the same people using the same method, holds a practical difficulty. It is generally argued that a comparison of the two sets of results would hardly serve as an exact test of reliability since these two tests cannot be regarded as independent. Intervening events between the test and the retest may account for any discrepancy between the two sets of results (Bryman and Cramer 1990). For instance, "at the re-test the respondent may remember their first answers and give consistent retest answers, an action which would make the test appear to be reliable than is truly the case" (Moser and Kalton 1989: 353).

Tolerance: Commonly used measure of collinearity and multicollinearity. Tolerance values approaching zero indicate that the variable is highly predicted (collinear) with the other predictor variables.

Validity: In a very general sense, validity refers to the extent to which any research instrument measures what it intends to measure.

Variance inflation Factor (VIF): Measure of the effect of other predictor variables on a regression coefficient. Large VIF values indicate a high degree of collinearity or multicollinearity among the independent variables.

Zone of tolerance Represents the difference between the adequate level of service and desired level of service.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX I

Survey Instrument Used by the TTM

REPUBLIC OF TÜRKİYE
MINISTRY OF TOURISM

FOREIGN VISITORS QUESTIONNAIRE

Not to be filled by military personnel and diplomats assigned to and foreign students undergoing education in Türkiye.

THE INFORMATION GATHERED THROUGH THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WILL BE USED FOR OFFERING A BETTER SERVICE TO OUR VISITORS AND EXCLUSIVELY FOR STATISTICAL PURPOSES.

PLEASE COMPLETE THIS FORM AND RETURN IT TO OUR OFFICIALS AND DO NOT FORGET TO RECEIVE THE GIFT PREPARED FOR YOU.

AMONG THOSE WHO FILLED UP THIS QUESTIONNAIRE, FOUR COUPLES WILL BE CHOSEN THROUGH A LOTTERY AND WILL HAVE AN OPPURTUNITY TO HAVE A FREE HOLIDAY, EXCLUSIVE OF TRAVEL EXPENSES, AT A DATE OF THEIR OWN CHOICE IN 1994 FOR A PERIOD OF ONE WEEK IN A 4 STAR HOTEL AS HALF-BOARD.

THE RESULTS OF THE LOTTERY TO BE REALIZED ON 30 SEPTEMBER 1993 WILL BE MAILED TO THE ADDRESSES OF THE WINNERS.

WE THANK YOU FOR FILLING OUT OUR QUESTIONNAIRE.

MINISTRY OF TOURISM

1. NATIONALITY : .... [ ][ ] 1 2

2. COUNTRY OF RESIDENCE : .... [ ][ ] 3 4

3. AGE : .... [ ][ ] 5 6

4. SEX : ( ) Male ( ) Female [ ] 7

5. YOUR EMPLOYMENT STATUS [ ] 8

( ) Employer ( )Unemployed
( ) Self-employed ( )Housewife
( )Blue-collar worker ( )Student
( ) White-collar worker ( )Retired
( )Other (Specify : ....)

6. YOUR EDUCATION LEVEL [ ] 9
(Indicate your highest diploma status)
( ) None
( ) Primary
( ) Secondary / High school
( ) University / College

7a. NUMBER OF ACCOMPANYING PERSONS:
(Persons sharing the same budget during this trip) .... [ ][ ] 10 11

7b. AGES AND SEXES OF ACCOMPANYING PERSONS
(Do not mention yourself; indicate only the persons sharing the same (your) budget)

Use additional lines if necessary.

	AGE	SEX	
1.	______	( ) M	( ) F
2.	______	( ) M	( ) F
3.	______	( ) M	( ) F
4.	______	( ) M	( ) F
5.	______	( ) M	( ) F

[ ][ ][ ] 12 13 14
[ ][ ][ ] 15 16 17
[ ][ ][ ] 18 19 20
[ ][ ][ ] 21 22 23
[ ][ ][ ] 24 25 26

7 c. WHAT ARE THE EMPLOYMENT STATUS AND EDUCATIONAL LEVELS OF PERSONS ACCOMPANYING (Those of the persons accompanying you sharing the same (your) budget)

27 28 29 30 31

EMPLOYMENT STATUS (For those above age 18)

	1st Person	2nd Person	3rd Person	4th Person	5th Person
Employer					
Self-employed					
Blue-collar worker					
White-collar worker					
Retired					
Unemployed					
Housewife					
Student					
Other (Specify)					

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL (Including all accompanied persons)

32 33 34 35 36

None					
Primary					
Secondary/High school					
University / College					

(Use additional column when required).

8. HOW MANY TIMES HAVE YOU VISITED TÜRKİYE? (Including this one) ....

37 38

9. WHICH SOURCES DID YOU GATHER THE INFORMATION FOR THIS TRIP FROM?
(Please indicate your first three grounds according to their order of priority)

39 40 41

	PRIORITY 1	2	3
(1) Transportation companies			
(2) Travel agencies			
(3) Turkish information bureaus			
(4) Recommendations of friends and relatives			
(5) Tourism fairs			
(6) T.V. Newspaper Magazine			
(7) Other (Specify:....)			

10. WHAT ARE THE FACTORS INFLUENCING YOUR DECISION TO VISIT TURKIYE? (Please indicate your first three grounds according to their order of priority)

42 43 44 45 46 47

	PRIORITY 1	2	3
(1) Reasonable travel costs			
(2) Possibility of purchases at bargain prices			
(3) Modernity and newness of facilities			
(4) Desire to know the Turkish people better			
(5) Desire to taste dishes peculiar to Turkish culinary art			
(6) Curiosity about Türkiye			
(7) For business purposes only			
(8) Security of the country			
(9) Availability of unpolluted environment			
(10) Desire to visit also Türkiye while I was nearby			
(11) Other (Specify:....)			

11. WHAT IS THE MAIN PURPOSE OF YOUR SELECTION OF TURKİYE FOR THIS TRIP?

(Please indicate your first three grounds according to their order of priority)

48 4950 5152 53

	PRIORITY 1	2	3
(1) Holiday			
(2) Cultural			
(3) Active sports			
(4) Family or friend visits			
(5) Business			
(6) Meeting or Conference			
(7) Duty (Mission)			
(8) Shopping			
(9) Religious			
(10) Transit			
(11) Education - Study			
(12) Health or spa treatment			
(13) Other (Specify:....)........			

12. HOW DID YOU ORGANISE THIS TRIP? 54

( ) Package tour

( ) Individually (noninclusive of tours)

( ) Other (Specify:....)........

13. IF YOU ARE A VISITOR CAME WITH A PACKAGE TOUR; PLEASE WRITE OUT THE EXPENSE INCURRED. (Including accompanied people)

55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63

AMOUNT OF MONEY / MONETARY UNIT : ....

64 65

14. PLEASE WRITE DOWN ANY EXPENSES INCURRED DURING YOUR STAY IN TÜRKİYE INCLUDING ACCOMPANIED PERSONS (in monetary units concerned)

	LODGING	TRANSPOR-TATION	MEAL	SHOPPING	ENTERTAINMENT AND RECREATION	OTHER pleasespecify	TOTAL
AMOUNT OF MONEY / MONETARY UNIT							

15. HOW MANY NIGHTS DID YOU SPEND IN TÜRKİYE DURING THIS VISIT?

NUMBER OF OVERNIGHTS : .... (Write zero if you had no overnight) 66 67

16. WHICH ARE THE PROVINCES YOU VISITED DURING THIS TRIP? (Please Indicate)

68 69 70 71

72 73 74 75

76 77 78 79

80 81 82 83

84 85 86 87

88 89 90 91

17. IF YOU OVERNIGHTED IN TÜRKİYE, PLEASE WRITE THE LOCATIONS IN THE LIST BELOW

Location where at least one overnighting is made (city, town)	Number of nights	Type of lodging facility: Hotel or Motel	Holiday Village	Boarding House	Camping or Caravan	Friend's Home	Rented House	Others (Specify)
1.								
2.								
3.								
4.								
5.								
6.								

92 93 94 95 96 97 98
99 100 101 102 103 104 105
106 107 108 109 110 11 112
113 114 115 116 117 118 119
120 121 122 123 124 125 126
127 128 129 130 131 132 133

(In case of difficulty to fill this table up, please use the map given above)

18. WHAT ARE YOUR IMPRESSIONS ABOUT THE SERVICES PROVIDED IN TÜRKİYE? PLEASE INDICATE BELOW.

FACILITIES	Good	Medium	Bad	No Idea
Lodging				
Restaurants				
Internal transports				
Sanitary Conditions				
Security				
Health services				

SERVICE STAFF	Good	Medium	Bad	No Idea
Lodging				
Restaurants				
Tourist Guides				
Drivers				

134 135 136 137 138 139
140 141 142 142
143

General Price Levels	Cheap	Normal	Expen-sive	No Idea

19. DO YOU THINK THAT YOU WILL COME TO TÜRKİYE AGAIN?

( ) Yes ( ) Perhaps ( ) No

144

YOUR COMMENTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS :

....
....
....

PLEASE FILL THE PART BELOW FOR THIS DRAWING

Forename : ....
Name : ....
Address : ....
....
....
Phone : ....

PLEASE LEAVE THIS BOX FOR OFFICIAL USE

Çıkışkapısı : ....
Çıkış aracı : ....
Tarih : / / 1993
Görüşmeci : ....
Kontrolör : ....

145 146
147 148

APPENDIX II

Profile Accumulation Technique Survey

This questionnaire is part of a research project being undertaken at Sheffield Hallam University (UK) which deals with tourists' holiday experiences. The questionnaire has been designed to find out your opinions about your holiday in Turkey. There are no right or wrong answers, we are only interested in your opinions. The information gathered through this questionnaire will be used for offering better services to our visitors. We would be grateful if you could spare a few minutes to complete this questionnaire.

In the first section, could you please state the things *you liked best* about your holiday in Turkey and *the reasons* why you liked these aspects? In the second section, could you please state the things *you found least satisfactory* in your holiday and the reasons why these aspects were *unsatisfactory*?

Section 1:

A) ***The things I liked best about my holiday in Turkey were:***

B) ***The reasons why I liked these aspects of the holiday are because :***

Section 2:

C) The things which I found least satisfactory about my holiday in Turkey were:

D) The reasons why these aspects of my holiday were unsatisfactory are because:

Your nationality: ________________________
Gender ☐ *Male* ☐ *Female*

Thank you very much

APPENDIX III

Forms used in the Assessment of the Questionnaire Items' Appropriateness

a. Assessment form of the Foodservice Experience Questionnaire (p.
b. Assessment for of the Holiday Experience Questionnaire (p.

<u>ASSESSMENT FORM a</u>

Dear Colleague,

I am undertaking a research project dealing with *tourist satisfaction with food and beverage services* at summer holiday destinations abroad. More specifically, this research sets out to identify the benefits sought by tourists when dining out and to identify service features responsible for satisfactory and dissatisfactory dining experiences.

In order to identify service features that lead to a pleasant dining experience whilst on holiday abroad, interviews were conducted with a number of people in the preliminary stages of the research. Below is the list of items that was derived from these preliminary interviews.

May I ask for your assistance in order to assess the appropriateness of these items in the context of dining experience? This will then help me decide which items to include or exclude in the final questionnaire? If you could spare a few minutes to check the list, I would be grateful.

Atila Yuksel

1. Below are the statements of interviewees to the question of why do they go out to dine whilst on holiday abroad. If you *disagree* that the reason stated is appropriate, please put a **D** in the box. If you think there are other reasons different from listed below when dining out whilst on holiday, please specify them in the box provided.

- [ ] To experience new and different dishes
- [ ] To rest and relax
- [ ] To have food/service value for money
- [ ] To eat balanced/healthy food
- [ ] To sample local food
- [ ] To treat myself/others
- [ ] To have fun and good time
- [ ] To eat inexpensively
- [ ] To be in a calm dining atmosphere
- [ ] To have high quality/nutritious food
- [ ] To be in a lively, upbeat dining atmosphere
- [ ] To eat food similar to my own

Others:

2. I asked interviewees to specify the service features they think most important when selecting and dining in a restaurant whilst on holiday abroad. The following service features were stated. Can you please follow the same procedure explained in section 1 in eliminating inappropriate service features?

- [ ] Impression from the road
- [ ] Comfort of seating
- [ ] Crowd/noise level in the restaurant
- [ ] Availability to stay after meal
- [ ] Cuisine style
- [ ] View from the restaurant
- [ ] Availability of non-smoking area
- [ ] Cleanliness of utensils/ dining area
- [ ] Lively/upbeat atmosphere
- [ ] Restaurant spaciousness and layout
- [ ] Location
- [ ] Consistent service quality
- [ ] Activity and entertainment
- [ ] Reputation/seen advertised
- [ ] Consistent food preparation/quality
- [ ] A place frequented by locals
- [ ] Appropriate temperature inside the dining area
- [ ] Favourable background music

3. Menu and Food

- [ ] Interesting/adventurous menu
- [ ] Balanced/healthy choices
- [ ] Availability of dishes I like
- [ ] Availability of similar food to my own
- [ ] Availability of beverages I like
- [ ] Non-greasy food
- [ ] Prices of food /drink/service
- [ ] Food quality
- [ ] Food tastiness
- [ ] Presentation of food
- [ ] Menu/dishes for all
- [ ] Availability of local dishes
- [ ] Visibility of food preparation
- [ ] Availability of new and interesting food
- [ ] Appropriate temperature of food "i.e. hot food is served hot"
- [ ] Nutritious food
- [ ] Ingredient freshness
- [ ] Hygienic food preparation/service/display
- [ ] Hearty portions
- [ ]

Please Turn Over

4. Service and Staff

	Waiting time for dishes/services		Employee's greeting
	Convenient ordering		Attentive staff/service
	Availability of children facilities/dishes		Accurate menu, tariffs, bills
	Accommodating services		The value of services for prices charged
	Knowledgeable staff		Sensitive staff to my individual needs and wants
	Feeling comfortable with staff		Feeling comfortable with other customers

	Friendliness and courtesy of service		Efficiency and timeliness of service
	Staff cleanliness/hygiene		Clear prices/prices shown
	Well dressed staff		Communication in your language
	Helpful staff		Competent staff

Others:

Can you please return this form at your earliest convenience to the address printed on the enclosed envelope. Thank you very much for your kind assistance.

ASSESSMENT FORM $_b$

Atila Yuksel
Sheffield Hallam University
Leisure Industries Research Centre
Science Park Unit 1
Sheffield S1 2LX

Dear Sir/ Madam,

I am undertaking a research project dealing with *tourist satisfaction with summer holiday experiences abroad.* More specifically, this research sets out to identify the benefits sought by tourists going on a summer holiday abroad and to identify facilities and services responsible for satisfactory and dissatisfactory holiday experiences.

In order to identify destination features, facilities and services that lead to a pleasant holiday experience, interviews were conducted with a number of people in the preliminary stages of the research. Next page presents the list of items that was derived from these preliminary interviews.

May I ask for your assistance in order to assess the appropriateness of these items in the context of holiday experience? This will then help me decide which items to include or exclude in the final questionnaire? I would be grateful, if you could spare a few minutes to check the list.

After completing the form, please return it at your earliest convenience to the address printed on the enclosed envelope. Thank you very much for your kind assistance.

Sincerely yours.

Atila Yuksel
Researcher

1. Below are the statement of interviewees to the question of why do they go on a summer holiday abroad. If you *disagree* that the reason stated is appropriate, please put a **D** in the box. If you think there are other reasons different from listed below, please specify them in the box provided.

- [ ] to relax physically
- [ ] to get away from daily routine
- [ ] to be away from crowds of people
- [ ] to experience something entirely different
- [ ] to have a lot of fun and entertainment
- [ ] to escape from bad weather
- [ ] to visit new and exciting places
- [ ] to be where it is quiet
- [ ] to do as one pleases, to be free
- [ ] to get away from commercialised tourists traps
- [ ] to get to know the local culture and the way of life
- [ ] to make new friends

Others:

2. I asked interviewees to specify the facilities and services they think most important when they are on a summer holiday abroad. The following destination service features were stated. Can you please follow the same procedure explained in section 1 in eliminating inappropriate service features?

- [ ] to sample local food and drink
- [ ] good value of services
- [ ] availability of facilities for water sports
- [ ] high quality food and drink
- [ ] availability and large variety of day-time-activities
- [ ] cheap and frequent transportation facilities
- [ ] desired level and type of accommodation
- [ ] decent and welcoming attitudes of local people

- [ ] variety of restaurants
- [ ] availability of tourist information
- [ ] clean and pleasant environment/beaches
- [ ] to eat inexpensively
- [ ] reasonable prices of goods and services
- [ ] convenient location of facilities (hotel, restaurant, etc.,)
- [ ] possibility of making good purchases
- [ ] variety of food/drink

- [ ] availability and variety of entertainment
- [ ] consistent quality of services
- [ ] able to stay after meals at restaurants
- [ ] fast and efficient immigration
- [ ] able to communicate in your language
- [ ] uncongested beaches/resort
- [ ] friendly and courteous services at tourist facilities
- [ ] decent and welcoming attitudes of shopkeepers/employees
- [ ] availability and large variety of interesting places to visit
- [ ] efficient and timely services at tourist facilities

- [ ] comfortable and clean room/bathroom
- [ ] consistent quality of food/drink
- [ ] food hygiene
- [ ] accommodating services
- [ ] safety of public transport in the area
- [ ] weather conditions
- [ ] to feel comfortable and safe at destination
- [ ] hassle free shopping
- [ ] consistency of prices
- [ ] the extent of commercialisation
- [ ] phoning home from area easily
- [ ] temperature inside the room and other facilities

Others:

PILOT TEST RESULTS: PART ONE

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   - S C A L E   (A L P H A)

1.	atmosphere
2.	cleanliness
3.	comfort
4.	dress
5.	menu variety
6.	food temperature
7.	food portions
8.	food prices
9.	service efficiency
10.	attentiveness
11.	dish waiting time
12.	contact availability

	Mean	**Std Dev**	**Cases**
1.	.5556	.8916	27.0
2.	.4815	1.0141	27.0
3.	.3704	.9260	27.0
4.	.4815	.7530	27.0
5.	.9630	1.1596	27.0
6.	.6296	.9667	27.0
7.	.5556	1.0860	27.0
8.	.6296	.8835	27.0
9.	.5185	1.1887	27.0
10.	.7407	1.2276	27.0
11.	.5556	1.3397	27.0
12.	-.1852	1.0391	27.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	6.2963	82.2165	9.0673	12

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
1	5.7407	69.7379	.7846	.9030
2	5.8148	70.8490	.6056	.9098
3	5.9259	70.3020	.7120	.9056
4	5.8148	72.0798	.7485	.9060
5	5.3333	70.7692	.5178	.9145
6	5.6667	69.9231	.7026	.9058
7	5.7407	68.5071	.6970	.9057
8	5.6667	70.5385	.7343	.9050
9	5.7778	65.6410	.7872	.9011
10	5.5556	66.3333	.7189	.9047
11	5.7407	65.5071	.6877	.9071
12	6.4815	75.2593	.4260	.9216

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 27.0   N of Items = 12

Alpha = .9147

PILOT TEST RESULTS: PART TWO

1. Convenience of location
2. The cleanliness of the accommodation
3. Quality of facilities
4. Safety at the accommodation
5. The noise level at the accommodation
6. Comfortability with the other customers
7. The physical condition of my accommodation
8. Check-in and check-out at the accommodation
9. Comfortability of the room
10. Cleanliness of the room
11. The temperature inside the room
12. The efficiency of water electricity supply
13. Security of my room
14. The convenience of operating hours of the restaurants/bars
15. The cleanliness and tidiness of the restaurants/bars
16. The noise level inside the restaurants/bars
17. The location of restaurants/bars at my accommodation
18. The quality of food and beverage at restaurants/bars
19. The accuracy of menus, tariffs and orders
20. Prices of food/drink and services at my accommodation
21. Value of the food/beverage and services
22. Friendliness of service at my accommodation
23. Efficiency of service at my accommodation
24. The accuracy of the bills at my accommodation
25. Waiting time for the service at my accommodation
26. Communication with the staff in your language
27. Knowledge of the staff on menu items etc.
28. Responsiveness of staff to my requests
29. Responsiveness of staff to my complaints
30. The competency of the staff
31. The weather conditions in the area
32. The beach and sea in the area
33. Quality of facilities at beaches
34. Availability of water sports in the area
35. The crowd level in the area
36. The natural environment in the area was
37. During sunbathing on the beach, I felt
38. Courtesy of residents towards tourists
39. Communication in your language in the area
40. The extent of commercialisation in the area
41. Willingness of employees to help tourists
42. Courtesy of employees towards tourists
43. Willingness of tourists to help tourist
44. Friendliness of the people in the area
45. During my stay in the area I felt
46. Prices of general goods/services in the area
47. Quality of restaurants
48. Value of the goods/services for the prices
49. Quality and availability of entertainment
50. Availability of tours, cruises in the area
51. Efficiency of public transport
52. The tastiness of the food in the area
53. The quality of food and beverage in the area
54. The temperature of the food served in the area
55. The portions of the food
56. Presentation of the dishes
57. Menu variety at restaurants of the area
58. The sanitary conditions of the food served
59. Availability of dishes I always like
60. Availability of local dishes in the area
61. The efficiency of the service in the area
62. Courtesy of service in the tourist facilities
63. Waiting time for service at the tourist facilities
64. Quality of services at facilities was
65. Operating hours of tourist facilities
66. The accuracy of bills/menus, tariffs at facility
67. Check-in and check-out at the airport

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H A)

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	HOTEL1	5.5000	1.9783	30.0
2.	HOTEL2	6.0000	1.5536	30.0
3.	HOTEL3	4.7667	2.0625	30.0
4.	HOTEL4	6.1667	1.2617	30.0
5.	HOTEL5	4.0667	2.0331	30.0
6.	HOTEL6	5.9667	1.4967	30.0
7.	HOTEL7	5.2667	1.9640	30.0
8.	HOTEL8	5.9000	1.5166	30.0
9.	ROOM1	5.2333	1.9420	30.0
10.	ROOM2	5.5000	1.9783	30.0
11.	ROOM3	4.3333	2.3391	30.0
12.	ROOM4	5.1000	2.0401	30.0
13.	ROOM5	6.1333	1.2521	30.0
14.	BARS1	6.1333	1.6761	30.0
15.	BARS2	5.8667	1.3060	30.0
16.	BARS3	3.9333	1.6386	30.0
17.	BARS4	6.1000	1.3734	30.0
18.	BARS5	5.1333	1.9070	30.0
19.	BARS6	5.5333	1.4320	30.0
20.	BARS7	5.0333	1.8473	30.0
21.	BARS8	5.4000	1.5447	30.0
22.	SERVICE1	5.6000	1.9757	30.0
23.	SERVICE2	5.3333	2.0057	30.0
24.	SERVICE3	6.0000	1.3646	30.0
25.	SERVICE4	4.9667	2.0083	30.0
26.	STAFF1	5.1667	1.8020	30.0
27.	STAFF2	5.2667	1.9640	30.0
28.	STAFF3	5.2000	2.1719	30.0
29.	STAFF4	5.2000	2.0410	30.0
30.	STAFF5	5.6000	1.7927	30.0
31.	DESTIN1	6.9000	.9051	30.0
32.	DESTIN2	4.3000	2.1838	30.0
33.	DESTIN3	4.5333	2.1453	30.0
34.	DESTIN4	5.6333	1.5643	30.0
35.	DESTIN5	3.6333	1.8096	30.0
36.	DESTIN6	4.3667	2.1573	30.0
37.	DESTIN7	4.9667	2.0759	30.0
38.	PEOPLE1	5.3333	2.0229	30.0
39.	PEOPLE2	5.0667	1.6174	30.0
40.	PEOPLE3	2.9000	2.0060	30.0
41.	PEOPLE4	5.7000	1.5347	30.0
42.	PEOPLE5	5.3000	2.0026	30.0
43.	PEOPLE6	5.2000	1.6274	30.0
44.	PEOPLE7	5.7333	1.6174	30.0
45.	PEOPLE8	5.9000	1.5614	30.0
46.	FACILTY2	5.1333	1.5253	30.0
47.	FACILTY3	5.9667	1.3515	30.0
48.	FACILTY4	5.3333	1.5388	30.0
49.	FACILTY5	4.8333	1.7237	30.0
50.	FACILTY6	6.2667	1.3374	30.0
51.	FACILTY7	6.4000	1.0700	30.0
52.	FOOD1	5.4000	1.6938	30.0
53.	FOOD2	5.1333	1.7367	30.0
54.	FOOD3	5.3333	1.7486	30.0
55.	FOOD4	5.3667	1.2994	30.0
56.	FOOD5	5.6667	1.3979	30.0
57.	FOOD6	5.0000	1.8004	30.0
58.	FOOD7	4.8000	1.7301	30.0
59.	FOOD8	5.1667	1.8585	30.0
60.	FOOD9	4.8667	1.8705	30.0
61.	SERVIS1	5.0000	1.6815	30.0
62.	SERVIS2	5.4000	1.5888	30.0
63.	SERVIS3	4.7000	1.7449	30.0
64.	SERVIS4	5.0333	1.6914	30.0
65.	SERVIS5	5.4333	1.8323	30.0
66.	SERVIS6	5.0333	1.7905	30.0
67.	SERVIS7	5.3000	1.7840	30.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	Variables
Scale	353.4333	4715.7713	68.6715	67

Item Means	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance

5.2751	2.9000	6.9000	4.0000	2.3793	.4364

Item Variances	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	3.0647	.0931	5.4713	5.3782	58.7654	1.0169

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
HOTEL1	347.9333	4629.7195	.3051	.	.9712
HOTEL2	347.4333	4578.8747	.6396	.	.9704
HOTEL3	348.6667	4522.3678	.6819	.	.9702
HOTEL4	347.2667	4602.2023	.6541	.	.9704
HOTEL5	349.3667	4538.3782	.6325	.	.9704
HOTEL6	347.4667	4633.5678	.3924	.	.9709
HOTEL7	348.1667	4531.0402	.6841	.	.9702
HOTEL8	347.5333	4549.9816	.7991	.	.9701
ROOM1	348.2000	4544.4414	.6400	.	.9703
ROOM2	347.9333	4537.7195	.6533	.	.9703
ROOM3	349.1000	4575.0586	.4274	.	.9710
ROOM4	348.3333	4536.1609	.6384	.	.9704
ROOM5	347.3000	4613.2517	.5935	.	.9705
BARS1	347.3000	4646.8379	.3894	.	.9711
BARS2	347.5667	4604.2540	.6196	.	.9705
BARS3	349.5000	4624.3276	.3983	.	.9709
BARS4	347.3333	4616.3678	.5225	.	.9706
BARS5	348.3000	4498.2172	.8363	.	.9699
BARS6	347.9000	4625.8172	.4513	.	.9708
BARS7	348.4000	4625.4207	.3460	.	.9711
BARS8	348.0333	4615.0678	.4684	.	.9707
SERVICE1	347.8333	4526.0057	.6992	.	.9702
SERVICE2	348.1000	4503.8172	.7724	.	.9700
SERVICE3	347.4333	4645.2885	.3689	.	.9709
SERVICE4	348.4667	4503.1540	.7739	.	.9700
STAFF1	348.2667	4551.4437	.6625	.	.9703
STAFF2	348.1667	4579.7299	.4973	.	.9707
STAFF3	348.2333	4463.1506	.8543	.	.9697
STAFF4	348.2333	4476.9437	.8592	.	.9698
STAFF5	347.8333	4511.0402	.8368	.	.9699
DESTIN1	346.5333	4714.3264	.3323	.	.9712
DESTIN2	349.1333	4531.8437	.6093	.	.9704
DESTIN3	348.9000	4549.8862	.5573	.	.9706
DESTIN4	347.8000	4755.7517	.2966	.	.9721
DESTIN5	349.8000	4598.5793	.4642	.	.9708
DESTIN6	349.0667	4482.6851	.7908	.	.9699
DESTIN7	348.4667	4528.2575	.6558	.	.9703
PEOPLE1	348.1000	4492.6448	.8077	.	.9699
PEOPLE2	348.3667	4582.3092	.5975	.	.9705
PEOPLE3	350.5333	4655.9126	.3040	.	.9715
PEOPLE4	347.7333	4570.4092	.6892	.	.9703
PEOPLE5	348.1333	4517.9126	.7201	.	.9701
PEOPLE6	348.2333	4540.6678	.7863	.	.9701
PEOPLE7	347.7000	4537.5276	.8060	.	.9700
PEOPLE8	347.5333	4551.0851	.7702	.	.9701
FACILTY2	348.3000	4617.5966	.4624	.	.9707
FACILTY3	347.4667	4635.0161	.4289	.	.9708
FACILTY4	348.1000	4574.9207	.6653	.	.9703
FACILTY5	348.6000	4704.4552	.3353	.	.9717
FACILTY6	347.1667	4654.0747	.3283	.	.9710
FACILTY7	347.0333	4707.5506	.3482	.	.9713
FOOD1	348.0333	4557.2747	.6805	.	.9703
FOOD2	348.3000	4528.7000	.7874	.	.9700
FOOD3	348.1000	4550.4379	.6879	.	.9702
FOOD4	348.0667	4616.6851	.5516	.	.9706
FOOD5	347.7667	4594.3920	.6302	.	.9704
FOOD6	348.4333	4622.7368	.3668	.	.9710
FOOD7	348.6333	4576.5851	.5818	.	.9705
FOOD8	348.2667	4602.8230	.4342	.	.9708
FOOD9	348.5667	4569.7023	.5638	.	.9705
SERVIS1	348.4333	4564.8747	.6516	.	.9703
SERVIS2	348.0333	4549.8954	.7621	.	.9701
SERVIS3	348.7333	4555.0299	.6695	.	.9703
SERVIS4	348.4000	4518.4552	.8551	.	.9699
SERVIS5	348.0000	4601.2414	.4472	.	.9708

SERVIS6	348.4000	4555.5586	.6496	.	.9703
SERVIS7	348.1333	4653.0161	.3448	.	.9713

Reliability Coefficients 67 items

Alpha = .9709 Standardized item alpha = .9702

PILOT TEST RESULTS: PART THREE

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	REST1	6.3200	.9452	25.0
2.	REST2	5.2000	1.8484	25.0
3.	REST3	6.1600	.9434	25.0
4.	REST4	5.8800	1.1662	25.0
5.	REST5	4.9600	1.3988	25.0
6.	REST6	4.6400	1.9122	25.0
7.	REST7	6.1600	1.1431	25.0
8.	REST8	6.4400	.8699	25.0
9.	REST9	5.9600	1.5133	25.0
10.	REST10	5.5600	1.3254	25.0
11.	REST11	5.0400	1.6951	25.0
12.	REST12	6.1600	1.1431	25.0
13.	MENU1	4.9200	1.9983	25.0
14.	MENU2	5.1600	2.0952	25.0
15.	MENU3	5.6000	1.7795	25.0
16.	MENU4	5.1200	1.9647	25.0
17.	MENU5	5.4400	1.7578	25.0
18.	MENU6	5.6800	1.9305	25.0
19.	FOOD1	6.0800	1.1518	25.0
20.	FOOD2	6.0000	1.5275	25.0
21.	FOOD3	5.2400	1.9849	25.0
22.	FOOD4	4.9600	1.7195	25.0
23.	FOOD5	5.7200	1.6207	25.0
24.	FOOD6	6.1200	1.2689	25.0
25.	FOOD7	6.3200	.9452	25.0
26.	FOOD8	6.4000	.8660	25.0
27.	QUAL1	5.9600	1.5406	25.0
28.	QUAL2	6.2800	1.3699	25.0
29.	QUAL3	5.2000	2.2361	25.0
30.	QUAL4	4.1600	2.3216	25.0
31.	QUAL5	5.0800	1.9131	25.0
32.	QUAL6	5.7600	1.6401	25.0
33.	QUAL7	6.1600	.8981	25.0
34.	QUAL8	6.3200	1.2152	25.0
35.	QUAL9	6.0800	1.2557	25.0
36.	QUAL10	6.2800	1.0614	25.0
37.	STAFF1	6.0000	1.6583	25.0
38.	STAFF2	5.7600	1.8771	25.0
39.	STAFF3	6.1600	1.4911	25.0
40.	STAFF4	5.5600	1.6350	25.0
41.	STAFF5	6.0400	1.5133	25.0
42.	STAFF6	5.0800	1.9983	25.0
43.	STAFF7	5.8000	1.8028	25.0
44.	STAFF8	5.7200	1.6713	25.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
SCALE	250.6400	1471.5733	38.3611	44

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
REST1	244.3200	1438.8100	.4445	.9457
REST2	245.4400	1447.7567	.3450	.9480
REST3	244.4800	1442.3433	.3955	.9459
REST4	244.7600	1409.8567	.6892	.9445
REST5	245.6800	1457.2267	.3160	.9475
REST6	246.0000	1456.7500	.2765	.9486
REST7	244.4800	1450.0100	.2327	.9466

REST8	244.2000	1435.8333	.5307	.9455
REST9	244.6800	1409.3933	.5271	.9451
REST10	245.0800	1395.7433	.7480	.9440
REST11	245.6000	1428.5833	.3131	.9466
REST12	244.4800	1438.8433	.3624	.9460
MENU1	245.7200	1372.1267	.6448	.9443
MENU2	245.4800	1387.1767	.5126	.9454
MENU3	245.0400	1415.2900	.3967	.9461
MENU4	245.5200	1395.5100	.4919	.9455
MENU5	245.2000	1396.7500	.5459	.9450
MENU6	244.9600	1381.1233	.6044	.9446

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
FOOD1	244.5600	1419.7567	.5817	.9450
FOOD2	244.6400	1425.4900	.3793	.9461
FOOD3	245.4000	1391.0833	.5170	.9453
FOOD4	245.6800	1393.6433	.5840	.9447
FOOD5	244.9200	1396.1600	.6010	.9446
FOOD6	244.5200	1411.3433	.6149	.9447
FOOD7	244.3200	1431.3933	.5493	.9453
FOOD8	244.2400	1426.7733	.6733	.9450
QUAL1	244.6800	1370.4767	.8655	.9430
QUAL2	244.3600	1406.5733	.6143	.9447
QUAL3	245.4400	1408.5900	.3455	.9471
QUAL4	246.4800	1445.0100	.3200	.9493
QUAL5	245.5600	1407.9233	.4178	.9460
QUAL6	244.8800	1384.6100	.6904	.9440
QUAL7	244.4800	1423.5100	.6973	.9448
QUAL8	244.3200	1415.8100	.5936	.9449
QUAL9	244.5600	1401.4233	.7294	.9442
QUAL10	244.3600	1410.6567	.7499	.9444
STAFF1	244.6400	1377.0733	.7455	.9436
STAFF2	244.8800	1357.1100	.8022	.9430
STAFF3	244.4800	1386.0933	.7499	.9438
STAFF4	245.0800	1370.4933	.8129	.9432
STAFF5	244.6000	1383.8333	.7590	.9437
STAFF6	245.5600	1376.0900	.6171	.9445
STAFF7	244.8400	1363.3067	.7888	.9432
STAFF8	244.9200	1373.3267	.7706	.9434

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 25.0 N of Items = 44

Alpha = .9464

APPENDIX V

Research Instrument: The First Investigation

a. Perceived Performance Only (page 464)

b. Perceived Performance-Importance (page 467)

c. Disconfirmation weighted by Importance (page 470)

d. Performance-minus-Expectation (page 473)

CUSTOMER SATISFACTION SURVEY

The following questionnaire is part of a research project at Sheffield Hallam University. The questionnaire has been designed to evaluate your opinions about aspects of the [ ] services. Can you please evaluate the performance of the service features? For instance, if you think that the atmosphere in the [ ] is slightly "formal", tick slightly box close to the "formal option". If you think that the atmosphere is very "informal", tick very box close to the "informal option". If you think that the atmosphere is neither formal nor informal, tick neither\nor box in the middle. There are no right or wrong answers-all we are interested in is a number that shows your opinion about the performance of services in the [ ].

Note: If any statement does not apply to you, please leave it empty and go to the next statement.

1) The atmosphere in the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Informal	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Formal

2) The cleanliness of the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Poor	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Good

3) The seating in the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Comfortable	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Uncomfortable

4) The [ ] has staff who appear

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Untidy/Scruffy	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Well dressed

5) The menu of the [ ] has

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Wide range of choices	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Limited choices

6) The temperature of <u>hot</u> food served in the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Cold	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Appropriate

7) The portions of food served in the [ ] are

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Large	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Small

8) The prices of food and beverage in the [ ] are

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Low	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	High

9) The service in the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Efficient	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Inefficient

10) Staff of the [ ] are

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Inattentive	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Attentive

11) The management of the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Visible	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Behind the scenes

12) The waiting time for a dish in the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Long	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Short

Please Turn Over

13) How would you rate your meal experience in terms of value for money?

☐ 3 Extremely good	☐ 2 Very good	☐ 1 Slightly good	☐ 0 Neither good nor poor	☐ -1 Slightly poor	☐ -2 Very poor	☐ -3 Extremely poor

14) Overall, how satisfied are you with the meal experience you had in the restaurant?

Delighted	Pleased	Slightly satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Slightly dissatisfied	Unhappy	Terrible
☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3

15) How likely are you to return [ ] in the future?

Definitely will return	Most likely will return	Likely will return	Not sure	Likely will not return	Most likely will not return	Absolutely will not return
☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3

16) Would you recommend the [ ] to your friends or relatives?

Definitely	Most likely	Likely	Not sure	Unlikely	Most unlikely	Absolutely not
☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3

17) Overall, how would you rate the quality of service in the [ ]?

Excellent	Very good	Slightly good	Neither excellent nor poor	Slightly poor	Very poor	Extremely poor
☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3

18) Not including this visit, how many times have you been to the [ ] in the last six months?

1 ☐ None 2 ☐ Once 3 ☐ Twice 4 ☐ More

19) What are the most important three reasons that prompted you to choose this restaurant?

1 ☐ Recommendations of friends\others 2 ☐ Image and atmosphere 3 ☐ Location 4 ☐ Cuisine style 5 ☐ Menu variety 6 ☐ Price

20) Can you please indicate your purpose for lunching/dining?

1 ☐ A business lunch/dinner 2 ☐ To celebrate a special occasion 3 ☐ An intimate lunch/dinner 4 ☐ Other (please specify)

21) Are you lunching/dining alone or accompanied?

1 ☐ Alone 2 ☐ Accompanied by a☐ friend b☐ partner c☐ children d☐ other

22) Age

1 ☐ Under 14 2 ☐ 15-24 3 ☐ 25-34 4 ☐ 35-44 5 ☐ 45-54 6 ☐ Over 55

23) Gender

1 ☐ Male 2 ☐ Female

24) What is your Resident Area Postcode? S...

Thank you for your co-operation.

The following questionnaire is part of a research project at Sheffield Hallam University. The questionnaire has been designed to evaluate your opinions about aspects of the [ ] services. The questionnaire is divided into two sections. In the first part of the questionnaire, can you please evaluate the performance of the service features? For instance, if you think that the atmosphere in the [ ] is slightly "formal", tick slightly box close to the "formal option". If you think that the atmosphere is very "informal", tick very box close to the "informal option". If you think that the atmosphere is neither formal nor informal, tick neither\nor box in the middle.

The second part of questionnaire has been designed to assess the importance of the service features to you. If you think that the service feature is extremely important to you, tick 3; very important, tick 2; slightly important, tick 1; neither important nor unimportant, tick 0, slightly unimportant, tick -1; very unimportant; tick -2; not important at all, tick -3. There are no right or wrong answers-all we are interested in is a number that shows the importance of services to you.

Note: If any statement does not apply to you, please leave it blank and go to the next statement.

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Informal	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Formal

2) The cleanliness of the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Poor	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Good

3) The seating in the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Comfortable	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Uncomfortable

4) The [ ] has staff who appear

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Untidy/Scruffy	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Well dressed

5) The menu of the [ ] has

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Wide range of choices	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Limited choices

6) The temperature of <u>hot</u> food served in the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Cold	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Appropriate

7) The portions of food served in the [ ] are

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Large	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Small

8) The prices of food and beverage in the [ ] are

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Low	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	High

9) The service in the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Efficient	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Inefficient

10) Staff of the [ ] are

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Inattentive	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Attentive

11) The management of the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Visible	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Behind the scenes

12) The waiting time for a dish in the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Long	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Short

Please Turn Over

Atmosphere in the restaurant	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Cleanliness of the restaurant	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Comfortable seating in the restaurant	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Appearance of the staff in the restaurant	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Range of menu choices	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Right temperature of the food and beverage served	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
The portions of the food and beverage served	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Level of prices charged for service, food and beverage	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
The efficiency of service	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Attentiveness of the staff	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Waiting time for a dish	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Visibility of managers in the restaurant	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3

1) How would you rate your meal experience in terms of value for money?

☐ 3 Extremely good ☐ 2 Very good ☐ 1 Slightly good ☐ 0 Neither good nor poor ☐ -1 Slightly poor ☐ -2 Very poor ☐ -3 Extremely poor

2) Overall, how satisfied are you with the meal experience you had in the restaurant?

☐ 3 Delighted ☐ 2 Pleased ☐ 1 Slightly satisfied ☐ 0 Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied ☐ -1 Slightly dissatisfied ☐ -2 Unhappy ☐ -3 Terrible

3) How likely are you to return [ ] in the future?

☐ 3 Definitely will return ☐ 2 Most likely will return ☐ 1 Likely will return ☐ 0 Not sure ☐ -1 Likely will not return ☐ -2 Most likely will not return ☐ -3 Absolutely will not return

4) Would you recommend the [ ] to your friends or relatives?

☐ 3 Definitely ☐ 2 Most likely ☐ 1 Likely ☐ 0 Not sure ☐ -1 Unlikely ☐ -2 Most unlikely ☐ -3 Absolutely not

5) Overall, how would you rate the quality of service in the [ ]?

☐ 3 Excellent ☐ 2 Very good ☐ 1 Slightly good ☐ 0 Neither excellent nor poor ☐ -1 Slightly poor ☐ -2 Very poor ☐ -3 Extremely poor

6) Before today, how many times have you been to the [ ] in the last 6 months ?

1 ❑ None 2 ❑ Once 3 ❑ Twice 4 ❑ More

7) What are the most important three reasons that prompted you to choose this restaurant?

1 ❑ Recommendations of friends\others 2 ❑ Image and atmosphere 3 ❑ Location 4 ❑ Cuisine style 5 ❑ Menu variety 6 ❑ Price

8) Can you please indicate your purpose for lunching/dining?

1 ❑ A business lunch/dinner 2 ❑ To celebrate a special occasion 3 ❑ An intimate lunch/dinner 4 ❑ Other (please specify)

9) Are you lunching/dining alone or accompanied?

1 ❑ Alone 2 ❑ Accompanied by a ❑ friend b ❑ partner c ❑ children d ❑ other

10) Age

1 ❑ Under 14 2 ❑ 15-24 3 ❑ 25-34 4 ❑ 35-44 5 ❑ 45-54 6 ❑ Over 55

11) Gender

1 ❑ Male 2 ❑ Female

12) What is your Resident Area Postcode? ...Thank you for your co-operation

CUSTOMER SATISFACTION SURVEY

The following questionnaire is part of a research project at Sheffield Hallam University, dealing with customer assessment of service features in the [ ]*. The questionnaire has been designed to obtain your opinions about aspects of the restaurant experience. The questionnaire is divided into two sections. The first part of questionnaire has been designed to assess the importance of the service features to you. If you think that the service feature is extremely important to you, tick 3; very important, tick 2; slightly important, tick 1; neither important nor unimportant, tick 0; slightly unimportant, tick -1; very unimportant; tick -2; not important at all, tick -3.

In the second part, can you please evaluate the actual performance of the service features? If you think that the service feature is much better than you expected, tick 3; better than expected, tick 2; slightly better than expected, tick 1; as expected; tick 0; slightly worse than expected, tick -1, worse than expected; tick -2; much worse than you expected tick -3. There are no right or wrong answers- all we are interested in is a number that best represents your opinions about the [ ] services.

Note: If any statement does not apply to you, please leave it empty and go to the next statement.

1) Before today, how many times have you been to the [ ] in the last 6 months?

1 ❑ None | 2 ❑ Once | 3 ❑ Twice | 4 ❑ More

2) What are the most important three reasons that prompted you to choose this restaurant?

1 ❑ Recommendations of friends \others | 2 ❑ Image and atmosphere | 3 ❑ Location | 4 ❑ Cuisine style | 5 ❑ Menu variety | 6 ❑ Price

3) Can you please indicate your purpose for dining?

1 ❑ A business lunch/dinner | 2 ❑ To celebrate a special occasion | 3 ❑ An intimate lunch/dinner | 4 ❑ Other (please specify)

4) Are you lunching/dining alone or accompanied?

1 ❑ Alone | 2 ❑ Accompanied by a ❑ friend b ❑ partner c ❑ children d ❑ other

A) Please indicate the importance level of each service attribute to you.

	Extremely important	Very Important	Slightly Important	Neither important nor unimportant	Slightly unimportant	Very Unimportant	Not important at all
Atmosphere in the restaurant	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Cleanliness of the restaurant	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Comfortable seating in the restaurant	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Appearance of the staff in the restaurant	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Range of menu choices	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Right temperature of the food and beverage served	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
The portions of the food and beverage served	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Level of prices charged for food and beverage	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
The efficiency of service	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Attentiveness of the staff	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Waiting time for a dish	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Visibility of managers in the restaurant	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3

Please Turn Over

	Much better than expected	Better than expected	Slightly better than expected	As expected	Slightly worse than expected	Worse than expected	Much worse than expected
Atmosphere in the restaurant	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Cleanliness of the restaurant	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Comfort of the restaurant seating	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Appearance of the staff in the restaurant	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Range of menu choices	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
The right temperature of the food and beverage served	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
The portions of the food and beverage served	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Level of prices charged for food and beverage	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
The efficiency of service	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Attentiveness of the staff	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Waiting time for a dish	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3
Visibility of managers in the restaurant	❑ 3	❑ 2	❑ 1	❑ 0	❑ -1	❑ -2	❑ -3

5) How would you rate your meal experience in terms of value for money?

☐ 3 Extremely good ☐ 2 Very good ☐ 1 Slightly good ☐ 0 Neither good nor poor ☐ -1 Slightly poor ☐ -2 Very poor ☐ -3 Extremely poor

6) Overall, how satisfied are you with the meal experience you had in the restaurant?

☐ 3 Delighted ☐ 2 Very satisfied ☐ 1 Slightly satisfied ☐ 0 Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied ☐ -1 Slightly dissatisfied ☐ -2 Unhappy ☐ -3 Terrible

7) How likely are you to return [ ] in the future?

☐ 3 Definitely will return ☐ 2 Most likely will return ☐ 1 Likely will return ☐ 0 Not sure ☐ -1 Likely will not return ☐ -2 Most likely will not return ☐ -3 Absolutely will not return

8) Would you recommend [ ] to your friends or relatives?

☐ 3 Definitely ☐ 2 Most likely ☐ 1 Likely ☐ 0 Not sure ☐ -1 Unlikely ☐ -2 Most unlikely ☐ -3 Absolutely not

9) Overall, how would you rate the quality of service in the [ ]?

☐ 3 Excellent ☐ 2 Very good ☐ 1 Slightly good ☐ 0 Neither excellent nor poor ☐ -1 Slightly poor ☐ -2 Very poor ☐ -3 Extremely poor

10) Age

1 ❑ Under 14 2 ❑ 15-24 3 ❑ 25-34 4 ❑ 35-44 5 ❑ 45-54 6 ❑ Over 55

11) Gender

1 ❑ Male 2 ❑ Female

12) What is your Resident Area Postcode? ...

Thank you for your co-operation

CUSTOMER SATISFACTION SURVEY

The following questionnaire is part of a research project at Sheffield Hallam University, dealing with customer expectations and perceptions of restaurant services. The questionnaire is divided into three sections. In the first section of the questionnaire, you are required to choose a number that best represents your expectations of the [ ]* services? (Please fill in this section before you order).

In the second section, based on your experiences as a consumer of restaurants, can you please show the extent of your expectations from an excellent restaurant services in this category? Please choose a number that best shows your expectations from an excellent restaurant that you have in mind. (Please fill in this section before you order).

In the third section, can you please evaluate the performance of the [ ] services? There are no right or wrong answers, all we are interested in is a number that best shows your expectations and perceptions of the [ ] services.

Thank you

Note: If any statement does not apply to you, please leave it blank and go to the next statement.

**The name of the restaurant is not stated here to respect the confidentiality*

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Informal	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Formal

A2) The cleanliness of the [ ] will be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Poor	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Good

A3) The seating in the [ ] will be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Comfortable	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Uncomfortable

A4) The [ ] will have staff who appear

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Untidy/Scruffy	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Well dressed

A5) The menu of the [ ] will have

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Wide range of choices	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Limited choices

A6) The temperature of <u>hot</u> food served in the [ ] will be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Cold	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Appropriate

A7) The portions of food served in the [ ] will be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Large	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Small

A8) The prices of food and beverage in the [ ] will be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Low	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	High

A9) The service in the [ ] will be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Efficient	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Inefficient

A10) Staff of the [ ] will be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Inattentive	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Attentive

A11) The management of the [ ] will be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Visible	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Behind the scenes

A12) The waiting time for a dish in the [ ] will be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Long	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Short

Please Turn Over

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Informal	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Formal

B2) Cleanliness in an excellent restaurant should be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Poor	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Good

B3) The seating in an excellent restaurant should be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Comfortable	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Uncomfortable

B4) An excellent restaurant should have staff who appear

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Untidy/Scruffy	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Well dressed

B5) The menu of an excellent restaurant should have

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Wide range of choices	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Limited choices

B6) The temperature of <u>hot</u> food served in an excellent restaurant should be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Cold	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Appropriate

B7) The portions of food served in an excellent restaurant should be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Large	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Small

B8) The prices of food and beverage in an excellent restaurant should be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Low	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	High

B9) The service in an excellent restaurant should be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Efficient	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Inefficient

B10) Staff of an excellent restaurant should be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Inattentive	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Attentive

B11) The management of an excellent restaurant should be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Visible	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Behind the scenes

B12) The waiting time for a dish in an excellent restaurant should be

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Long	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Short

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Informal	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Formal

C2) The cleanliness of the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Poor	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Good

C3) The seating in the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Comfortable	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Uncomfortable

C4) The [ ] has staff who appear

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Untidy/Scruffy	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Well dressed

C5) The menu of the [ ] has

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Wide range of choices	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Limited choices

C6) The temperature of <u>hot</u> food served in the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Cold	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Appropriate

C7) The portions of food served in the [ ] are

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Large	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Small

C8) The prices of food and beverage in the [ ] are

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Low	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	High

C9) The service in the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Efficient	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Inefficient

C10) Staff of the [ ] are

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Inattentive	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Attentive

C11) The management of the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Visible	☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3	Behind the scenes

C12) The waiting time for a dish in the [ ] is

	Extremely	Very	Slightly	Neither\nor	Slightly	Very	Extremely	
Long	☐ -3	☐ -2	☐ -1	☐ 0	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	Short

Please Turn Over

☐ 3 Extremely good	☐ 2 Very good	☐ 1 Slightly good	☐ 0 Neither good nor poor	☐ -1 Slightly poor	☐ -2 Very poor	☐ -3 Extremely poor

14) Overall, how satisfied are you with the meal experience you had in [ ]?

Delighted	Pleased	Slightly satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Slightly dissatisfied	Unhappy	Terrible
☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3

15) How likely are you to return [ ] in the future?

Definitely will return	Most likely will return	Likely will return	Not sure	Likely will not return	Most likely will not return	Absolutely will not return
☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3

16) Would you recommend the [ ] to your friends or relatives?

Definitely	Most likely	Likely	Not sure	Unlikely	Most unlikely	Absolutely not
☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3

17) Overall, how would you rate the quality of service in the [ ]?

Excellent	Very good	Slightly good	Neither excellent nor poor	Slightly poor	Very poor	Extremely poor
☐ 3	☐ 2	☐ 1	☐ 0	☐ -1	☐ -2	☐ -3

18) Not including this visit, how many times have you been to the [ ] in the last six months?

1 ❑ None   2 ❑ Once   3 ❑ Twice   4 ❑ More

19) What are the most important three reasons that prompted you to choose this restaurant?

1 ❑ Recommendations of friends \others   2 ❑ Image and atmosphere   3 ❑ Location   4 ❑ Cuisine style   5 ❑ Menu variety   6 ❑ Price

20) Can you please indicate your purpose for lunching/dining?

1 ❑ A business lunch /dinner   2 ❑ To celebrate a special occasion   3 ❑ An intimate lunch /dinner   4 ❑ Other (please specify)

21) Are you lunching /dining alone or accompanied?

1 ❑ Alone   2 ❑ Accompanied by   a❑ friend   b❑ partner   c❑ children   d❑ other

22) Age

1 ❑ Under 14   2 ❑ 15-24   3 ❑ 25-34   4 ❑ 35-44   5 ❑ 45-54   6 ❑ Over 55

23) Gender

1 ❑ Male   2 ❑ Female

24) What is your Resident Area Postcode? ...

Thank you for your co-operation.

APPENDIX VI
Research Instrument: The Second Investigation

TOURIST SATISFACTION SURVEY

September, 1997

This questionnaire is part of a research project being undertaken at Sheffield Hallam University (UK) which deals with tourist's holiday experiences. The questionnaire has been designed to find out your opinions about the resort area in general but more particularly about your accommodation, food and drink.

There are no right or wrong answers, we are only interested in your opinions. The information gathered through this questionnaire will be used for offering better services to our visitors. We would be grateful if you can spare a few minutes to complete this questionnaire.

Instructions:

In each section of the questionnaire there are a number of statements. For each statement, first tick the number that best describes what you think of it. Secondly, indicate how **good / similar / bad** that aspect was in comparison to your last holiday in "**another country**" other than Turkey. In order to help us in understanding which country you are comparing Turkey with, please give the name of **that country** in **Section 1, question 11**. A worked example is shown below.

Questions:

In comparison to my previous holiday other than Turkey, the aspect was

1. The location of accommodation where I stayed was

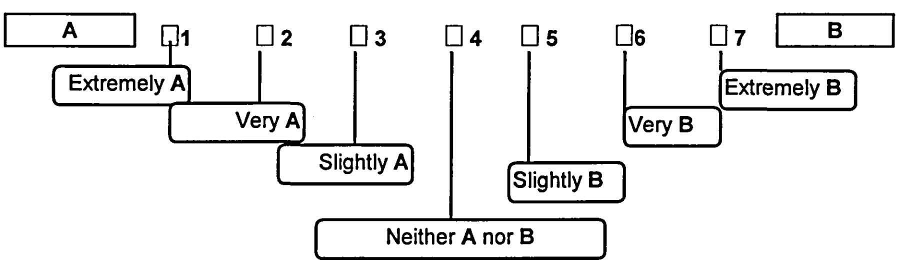
Inconvenient	□1	□2	□3	□4	□5	□6	□7	Convenient		□ Better	□ Similar	□ Worse

This respondent has indicated that the accommodation where she stayed was **extremely** inconvenient and the location of her accommodation was **worse** than her last holiday in another country other than Turkey.

2. My room and bathroom was

Clean	□7	□6	□5	□4	□3	□2	□1	*Dirty*		□ Better	□ Similar	□ Worse

The second respondent has indicated that his room and bathroom was **slightly** clean and the cleanliness of his room was **better** than his last holiday in another country other than Turkey.



Note: If any statement does not apply to you, please leave it blank and go to the next question.

PTO ☞

1.	**Nationality?**	❒ German ❒ British ❒ French ❒ Italian ❒ Scandinavian ❒ Benelux ❒ Other (specify)
2.	**Sex?**	❒ Male ❒ Female
3.	**Age?**	❒ Under 14 ❒ 15-24 ❒ 25-34 ❒ 35-44 ❒ 45-54 ❒ Over 55
4.	**Type of profession?**	
5.	**Are you travelling alone or accompanied?**	❒ Alone ❒ Accompanied by (specify)____________
6.	**Length of holiday?**	❒ Less than a week ❒ A week ❒ Two weeks ❒ More
7.	**Have you been to Turkey before?**	❒ No ❒ Yes **If yes,** how many times? ❒ Once ❒ Twice ❒ More
8.	**Type of accommodation?**	❒ Hotel ❒ Other (specify)
9.	**Accommodation area situated in**	❒ Marmaris ❒ Fethiye ❒ Bodrum ❒ Other (specify)__________
10.	**Apart from this trip have you taken or are you thinking of taking other holiday trips this year?**	❒ No ❒ Yes, short holidays of less than three nights ❒ Yes, long holidays of more than three nights
11.	**Please state your most recent previous holiday destination other than TURKEY. (In the next sections, compare your current visit with the country specified here).**	________________

Section 2. Could you please give a rating between **1 and 7** for each of the following factor below indicating **its importance to you when you are on a holiday**? A 7 means you think that the factor is very important when you are on holiday, a **1** means it is very unimportant.

☐	Clean and pleasant environment	☐	Pleasant attitudes of employees
☐	Peaceful surrounding	☐	Interesting places to visit
☐	Pleasant attitudes of local people	☐	Possibility of making good purchases
☐	To have similar food to my own	☐	Accommodation
☐	Restaurants and bars	☐	Prices of meals, drinks and services
☐	Food and beverage quality	☐	Availability of traditional food
☐	Avoid hustle and bustle of daily life	☐	To relax mentally
☐	To get to know people and make friends	☐	To get to know the culture and the way of life
☐	Be in a calm atmosphere	☐	To have good time with friends
☐	Relax physically	☐	Personal security

In comparison to my previous holiday, the aspect was

1. The location of accommodation where I stayed was

Inconvenient ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Convenient* | ☐ Better | ☐ Similar | ☐ Worse

2. The accommodation was

Dirty ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Clean* | ☐ Better | ☐ Similar | ☐ Worse

3. Quality of he facilities offered at the accommodation was

Poor ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *High* | ☐ Better | ☐ Similar | ☐ Worse

4. During my stay at my accommodation, I felt

Unsafe ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Safe* | ☐ Better | ☐ Similar | ☐ Worse

5. The accommodation where I stayed was

Noisy ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Quiet* | ☐ Better | ☐ Similar | ☐ Worse

6. During my stay at my accommodation, I felt

Uncomfortable with other customers ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Comfortable with other customers* | ☐ Better | ☐ Similar | ☐ Worse

7. The physical condition of my accommodation and its facilities was

Poor ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Good* | ☐ Better | ☐ Similar | ☐ Worse

8. Check-in and check-out at the accommodation reception was

Slow ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Efficient* | ☐ Better | ☐ Similar | ☐ Worse

Section A2. *Your Room.*

In comparison to my previous holiday, the aspect was

1. The room where I stayed was

Comfortable ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 Uncomfortable | ☐ Better | ☐ Similar | ☐ Worse

2. My room and bathroom was

Clean ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Dirty* | ☐ Better | ☐ Similar | ☐ Worse

3. The temperature inside the room was

Appropriate ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Hot* | ☐ Better | ☐ Similar | ☐ Worse

4. The electricity-water-supply was

Sufficient ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Insufficient* | ☐ Better | ☐ Similar | ☐ Worse

5. Security of my room was

Good ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Poor* | ☐ Better | ☐ Similar | ☐ Worse

PTO ☞

Section A3. *Restaurant and Bars at Your Accommodation.*

In comparison to my previous holiday, the aspect was

1. Operating hours of the restaurant/bars at my accommodation were

Inconvenient	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6	☐7	*Convenient*	☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

2. The restaurant/bars of my accommodation were

Dirty	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6	☐7	*Clean*	☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

3. The restaurant/bars of my accommodation were

Noisy	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6	☐7	*Quiet*	☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

4. Location of the restaurant/bars at my accommodation was

Inconvenient	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6	☐7	*Convenient*	☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

5. The quality of food and beverage served at my accommodation was

Poor	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6	☐7	*Good*	☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

6. Menus, tariffs & orders at my accommodation were

Inaccurate	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6	☐7	*Accurate*	☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

7. Prices of food/drink services at my accommodation were

Expensive	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6	☐7	*Cheap*	☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

8. Value of the food/drink services for the price charges was

Poor	☐1	☐2	☐3	☐4	☐5	☐6	☐7	*Good*	☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

Section A4. *Services at Your Accommodation.*

In comparison to my previous holiday, the aspect was

1. Friendliness of service at my accommodation was

Good	☐7	☐6	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	*Poor*	☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

2. Efficiency of the services at my accommodation was

Good	☐7	☐6	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	*Poor*	☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

3. The bills at my accommodation were

Accurate	☐7	☐6	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	*Inaccurate*	☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

4. Waiting time for the service in my accommodation was

Short	☐7	☐6	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	*Long*	☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

In comparison to my previous holiday, the aspect was

1. Communication in your language with the staff was

Difficult ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Easy* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

2. Knowledge of staff on menu items, etc., at my accommodation was

Poor ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Good* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

3. Responsiveness of the staff to my requests at my accommodation was

Poor ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Good* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

4. Responsiveness of the staff to my complaints was

Poor ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Good* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

5. The accommodation staff were

Incompetent ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Competent* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

Section B1. This section is designed to find out your opinions about the *Environment and Beach in the AREA*.

In comparison to my previous holiday, the aspect was

1. The weather conditions in the area were

Good ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Poor* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

2. The beach area and sea were

Clean ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Dirty* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

3. Quality of facilities at the beaches were

Good ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Poor* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

4. Availability of water sports in the area was

Wide range ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Limited* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

5. The resort area where I stayed was

Quiet ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Crowded* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

6. The natural environment in the area was

Preserved ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Spoiled* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

7. During sunbathing on the beach, I felt

Comfortable ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 Uncomfortabl e — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

PTO☞

Section B2. *People in the AREA*

In comparison to my previous holiday, the aspect was

1. Courtesy of residents towards tourists in the area was

Poor ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Good* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

2. Communication in your language in the area was

Difficult ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Easy* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

3. The extent of commercialisation in the area was

High ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Low* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

4. Willingness of employees help tourists in the area was

Poor ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Good* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

5. Courtesy of the employees towards tourists was

Poor ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Good* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

6. Willingness of residents to help tourists in the area was

Poor ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Good* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

7. Friendliness of the people in the area was

Poor ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Good* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

8. During my stay in the area, I felt

Unsafe ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 *Safe* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

Section B3. *Tourist Facilities in the AREA.*

In comparison to my previous holiday, the aspect was

1. Quality of shopping facilities in the area were

High ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Poor* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

2. Prices of general goods and services in the area were

Low ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *High* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

3. Quality of restaurants/bars in the area were

Good ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Poor* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

4. Value of the goods and services for the price charges in the area was

Good ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Poor* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

5. Quality of entertainment in the area were

Good ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Poor* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

6. Availability of tours, cruises in the area were

Wide range ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Limited* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

7. Efficiency of public transport in the area was

Good ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Poor* | ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

In comparison to my previous holiday, the aspect was

1. The food in the area was

Tasty ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Tasteless* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

2. The food and beverage quality in the area was

Good ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Poor* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

3. The temperature of the food served in restaurants was

Appropriate ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Inappropriate* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

4. The portions of the food were

Large ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Small* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

5. Presentation of dishes was

Attractive ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Unattractive* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

6. Menu variety at restaurants in the area was

Wide range ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Limited* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

7. The food service (preparation- displays) were

Hygienic ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Unsanitary* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

8. Availability of dishes I always like was

Good ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Poor* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

9. Availability of traditional food in the area was

Good ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Poor* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

Section B5. *Services at the Tourist Facilities in the AREA.*

In comparison to my previous holiday, the aspect was

1. Service at tourist facilities in the area was

Efficient ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Slow* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

2. Courtesy of service at facilities in the resort was

Good ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Poor* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

3. Waiting time for services at facilities in the area was

Short ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Long* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

4. Quality of services at facilities was

Good ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Poor* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

5. Operating hours of tourist facilities were

Convenient ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Inconvenient* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

6. Bills, menus & tariffs at facilities in the area were

Accurate ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Inaccurate* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

7. Check-in and check-out at the *airport* were

Efficient ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 *Slow* — ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐ Worse

	In comparison to my previous holiday, the aspect was

1. Overall, how satisfied are you with the *accommodation*?

Delighted	☐7	☐6	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	Terrible		☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

2. Overall, how satisfied are you with *food and drink* in the area?

Delighted	☐7	☐6	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	Terrible		☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

3. Overall, how satisfied are you with the *entire holiday*?

Delighted	☐7	☐6	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	Terrible		☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

4. How would you rate *Your Accommodation* in terms of value for money?

Good	☐7	☐6	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	Poor		☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

5. How would you rate *Your Entire Holiday* in terms of value for money?

Good	☐7	☐6	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1	Poor		☐ Better	☐ Similar	☐ Worse

6. To what extent could you say you really enjoyed the holiday?

❐ Not at all	❐ To a small extent	❐ To some extent	❐To a very large extent

7. In comparison with your expectations, how good was your holiday in Turkey?

❐ Better than expected	❐ As expected	❐ Worse than expected

8. Please tick (✓) if there is something that has to be improved in respect of:

a) ACCOMMODATION	b) FOOD AND DRINK	c) RESORT AREA
☐ Cleanliness	☐ Originality of food	☐ Water quality/supply
☐ Service quality	☐ Quality of food	☐ Public transport
☐ Staff behaviour	☐ Choices of dishes	☐ Cleanliness
☐ Security	☐ Prices	☐ Attitudes of people
☐ Others (specify)____________	☐ Others (Specify)______________	☐ Others (specify)_______

9. How likely are you to return to TURKEY for holiday?

❐ Definitely	❐ Most likely	❐ Likely	❐ Not sure	❐ Unlikely	❐ Most unlikely	❐ Absolutely not

10. Would you return TURKEY if its prices increase somewhat?

❐ Yes	❐ Not sure	❐ No

11. How likely are you to recommend TURKEY to your friends or relatives?

❐ Definitely	❐ Most likely	❐ Likely	❐ Not sure	❐ Unlikely	❐ Most unlikely	❐ Absolutely not

12. Please tick (✓) if there is something that you would particularly recommend to your friends or relatives?

☐ Local cuisine	☐ Local hospitality	☐ Natural environment
☐ Service quality	☐ Personal security	☐ Peaceful surrounding
☐ Possibility of making good purchases	☐ Accommodation	☐ Interesting places to visit

13. Could you say that this holiday stands out as one of the best holidays you have had?

Yes ❐	No ❐

14. Can you please state why it stands out or *not* as one of the best holidays you have had? (or put your other comments)

Thank you for your co-operation

APPENDIX VII

Research Instrument: The Final Investigation

This questionnaire is part of a research project being undertaken at Sheffield Hallam University (UK). The research examines tourists' experiences of restaurant services.

There are no right or wrong answers. We are interested in your opinions about your ***last dining experience*** within a ***non-fast food restaurant*** "outside your accommodation" at your destination in Turkey. We would also like to find out your opinions about the restaurant services at your accommodation.

The information gathered throughout this questionnaire will be used to offer better services to our visitors.

We would be grateful if you could spare a few minutes to complete this questionnaire.

Instructions:

First of all, please tick a number for each statement that best describes what you think of it. Secondly, please indicate how good/similar/bad that aspect was in comparison to the restaurant *at your accommodation.* Examples of completed questions are shown below.

In comparison to my accommodation restaurant, the aspect was

1. The restaurant outside my accommodation I dined in last was

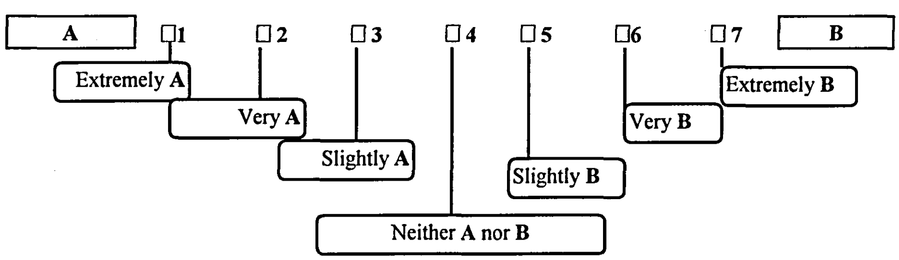
Quiet ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Noisy*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

This respondent has indicated that the restaurant she dined in last time outside her accommodation was **extremely** noisy and the quietness of that restaurant was **worse** than the restaurant at her accommodation.

2. The restaurant was

Clean ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Unclean*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

The second respondent has indicated that the restaurant he dined in last time outside his accommodation was **slightly** clean and the cleanliness of that restaurant was **better** than the restaurant at his accommodation.



Note: If any statement does not apply to you, please leave it *blank* and go to the next question.

PTO ☞

1.	**Nationality?**	❒German	❒British	❒French	❒Italian	❒Scandinavian	❒Russian	❒Other

2. **Sex?** ❒ Male ❒ Female

3. **Age?** ❒ Under 14 ❒ 15-24 ❒ 25-34 ❒35-44 ❒ 45-54 ❒Over 55

4. **Type of profession?** ______________________________

5. **Length of holiday?** ❒ Less than a week ❒ A week ❒ Two weeks ❒ More

6. **Have you been to Turkey before?** ❒ No ❒ Yes **If yes, how many times?** ❒ Once ❒ More

7. **Your accommodation?** ❒ Hotel ❒ 1 star ❒ 2 ❒ 3 ❒4 ❒ 5 star ❒ Others (specify)

8. **The restaurant outside your accommodation you dined in last time was** ❒High Scale Restaurant ❒ Budget/Casual Restaurant ❒ Others (specify)

9. **Restaurant situated in** ❒ Marmaris ❒ Fethiye ❒ Bodrum ❒ Other ____________

10. **On this occasion, were you dining alone?** ❒ Yes ❒ No

11. **This occasion was a** ❒ Casual Dinner ❒Special Occasion/Celebration ❒ Others

12. **Have you eaten out at this restaurant before?** ❒ Yes ❒ No

Section 2. Please give a rating between 1 and 7 for each of the following factors indicating its importance to you ***on this occasion?*** A 7 means the factor is ***extremely important*** and 1 means the factor is ***not important at all.***

☐	To experience new and different dishes	☐	To have fun and good time
☐	To rest and relax	☐	To eat inexpensively
☐	To have foodservice value for money	☐	To be in a calm dining atmosphere
☐	To eat balanced-healthy food	☐	To have high quality-nutritious food
☐	To sample local food	☐	To be in a lively dining atmosphere
☐	To be in a dining place I feel comfortable	☐	To eat food similar to my own

Section 2a. Please give a rating between 1 and 7 for each of the following factors indicating its importance to you ***when selecting a restaurant*** *while you are on holiday*?

☐	Impression from the road	☐	Restaurant spaciousness and layout
☐	Convenient location	☐	Availability of balanced-healthy food choices
☐	Crowd/noise level in the restaurant	☐	High standard of services
☐	Atmosphere in the restaurant	☐	Activity and entertainment in the restaurant
☐	Cuisine style	☐	Food value for money
☐	View from the restaurant	☐	Interesting-adventurous menu
☐	Availability of non-smoking area	☐	A place frequented by locals

☐	Consistent food preparation quality	☐	Menu-dishes for all
☐	Comfort of seating	☐	Availability of local dishes
☐	Availability of dishes I like	☐	Visibility of food preparation
☐	Availability of similar food to my own	☐	Availability of new-interesting food
☐	Food tastiness	☐	Ingredient freshness
☐	Availability of high quality food	☐	Hygienic food service
☐	Reasonable prices of food -drink	☐	Hearty portions
☐	Availability of nutritious food	☐	Presentation of food
☐	Waiting time for dishes	☐	Efficiency of service
☐	Convenient ordering	☐	Attentive service
☐	Availability of children facilities	☐	Communication in your language
☐	Friendliness of service	☐	Clear prices-prices shown
☐	Staff hygiene	☐	Competent staff
☐	Well dressed staff	☐	Helpful staff

In comparison to my accommodation restaurant, the aspect was

1. The restaurant outside my accommodation I dined in last time was

Neat/tidy ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Untidy*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

2. The restaurant surrounding was

Quiet ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Noisy*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

3. The temperature in the restaurant was

Comfortable ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Uncomfortable*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

4. The seating in the restaurant was

Comfortable ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Uncomfortable*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

5. The atmosphere in the restaurant was

Lively ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Inactive*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

6. Background music in the restaurant was

Favourable ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Unfavourable*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

7. The operating hours of the restaurant were

Convenient ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Inconvenient*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

8. The location of the restaurant was

Convenient ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Inconvenient*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

9. The view through the restaurant was

Pleasant ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Unpleasant*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

10. The restaurant was

Uncongested ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Congested*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

11. The restaurant was

Quiet ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Noisy*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

12. The utensils in the restaurant and its facilities were

Clean ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Unclean*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

Section 4. This section is designed to find out your opinions about the Menu.

1. The menu variety was

Limited ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ***Wide range*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

2. Menu items were

Unavailable ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ***Available*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

3. The food choice was

Unhealthy ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ***Balanced/healthy*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

4. Dishes I like were

Unavailable ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ***Available*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

5. Local dishes were

Unavailable ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ***Available*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

6. Beverages I like were

Unavailable ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 ***Available*** ☐ Better ☐ Similar ☐Worse

			In comparison to my accommodation restaurant, the aspect was		
	1. The food quality was				
Poor	□1 □2 □3 □4 □5 □6 □7	***Excellent***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	2. The portions of food were				
Small	□1 □2 □3 □4 □5 □6 □7	***Hearty***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	3. The food was				
Bland	□1 □2 □3 □4 □5 □6 □7	***Tasty***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	4. The food was				
Greasy	□1 □2 □3 □4 □5 □6 □7	***Non-greasy***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	5. The temperature of hot/cold food was				
Unsuitable	□1 □2 □3 □4 □5 □6 □7	***Suitable***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	6. The presentation of food were				
Unappetising	□1 □2 □3 □4 □5 □6 □7	***Appetising***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	7. The food service/display/preparation were				
Unhygienic	□1 □2 □3 □4 □5 □6 □7	***Hygienic***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	8. The food preparation/quality was				
Inconsistent with my previous visit	□1 □2 □3 □4 □5 □6 □7	***Consistent with my previous visit***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse

Section 6. This section is designed to find out your opinions about the quality of service.

	1. The greeting and seating was				
Prompt	□7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1	***Slow***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	2. Waiting time for dishes was				
Short	□7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1	***Long***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	3. Facilities for children were				
Available	□7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1	***Unavailable***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	4. The food/drink was				
Inexpensive	□7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1	***Expensive***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	5. The value of food/drink for the price charged was				
High	□7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1	***Poor***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	6. Bill, menu and other communications were				
Accurate	□7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1	***Inaccurate***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	7. The standard of service in the restaurant was				
Excellent	□7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1	***Poor***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	8. The service was				
Friendly	□7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1	***Unfriendly***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	9. The service was				
Efficient	□7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1	***Inefficient/slow***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse
	10. The service quality was				
Consistent with my previous visit	□7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1	***Inconsistent with my previous visits***	❒ Better	❒ Similar	❒Worse

1. *Restaurant staff were*

Clean □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Unclean*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

2. *Restaurant staff were*

Well dressed □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Scruffy*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

3. *Restaurant staff were*

Friendly □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Unfriendly*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

4. *The knowledge of restaurant staff on menu, etc. were*

Sufficient □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Poor*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

5. *Willingness of restaurant staff to help customers was*

Good □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Poor*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

6. *Communication with the staff in my language was*

Easy □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Difficult*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

7. *Restaurant staff were*

Competent □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Incompetent*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

8. *Restaurant staff were*

Attentive to my needs/wants □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Inattentive/ go strictly by the book*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

Section 8. This section is designed to find out your overall assessment about restaurant services.

1. Overall, service quality in this restaurant was

Excellent □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Poor*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

2. During my visit in the restaurant, I felt

Comfortable with other customers □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Uncomfortable with other customers*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

3. During my visit in the restaurant, I felt

Comfortable with staff □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Uncomfortable with staff*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

4. Dining out at this restaurant was

Inexpensive □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Expensive*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

5. Dining out at this restaurant was

Entertaining □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Not entertaining*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

6. Dining out at this restaurant was

Relaxing □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Not relaxing*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

7. In comparison to what it cost me, dining out at this restaurant was

Value for money □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Not value for money*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

8. Services in this restaurant were

Much Better than I expected □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Much worse than I expected*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

9. Overall, how satisfied are you with your dining experience?

Delighted □7 □6 □5 □4 □3 □2 □1 ***Terrible*** ❐ Better ❐ Similar ❐Worse

1. To what extent could you say that your needs were met by the restaurant and its services?

To a large extent ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***To a small extent***

2. In comparison to your best dining experience, dining out in this restaurant was

Much better ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Much worse***

3. Given a chance, I would dine in the same restaurant again

Definitely ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Definitely not***

4. I recommend this restaurant to others

Definitely ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Definitely not***

5. I consider this restaurant to be

Reputable ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Not reputable***

6. Standard of services in this restaurant was

Acceptable ☐7 ☐6 ☐5 ☐4 ☐3 ☐2 ☐1 ***Unacceptable***

Section 11. **Please state the things that you liked best about the *restaurant and its services at your accommodation* or *non-hotel restaurants* at your destination and the reasons why you liked this aspect?**

Section 12. **Please state the things that you found *unsatisfactory* about the *restaurant and its services at your accommodation* or *non-hotel restaurants* at your destination and the reasons why these aspects were unsatisfactory?**

Thank you very much