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Doctoral Thesis

A Cross-Cultural Study between Thais and Japanese for Food-Related Industry

In partial fulfillment of the Doctoral Degree

By Thienhirun, Supimmas

Supervised by Associate Professor Chung Sulin

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ABSTRACT

This research aims to investigate the cross-cultural differences between Thais and Japanese for ethnic food consumption in three perspectives; (1) attitudes and preferences, (2) values and (3) key attributes of product and service. Two case studies; cross-cultural ready-to-eat (RTE) food, and ethnic restaurants, were chosen to compare the similarity and difference of consumer behaviors between Thais and Japanese. Following the main objective, the attitudes and preferences toward cross-cultural RTE food were firstly assessed. Secondly, the relationship between values, customer needs, restaurant attributes, customer satisfaction and return intention is examined using the case study of ethnic restaurants. Besides, the implications from small hotels and resorts were also conducted to cross-validate the results.

The study revealed that both Thai and Japanese consumers were familiar with cross-cultural food (Japanese/Thai food). However, they had negative attitudes toward freshness and taste of RTE food, which led them to hardly consume it. Additionally, the preferences of Thai and Japanese consumers were found to be different from one another. For example, Thai consumers preferred fusion taste and a letter label on a clear container lid, whereas Japanese consumers preferred authentic taste and a colorful picture design.

In another perspective, values positively influenced particular types of customer needs that, in turn, influenced return intention passing through customer satisfaction. Regarding the values that Thai and Japanese customers hold in daily life, they led to different needs to be met when customers dine in Japanese/Thai restaurants. However, similar restaurant attributes (unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes) were found to have an influence on return intention through customer satisfaction for customers in both countries. These findings could be used as a guideline to understand consumer attitudes and preferences as well as values and key attributes of products and services so as to deliver customer satisfaction and enhance their intention to revisit in the future.

Keywords: values, customer needs, customer satisfaction, return intention, consumer behavior

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TABLES OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
TITLE PAGE	i
ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iv
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
LIST OF TABLES	xiv
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Research Background	1
1.2 Purpose of Dissertation	7
1.3 Structure of Dissertation	7
References	11
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW	17
2.1 Literature Review	17
2.1.1 Cross-Cultural Studies	17
2.1.2 Values	21
2.1.3 Consumer Attitudes and Preferences	26
2.1.4 Customer Needs	28
2.1.5 Customer Satisfaction	30
2.1.6 Return Intention	32
2.1.7 Food-Related Industry	33
2.1.7.1 Ready-To-Eat Food in Thailand	36
2.1.7.2 Ready-To-Eat Food in Japan	37

2.1.7.3 Ethnic Restaurants in Thailand	39
2.1.7.4 Ethnic Restaurants in Japan	40
2.1.8 Service Industry	41
2.2 Conclusion	42
Definitions	42
References	43
CHAPTER 3 CONSUMER ATTITUDES AND PREFERENCES	
TOWARD CROSS-CULTURAL READY-TO-EAT (RTE) FOOD	57
3.1 Research Background	57
3.2 Methodology	60
3.2.1 Participants	60
3.2.2 Procedure	60
3.2.2.1 Data Collection	60
3.2.2.2 Interview Structure	61
3.2.2.3 Conjoint Analysis	62
3.2.2.4 Analysis Method	65
3.3 Results	66
3.3.1 Sample Characteristics	66
3.3.2 Experience of Consuming Thai/Japanese Food	67
3.3.3 Image of Thai/Japanese Food	70
3.3.4 Important Factors for Purchasing Thai/Japanese RTE Food	71
3.3.5 Conjoint Analysis of Thai/Japanese RTE Food	72
3.4 Discussion	76
3.5 Conclusion	82
3.6 Implications and Limitations	83
Definitions	84
References	86

CHAPTER 4 INFLUENCE OF VALUES ON DINING INTENTION IN	
ETHNIC RESTAURANTS	
4.1 Research Background	92
4.1.1 Model 1: LOV and Purchase Behavior	93
4.1.2 Model 2: LOV, Needs and Purchase Behavior	93
4.1.3 Model 3: Proposed Research Model	94
4.2 Hypotheses	96
4.2.1 Relationship between List of Values (LOV) and Customer needs	96
4.2.2 Relationship between Customer Needs, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention	96
4.2.3 Operational Definition	101
4.3 Methodology	102
4.3.1 Participants	102
4.3.2 Procedure	102
4.3.2.1 Data Collection	102
4.3.2.2 Analysis Method	103
4.3.3 Measurement	104
4.3.3.1 Questionnaire Design	104
4.3.3.2 Homogeneity of Samples	106
4.3.3.3 Measurement of Model	106
4.4 Results	108
4.4.1 Sample Characteristics	108
4.4.2 Classification of Values	109
4.4.3 Values between Thais and Japanese	113
4.4.4 Mean of Values, Customer Needs, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention	114
4.4.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results	119
4.4.6 Structural Results	124
4.4.6.1 Structural Result (Total participants)	124
4.4.6.2 Structural Result (Thai and Japanese Participants)	128

4.4.7 Mediation Test	133
4.5 Discussion	134
4.6 Conclusion	141
4.7 Implications and Limitations	142
References	144
CHAPTER 5 INFLUENCE OF KEY ATTRIBUTES ON DINING	149
INTENTION IN ETHNIC RESTAURANTS	
5.1 Research Background	150
5.1.1 Model 1: Restaurant Attributes and Customer Satisfaction	151
5.1.2 Model 2: Restaurant Attributes and Return Intention	152
5.1.3 Model 3: Restaurant Attributes, Customer Satisfaction and and Return Intention	153
5.1.4 Model 4: Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention	154
5.2 Hypotheses	155
5.2.1 Operational Definition	157
5.3 Methodology	158
5.3.1 Participants	158
5.3.2 Procedure	158
5.3.2.1 Data Collection	158
5.3.2.2 Analysis Method	159
5.3.3 Measurement	159
5.3.3.1 Questionnaire Design	159
5.3.3.2 Homogeneity of Samples	160
5.3.3.3 Measurement of Model	160
5.4 Results	161
5.4.1 Sample Characteristics	161
5.4.2 Choice Preferences	161
5.4.3 Classification of Restaurant Attributes	164
5.4.4 Restaurant Attributes between Thais and Japanese	168

5.4.5 Mean of Restaurant Attributes, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention	170
5.4.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results	175
5.4.7 Structural Results	180
5.4.7.1 Structural Result (Total Participants)	180
5.4.7.2 Structural Results (Thai and Japanese Participants Model)	182
5.4.8 Mediation Test	186
5.5 Discussion	187
5.6 Conclusion	193
5.7 Implications and Limitations	194
References	196
CHAPTER 6 A CASE STUDY OF SMALL HOTELS AND RESORTS	201
6.1 Research Background	202
6.1.1 Definition of Small Hotels and Resorts (1–3 stars)	203
6.2 Hypotheses	204
6.2.1 Hypotheses of LOV Model	204
6.2.2 Operational Definition (LOV Model)	205
6.2.3 Hypotheses of Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model	206
6.2.4 Operational Definition (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)	208
6.3 Methodology	209
6.3.1 Participants	209
6.3.2 Procedure	209
6.3.2.1 Data Collection	209
6.3.2.2 Analysis Method	210
6.3.3 Measurement	210
6.3.3.1 Questionnaire Design	210
6.3.3.2 Measurement of Model	211

6.4 Results (LOV Model)	211
6.4.1 Sample Characteristics	211
6.4.2 Classification of Values	212
6.4.3 Mean of Values, Customer Needs, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention	214
6.4.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Result	216
6.4.5 Structural Result (LOV model)	218
6.4.6 Mediation Test (LOV model)	222
6.5 Results (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)	224
6.5.1 Classification of Small Hotel and Resort Attributes	224
6.5.2 Mean of Small Hotel and Resort Attributes	226
6.5.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results	227
6.5.4 Structural Result (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)	229
6.5.5 Mediation Test (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes model)	232
6.6 Discussion	233
6.7 Conclusion	237
6.8 Implications and Limitations	237
References	239
CHAPTER 7 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	241
7.1 Discussion between Thais and Japanese for Food-Related Industry	241
7.2 General Summary	248
7.3 Contributions	251
7.3.1 Theoretical Contributions	251
7.3.2 Practical Contributions	253
7.3.2.1 Contributions to Food-Related Industry	253
7.3.2.2 Contributions to Hotel Industry	254
7.4 Research Implications	255
7.4.1 Implications for Food-Related Industry	255

7.4.2 Implications for Hotel Industry	257
7.5 Limitations	258
7.6 Future Research Directions	259
References	260
APPENDICES	263
Appendix A: Consumer Attitudes and Preferences toward	263
Cross-Cultural Ready-To-Eat (RTE) Food Interview	
Questionnaire: English version	
Appendix B: Consumer Attitudes and Preferences toward	267
Cross-Cultural Ready-To-Eat (RTE) Food Interview	
Questionnaire: Thai version	
Appendix C: Consumer Attitudes and Preferences toward	273
Cross-Cultural Ready-To-Eat (RTE) Food Interview	
Questionnaire: Japanese version	
Appendix D: Customer Behaviors and Factors Affecting Japanese Food	280
Consumption at the Restaurants Questionnaire: English version	
Appendix E: Customer Behaviors and Factors Affecting	282
Japanese Food Consumption at the Restaurants Questionnaire: Thai version	
Appendix F: Customer Behaviors and Factors Affecting	310
Thai Food Consumption at the Restaurants Questionnaire: Japanese version	
Appendix G: Customer Behaviors and Factors Affecting the Stay in Small	323
Hotels or Resorts (1–3 Stars) in Thailand Questionnaire: English version	
Appendix H: Customer Behaviors and Factors Affecting the Stay in Small	334
Hotels or Resorts (1–3 Stars) in Thailand Questionnaire: Thai version	
Appendix I: Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) for Thai and Japanese	346

Participants (LOV Model) Appendix J: Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) for Thai and Japanese Participants (Restaurant Attributes Model) Appendix K: AMOS (Chapter 4) Appendix L: AMOS (Chapter 5) 353 Appendix M: AMOS (Chapter 6)

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	TITLE	PAGE
Figure 1.1	Structure of Dissertation	10
Figure 2.1	Hofstede's Cultural Dimension between Thailand and Japan	18
Figure 2.2	Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	28
Figure 2.3	Customer's Involvement Position for Customized Products	34
Figure 3.1	Research Design	59
Figure 3.2	Example of Thai (a) and Japanese (b) Conjoint Cards	64
Figure 4.1	Relationship between Values and Purchase Behavior	93
Figure 4.2	Influence of Values on Customer Needs and Purchase Behavior	94
Figure 4.3	Relationship between Values, Customer Needs and Purchase Behavior	94
Figure 4.4	Proposed Model	95
Figure 4.5	Structural Model	100
Figure 4.6	Structural Result (Total participants)	127
Figure 4.7	Structural Result (Thai participants)	131
Figure 4.8	Structural Result (Japanese participants)	132
Figure 4.9	Summary of Relationship between Values and Customer Needs	138
Figure 4.10	Relationship between Values, Customer Needs Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention	140
Figure 5.1	Relationship between Restaurant Attributes and Customer Satisfaction	152
Figure 5.2	Relationship between Restaurant Attributes and Return Intention	153
Figure 5.3	Relationship between Restaurant Attributes, Customer Satisfaction and Return intention	154

Figure 5.4	Relationship between Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention	154
Figure 5.5	Structural Model	157
Figure 5.6	Type of Japanese/Thai Food Preferences	162
Figure 5.7	Taste of Japanese/Thai Food Preferences	163
Figure 5.8	Country of Origin of Ingredients Preferences	163
Figure 5.9	Waiting Time Preferences	164
Figure 5.10	Structural Result (Total participants)	181
Figure 5.11	Structural Result (Thai Participants)	184
Figure 5.12	Structural Result (Japanese Participants)	185
Figure 5.13	Summary of Relationship between Key Restaurant Attributes, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention	192
Figure 6.1	LOV Model (Presented in Chapter 4)	203
Figure 6.2	Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model (Similar to Chapter 5)	203
Figure 6.3	Research Model (LOV Model)	205
Figure 6.4	Research Model (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)	208
Figure 6.5	Structural Results (LOV Model)	221
Figure 6.6	Structural Results (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)	231

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	TITLE	PAGE
Table 3.1	Attributes in Conjoint Analysis	63
Table 3.2	Combination of Nine Cards	64
Table 3.3	Profile of Participants	66
Table 3.4	Experience of Consuming Japanese/Thai Food	67
Table 3.5	Image of Japanese/Thai Food and Japanese/Thai RTE Food	70
Table 3.6	Mean of Japanese/Thai RTE Food Factors	72
Table 3.7	Important Values of Japanese/Thai RTE food	73
Table 3.8	Utility Scores of Sub-Attributes of Japanese/Thai RTE food	76
Table 4.1	Profile of Participants	109
Table 4.2	Component Extraction Result (Total Participants)	110
Table 4.3	Component Extraction Result (Thai Participants)	111
Table 4.3	Component Extraction Result (Japanese Participants)	111
Table 4.5	Factor Loading of Values (LOV)	113
Table 4.6	Factor Score Coefficient Matrix (LOV)	113
Table 4.7	t-test of Factor Scores between Thais and Japanese (LOV)	114
Table 4.8	Mean of Values	117
Table 4.9	Mean of Customer needs, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention between Thais and Japanese	118
Table 4.10	Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Total Participants)	120
Table 4.11	Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Thai Participants)	121
Table 4.12	Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Japanese Participants)	122
Table 4.13	Correlation Matrix (Total Participants)	123

Table 4.14	Correlation Matrix (Thai Participants)	123
Table 4.15	Correlation Matrix (Japanese Participants)	124
Table 4.16	Summary of Hypotheses for Structural Results	133
Table 4.17	Results of Mediating Effect	134
Table 5.1	Component Extraction Result (Total Participants)	165
Table 5.2	Component Extraction Result (Thai Participants)	166
Table 5.3	Component Extraction Result (Japanese Participants)	166
Table 5.4	Factor Loading of Restaurant Attributes	168
Table 5.5	Factor Score Coefficient Matrix (Restaurant Attributes)	169
Table 5.6	<i>t</i> -test of Factor Scores between Thais and Japanese (Restaurant Attributes)	170
Table 5.7	Mean of Restaurant Attributes, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention	174
Table 5.8	Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Total Participants)	176
Table 5.9	Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Thai Participants)	177
Table 5.10	Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Japanese Participants)	178
Table 5.11	Correlation Matrix (Total Participants)	179
Table 5.12	Correlation Matrix (Thai Participants)	179
Table 5.13	Correlation Matrix (Japanese Participants)	179
Table 5.14	Summary of Hypotheses	186
Table 5.15	Results of Mediating Effect	187
Table 6.1	Profile of Participants	212
Table 6.2	Component Extraction Result (LOV Model)	213
Table 6.3	Factor Loading of List of Values (LOV Model)	214
Table 6.4	Mean of Constructs and Items (LOV Model)	215

Table 4.14

Table 6.5	Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (LOV Model)	217
Table 6.6	Correlation Matrix (LOV Model)	218
Table 6.7	Results of Mediating Effect (LOV Model)	222
Table 6.8	Summary of the Hypotheses (LOV Model)	223
Table 6.9	Component Extraction Result (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)	224
Table 6.10	Factor Loading of Small Hotel and Resort Attributes	225
Table 6.11	Mean of Small Hotel and Resort Attributes	227
Table 6.12	Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes model)	228
Table 6.13	Correlation Matrix ((Small Hotel and Resorts Attribute Model)	229
Table 6.14	Summary of Hypotheses (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)	232
Table 6.15	Results of Mediating Effect (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)	232
Table 6.16	Comparison of Customer Needs between Ethnic Restaurants and Small Hotels and Resorts	235
Table 6.17	Comparison of Key Attributes between Ethnic Restaurants and Small Hotels and Resorts	236
Table 7.1	Summary of Attitudes and Preferences of Thais	247
Table 7.2	Summary of Attitudes and Preferences of Japanese	248

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces an overview of the dissertation. The research background and objectives are presented in the following sections. In addition, the structure of the dissertation is demonstrated at the end of the chapter.

1.1 Research Background

Food is a fundamental product that people have to consume every day in order to live their life (Maslow, 1954). Nowadays, in the food-related industry, various types of food are sold in the market, increasing plenty of choices for consumers to purchase the food and/or dine in restaurants. Due to the globalization and changing lifestyle, a large number of people work in metropolitan area. Thus, it is inevitable that working people nowadays have to work faster to get job done within a limited time and many of them have to work overtime. This leads to the shift of consumer lifestyle to eat out at the restaurants and purchase more ready meals because they have no time to prepare meals (Pollan, 2007; Gatley, Caraher, & Lang, 2014). In addition, consumers around the world are more demanding of convenience foods (Costa, Schoolmeester, Dekker, & Jongen 2007; Dublin, 2014).

With the unique style of food in each country, ethnic foods have been introduced to the new markets with intention to serve people who live far away from their home countries as well as local consumers who prefer exotic food from their travelling experiences. Ethnic food refers to "food originating from a heritage and culture of an ethnic group who use their knowledge of local ingredients of plants and/or animal sources" (Kwon, 2015). Interestingly, Asian ethnic food is increasingly crucial for global food manufacturers and also essential for marketing unique food with their functional properties (Mun, 2009). With the health awareness in Thailand, Asian food, especially Japanese food,

gained more popularity among Thai consumers (Euromonitor, 2016a). Similar to Japan, Asian restaurants in Japan also gained 2 percent growth over the current value (Euromonitor, 2016b). Interestingly, a number of Thai restaurants in Japan have been increased to over 1,200 stores (Naewna, 2014).

According to the National Research Association (NRA) survey with more than 1,000 Americans, four out of five consumers consume at least one ethnic cuisine each month and one third try at least one new ethnic food during the past year (Nation's Restaurant News, 2015). It was found that Japanese cuisine is also widely consumed among American consumers in which more than 50 percent of the participants have tried it at least once. However, less than half of participants have tried Thai cuisine at least once. In addition, the results from conducting survey in other countries; including China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, South Korea, U.S., France and Italy, showed that Japanese food was rated as the most favourite food among consumers overseas (JETRO, 2013). The main reasons are "I like the flavour" and "It's healthy". In a contrast, Oriental food report (Wing Yip, 2016) revealed that more than 90 percent of U.K. surveyed participants (3,051 people) have tried Chinese food, followed by Thai (56 percent) and Japanese food (35 percent). Even though Chinese food is popular, customers typically order takeaway meals. On the other hand, they commonly dine in Thai and Japanese food restaurants rather than buying ready meals.

With the shift of consumer behaviors, it is essential for marketers to understand the needs of customers and the factors that could influence consumers to purchase products and services. Particularly, culture is one of the key factors that have an influence on consumer behaviors (Kotler, 2009) and being studied by many scholars (e.g. Hofstede G, Hofstede, G.J., & Minkov, 2010; Pornpitakpan, 2000). Since culture is not static, it could be varied from one country to another (Zhang, De Pablos, & Zhou, 2013). Culture is defined as a collective phenomenon shaped by social environment and shared among group members (Hofstede et al., 2010). It also influenced the way people buy or consume products and services for their livings (McCracken, 1986). In addition, culture could have an influence on attitudes and behaviors, especially in food-related industry (Rozin, 1990), and food taste preferences (Wright & Kwok, 2001). Thus, consumer attitudes and

preferences might also be diverse in different countries, leading to a number of researches relevant to consumer attitudes and preferences toward food consumption. For example, American consumers were found to dine in ethnic restaurants based on their preferences to authentic ethnic cuisines rather than focusing on convenience of purchase (Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007). Interestingly, although consumers live in the same continent such as Europe, a cross-cultural difference between British and German consumers in term of attitudes toward meat consumption were also found (Vebeke, Pérez-Cueto, De Barcellos, Krystallis, & Grunert, 2010). Besides, Pelletier, Laska, Neumark-Sztainer and Story (2013) investigated the attitudes of young adults toward alternative food systems and found that vegetarians gave higher importance to the alternative production systems (e.g. organically grown, locally grown and not processed) than customers who are non-vegetarians. Therefore, this perspective would be one of interesting issues in a cross-cultural study, especially for the cross-cultural food, which is hardly found in the literatures.

Apart from the attitudes and preferences, many scholars have been interested in exploring the values of consumers in each country, which, in turn, have an influence on behaviors (Furrer, Liu, & Sudharshan, 2000; Zhang, et al., 2013). Values are learned from the society that we are part of, or transferred from one society to the other (Marchand & Khallaayoune, 2010). In addition, values are a type of social recognition that is similar to the attitudes because both can be adapted and organized to preserve the optimal functioning (Kahle, 1983). One of widely known theories is called "List of Values" (LOV) which consists of nine personal values that influence on behaviors in the form of values-attitudebehavior relationship (Homer & Kahle, 1988). From prior studies, this typology has been reported that these values influence preferences for products and brands (Pitts & Woodside, 1983), web marketing facilities (Wang, 2005) and motivation for shopping (Koo, Kim & Lee, 2008). In addition, the study of Chryssohoidis and Krystallis (2005) also underlined the influence of values on consumer behaviors for food consumption. Interestingly, the study of Kim, Forsythe, Gu, and Moon (2002) revealed that customer needs are influenced by values that customers hold in daily life. For example, customers who hold the selfdirected values such as self-respect, security and fun and enjoyment of life were more likely to purchase apparel products to fulfill their experiential needs (fashion leadership).

Therefore, customers will purchase products and services to fulfill their needs that are influenced by values.

Even though previous studies showed that personal values strongly influence behaviors (Homer & Kahle, 1988; Kim, et al., 2002; Ledden, Kalafatis, & Samouel, 2007), studies of how personal values influence customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention are relatively scarce, especially for the foodservice industry (Ladhari, Pons, Bressolles, & Zins, 2011). In addition, the values that customers hold from one country to another may be different since values are shaped by the culture. As a result, customers may demand different needs when purchasing products and services. This becomes essential for conducting cross-cultural studies to explore the perspective of values.

Beyond consumer attitudes and preferences, and values, various scholars also investigated key attributes of products and services that should be served to the customers in each country. With different culture that customers live in, the attributes that should be emphasized might be different. For example, Vietnamese are more likely to consume vegetarian ready meals (Euromonitor, 2015a) whereas Singaporean did not consume ready meals regularly due to the health awareness (Euromonitor, 2015b). Besides, a crosscultural comparison between Korean and Filipino college students found that menu price was the most important attribute for selecting fast food restaurants (Baek, Ham, & Yang, 2006). The next important attributes for Korean students were brand, food-related factors and service-hygiene-related factors. On the other hand, Filipino students gave more importance to food-related factors, followed by service-hygiene-related factors and brand. This result suggested that the restaurateurs should focus on the key attributes differently to improve them to match with local consumer behavior.

From the literatures, the attributes of ready meals mainly involved price (Geeroms, Verbeke, & Kenhove, 2008), taste (Honkanen & Frewer, 2009) and design of packaging (Silayoi & Speece, 2007), which all are the attributes that customers can instantly see once they select the products. On the other hand, the attributes for restaurants typically included food and service quality attributes (Andersson & Mossberg, 2004; Sulek & Hensley, 2004; Liu & Jang, 2009), and dining atmosphere (Kim W.G., Ng, & Kim, Y, 2009) due to its

intangible nature of products. Nevertheless, regarding to this aspect, the combination of key attributes for RTE food and the attributes related to the uniqueness of the restaurants such as signature dish and customized menu, are hardly found in the literatures. Therefore, the key attributes for food-related industry should be explored as another perspective in a cross-cultural study.

With understanding in consumer attitudes and preferences, values that motivated customers to purchase products and services, as well as key attributes that should be focused for each group of consumers, it could help enhance customer satisfaction and thus return intention in the future. Interestingly, the cost of retaining the existing customers was about five times less than attracting new customers (Chiu, Hsu, Lai, & Chang, 2012; Kim & Gupta, 2009). Furthermore, the profits of the companies were increased by between 25 and 85 percent by retaining 5 percent of their customers (Reichheld & Sasser, 1990). This might be one reason that many companies try to enhance customer satisfaction to continue increasing their profits. Besides, it was found that the customers are more likely to return to purchase products and services in the future due to their positive experiences (Gibson, 2005; Rizwan, Qayyum, Qadeer, & Javed, 2014; Wang, 2011). Therefore, providing both excellent products and services to win the customer's heart is a key issue.

To summarize, three elements that should be explored in a cross-cultural studies consisted of (1) attitudes and preferences, (2) values and (3) key attributes for products and services. In addition, investigating cross-cultural differences between Thailand and Japan would be unique and bring fruitful information to scholars. Even though there are various food-related industry studies, a small number of researches that investigate three perspectives and compare among Asian customers are relatively scarce. Therefore, participants in Thailand and Japan were chosen in this study because there are some similarities and differences in the cultural background, which give rise to different requirements to be met when they purchase products and services. Additionally, these countries differ in terms of their economic and social situations. This might affect attitudes and preferences as well as personal values that they hold in everyday life. Besides, the key attributes that should be served to the customers might also be varied.

In this study, we focused on food-related industry because food is a product that consumers have to consume every day. In addition, recently, consumers' lifestyle has been shifted to dining out at the restaurants and purchasing ready meals, which are ones of the interesting areas that should be investigated in order to meet consumer demand properly. Particularly, the statistical data from Knoema (2015) revealed that the expenditures spent on food of Thai consumers in 2015 were around one-fourth (25.68%) which also slightly increased from 2012 (25.20%). On the other hand, Japanese spent a little portion to the food consumption in which the expenditures spent on food in 2015 were around 14.15 percent and slightly increased from 2012 (13.66%). These evidences indicated that the way customers live their life and purchase food might differ even though those two countries are located in Asia.

Additionally, Japanese food is widely sold in Thailand as reflected by a large number of Japanese restaurants opened in Thailand (Euromonitor, 2016a). Similarly, there are several Thai restaurants available in Japan, especially in the center of Tokyo (Naewna, 2014). It implied that consumers in both countries might be more familiar with this type of food more than other types of ethnic food. Thus, an ethnic food (Thai/Japanese food) was intentionally selected because food is a product that related to culture of each country which is unique from one to another. This study would be benefit for both countries to do the business in other countries.

Therefore, exploring three perspectives regarding to cross-cultural food would help marketers to gain more understandings about consumer behaviors which are considered essential for improving key product and service attributes to match with local consumers in each country. In this cross-cultural study, the findings could show the similarities and differences in food-related aspects, even in relatively homogeneous countries in the same region.

1.2 Purposes of Dissertation

This study aims to investigate the cross-cultural differences between Thais and Japanese for ethnic food consumption in three perspectives; (1) attitudes and preferences, (2) values and (3) key attributes of product and service. In addition, this research attempts to focus on the following central objectives.

- 1. To investigate attitudes and preferences toward cross-cultural food between Thai and Japanese consumers.
- 2. To investigate the influence of values on customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention in ethnic restaurants between Thai and Japanese customers.
- 3. To examine the effect of restaurant attributes on customer satisfaction and return intention in ethnic restaurants between Thai and Japanese customers.
- 4. To provide an implication for another service industry by exploring the relationship between values, customer needs, customer satisfaction, return intention and service attributes in small hotels and resorts.

1.3 Structure of Dissertation

This dissertation is divided into three main parts, totally seven chapters. The structure of this dissertation is presented in Figure 1.1. The first section (Chapters 1–2) presents the background of this research, the need to conduct a cross-cultural study between Thais and Japanese for food-related industry. Besides, the related literatures are also discussed in Chapter 2.

The second section consists of three chapters presenting a cross-cultural study in three different perspectives (Chapters 3–5). This study focused on the food in the restaurants and ready-to-eat (RTE) food which can be found in retail stores. Therefore, in

the first case study (Chapter 3), we investigated consumer attitudes and preferences as well as the key attributes for cross-cultural RTE food regarding to Thai and Japanese food. According to the difference of consumer preferences between Thais and Japanese, values were chosen to investigate deeper details about the culture in two countries. Nevertheless, both Thais and Japanese hardly purchased Japanese/Thai RTE food. Thus, only the food in restaurants which participants are familiar was chosen as another case study. Additionally, the key attributes of the restaurants and customer preferences were also investigated to present the different aspects for both restaurants and RTE food. Thus, it leads to the investigation of following case studies in Chapter 4 and 5 about ethnic restaurants regarding to the perspective of values, key restaurant attributes and preferences that influence on customer dining intention. The dot box indicated that both chapters were conducted with the same group of participants. Thus, both chapters were put in the same level under the dot box.

Additionally, a service case study was used to represent the implication of the model in Chapter 4 and 5. Therefore, small hotels and resorts were chosen as another implication to compare the results with the ethnic restaurants in term of values and key attributes. Thus, the last section (Chapters 6–7) examines the implication for another case study (service industry) as well as summarized the general results from conducting a cross-cultural study for food-related industry. Therefore, a case study of small hotels and resorts in Thailand is presented in Chapter 6. In Chapter 7, discussion between Thais and Japanese for food-related industry, and general summary are presented. Lastly, the contributions of this study, research implications and future research are also discussed at the end of Chapter 7. A brief description of each chapter presents as follows.

Chapter 1 sets an overview for the current research by introducing backgrounds and objectives of this research. Additionally, the structure of this dissertation is presented in this chapter.

Chapter 2 discusses the related literatures that used in this research. The main topics are cross-cultural studies, values, consumer attitudes and preferences and overview

of food-related industry. In addition, other variables such as customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 3 relates to the first cross-cultural study between Thais and Japanese. The research aims to explore consumer attitudes and preferences toward cross-cultural ready-to-eat (RTE) food, corresponding to the first sub-objective in this dissertation.

Chapter 4 presents the second case study that relates to the influence of values on customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention in ethnic restaurants, corresponding to the second sub-objective in this dissertation. The cross-cultural differences between Thai and Japanese participants are examined.

Chapter 5 explores the relationship between key restaurant attributes, customer satisfaction and return intention in ethnic restaurants, corresponding to the third sub-objective in this dissertation. In this research, the attributes for restaurants are developed based on the past literatures, interview and some important attributes from Chapter 3.

Chapter 6 intends to provide an implication for another service industry which is different from restaurants. Thus, a case study of small hotels and resorts (1–3 stars) in Thailand is presented. In addition, this study corresponds to the fourth sub-objective in this dissertation.

Chapter 7 discusses the results from Thai and Japanese survey for food-related industry. In addition, a general summary concludes how each chapter fulfill the objectives of this dissertation. This final chapter also presents the contributions of this research as well as the implications. Lastly, the directions for future research are also discussed.

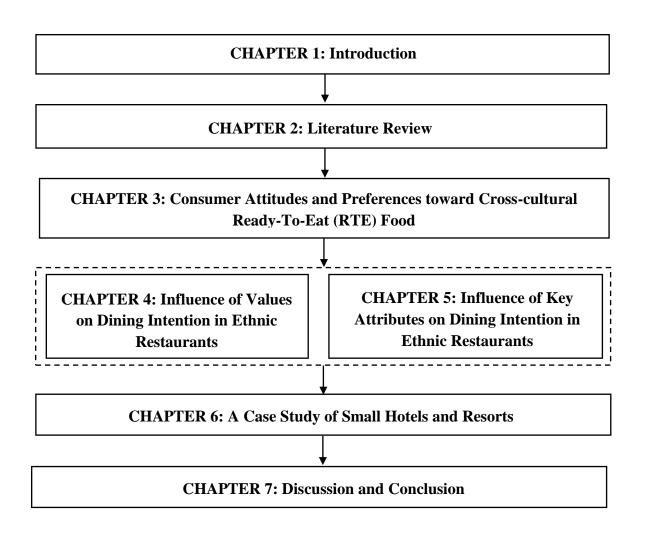


Figure 1.1 Structure of Dissertation

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CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents literatures that used in the following studies. The crosscultural studies, values, consumer attitudes and preferences, customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention are discussed. In addition, the overview of food-related industry and service industry are also presented in this chapter.

2.1 Literature Review

2.1.1 Cross-Cultural Studies

Cultural categories represented the basic distinctions that a culture uses for separating the phenomenal world (McCracken, 1986). In Asia, people focused on relationships and connections from trust rather than following the exact obligations (Petison, 2010). Since both Thailand and Japan are located in Asia, cultural values share some closeness; yet, there are some differences. One of the widely-known cross-cultural theory is Hofstede's cultural dimension (Hofstede G, Hofstede, G.J., & Minkov, 2010) which classified cultural values into six dimensions as (1) masculinity, (2) long term orientation, (3) power distance, (4) uncertainty avoidance, (5) individualism and (6) indulgence.

According to this theory, a group of Thais and Japanese are much different in term of masculinity and long term orientation as presented in Figure 2.1. Masculine society is defined as "when emotional gender roles are clearly distinct: men are supported to be assertive, tough and focused on material success, whereas women are supposed to be more modest, tender and concerned with the quality of life" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 140). Despite its collectivist form, Thailand is classified as a feminine society and Japan as a masculine society. Since the Japanese society is more competitive in most aspects than that of Thailand, the gap between these two countries in terms of this dimension is large. This is reflected in the differences in culture of both countries. In this dimension, Japan is extremely masculine society (score = 95) while Thailand is feminine society (score = 34). Therefore, Japanese people weighted higher values on power, assertiveness, money and success. Nevertheless, Japanese people tend to compete between groups rather than individual such as employees are motivated to be a winning team over others due to low individualism score (score = 46). For Thailand, this country has the lowest masculinity ranking among Asian countries (53rd rank). Thus, Thai lifestyle is more flexible and relaxed than the Japanese lifestyle, which focuses on conventional traits such as relationship oriented and less competition.

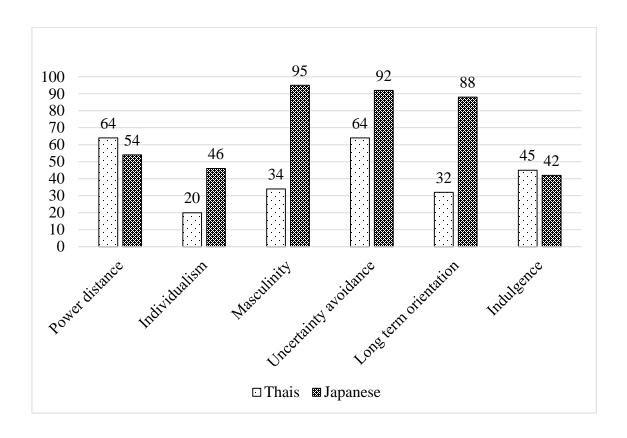


Figure 2.1 Hofstede's Cultural Dimension between Thailand and Japan (based on Hofstede et al., 2010, Made by Author)

The second much difference of cultural dimension is a long term orientation, which stands for "how every society has to maintain some links with its own past while dealing

with the challenges of the present and future" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 239). Based on higher score in Japan (score = 88), it indicates that the Japanese consider doing their best and continue investing in research and development in a company rather than seriously making a profit to shareholders. This is why various Japanese companies keep introducing advanced technology and innovation. On the other hand, Thailand is short term orientation oriented society (score = 32). People in this society normally rely on traditions and norms. They focus on achieving quick results and hardly saving money for the future.

For other dimensions, the scores between Thailand and Japan are similar. The third dimension is power distance which is defined as "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 61). There is slightly different in term of power distance because both countries have a hierarchical society means that people in both countries highly respect elderly people. Even Thailand and Japan have a slightly lower score on the average, comparing with other countries in Asia, an inequality in the society is accepted (Thai score = 64; Japanese score = 54). Hence, in the organization, only top managers have an authority to make a decision which causes slow process when doing business.

The fourth dimension is uncertainty avoidance, which is described as "the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 191). Both Thailand and Japan are prone to a preference of avoiding uncertainty and ambiguous situation that can happen in the future (Thai score = 64; Japanese score = 92). Therefore, the laws and regulations are applied in the society in order to control people and eliminate unexpected things. With the lower score of Thailand than Japan, it indicates that Japan society is more discipline than Thai society. Since Japan constantly faces natural disasters such as earthquake and tsunamis, Japanese people try to prepare themselves for uncertain situation. In the organization, Japanese managers will require detailed information before making the decisions. This leads to the difficulty of changes in Japan than other countries that have lower score on uncertainty avoidance.

The fifth dimension is individualism which is defined as "society in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after him- or herself and his or her immediate family" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 92). According to low score of individualism, it indicates that Thais and Japanese are mostly collectivist (Thai score = 20; Japanese score = 46). This can be viewed as the commitment to a group such as family, which everyone tends to follow members of their group. Thus, both countries are more likely to give importance to maintaining a good interpersonal relationship. Family members tend to influence serious decisions more in Thailand compared to Japan (Pornpitakpan, 2000). In addition, they avoid losing face in the society and do not express their own opinions. Pornpitakpan (2000) talked about Thai sensitivity, or the "krengjai" value (avoiding losing face and reluctance to show the true desire to others), which is also found in Japanese but not to that extent when compared to the Thais. Nevertheless, Japanese are more individualistic and typically do not live in large groups as Thais.

The sixth dimension is an indulgence which is defined as "the tendency to allow relatively free gratification of basic and natural human desires related to enjoying life and having fun" (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 281). The low score of indulgence for both countries means that Thais and Japanese are prone to pessimistic (Thai score = 45; Japanese score = 42). People in such society do not typically spend leisure time and their behaviors are restrained by social norms.

Hofstede's cultural dimensions have been used for investigating the cultural difference in an organizational context to see the cultural difference between leaders and followers (Kirkman, Chen G, Farh, Chen, Z.X., & Lowe, 2009). This study showed that the cross-level relationship was moderated by power distance. The relationship was more positive when the power distance orientation was lower. Customers from the cultures with a high degree of masculinity expected for feminine service providers than professional. In addition, the customers who are based on individualism tended to have a gap between themselves and service providers than customers as presented in the case of banking service (Furrer, Liu, & Sudharshan, 2000). In the study of cross-cultural relationship marketing between Thai suppliers and Japanese buyers, the in-depth interview with 25 Japanese expatriates from Japanese automobile manufacturers and Thai employees was conducted

(Petison, 2010). This study analyzed five dimensions from Hofstede's cultural dimension (without indulgence). The main findings found that the different dimensions between Feminine and Masculine led to different perceptions on quality terminology and problem solving styles. In addition, Thais focused on a shorter term view rather than Japanese. With different culture, the conflict happens when they do business together. The different of culture values between countries was found to have an influence on knowledge sharing motivation between participants from Hongkong, China and the Netherlands (Zhang, De Pablos, & Zhou, 2013). The study suggested that collectivism directly impact knowledge sharing. In a contrast, other cultural values such as power distance and uncertainty avoidance have interactive effects with knowledge sharing motivations. Therefore, working with multi-national people, understanding and adapting to different cultures are important issues.

2.1.2 *Values*

One of the most widely accepted key elements of culture is 'values' (Straub et al., 2002). Regarding to Rokeach (1973), value is referred as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" Values are derived during childhood of life through family, neighbors and school. Once a value is learned, it will become a set of organized values that have different levels of priority. Even a value system is constant, it can be slowly changed over time which reflected the change in culture and personal experience. Therefore, the meaning of culture is based on values which can be described as a set of value patterns that shared across members in a group (Kroeber, 1952; Parsons & Shils, 1951). Values relate to a variety of consumer behaviors, for example, cigarette consumption (Grube, Weir, Getzlaf, & Rokeach, 1984), buying an automobile (Henry, 1976) and mass media usage (Becker & Connor, 1981).

Although Hofstede's cultural dimension theory is applicable in cross-cultural studies as mentioned in the previous section (Hofstede et al., 2010). These values were

typically applied in the organizational context or they classified customer characteristics into different segments. This assumption, based on the "equating nation-states with cultures" approach, was contradicted by some scholars who claimed that cultures differ from one state to another (Baskerville, 2003). Similarly, the assumption of average country level scores to represent values and use for predicting behavior was also critiqued (Tung & Verbeke, 2010). Therefore, utilizing the national culture might be appropriate when the participants represent the whole country. However, some of these values could be viewed in the similar sense as some List of Values (LOV), such as being well respected, fun and enjoyment of life, and sharing a warm relationship with others (Kahle, 1983). In addition, the LOV could serve as a key value measurement instrument to compare similarities and differences of consumers (Beatty, Kahle, Homer, & Misra, 1985; Kahle, Beatty, & Homer, 1986). Therefore, for predicting consumer behavior on a smaller scale in a country where each region has a different lifestyle, such as in Thailand and Japan, using the common personal values that are closely related to the values that customers hold in daily life might be a more pertinent approach. Hence, in this study, another well-known notion called "List of Values" (LOV), were employed.

LOV closely relates to the values that people have in their daily life. The notion of LOV was developed from the hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1954), the theoretical base of values (Feather, 1975) and 18 terminal values (Rokeach, 1973). Later, these LOV items were cut down to nine values (Kahle, 1983). These nine values are self-respect, security, warm relationship with others, sense of fulfillment, sense of accomplishment, being well respected, sense of belonging, excitement, and fun and enjoyment of life. Homer and Kahle (1988) further classified LOV into (i) internal individual values that represent the values that are based on the individual (excitement, self-fulfillment, self-respect, and sense of accomplishment); (ii) internal interpersonal values that represent the values involving interactions with other people (warm relationship with others, and fun and enjoyment of life), and (iii) external values that represent the values related to the society (sense of belonging, being well respected, and security).

This notion was firstly applied to Americans in 1976 and 1986. The brief description of each value is described as follows (Kahle & Kennedy, 1988). However, the

excitement was deleted because most of the respondents rated this value as the first important values, followed by fun and enjoyment of life. Therefore, they included it in the same category as fun and enjoyment of life.

- 1. Self-respect is the value that most of Americans in any age and income group selected as the most important value. It refers to the belief in one's own worth which is similar to self-esteem.
- 2. Security is the value that endorsed by people who do not have stable monetary and psychological security. People who rated high score on this value are more likely to have trouble of sleeping and dizziness.
- Warm relationships with others refer to people who are friendly and tend to socialize with friends. People in this group are divorced men, housewives and clerical workers.
- 4. Sense of accomplishment is defined as people who focus on the success which can be found in the group of middle-aged men. These people often have good jobs and high salaries. They are more likely to be well-educated managers or professionals.
- 5. Self-fulfillment endorsed by people who are relatively well fulfilled in the term of educationally, emotionally and economically. They have self-confident, love watching movies and healthy. However, they are disliked excessive demand from families.
- 6. Being well-respected is the values that contrast to self-respect which can be achieved alone. This value requires the cooperation of others such as farmers, retired people and craftsmen. People who rate high score for this value tend to be unhappy with their life, pessimistic and unhealthy.
- 7. Sense of belonging is explained as family-oriented values endorsed by housewives and clerical workers. This value is typically rated by women, which is similar to the warm relationship with others.
- 8. Fun and enjoyment of life is the value that endorsed by people who appreciate life and optimistic. They like playing sports and entertainment activities.

From the past studies, the individual LOV can be used for predicting consumer behaviors and related activities. For example, people who scored high on the sense of belonging preferred group activities (Beatty et al., 1985). In addition, a survey about shopping of natural foods found that consumers who rated internal values highly were more likely to control all the aspects of their lives, including the food they consumed. On the other hand, people who rated external values highly tended to overlook the food nutrition aspect and did not like natural foods (Homer & Kahle, 1988). A study of values and organic products found that internal values such as self-respect and enjoyment of life were the key motivators for buying organic products in Greece, equivalent to healthiness and better taste of the products (Chryssohoidis & Krystallis, 2005). Besides, the study of American values showed that the values were different across nine nations in U.S. (Kahle, 1986). The result revealed that the Empty Quarter group selected sense of accomplishment less than other nations. Therefore, the values that people hold in daily life have an influence on purchasing products and services which could be varied between regions in a country. In Japan, LOV was used for segmenting markets of elderly people.

In the service marketing, the study of Khare A.R., Khare A.N. and Singh (2012) applied four values from LOV, including security, being well-respected, self-fulfillment and sense of belongings to examine the motivation for using credit card in India. The results showed that sense of belongings had a negative impact on the credit cards perception. On the other hand, self-fulfillment had a positive influence on credit card use because they felt that using credit cards gave them a sense of achievement and accomplishment. Additionally, LOV was found to correlate to the motivation for attending a special event (Winnipeg Fringe Theatre Festival in Manitoba, Canada). These nine values explained about 13 percent of the variance in the five motivation items (Woosnam, McElroy, & Winkle, 2009). The recent study of Koo, Kim and Lee (2008) also showed that social-affiliation values motivated customers to seek hedonic and utilitarian benefits, whereas self-actualization values influenced motivation to seek only utilitarian benefits when customers in South Korea purchase product from online stores.

Besides, this notion has been studied in consumer behavior for segmentation. From the study of Kamakura and Novak (1992), values can also be seen as a determinant of human attitude and behavior. The mapping of value systems from 1,331 participants showed that the LOV was segmented into four groups (segments A–D) which were distinct from each other. Segment A was motivated by security which can be called as a group of risk averse people who are reluctant to change. This group of people had less motivation for achievement and was less likely to engage in activities to gain recognition and admiration. Segment B was motivated by maturity driven by both personal (self-fulfillment) and external values (warm relationships). This group holds less value of enjoyment such as joining sports event and looking for entertainment. However, they preferred to join homemaking activities and donate money to religious and public sectors. Segment C was motivated by achievement and self-direction which were more likely to look for social recognition and success. Members in this segment were found to read business books and technology magazines. Thus, they would like to educate themselves toward a successful goal. Lastly, segment D was motivated by excitement and fun which can be viewed as hedonistic segment which consisted of young members. Members of this segment engaged in various activities, contrasted with the segment B.

Several studies also showed that LOV can be used in cross-cultural study. For example, Kim et al. (2002) has investigated the values, customer needs and purchase behavior. This study compared the values between Chinese and Korean towards the attitudes of buying apparel products. The researchers divided LOV into two main categories. First, the group of self-directed values consisted of self-respect, being wellrespected, security, and fun and enjoyment of life. Second, the group of social affiliation values consisted of sense of belonging and warm relationship with others. Other values (the remaining values in LOV) were not included in this study. Besides, customer needs were classified into three categories, experiential needs which represented fashion leadership, social needs which involved status and prestige, and functional needs which indicated the function and comfort feeling of wearing clothes. The findings revealed that only self-directed values had an influence on experiential needs for Chinese and Korean consumers. In addition, self-directed values also influenced on functional needs for Korean customers in which the correlation between these two factors were stronger than experiential needs. It is worth nothing that every customer need statistically influenced on brand loyalty behavior.

Recently, the study of Ladhari et al. (2011) revealed that personal values influenced perceived quality levels. For example, that customers who rated high score on self-respect value express significantly perceived lower service quality on reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy dimensions than others. Besides, customers with strong value of sense of accomplishment perceived significantly lower service quality levels on reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy dimensions than others. The results also showed that the mean scores of personal values such as self-fulfillment, self-respect, a sense of accomplishment, sense of belonging, being well-respected and security differed between Canadian and French respondents. Nevertheless, the researchers used mixed data to test the relationship and conclude the results.

In addition, LOV were found to influence different levels of satisfaction among Asian postgraduate students in Australia universities (Arambewela & Hall, 2011). The results revealed that self-efficacy values (self-respect, security, warm relationship with others, sense of fulfillment, sense of accomplishment, being well respected and sense of belonging) and hedonistic values (excitement, and fun and enjoyment of life) had a positive influence on student satisfaction. Indian students were found to rank very highly on values associated with self-efficacy. On the other hand, Thai students attached greater importance on values associated with hedonism. On average, Chinese students had relatively low importance of both values, while Indonesian students weighted high score on both values.

2.1.3 Consumer Attitudes and Preferences

In the food industry, culture may be one of the most important determinants of attitudes and behaviors (Rozin, 1990). Consumer attitudes and preferences have been investigated in various studies of food-related industry because different attitudes and preferences will lead to the intention and behavior for purchasing products and services. The attitude toward "reward from using functional foods (healthy food)" was found to be the best determinant of purchase intention such as the food makes consumers feel more energetic and improve their mood (Urala & Lähteenmäki, 2004). The study of Dixon,

Scully, Wakefield, White and Crawford. (2007) revealed that changing the food advertising context to promote on nutritious food than junk food would increase the positive attitudes for children and reinforce healthy eating habits. In addition, consumer attitudes are varied depended on different products. Vebeke et al. (2010) found that consumers in European countries considered meat as a healthy products for their dietary. However, they have negative attitudes about the excessive manipulation and lack of naturalness for beef products. They also found the cross-cultural difference among consumers in Europe. For example, German consumers were the most negative towards the proposed processing technologies for meat products, whereas British consumers were more likely to accept new technologies that designed for improving quality of beef.

For ethnic food, the study of Belgium consumer attitudes and preferences for Latin-American food consumption showed that attitudes of Belgium consumers were negatively correlated with food neophobia, especially for the group of people who lived in urban and their age were over 55 years (Verbeke & Lo´pez, 2005). On the other hand, consumers had more positive attitudes when they opened to the new cultures. In addition, the key attributes that influence Belgians' preference for ethnic food were taste and appearance. Interestingly, another study regarding to the perception of South Asians Caucasians, East Asians, and Indians Malaysia towards Indian food showed that South Asian consumers were found to be more price-sensitive when they dined in Indian restaurants (Josiam, Sohail, & Montiero, 2007). This result is similar when the scholars conducted the study in America which showed that South Asian consumers had negative attitudes that Indian restaurants were overcharging and serving small portions of food (Josiam & Montiero, 2004).

Besides, the consumer attitudes can also be detected from word classification as presented in the study of Guerrero et al. (2010). Regarding to the traditional of food, they asked participants among six European countries about "Traditional". The words that came to participants' mind were collected and classified. Thus, the results showed that "Christmas" was the most frequent mentioned word in Norway while "cooking" was highly mentioned in France. For local food literatures, the most frequently named such as freshness and taste were also found to reflect the attitudes toward product quality in buying local food (Bingen, Sage, & Sirieix, 2011; Grebitus, Lusk, & Nayga, 2013). This findings suggested that the mentioned word and word counting (as reflected from their attitudes)

also related to the consumer behavior which varied from one country to another. In addition, the study of American preferences toward dining in ethnic restaurants revealed that customers preferred to dine authentic ethnic cuisines and would like to dine the restaurants that natives of that cuisine eat (Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007). In addition, they also found that convenience of purchase did not reflected as the main preferences as authentic experiences.

2.1.4 Customer Needs

There is no rigorous definition of needs. However, from the Maslow's theory as presented in Figure 2.2, human needs can be classified into five basic needs: physiological, safety, love, esteem and self-actualization (Maslow, 1954). This theory suggests that people must satisfy lower needs before achieving higher levels of complex needs, starting from physiological needs to self-actualization.

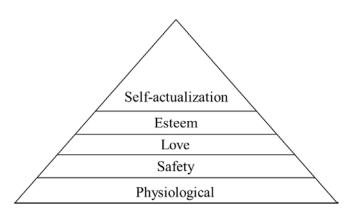


Figure 2.2 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (based on Maslow, 1954, Made by Author)

Physiological needs can be described as the basic physical requirements such as the need for food, water and sleep. These needs include the things that are crucial for survival. After the lowest needs were achieved, people will seek safety needs to control their life with financial security, health and wellness and safety from accidents. Next, people will desire for emotional relationships to be a part of society. Therefore, they seek love and

belongingness needs which can also be called as social needs. At this level, good relationship with others such as family, friends and community groups is important for them. The forth needs are esteem needs which refer to the need for appreciation and respect. People will start to focus on achievement and recognition. The last needs refer to the desire to become everything that ones are capable. Self-actualization can also mean self-fulfillment to have meaning in life.

In general customer needs can be described as the desire that motivate customers to purchase products and services. The term of customer needs will be used as a concept to develop the attributes that serve a particular requirement from customers. From the past studies, the definition of customer needs is varied, depending on the industry context and the content of the products and services. Some concepts are also similar to the Maslow's hierarchy of needs. In addition, the needs for consumption goods and services were considered as a part of attitudinal factors for measuring interests and opinions (Homer & Kahle, 1988).

Park, Jaworski, and MacInnis (1986) classified the customer needs into: functional needs, symbolic needs, and experiential needs. Functional needs refer to the basic needs that one has to fulfill in order to live his/her life. These needs motivate people to search for products or services that solve consumption-related problems. Symbolic needs pertain to the desire for self-enhancement, social image, status, and social affiliation. The products or services developed to fulfill these needs typically involve with desired groups and ego-identification. Experiential needs involve novelty, sensory pleasure, consumer aesthetics, and variety seeking. These needs have been viewed as vital needs to evoke new demand of consumer products.

The study of Andersson and Mossberg (2004) showed the degree to satisfy customers based on investigating the food service, fine cuisine, restaurant interior, good company and other customers and classified needs into physiological needs, social needs, and intellectual needs based on three types of human satisfaction: personal comfort, social comfort, and stimulation (Scitovsky, 1986). The definition of physiological needs is similar to Maslow's hierarchy of needs which can be satisfied from physical comfort. The

researchers emphasized that psychological needs are linked to the customer satisfaction of biological needs and desires. Next, social needs refer to the desire for self-esteem, social interaction and the wish to belong to a group. Intellectual needs are guided by aspects such as entertainment, excitement, and novelty. For example, when customers dine in the restaurants, physiological needs can be fulfilled by relieving hunger which does not depend whether customers eat out for pleasure or for work. The social needs may be satisfied when customers dine in high acceptable restaurants with friends and family (a group member). Intellectual needs may be stimulated when customers try new dishes from the restaurants in an exciting surrounding. In addition, Woods (1960) also defined the demands of products into three classes. First, the demand for ego-involvement in the external symbols presented by the products. Second, the hedonic demand, which relates to the aesthetic. Third, functional demands which reflect little cultural or social meaning.

By shaping the concept from literature, the social needs are defined as the needs to do activities in a group, socializing and enjoy dining with friends, family and coworkers whereas the symbolic needs are defined as dining for social expression and receiving symbolic of the products and services from ethnic restaurants. Experiential needs are explained as the seeking for variety, sensory pleasure and new experiences. Lastly, functional needs defined as the basic needs that customers should receive when dining in the restaurants such as getting full and receive the food correctly as they order. In summary, there are some similarities that can be summarized as (1) functional needs (2) symbolic needs (3) social needs, and (4) experiential needs.

2.1.5 Customer Satisfaction

The term 'customer satisfaction' has been used in various studies. Giese and Cote (2000) suggested that there are several meanings of customer satisfaction. Individual satisfaction is defined as an assessment of the overall experience of consumption (Johnson, Anderson, & Fornell, 1995; Oliver, 1997). The customers will be satisfied when a total of experiences that they receive are over their expectations (Choi & Chu, 2001). In a contrast,

the customers will be dissatisfied when they have displeasure actual experience compared with their expectation. Cronin, Brady and Hult (2000) defines customer satisfaction as an effective state with a positive feeling in which it enhances the customer loyalty while the study of Andreassen (2000) defined customer satisfaction as a customer's value fulfillment response. In a marketing context, customer satisfaction has many specific meanings, for example "satisfying the needs and desires of the consumer" (Besterfield, 1994).

From another aspect, Klaus (1985) defined the customer satisfaction as the evaluation of the experience based on their perception and product attributes. Thus, customer satisfaction can be achieved when product/service features meet the pleasure level of customers (Oliver, 1997). This lead to the developing of product and service attributes to meet customer expectation or customer needs (Tontini, 2007). In service industry, the service quality is widely studied for enhancing customer satisfaction (Kim et al., 2009; Nam & Lee, 2011; Ting, 2004). While Marr and Crosby (1992) claimed that customer satisfaction was directly judged from the product itself, Ramsey and Sohi (1997) suggested that the services too should be taken into account for evaluation purposes. These studies implied that satisfaction is fulfilled when the customer expectation on products and services, or 'customer needs' are met. Besides, there are several ways to assess customer satisfaction through soft measures which typically focused on perceptions and attitudes of customers such as questionnaire survey (Pizam & Ellis, 1999).

In summary, the determinants of customer satisfaction can be viewed as the attitudes, a relatively stable judgement for products and services (Oliver, 1997). From the two viewpoints, customer satisfaction can be triggered when the needs of customers can be fulfilled as well as the product and service attributes meet customer pleasurable level. In addition, when function of product and service attributes satisfied customers, these attributes also respond to customer needs. By shaping the definition from the past studies, customer satisfaction in this study is defined as the positive feeling after receiving products and services that match with customer needs based on their experiences of dining in the ethnic restaurants.

2.1.6 Return Intention

To run the business successfully, it is essential to make customers satisfied to influence them to return again. Based on the recent studies, the cost of attracting new customers was about five times more than retaining the existing customers (Chiu et al., 2012; Kim & Gupta, 2009; Naumann & Giel, 1995). Therefore, if the companies can maintain the existing customers, the business profit is more likely to be improved (Jiang & Rosenbloom, 2005). Purchase intention is widely studied in various studies which described as a consumer's plan to purchase products or use services from a particular providers (Khosrowpour, 2015) while return intention refers to the desire of a customers to repeat their visit in the future (Kim et al., 2009).

Assael (1987) explained that satisfaction reinforces positive attitudes toward the brand which lead to the greater likelihood of buying the same brand again. Several studies, such as those by Cronin and Taylor (1992), Dongjin, Shenghui, and Kai (2008), Ryu, Heesup, & Kim (2008) and Wang, (2011) have found a positive influence of satisfaction on the return intention. Once customers are satisfied with the product and/or service, they are more likely to return to the shop/restaurant, thus generating more profit in the future (Gupta, McLaughlin, & Gomez, 2007). Similar to other studies, customer satisfaction was found as the determinant on customer loyalty (Kim, Christine, & Knutson, 2013; Rizwan, Qayyum, Qadeer, & Javed, 2014). When customers have favorable experiences after evaluating the consumption, the likelihood that their satisfaction level and willingness to repurchase will rise (Chiu et al., 2012; Jani & Han, 2013). Even though it cannot totally guarantee the chance that customers will come back to purchase the products and services, it is certainly known that the customers who are satisfied tend to come back again rather than the customers who are not satisfied.

Interestingly, researchers mentioned that satisfaction will lead to purchase intention, depending on the level of satisfaction (Chandrashekaran, Rotte, Tax, & Grewal, 2007). This implies that the relationship between customer satisfaction and purchase intention is a linear relationship. However, it is not totally 100 percent that customers who are satisfied will repeat their purchase. The study of Reichheld (1993) showed that only 40 percent of

customers who are satisfied with the products tended to repurchase the product. This presents the challenge of satisfying customers and persuading them to return. In addition, the indicator of behavioral intention can be classified into two dimensions: return intention and positive word-of-mouth (Brady, Voorhees, Cronin, & Bourdeau, 2006; Cronin et al., 2000). However, this study would like to focus on the return intention that initiated by customer themselves. Thus, it was defined as the plan to dine ethnic food and return to the restaurants in the future.

2.1.7 Food-Related Industry

Food-related industry could referred to various industries that related to food. Not only food manufacturers, but it could also include food-production manufacturers. For example, the companies that produce fresh food, instant food, and food-ingredients for consumers. In addition, the restaurants could also be counted as a part of food-related industry such as fast food restaurants and ethnic restaurants. However, in this study, we focused on ready-to-eat food (RTE) which sold in retail stores and ¹made-to-order food (MTO) at restaurants. From Maslow's hierarchy of needs, people are typically motivated to fulfil from their basic needs to higher level of needs (Maslow, 1954). For physiological needs food is one of the basic elements but essential to continue living in daily life. Despite of various types of food in the market, they can classified mainly as MTO food and RTE food. Made-to-order refers to the action of producing or preparing items based on customer's desire (BusinessDictionary.com, 2017). In other words, MTO food could be viewed as the food that sold in the restaurants whereas RTE food refers to take away meals that can be purchased commonly from retail stores.

Thus, customized food produced when customers order would be called as MTO food which typically consumed at the restaurants. For ready-to-eat (RTE) food or ready meal, the food is already prepared in advance and store in a packaging. This would be a low customized product because the customers can only pick the products from shelf. Before consuming these ready meals, customers may need additional step such as reheating or adding the water (for cup noodles). With the customized food product, customers can

engage in different steps as presented in Figure 2.3. For MTO food, the customers can involve in the beginning step to create the menu. Besides, they can select some prepared ingredients or tell the chief which taste they prefer before cooking process. Lastly, they can customize the topping before the food is served. However, the channel that customers can involve for RTE food are limited to only before serving such as select the final products and choosing the packaging.

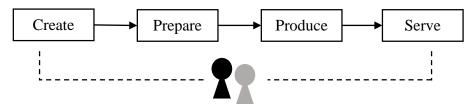


Figure 2.3 Customer's Involvement Position for Customized Products (Made by Author)

RTE foods can be classified as a type of convenience foods which included chilled products and taw away meals (Costa, Dekker, Beumer, Rombouts, & Jongen, 2001). Ready-to-eat and processed food are fast growing categories because of hectic lifestyle, expansion of retail subsidiaries and availability of ready meals, especially in Thailand, Vietnam and Taiwan (Fazira, 2015). From Nielsen (2006) report, about 49 percent of the respondents in Asia Pacific purchased ready meals occasionally whereas 25 percent purchased ready meals regularly. In addition, RTE food is currently competitive and popular among Asian consumers (Euromonitor, 2015a). With the expansion of convenience stores in China, the growth of ready meal has been increased. Western RTE foods such as chilled salad and frozen pizza are widely consumed among Chinese consumers (Euromonitor, 2015b). In Indonesia, teenagers typically purchase RTE food and eat in convenience stores to socialize with friends rather than go to the restaurants which are more expensive (Euromonitor, 2015c). In these recent years, it can be seen that consumers are more concerning about healthy and organic products. For instance, a company in Taiwan has cooperated with an organic farm to provide healthier RTE food according to consumer demand (Euromonitor, 2015d). In Vietnam, consumers tend to consume vegetarian ready meals because of the religious beliefs and nutrition benefits (Euromonitor, 2015e). Nevertheless, RTE are not sold well in some countries such as

Malaysia and Singapore. Malaysian consumers perceive that RTE food contains preservative and food coloring due to the long shelf-life of RTE food (Euromonitor, 2015f). Thus, ready-to-cook products are better suitable with Malaysian consumers as they can cook food by themselves from fresh ingredients. Similarly, consumers in Singapore do not purchase RTE food regularly due to the health awareness (Euromonitor, 2015g). Therefore, in different culture, consumers are more likely to have difference attitudes and preferences toward the products that they consume.

Apart from RTE food, a large number of customers also dine in restaurants in their leisure time. In China, the restaurant industry is also expected to grow at 3 percent in value sales. The main target is young customers which could enhance strong transaction growth due to the increasing of household income (Euromonitor, 2017a). However, full service restaurants in Taiwan seemed to be slowdown in growth because of stiff competition from fast food restaurants and café (Euromonitor, 2017b). It is revealed that customers prefer to dine at cheaper-price restaurants, even though most of the restaurants are located in the developed areas and full with regular diners. The demand for expensive meals is only reserved for special occasions. For Asian restaurants in Vietnam, the number of Japanese and Korean restaurants has been increased in major cities (Euromonitor, 2017c). Since both Japanese and South Korean are continue investing with many industry in Vietnam, Vietnamese customers are more familiar with Japanese and Korean cultures, especially food. In addition, Vietnamese believe that Japanese and Korean cuisines are healthier than American and European cuisines.

In Indonesia, customers still prefer to dine in restaurants even there is a growth of home-delivery recently (Euromonitor, 2017d). With the high competition, most of the restaurants have to find unique strategies in order to attract customers such as providing babies' corners and playground for children. In addition, some restaurants also provide entertainment services and special events. It is suggested that restaurants should provide more sophisticated meals and attractive design atmosphere such as new menus, new services and new themes. Besides, urban customers are revealed to focus more on healthier ingredients and cooking methods. Similarly, the preferences of customers in Singapore for authentic flavor, better quality and healthier cuisine have been risen (Euromonitor, 2017e).

In addition, customers are seeking for casual dining in modern atmosphere with moderated price. However, it is expected that this sector will face the decline of transaction volume per full-service restaurants in the following year due to the minus Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR).

2.1.7.1 Ready-To-Eat Food in Thailand

In Thailand, RTE food grows rapidly among other food product categories, particularly increased by the rise of convenience stores (Fazira, 2015). When consumers have less free time and less motivation to cook themselves, especially in a big city, ready meals seemed to be the right choice for them. The expenditure has been shifted from food prepared at home to ready-to-eat food which accounted for 65 percent of the food expenditures in Bangkok (National Statistical Office, 2013a). Furthermore, from the survey, about 47.8 percent of the 26,520 households ate ready meals every week (National Statistical Office, 2013b). In cities, consumers normally buy ready-to-eat foods to eat at an office or in a car during a traffic jam. The well-known Thai ready meals typically contained only one or two main dishes (e.g. curry and spicy salads) and rice. The types of main dishes might be varied based on different regions in the country. However, foreign style foods are sold in street markets and train stations as well, for example, sandwiches and rice balls. The price of RTE food in Thailand is quite stable due to the decreasing of raw material costs (Euromonitor, 2015h) which approximately ranges from 1 to 5 dollars.

With the awareness of the consumer hectic lifestyle, the leaders of convenience stores such as FamilyMart, 7-Eleven and Lawson 108 expand several branches in both Bangkok and rural areas which help boost the sales of ready meals. These retail stores have developed different kinds of RTE food to increase consumer satisfaction and to provide a wider range of choices (CP ALL, 2012; FamilyMart, 2013). In 2015, the retail volume sales of ready meals have been increased 13 percent, which accounted for 163.5 million dollars (Euromonitor, 2015h). Besides, it is forecasted that RTE food sector will generate more profit in the following years. In retail stores, the market share of RTE food was approximately 30 percent (Marketing history association, 2014). Due to the cooperation

with Japanese retail stores, Japanese products are available in subsidiary branches in Thailand, especially in Bangkok. As a result, the trend of Japanese food is getting more popular and thus leads to the growing of Japanese ready meal varieties.

With the smaller size of the family, busy lifestyle and Thai consumers now get used to RTE food which provided in various retail stores and street foods, various kinds of RTE food has been developed in order to respond to this trend in Thailand (Kosulwat, 2002). The main reasons that Thai consumers purchased those ready meals were convenient, clean and fresh (Nuntasriwiwat, 2012). In addition, they primarily concerned on product attributes than price and place attributes when buying frozen food products (Chatthipmongkol & Jangphanish, 2016). Promotion was also another key attribute that induce consumers to purchase RTE food in convenience stores. Besides, it is found that consumers who had low salary were more likely to purchase RTE meal frequently because of low price (Wuttipap & Sereerat, 2014). Most of Thai participants who purchased RTE food normally eat it alone and buy it when they have no time for cooking on that day (Tangnimitchaikul, 2009). Despite frozen food is the common type of RTE food sold in retail stores in Thailand, chilled ready meal is also popular in recent years, especially Japanese food because of the unique flavor and the trend of Japanese food in Thailand.

2.1.7.2 Ready-To-Eat Food in Japan

Similar to Thailand, many Japanese people are busy and consume ready meals in daily life. It is common to see people eat lunch boxes (Bento) in an office, at home or during travelling on a train. The small retail stores which sell ready meal are available everywhere in Japan, especially in Tokyo where people tend to concern about time saving and convenience. Therefore, different types of RTE food are developed to meet consumer demands. Japanese ready meals normally contain both main dishes (e.g. grilled meats and raw fish) and side dishes (e.g. pickles and beans) in which different regions have their own unique menu. These RTE foods are largely distributed to department stores, convenience stores, supermarkets and shops at the train stations. Nevertheless, not only Japanese ready meal, but also foreign ready meals (e.g. sandwiches, spaghetti and hamburgers) are widely

sold in Japan. The well-known RTE foods in Japan are ³Onigiri, sandwiches and salad, which are made every day. Both chilled and frozen ready meals are the most popular RTE food for Japanese consumers. In addition, healthy ready meal is the upcoming trend of RTE food in Japan, even male consumers also are interested in this product. As a result, many retail stores start selling Bento boxes with different kinds of high fiber rice (e.g. brown and red rice with grains) instead of the white rice. At retail stores, consumers can also use the microwave to heat ready meals or buy hot ready meals such as ⁴Oden. The price of ready meals in Japan increased by 2 percent due to the tax (Euromonitor, 2015i), which approximately ranges from 2 to 10 dollars.

In Japan, ready meals growth has been increased 4 percent in 2014 which accounted for 14.28 billion dollars (Euromonitor, 2015i). The top leaders cover more than 50 percent of total sales channels include delicatessen stores (32.3%) and convenience stores (28.1%) where various kinds of RTE food are sold to consumers (Yano Research Institute, 2014). FamilyMart, for example, around 32 percent of the net sales generated from RTE food category (Chung, 2015). From BOI (2013), Japan was the largest market for RTE food and food ingredients which accounted for 14 percent of the total export values. Thai food is well-recognized in Japan as can be seen from many types of RTE food and instant food in delicatessen stores, and in department stores (Kaldi, 2015). Moreover, Thai RTE food can be found in supermarkets located in the underground of the department stores. Consumers can select the food packed inside a box (Bento) or choose the menu from the list which is similar to the local shop style in Bangkok. With high quality ingredients, there is a group of consumers prefer to buy ready meals at the underground of the department stores (Trautlein, 2014). However, most of Thai RTE food in other retail stores are chilled foods and sold as seasonal products (FamilyMart, 2014).

From the study of RTE food history in Japan, Toda (2015) mentioned about three main reasons about why ready meals are well-known among Japanese consumers. First, as the number of working women in Japan increased, they preferred to save time for cooking. Second, since the bubble economy burst in 1990s, many consumers preferred to eat at home because eating at the restaurants were expensive. Third, consumers focused on health and safety would like to take out food which contained more nutrition. Nevertheless, due to the

busy lifestyle, people who live alone are increased as well as the rise of dual income households, convenience is the main reason for purchasing RTE food. In Japan, RTE food is provided at many train stations. It is called the station box lunch (Ekiben) which is available around the train station over 100 years. Unlike Western fast food, Ekiben are mostly cold and consumers do not have to reheat it when eating as they eat it on the train (Noguchi, 1994). It is cheap, quick and easy to access (Farb & Armalegos, 1980). It is worth noting that most of the ready meals in Japan are developed under the retail store brands (private brands) such as Tokyo store, FamilyMart and 7-eleven. These stores cooperate with many suppliers to produce different kinds of RTE food (Yahagi, 2014). Therefore, in the supermarkets and convenience stores, consumers normally see the food under that retail's brand only. There are various types of RTE food in the market, which mixed between the traditional and modern culture in order to respond to the demand of contemporary people such as tuna-mayonnaise Onigiri. In addition, the study from Traphagan and Brown (2002) showed that the taste was one of the reasons lead fast food products popular among young woman in Japan.

2.1.7.3 Ethnic Restaurants in Thailand

In Thailand, Asian restaurants have gained popularity among Thai customers due to the health awareness factor. Various healthy menus are launched by many restaurants, especially Thai and Japanese restaurants which could gain more benefit from the trend of consuming healthier food (Euromonitor, 2016a). Shabushi, one of the leading brands in Asian full-service restaurants have decreased unhealthy menus such as meatballs which contain high carbohydrate and added more choices of healthier dishes. Recently, Japanese food has become very popular in Thailand. Various Japanese restaurants, both freestanding and in-department store (including chain restaurants), are also generally available in downtown. Many kinds of food such as sushi, soba and udon, ramen and takoyaki can be found easily in Bangkok. One of the Thai magazine (Jak-Yi-Poon, 2016) mentioned that Thai people love to eat Japanese food because of good taste. In addition, Thai consumers also concerned about their health. The most popular menu is sushi and sashimi, followed

by shabu and suki. In 2015, JRO revealed that the number of Japanese restaurants in Thailand was around 2,364 restaurants, slightly increasing by around 8 percent over last year which is the second rank compared to Thai restaurants (JRO, 2015). Nevertheless, Japanese food is one of the most common foreign foods sold in Thailand. It is found easily, especially in metropolitan areas.

There are various Japanese restaurants, typically full service restaurants, located in department stores, train stations, office buildings. Some restaurants are operated by Thais, but the names of the restaurants are in Japanese such as Oishi (Oishi group, 2010). The restaurant offer Thai-style Japanese food which is different from the original Japanese cuisine. In addition, Japanese green tea is also provided with different flavors (Oishi brand) in the restaurant. For Japanese restaurants owned by Japanese investors, they still offer both traditional and fusion food which aim to serve for middle and upper class Thais such as Fuji restaurant (Fuji group, 2009). The restaurant offers various types of set menus (consists of a bowl of rice, a bowl of soup, pickles and a main dish) to the customers which are similar as in Japan. Recently, the Joint venture restaurants, such as Hachiban Ramen has increased the number of branches to 88 stores in 2015 (Toyoshima, 2013). The restaurant is a type of fast food franchise business which originated in Hokuriku region of Honshu. There are many kinds of Ramen menus which are both fusion and authentic Japanese taste. Therefore, it implies that Thai customers are familiar with Japanese food.

2.1.7.4 Ethnic Restaurants in Japan

Similarly, Asian restaurants in Japan continued to register a 2 percent growth over the current value, accounting for 49 percent of the full service restaurant segment (Euromonitor, 2016b). Given the economic situation and competition in the market, restaurateurs have to put more efforts to attract customers. At present, a number of Thai restaurants in Japan have been increased over 1,200 stores in which about 50 percent of these stores located around Tokyo (Naewna, 2014). This lead to the demand for both restaurant owners and food industry investors in Japan to continuously produce Thai food to serve the main target, working people.

With the popular trend of consuming Thai coriander (Pakchee) which believes that it is good for health, Thai food is more popular among Japanese consumers. Many restaurants have introduced new dishes made from Pakchee such as coriander salads, hotpot meals, and desserts (Gurunavi Research Institute, 2016). Mostly, Thai restaurants in Japan usually offer a set of lunch includes salad and dessert. Besides, the customers can order appetizers and main dishes to share with friends. The atmosphere in Thai restaurants is decorated in Thai style by using Thai utensils and pictures of famous Thai places. The price of Thai food in Japan was also similar to other ethnic foods ranged from 500 to 3,000 Japanese yen.

2.1.8 Service Industry

It is inevitable that service is a part of every industry, which can be a minor or a major component of the products (both tangible and intangible goods) that offer to the customers. "A service is any act of performance one party can offer to another that is intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything." (Kotler, 2009). In manufacturing industries, they also provide services as value-added elements to differentiate themselves from other competitors. Besides, service component can be classified into five categories based on the offering as following:

- 1. Pure tangible good: a good that can be bought from the stores such as consumer goods (shampoo, toothpaste and sugar).
- 2. Tangible good with accompanying services: a product that sold with supporting service (aftersales service) such as electronic products and cars.
- 3. Hybrid: a mix between goods and services such as restaurants which provide both meals and table services to the customers.
- 4. Major service with accompanying minor goods and services: a major service with supporting goods such as air travel which mainly provides services but needs to have aircraft as a good.
- 5. Pure service: an intangible services such as massage and babysitting.

The nature of service can be described as intangibility, inseparability, variability and perishability. Since services cannot be seen and felt, the customers will judge it from the experience of inferences such as the interior of the stores and employees. Therefore, the marketing managers try to demonstrate their own services into well-defined experiences. In addition, services are built and consume simultaneous which is different from products that can be stored in the inventory before distributing to customers. Importantly, the quality of services is varied depending on who offers the services. For example, different restaurants provide different level of services to the customers, which relates to the employee of each restaurant. Lastly, the service is perishable which can be consumed a point of time. Therefore, the right services should be provided at the right time to maximize the benefit to the providers and customers.

2.2 Conclusion

In this chapter, the related literature review was discussed in several dimensions. In the beginning, literatures of cross-cultural studies and values were discussed which showed how values associated with culture. In addition, other elements that used in this study, including attitudes and preferences, customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention were presented. These elements were the important variables that should be examined in a cross-cultural study between Thais and Japanese consumers. Lastly, the overview of food-related industry which divided into ready-to-eat food and restaurants, and service industry were presented. These literatures were used in the following case studies.

Definitions

¹made-to-order (MTO) food: The food which consumers can customize the final product themselves, it is cooked and served after the consumer orders. In Investopedia. URL http://www.investop edia.com/terms/m/make-to-order.asp. (accessed on August 15th, 2015).

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CHAPTER 3

CONSUMER ATTITUDES AND PREFERENCES TOWARD CROSS-CULTURAL READY-TO-EAT

Regarding to three perspectives that will be investigated in this research, this chapter presents the first perspective; a cross-cultural study of consumer attitudes and preferences toward cross-cultural Ready-To-Eat (RTE) food. Interview, descriptive statistics, t-test and conjoint analysis were applied in this research. From the interview, both Thai and Japanese consumers usually dine in the Japanese/Thai restaurants to socialize with friend and family rather than purchase cross-cultural RTE food at convenience stores or supermarkets. Besides, Thai and Japanese participants had negative attitudes toward taste and freshness of cross-cultural RTE food which caused them hardly consumer this type of products. Interestingly, the results from conjoint analysis showed that consumer preferences between two countries were different. For example, Thai participants preferred fusion taste (between Thai and Japanese taste) whereas Japanese participants preferred authentic Thai taste for Thai RTE food.

3.1 Research Background

Chapter 3 aims to investigate consumer attitudes and preferences regarding to the first perspective of conducting cross-cultural study in this dissertation. Although RTE food consumption has been increased, consumers in different countries might have different perception. It is worth noting that various firms have to adapt themselves to meet consumer demand and satisfy consumer need. Therefore, retail stores start offering a higher number of food variety in which ethnic food is counted as another alternative for consumers to purchase ready meals (CP ALL, 2012; FamilyMart, 2013). However, a few number of studies related to ethnic RTE food have been conducted, especially comparing ethnic foods between consumers in two countries. In addition, leading brands of convenience stores in Thailand have introduced ¹Made-To-Order (MTO) food to Thai consumers in some branches a few years ago (CP ALL, 2012). The menu also includes Japanese style food, such as ²Chicken Teriyaki rice. Besides, Japanese dietary products and ingredients are also available in supermarkets, department stores and convenience stores, for example, fresh vegetables, snacks, foods and drinks (Thienhirun & Chung, 2015).

From several past studies, convenience was revealed as the key factor that consumers focus for food choice (Ahlgren, Gustafsson, & Hall, 2005; Capps, Tedford, & Havlicek, 1985; De Boer, McCarthy, Cowan, & Ryan, 2004). Besides, lack of cooking skills and less interest in spending time for cooking food themselves are also the motive for consuming RTE food (Gofton, 1995; Jabs & Devine, 2006). However, apart from convenience aspects, taste, price, freshness and ease of consumption are the main factors in purchasing meal situation (Geeroms, Verbeke, & Kenhove, 2008; Honkanen & Frewer, 2009; Murphy, Cain, & Bartoshuk, 1977). Appearance also plays an important role to consumer expectation before they eat the food (Cardello, 1995). The consumers will judge whether the food is good or bad from their experiences and visual appearances of the food.

In addition, RTE food is occasionally perceived as not really healthy food (Prim, Gustafsson, & Hall, 2007) while some healthier RTE products did not have fruitful nutrition (Remnant & Adams, 2015). For health concerned consumers, calories might be an important factor for purchasing RTE food. Cardello and Wolfson (2013) mentioned that low-calorie products generated the sales growth 82 percent and accounted for 75 percent of new product sales compare to high calorie products. Not only the attributes of the food are important, but the design of packaging also affects the consumer purchase intention (Silayoi & Speece, 2007). As the consumers cannot totally judge the product inside, the good design can appeal consumers to purchase the products. Furthermore, the places that offer varieties of food have an influence on food choice (Eves & Cheng, 2007). Lastly, promotion is another factor relates to the purchase intention (Darke & Dahl, 2003; Manning & Sprott, 2007). That is why many retail stores continue to offer different promotions to attract consumers.

Therefore, in this study aimed to examine both consumer attitudes and preferences toward ethnic RTE food. The capital city of two countries; Bangkok, Thailand and Tokyo, Japan were intentionally focused, since the consumer habits might be varied across geographical areas. Moreover, these two cities are the place where consumers have a busy lifestyle. Although both countries are located in Asia, consumers might have different attitudes and preferences when making a decision to purchase ethnic RTE food. From the past studies, word classification was applied in food-related literatures such as traditional food products (Guerrero et al., 2010), ready-to-eat salads (Vidal, Ares, & Giménez, 2013) and well-being in food related context (Ares et al., 2015). Therefore, consumer attitudes were measured by using the answer of participants from the interview about Japanese/Thai food, and word classification. In addition, consumer preferences were measured by extracting the sub-attributes of conjoint analysis which typically used various research as a tool to analyze the key attributes of the products (Gil & Sanchez, 1997; Haddad et al., 2007; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998; Kimura et al., 2011). The research design in this study is presented in Figure 3.1.

Attitudes

- Participants' opinions
- Image of Thai/Japanese food (word counting)

Preferences

 Sub-attributes of RTE food (conjoint analysis)

Figure 3.1 Research Design

3.2 Methodology

3.2.1 Participants

Participants included in this study were Thai and Japanese consumers who have the experience of consuming Japanese food and Thai food, respectively. Particularly, Thai participants were asked about consumption behavior of Japanese food in Thailand, whereas Japanese participants were asked about consumption behavior of Thai food in Japan. The total number of participants was 68 samples, 34 Thai participants and 34 Japanese participants.

3.3.2 Procedure

3.2.2.1 Data Collection

Regarding to different categories of Japanese/Thai food and the conducting of conjoint analysis, face-to-face interview was selected in this study. With this method, the participants were able to express their opinion freely and the interviewer can explain the conjoint cards to the participants clearer. In Thailand, the data were collected in Bangkok near the department store. In Japan, the data were collected in Tokyo at Yoyogi park. The participants in this study were chosen by convenient sampling method. However, they were firstly screen about their experience of Japanese/Thai food consumption. At the beginning of the interview, the participants were asked whether they had the experience of dining Japanese/Thai food. Next, if the participants agree to participate, the interviewer explains the flow of the interview. In total, 68 people (34 people in Bangkok, Thailand and 34 people in Tokyo, Japan) were included in this study which was sufficient for interview samples according to the studies of Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) and Marshall, Cardon, Poddar and Fontenot (2013). The period of collecting data started from February to May 2015.

3.2.2.2 Interview Structure

Based on the face-to-face interview, the interviewer asked the questions in a sequence and controlled the conversation within the topics. Since this study focused on the cross-cultural food, Thai participants were asked about Japanese food, whereas Japanese participants were asked about Thai food. The participants are also encouraged to explain their answers and if they have any question, they can ask the interviewer directly. The communication languages during the interview were Thai (for Thai participants) and Japanese (for Japanese participants) in order to avoid ambiguity and misunderstanding. The interview questions were drafted in English and firstly translated into Thai and Japanese by students who are fluent in three languages, and also translated back in English to ensure the correct meaning. In Thailand, the interviewer is a local Thai student who was born in Bangkok. However, the interviewer in Japan is a Thai student who was certified N1 Japanese test (the highest level of Japanese proficiency).

The structure of the interview was divided into three main parts (1) consumer behavior, (2) image of Japanese/Thai food, (3) the important factors for purchasing Japanese/Thai RTE food, and (4) the key attributes of Japanese/Thai RTE food from conjoint analysis (Appendix A–C). The duration of the interview ranged around 15-20 minutes.

In the first part, the participants were asked about their behavior of consuming Japanese/Thai food which consisted of four categories (1) Japanese/Thai MTO food at other places except convenience stores, and (2) Japanese MTO food at convenience stores (for Thai participants only), (3) Japanese/Thai RTE food at other places except convenience stores, and (4) Japanese/Thai RTE food at convenience stores. The participants were also asked to give the reasons if they did not consume any types of food.

In the second part, the participants were asked about the image of Japanese/Thai food by using the preface "Tell me about 3 words or things that come into your mind when thinking about....". In this research, the mentioned words were categorized under two categories; (1) Japanese/Thai food and (2) Japanese/Thai RTE food.

In the third part, the participants were asked to complete 5-point scale rating (1 = not important to 5 = very important) to the important factors as if they make a decision to purchase Japanese/Thai RTE food. The factors included freshness, taste, ease of consumption, easy access location, price, appearance of food, variety, promotion and calorie which derived from main factors for purchasing products based on the past literature.

For the last part of the interview, nine cards developed from conjoint analysis were used. The cards were prepared in advances and printed to participants. The interviewer described about each combination of the card. Additionally, every card was presented on the flat areas (e.g. ground floor) to let participants see every card at the same time. After that the participants had to pick the most preferable card to the interviewer in a sequence (from 1 to 9). Thus, the first card given to the interviewer was record as the most preferable card, and the last given card which was record as the least preferable card.

3.2.2.3 Conjoint Analysis

Conjoint analysis is a widely used in marketing research to identify the customer preference based on key attributes. Instead of consideration a single factor, the participants can take every combination of attributes in consideration which is more realistic when they purchase products (Kotri, 2006). Based on the RTE food characteristics, four main attributes that consumers can obviously see when they purchase this type of product were chosen in this study as presented in Table 3.1. These attributes included taste, design, calorie and price. In addition, the details of each attribute were classified into three levels, corresponding to the similar products that available in the market. For variety of taste; Japanese taste, Thai taste and fusion or mixed taste (between Thai and Japanese taste) were selected as a representative for both Japanese/Thai RTE food. For the packaging, we classified into a clear plastic container, a container with letter label and a container with colorful picture. The last two attributes are calorie and price. In general, they were classified into low, medium and high. Three levels of calorie were divided based on the average meals in the market. The calorie of light meals (low calorie meals) such as salad is around 300–400 Kcal while the average normal lunch and dinner (medium calorie meals)

are around 400–800 Kcal. Additionally, high calorie meals are often greater than 800 Kcal. Therefore, in this study, low calorie menu was set approximately less than 400 Kcal whereas medium calorie was ranged from 401 to 800 Kcal, and high calorie was set greater than 800 Kcal. Different level of Japanese/Thai RTE food price was calculated based on the price of RTE food in each country. For Japanese RTE food, low price was set as 10–30 Baht, medium price was ranged around 31–50 Baht and high price was set as 51–70 Baht. For Thai RTE food, low price was set as 201–500 JPY, medium price was ranged around 501–800 JPY and high price was set as 801–1200 JPY.

Table 3.1 Attributes in Conjoint Analysis

Attributes	Taste	Design	Calorie	Price
Level 1	Japanese taste	Clear plastic	Low	Low
Level 2	Thai taste	Letter	Medium	Medium
Level 3	Mixed taste (Thai & Japanese)	Colorful picture	High	High

Based on conjoint analysis, there are various methods to present the combination of each attribute. In the food study, many scholars typically applied conjoint cards which are able to provide clear details of the product based on different combinations (e.g. Kimura et al., 2011; Silayoi & Speece, 2007). Thus, we chose this method in this study. From the calculation of all possibility to combine every combination together, the full factorial design method showed that the total cards were 3x3x3x3 = 81 cards (total four attributes in which each attribute has three levels). However, it is too overloaded for participants to rank their preferences with a large number of cards. Therefore, we used orthogonal design in SPSS (version 17) to reduce the number of cards within a proper amount that can represent the key combination of every attribute (IBM, 2013). The total number of cards then decreased to nine cards, in which each card consisted of the four attributes with different attribute level as presented in Table 3.2. For example, the first card (no.1) consisted of level 1 of taste, level 2 of design, level 2 of calorie and level 2 of price. The combination of this card (card no.1) included Japanese taste for Thai participants but Thai taste for Japanese participants, letter design on a container box, the amount of calories, and price was medium (calorie: 401–800 Kcal; price: 31–50 Baht/ 501–800 JPY).

Table 3.2 Combination of Nine Cards

Cards	Taste	Design	Calorie	Price
No.1	Japanese	Letter	Medium	Medium
No.2	Thai	Simple	Medium	High
No.3	Thai	Colorful	Low	Medium
No.4	Japanese	Colorful	High	High
No.5	Mixed (TH&JP)	Simple	High	Medium
No.6	Mixed (TH&JP)	Colorful	Medium	Low
No.7	Mixed (TH&JP)	Letter	Low	High
No.8	Japanese	Simple	Low	Low
No.9	Thai	Letter	High	Low

Total nine cards that used in this study are presented in the Appendices B and C. In order to make participants understand easily, both description of every attribute and a sample picture were provided in each card as presented in Figure 3.2. The details of each card for both Thais and Japanese were similar but the sample pictures were changed based on the types of RTE food. Additionally, the details of each card were written in Thais and Japanese. The size of each card (width x length) was around 6 x 9 cm which was appropriate for participants to see all the details inside the card.



Figure 3.2 Example of Thai (a) and Japanese (b) Conjoint Cards

3.2.2.4 Analysis Method

This research consisted of both qualitative and quantitative methods. There are four main parts of the analysis as follows:

Part 1: Chi-square was conducted to test whether consumer experiences for RTE food between Thai and Japanese are different. Two categories were used in the analysis (1) Japanese/Thai RTE food at other places except convenience stores, and (2) Japanese/Thai RTE food at convenience stores.

Part 2: Word classification method was applied to reflect the image of Japanese/Thai food in each category. The highest frequently mentioned words from participants were collected and used to represent the image of that category as well as their attitudes. In this section, the most five frequently mentioned words were chosen to represent two categories; (1) Japanese/Thai food and (2) Japanese/Thai RTE food. In addition, opinions of the participants about Japanese/Thai food consumption as well as the reasons that they might have not try any type of food were used for the analysis about consumer attitudes.

Part 3: The rating scores of nine important factors were used to examine the factors that Thai and Japanese participants concern when they purchase Japanese/Thai RTE food and to investigate whether Thai and Japanese participants concern on each factor differently. Therefore, *t*-test was used to test the difference between the mean score of two groups (Thais and Japanese).

Part 4: Conjoint analysis was conducted to estimate the key attributes and sub-attributes of Japanese/Thai RTE food. The details of key attributes could be used to distinguish the preferences between Thai and Japanese consumers. Besides, the combination of the card that had highest utility scores represented the highest preference from Thai and Japanese participants.

3.3 Results

The results of this study were divided into five main parts; (1) sample characteristics, (2) experience of consuming Japanese/Thai food, (3) word classification was shown in the image of Japanese/Thai food, (4) important factors of Japanese/Thai RTE food, and (5) key attributes and preferences of the participants of Japanese/Thai RTE food from conjoint analysis.

3.3.1 Sample Characteristics

The participant profiles are shown in Table 3.3. Majority of the participants are female (24 people). The age of participants was slightly different because the number of elderly people in Japan was higher than young people. Therefore, Thai participants' age is around 25–40 years whereas majority age of Japanese participants is around 41–60 years. In addition, participants are currently working as employees, while some of them are students and housewife.

Table 3.3 Profile of Participants

	Thais	Percentage	Japanese	Percentage
	(n = 34)	(%)	(n = 34)	(%)
Sex				
Male	10	29.41	10	29.41
Female	24	70.59	24	70.59
<u>Age</u>				
18–24 years	9	26.47	12	35.29
25–40 years	24	70.59	8	23.53
41–60 years	1	2.94	14	41.18
Occupation				
Employee	33	97.06	26	76.47
Student	1	2.94	4	11.76
Housewife	0	0	4	11.76

3.3.2 Experience of Consuming Japanese/Thai Food

As shown in the Table 3.4, the types of Japanese/Thai food are classified mainly into 4 categories. As convenience stores in Thailand have sold Japanese MTO and RTE food recently, we classified it further to MTO and RTE food at convenience stores and other places except convenience stores. However, there is no Thai MTO food in convenience stores in Japan. Thus, only MTO food at other places except convenience stores was conducted in Japan. Since the answers in this section consisted of "yes" and "no" which are categorical data, Chi-square were used to test the association between ethnicity and experiences of consuming Thai and Japanese food. Two categories of RTE food were used to examine the association between ethnic and consumer experiences because this study mainly focused on RTE food. The result indicated that there was statistically significant association between ethnic and experiences of consuming Japanese/Thai RTE food at other places except convenience stores, $\chi^2(1, N = 68) = 10.16$, p < 0.001. On the other hand, there was no statistically significant association between ethnic and experiences of consuming Japanese/Thai RTE food at convenience stores, $\chi^2(1, N = 68) = 0.59$, p = 0.44.

Table 3.4 Experience of Consuming Japanese/Thai Food

Types of cross-cultural food	Thais	Types of cross-cultural food	Japanese
Japanese MTO food at other	Y = 34	Thai MTO food at other places	Y =34
places except convenience		except convenience stores	
stores			
Japanese MTO food at	Y = 3		
convenience stores	N = 31		
Japanese RTE food at other	Y = 26	Thai RTE food at other places	Y = 13
places except convenience	N = 8	except convenience stores	N = 21
stores			
Japanese RTE food at	Y = 13	Thai RTE food at convenience	Y = 10
convenience stores	N = 21	stores	N = 24

Note: Y = Yes and N = No

The number in this table represented the frequency of the answer in each category. The total number of Thai and Japanese samples was 68 participants which divided into 34 participants per country.

In this section, the participants were asked about their experiences and the interviewers will record the results. Additionally, they were also asked to give the reasons when they did not consumed each type of food in this study. Based on Table 3.4, the results revealed that Thai participants commonly ate Japanese MTO food at the restaurants, especially in department stores with their friends and family on Friday or holidays. As the price of Japanese RTE food was quite expensive, they typically chose Japanese restaurants when they are out on special occasion and socialization with friends or family. However, when asked about Japanese MTO food in convenience stores, only a few people ate it because it was sold in a few branches in Bangkok. Another reason was the price was relatively high and the portion size of the food was smaller compared to Thai MTO food at street market which also found easier. Therefore, only a few participants had tried this kind of food. For Japanese RTE food, 26 participants tended to buy RTE food at street markets and supermarkets such as ⁵Sushi and ⁶Sashimi. However, the participants reported that they did not eat Japanese RTE foods so often because they were not fresh and taste as good as the local RTE food. Similarly, when asked the reasons from participants who have never purchased RTE food at these places, they also mentioned that it did not look fresh (2) people) and tasty (3 people). Moreover, two of them hardly saw it and one of them did not like RTE food. On the other hand, 13 participants used to buy RTE food, typically Onigiri in convenience stores because they were familiar with this product and various flavors were available. The participants tended to buy Japanese RTE food when they felt hungry, hurry and other stores were closed especially at night. They gave an opinion that the price was higher than RTE food at street markets and the products were not quite fresh and good for their health. For the group of participants who did not purchase RTE food at convenience stores, the main reasons related to the worrying about freshness (8 people) and taste (8people) of the food. In addition, the rest of the participants have never seen it (5 people) because they only purchased the items they needed when they went to the stores.

From the interview, the results from Japanese participants were similar. Japanese participants commonly ate Thai MTO foods at the restaurants rather than purchase Thai RTE food. As Thai restaurants are available in popular places such as Shibuya and Shinjuku. Japanese participants tended to eat Thai foods with friends and family on weekends. They normally used Thai restaurants as the place for socialization. Besides, due

to the unique taste, Thai MTO food was a good choice when they prefer to eat spicy food. The well-known dishes were ⁷Pad Thai, ⁸Green curry, ⁹Tom yum and ¹⁰Pad Ka-Prao. For Thai RTE food, it is normally sold at the underground of the department stores, supermarkets and specific places for special events such as a Thai festival which is held every year in Japan. Therefore, 13 participants consumed Thai RTE food in this category. This group of participants did not buy RTE food regularly as they mentioned that the flavor was not quite strong and the ingredients were not fresh. For participants who did not purchase Thai RTE food at those places claimed that they hardly saw Thai RTE food in department stores and supermarkets as sometimes they did not visit the underground of the department stores (12 participants). About 6 participants preferred to eat Thai food at the restaurants. There was 1 participant thought that the price was expensive and 2 elderly participants bought the ingredients from Asian shop and cook it themselves. When asked about Thai RTE food at convenience stores, only 10 participants tried this kind of food. Some participants knew that they could find Thai RTE food during the spring. Therefore, they went to buy them for a picnic. Nevertheless, some participants saw it unintentionally and purchased it back home. The typical menu was a box of Pad Ka-Prao and rice. Even though the participants bought RTE food, they still reported that the taste of MTO food was better. Compared to the second category (Thai RTE food at other places except convenience stores), the number of participants who never bought Thai RTE food at convenience stores was slightly higher (24 people). The main reasons that they did not buy Thai RTE food were similar. Approximately 19 participants told that they have never seen it at convenience stores. As mentioned that Thai RTE food is sold in some seasons, the consumers may not notice it if they do not go to the convenience stores at that period of time. Besides, a few participants preferred to eat Thai food at the restaurants (2 people) and used delivery service instead (1 person). Lastly, another 2 participants thought that Thai RTE food was expensive, even the price was similar compare to other types of RTE food.

3.3.3 Image of Japanese/Thai Food

The most frequently mentioned words for both countries were collected under 4 main categories; Japanese/Thai food and Japanese/Thai RTE food. In total 35 unique words were mentioned for Japanese food and 28 words for Japanese RTE food. The top 5 mentioned words are presented in the first and second row of Table 3.5, which could be classified as the name and characteristic of food. The highest frequently mentioned words for Japanese food were Sushi, Sashimi, Salmon, Tasty and Expensive. Surprisingly, salmon was one of the most frequently mentioned words, even though it was imported from various countries. The image of Japanese RTE food was slightly different, the participants mentioned on the menu that they used to buy at street markets, convenience stores and supermarkets such as Onigiri and Sushi. In addition, they mentioned that this kind of products was convenient for them. For the image of Thai food in Japan, 30 words were collected for Thai food and 13 words for Thai RTE food. Similar to Thai participants, the word classification could be separated as the name and the characteristic of food, in which the top 5 mentioned words are presented in third and fourth row of Table 3.5. The majority of the participants mentioned that Thai food was spicy and tasty. In addition, the wellknown menu, such as Tom yum and Green curry were mentioned. Despite the image of Thai RTE food was similar to the Thai food, healthy was replaced as one of the most frequently mentioned words in this category. Besides, Tom yum was replaced by Pad Ka-Prao since it was a common dish for Thai RTE food.

Table 3.5 Image of Japanese/Thai Food and Japanese/Thai RTE Food

Categories	The most frequently mentioned words
Image of Japanese food	Sushi, Sashimi, Salmon, Tasty, Expensive
Image of Japanese RTE food	Onigiri, Sushi, Sashimi, Seaweed, Convenience
Image of Thai food	Spicy, Tasty, Tom yum, Green curry, Pad Thai
Image of Thai RTE food	Spicy, Healthy, Pad Thai, Green curry, Pad Ka-Prao

3.3.4 Important Factors for Purchasing Japanese/Thai RTE Food

From the calculation of the mean score in Table 3.6, the factors rated from Thai participants normally had higher scores than Japanese participants. Some factors reflected the same rank, but there was statistically significant difference of the means between two groups. As a result, the ranking should be analyzed together with the results from t-test. According to the t-test, the results indicated that three from nine factors had no statistically significant difference between mean scores of two samples, including freshness (t = 1.23, df = 66, p = 0.22), taste (t = -1.46, df = 66, p = 0.15) and calorie (t = 1.50, df = 66, p = 0.14). The freshness score of Thai participants was found slightly higher than Japanese participants (Thais: M = 4.50, SD = 0.71; Japanese: M = 4.26, SD = 0.86) while the score of taste was little higher for Japanese than Thai participants (Thais: M = 4.29, SD = 0.87; Japanese: M = 4.59, SD = 0.78). In addition, the rank of the important factors of each country is shown in Table 3.6. The result revealed that freshness and taste had the highest score around the 1st and the 2nd rank in both countries. On the other hand, the amount of calories was more likely to be ignored. Since these three factors had no statistical difference between these two groups and the ranking are similar, it suggested that freshness and taste were the most important factors that Thai and Japanese participants primarily concerned when making a decision to purchase Japanese/Thai RTE food, while calorie was the least important factors (Thais: M = 3.09, SD = 1.22; Japanese: M = 2.71, SD = 0.87). For ease of consumption, it can be seen obviously that Thai participants focus on ease of consumption more than Japanese participants (Thais: M = 4.24, SD = 0.89; Japanese: M =3.03, SD = 1.14) which caused a large statistically significant difference between the mean scores of two groups (t = 4.86, df = 66, p < 0.001). For appearance of food, the mean scores was differed (Thais: M = 3.91, SD = 0.79; Japanese: M = 3.12, SD = 1.12), while the ranking was similar. Thus, the mean scores between two countries was found to be significantly different (t = 3.37, df = 66, p < 0.01). It implied that this factor was fairly important for both Thais and Japanese. For the means of easy access location (Thais: M = 4.15, SD =0.99; Japanese: M = 3.59, SD = 0.96) and price (Thais: M = 4.06, SD = 1.04; Japanese: M= 3.47, SD = 1.11), the ranking position between Thais and Japanese were similar which lead to small significant difference between the mean scores for location (t = 2.37, df = 66, p < 0.05) and price (t = 2.25, df = 66, p < 0.05). Interestingly, Japanese participants were

more likely to focus on a variety of food than Thai participants based on the rank (the 5th and the 7th rank, respectively), even though the mean scores were different (Thais: M = 3.79, SD = 0.95; Japanese: M = 3.15, SD = 1.21), leading to the significant difference between mean score of two samples (t = 2.46, df = 66, p < 0.05). Lastly, the mean scores of promotion in both countries were ranked as the eighth which reflected that participants did not concern on this factor (Thais: M = 3.74, SD = 1.05; Japanese: M = 2.88, SD = 1.09) when they purchase cross-cultural RTE food although the significant difference between the mean scores of Thais and Japanese were found (t = 3.27, df = 66, p < 0.01). These results confirmed that Thai and Japanese participants gave an importance to freshness, taste and amount of calorie similarly, while they gave an importance to other factors differently in which Thais were found to give higher important scores than Japanese.

Table 3.6 Mean of Japanese/Thai RTE Food Factors

	Thais $(n = 34)$		Japanese $(n = 34)$				
	M	SD	Rank	M	SD	Rank	<i>t</i> -value
Freshness	4.50	0.71	1	4.26	0.86	2	1.23
Taste	4.29	0.87	2	4.59	0.78	1	-1.46
Ease of consumption	4.24	0.89	3	3.03	1.14	7	4.86***
Easy access location	4.15	0.99	4	3.59	0.96	3	2.37*
Price	4.06	1.04	5	3.47	1.11	4	2.25*
Appearance of food	3.91	0.79	6	3.12	1.12	6	3.37**
Variety	3.79	0.95	7	3.15	1.21	5	2.46*
Promotion	3.74	1.05	8	2.88	1.09	8	3.27**
Calorie	3.09	1.22	9	2.71	0.87	9	1.50

Note: 5-point Likert scale (1 = not important, 5 = very important); * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

3.4.5 Conjoint Analysis of Japanese/Thai RTE Food

Based on the ranking data of nine cards from 34 participants per country, the important values of both Thai and Japanese participants are shown in Table 3.7. These average important values reflected how much difference of each attribute contributed in the total utility of Japanese/Thai RTE food. Additionally, Pearson correlation for Thai and

Japanese participants were relatively high; 0.95 and 0.97, respectively which showed the good estimation between observed and predicted rank orders for utility scores validation.

For Thai participants, the results revealed that taste was the most important attribute which had the highest average important value that contributed 27.80 percent of total utility. The second most important attribute was design of the packaging (24.93%) while similar score of price was revealed as the third rank (24.20%). The least important attribute was calorie (23.07%). This result indicated that Thai participants weighted all the four factors similarly based on the slightly different of percentage. However, it implied that they weighed higher importance to the taste more than other attributes when they make a decision to purchase Japanese RTE food. For Japanese participants, the results revealed that they focused on the design which reflected as the most important attribute (29.61%). Besides, the second important attribute was taste (26.40%) whereas the third rank was calorie (25.32%). The least important attribute was price which accounted for 18.67% of total utility. In a contrast, Japanese weighed higher importance to the design more than other attributes when they make a decision to purchase Thai RTE food and tend to ignore the price as can be seen from very low percentage contributed to the utility of the product.

Table 3.7 Important Values of Japanese/Thai RTE food

	Thais $(n = 34)$	Japanese $(n = 34)$
Attributes	Average Important Value (%)	Average Important Value (%)
Taste	27.80	26.40
Design	24.93	29.61
Calorie	23.07	25.32
Price	24.20	18.67

Note: Pearson correlations of both samples were 0.95 and 0.97 for Thai and Japanese samples, respectively.

Additionally, sub-attributes of both groups of participants are presented in Table 3.8. Higher score could interpret as greater preferences among participants. For Thai participants, they preferred mixed between Thai and Japanese flavor or fusion taste (0.78). The second preference was authentic Japanese taste (0.14), but Thai taste was not recommended (-0.92) for Japanese RTE food. For the design, Thai participants preferred

the letter design on a clear container lid (0.28) more than colorful picture (0.04) and plain design (-0.32). In addition, the lowest amount of calories (0.28) and price (-0.04) reflected the highest preferences among other sub-attributes in that category.

In the contrast, authentic Thai taste was the most favorable taste (0.56) for Japanese participants followed by mixed taste (0.05). It is worth noting that authentic Japanese taste was not preferred among Japanese for Thai RTE food due to the minus the utility score (-0.61). For the second attribute, colorful picture design was revealed as the best choice (0.18), while a letter label design was fairly good (0.05), but a clear container design was not recommended (-0.23). In addition, the result of calories showed that either low or high calories were not preferred among Japanese participants. For Thai RTE food, medium calories were recommended more than other choices with the highest score (0.59). The preference of price was similar to Thai participants in which the lowest price was the most preferred sub-attributes for Japanese participants (-0.10), whereas medium to high price received low utility score.

Apart from the sub-attributes, the utility score of each card were calculated according to the below formula in order to roughly estimate the highest preference of the product from each attribute (Gil & Sánchez, 1997). Among nine cards, card no.7 had the highest utility score of 6.3 (Preference of card no.7 = 5.08 + 0.78 + 0.28 + 0.28 - 0.12) for Thai participants, and card no.1 had the highest utility score of 6.2 (Preference of card no.1 = 5.21 + 0.56 + 0.05 + 0.59 - 0.21) for Japanese participants. The highest preference cards are presented in Figure 3.2. However, these cards might not include the highest utility score of each attribute depended on the sub-attributes inside the cards. The combination of the cards which have the highest total utility score could be represented as the future guideline for improving cross-cultural RTE food for both Thai and Japanese consumers. According to the four attributes, the equation can be formulated as presented below.

Preference =
$$c + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{1i} D_{1i} + \sum_{j=1}^{m} \beta_{2j} D_{2j} + \sum_{k=1}^{p} \beta_{3k} D_{3k} + \sum_{l=1}^{q} \beta_{4l} D_{4l}$$
 (1)

where β_{1i} , β_{ji} , β_{1k} , β_{1l} are the utility values corresponded to levels i (i = 1, ..., n); j (j = 1, ..., m), k (k = 1, ..., p) and l (l = 1, ..., q), respectively of attributes 1, 2, 3 and 4; D_{1i} , D_{2j} , D_{3k}

and D_{4l} are dummy variables which equal to 1 if the corresponding level of the attribute is present in the card and 0 in other cases; and c is a constant.

Example: Card no.1 of Thai participants

The combination of this card (card no.1) included Japanese taste, letter design on a container box, medium price (31–50 Baht) and medium calories (401–800 Kcal). Thus, based on equation 1 and the utility scores in Table 3.8, the preference of this card can be calculated as follows.

Preference =
$$5.08 + [(0.14 \times 1) + (-0.92 \times 0) + (0.78 \times 0)] + [(-0.32 \times 0) + (0.28 \times 1) + (0.04 \times 0)] + [(0.28 \times 0) + (0.12 \times 1) + (-0.39 \times 0)] + [(-0.04 \times 0) + (-0.08 \times 1) + (-0.12 \times 0)]$$

= $5.08 + 0.14 + 0.28 + 0.12 - 0.08$
= 5.54

Table 3.8 Utility Scores of Sub-Attributes of Japanese/Thai RTE food

		Thais	Thais $(n = 34)$		Japanese $(n = 34)$	
Attributes	Sub-Attributes	UE	SE	UE	SE	
	Japanese taste	0.14	0.37	-0.61	0.30	
Taste	Thai taste	-0.92	0.37	0.56	0.30	
	Mixed taste (Thai & Japanese)	0.78	0.37	0.05	0.30	
	Clear plastic	-0.32	0.37	-0.23	0.30	
Design	Letter	0.28	0.37	0.05	0.30	
	Colorful picture	0.04	0.37	0.18	0.30	
	Low (< 400 Kcal)	0.28	0.37	-0.96	0.30	
Calorie	Medium (401–800 Kcal)	0.12	0.37	0.59	0.30	
	High (> 800 Kcal)	-0.39	0.37	0.37	0.30	
	Low					
	(10–30 THB/ 201–500 JPY)	-0.04	0.32	-0.10	0.26	
ъ.	Medium					
Price	(31–50 THB / 501–800 JPY)	-0.08	0.65	-0.21	0.53	
	High					
	(51–70 THB / 801–1,200 JPY)	-0.12	0.97	-0.31	0.79	
	Constant	5.08	0.70	5.21	0.57	

Note: UE = Utility Estimate; SE = Standard Error

3.4 Discussion

From the interview with Thais and Japanese participants, we found that consumers in both countries are familiar with cross-cultural foods. Most of them ate Japanese/Thai MTO food in the restaurants rather than purchasing RTE food. Typically, the Japanese foods sold at supermarkets, street markets and retail stores are Sashimi, Onigiri and Sushi. Therefore, Thai consumers worried about how fresh the ingredients were. The poor quality of foods can cause diarrhea, especially in the country that the temperature is over 35 degrees Celsius. Moreover, Thai consumers stated that the RTE food did not look fresh and tasty which caused some participants have never purchased Japanese RTE food.

Participants who had experience with RTE food still reported that the taste was not as good as they ate at the restaurants. Therefore, they occasionally purchased Japanese RTE food, especially at convenience stores. It suggested that Thai consumers had a negative attitude to Japanese RTE food, especially freshness and taste. This result is consistent with other studies which indicated that the taste of frozen food products needed to be improved (Poonsopin, 2012). In addition, some consumers claimed about smaller portion of the foods and higher price compared to local RTE food. As some ingredients are imported from Japan, it is surely more expensive than local ingredients. However, it will be challenging if the manufacturers can reduce this cost and sell at a competitive price. The results from word classification in Table 3.5 also showed that popular Japanese dishes were well recognized among Thai consumers. In addition, salmon was frequently mentioned when asking about Japanese food category. This might be the influence from the various Japanese menu in which salmon was used as the main ingredient in the restaurants. Therefore, when participants thought about Japanese food, it reminded them about the fish that they commonly ate. Interestingly, instead of saying about expensive, they thought that Japanese RTE food was easy to eat. It might be different from Thai RTE food in term of the way to eat food easily. For example, there is a sign which shows how to unwrap Onigiri. Moreover, consumers can use chopsticks to eat Sushi which is hygienic and less messy compared to some local Thai foods such as sticky rice with grilled pork and papaya salad that consumers have to eat them by hands. Therefore, Japanese RTE food is convenient in the eyes of Thai consumers. This result is in line with the study of fast food consumption in the Northeastern of Thailand, which revealed that Thai consumers valued fast foods due to convenience and hygiene (Seubsman, Kelly, Yuthapornpinit, & Sleigh, 2009).

In Japan, Thai RTE food is normally sold at underground of the department stores, supermarket and special events such as Pad Thai, Green curry and Pad Ka-Prao. The result showed that most of the Japanese consumers hardly purchased Thai RTE food, but commonly went to Thai restaurants instead. Even though Japanese people consume a large number of RTE foods, a small number of participants consumed Thai RTE food. One reason may be because Thai restaurants are available in various zones in Tokyo while Thai RTE food can be found in specific places. For example, convenience stores sell Thai RTE food as chilled products in some seasons. That is why the majority of the consumers

mentioned that they have never seen it. Besides, few consumers cooked it themselves because they have more time to cook at home, which corresponds to the study from Brunner, Horst and Siegrist (2010) that elderly people have more time to cook for a meal. Also some consumers thought that Thai RTE food was expensive, which is possibly true when compared to home cooking meals. If consumers are non-convenience oriented, they are more price-sensitive to the products than convenience-oriented consumers (Swoboda & Morschett, 2001). However, when compared Thai RTE food with other ethnic RTE foods, the price is nearly the same. In addition, consumers who purchased Thai RTE food gave an opinion that the flavor of RTE food was not as good and strong as fresh cooking products when reheated again, especially the soup contained coconut milk, for example, Green curry. Although the common dishes of Thai food did not contain raw meats, Japanese consumers still worry about the taste and freshness. From the image of Thai food and Thai RTE food in Table 3.5, it showed that the famous Thai dishes were well-known among Japanese consumers. They also mentioned that Thai food was spicy and tasty. This might be the most famous Thai food at the restaurants were spicier compared to Japanese food. However, in Thai RTE food category, tasty was replaced by healthy as various kinds of spices and herbs are used for Thai ready meal while some Japanese RTE foods contained fried meats with rice or noodles and have a few vegetables. Even though Thai curry contains fat but it is cooked with coconut milk, which can be classified as a healthy ingredient. With this attitude, customers who are on a diet and concern about health may have more interest in Thai RTE food.

In addition, the result from rating important factors in Table 3.6 showed that Japanese consumers also gave high score to the taste and freshness which was similar to Thai consumers, and there was no statistically difference found. As RTE food is made in advance, consumers in both countries may not feel confident whether it is fresh and the taste is good or not. These results were also in line with Candel (2001) that taste was more important than price for either convenience or non-convenience oriented consumers. Surprisingly, the amount of calories was neglected for both countries. As the amount of calories was not commonly shown on the RTE food in Thailand while Japanese consumers also thought that Thai RTE food was healthy, the consumers then took it for granted. Another factor that had less mean score was promotion (the 8th rank). This result was

similar to Chinese and UK consumers that the promotion was ignored when purchase new food products (Eves & Cheng, 2007). Additionally, the statistically significant difference of the other factors was found, even there were similar rank except ease of consumption and variety factors. As mentioned in the image of Japanese RTE food, Thai consumers gave an attitude that it was convenient in term of easy to eat since some Thai RTE foods were messy when eating. Therefore, this might be the reason why participants gave much higher score to this factor while Japanese consumers concerned on a variety of food instead (the 5th rank). According to the picnic that participants mentioned when buying Thai RTE food, consumers might prefer to buy different kinds of food to eat with friends and family. In a contrast, Thai people did not usually buy Japanese RTE food for a picnic but rather ate in a car or at an office. Even the score of Thai participants was higher than Japanese participants, the rank showed that it was less important than other factors when Thai consumers made a decision to buy Japanese RTE food.

The value of each attribute and the consumer preferences were revealed from conjoint analysis. Although the average important values were not varied, we were able to see which attribute was primarily emphasized by the participants. For Thai participants, we found that they gave the highest value to the taste when they make a decision to buy Japanese RTE food followed by design and price, while the amount of calories was the least concerned factor. This result was similar to the study from Chatthipmongkol and Jangphanish (2016) which found that the taste was primarily considered for Thai consumers. On the contrary, Japanese participants concerned more about the design followed by taste, amount of calories and price. Once the attributes were integrated as a set of choice, the result from Japanese participants was little different from rating individual factor (price was less considered than calorie). This finding was supported from Reed, McIlveen-Farley and Strugnell (2003) which revealed that the price had influence on the product selection but less than the taste.

The sub-attributes showed that the preferred taste for Thai participants was mixed between Thai and Japanese flavor (fusion taste). As Thai food was normally spicy, they might like the fusion food more than authentic Japanese food from Japan. This might be the reason why there are a lot of fusion restaurants in Thailand while only a few restaurants

are authentic Japanese food from Japan. Besides, when Japanese food is available around the world, the methods, ingredients and flavors are adapted (Sakuma, 2011). Therefore, there were some participants who preferred authentic Japanese taste which was hardly found in Thailand. Thus, the score of authentic Japanese taste was revealed as the second rank while Thai taste for Japanese RTE food was not recommended. The letter design on a clear container lid was preferred more than other sub-attributes. When freshness was the primary concerned factor as well as some ingredients were raw, this design suited to participants' need because they could see the real ingredients inside. Therefore, only the label with the name of food and the nutrition details written on the clear food container was enough. Besides, as the local price of RTE food in the market is not so expensive, lower price was more preferred for Thai participants. In addition, low calorie products had the highest score which was slightly different from Japanese participants that medium calories were more preferred. This might relate to Thai RTE food that participants typically consumed, which were medium to high calories as could be seen from the mentioned names of Thai RTE food in Table 3.5. In addition, Thai RTE food was healthy from the Japanese participants' point of view. Therefore, the medium calories could be neglected over the other factors. Moreover, according to the popular trend of healthy food in Thailand, Thai consumers might concern about the amount of calories more than Japanese consumers. For the design, the colorful picture had the highest utility score for Japanese group. Since most of the product packaging in Japan was wrapped with colorful paper and had colorful pictures, consumers might think that visual colorful design led to better quality of the products. This result corresponds to Underwood, Klein and Burke (2001) and Silayoi and Speece (2004) that high quality of packaging can be interpreted as high quality of the product inside. The colorful picture on the food container design might give Japanese participants a sensory appeal more than Thai participants. Consequently, the colorful picture design is more appropriate in Japan while letter design is more appropriate in Thailand. In addition, it was supported that Japanese consumers pay more attention to quality than price (Johansson, 1986) and willing to spend more money for high quality products (Clemens, 2003). This might be the reason why price had less important values than other factors. Although they did not concern for the price, the lowest price was the most preferred sub-attributes. Lastly, the authentic Thai taste was recommended for Japanese participants rather than the mixed flavor. According to the unique Thai taste,

adapting Japanese flavor to Thai food seems to be wired for Japanese consumers. For example, substitute Thai sauce to Japanese sauce. In addition, we noticed when participants selected the card, the mixed taste and authentic Japanese taste were normally put at the back. The similar result was also found from the study of consumer acceptance of chilled ready meals that more than 50 percent of the participants in Ireland preferred authentic flavors of this product (Reed, et al., 2003). From conducting conjoint analysis, we could see how consumers value each attribute as well as identify consumer preferences when different factors were combined together. In this study, the cards in conjoint analysis were used as the simulation tool. Each card was generated from different combinations of attribute which allow consumers to imagine as if they purchased the products in the market. Therefore, the higher scores it showed, the higher value consumers gave to that attribute. For Thai consumers, they cared about the taste over the rest of the attributes. This result implied that selling Japanese RTE food in Thailand, good taste was the most important attribute to influence consumers when they purchased the products. On the contrary, consumers in Japan looked at the design of the food packaging first. Thus, good design had higher chance to influence consumers to purchase the products.

As a result, the weight that marketers should give to each attribute when developing the ethnic RTE food should be different (Table 3.7). Furthermore, we could interpret from the scores of sub-attributes about what kinds of taste, design, calorie and price were preferred. Therefore, the most preferred sub-attributes (the highest score) should be included in the products while the least preferred sub-attributes (the lowest score) should be avoided. Besides, the highest total utility score for each card (calculated from the above formula) suggested the most preferable combination for consumers in each country which can be used as an idea for creating new products.

3.5 Conclusion

This research had fulfilled the first sub-objective of the dissertation, to examine consumer attitudes and preferences towards cross-cultural RTE food. This is the first aspect that we explored in a cross-cultural study between Thais and Japanese for food-related industry. The key findings from experience of consuming Japanese/Thai food suggested that the freshness and the taste of RTE food should be improved. The negative attitudes of consumers can be the wall to prevent consumers from purchasing ethnic RTE food. Besides, according to the word classification, convenient aspect was given to Japanese RTE food while healthy was given to Thai RTE food. When making a decision to buy cross-cultural food, Japanese consumers would take variety of food in consideration while Thai consumers focused more on ease of consumption. Nevertheless, both taste and freshness were the primary important factors influencing on purchase RTE food for both groups. The important attributes of Japanese RTE food in Thailand consisted of fusion taste and letter design on a clear container. Even though the participants did not concern about the amount of calories but low calories Japanese RTE food had a higher preference score for Thai consumers. On the other hand, Thai RTE food in Japan should have an original Thai taste, colorful picture design and medium calories. The price of these RTE foods should be competitive in the market in which lower price was more likely to satisfy consumers. The example of the cards which had the highest utility scores were provided as the guideline for developing future RTE food products (Figure 3.2).

Since the difference of consumer behaviors were influenced from the culture that they live in, a culture that they learned from history or outsides had guide them to purchase products that correspond to their preferences. For example, Japanese emphasized on the colorful design packaging which can be judged that there is a high quality product inside, whereas Thai participants preferred a clear container box with letter label in order to see the ingredients inside. Regarding the different preferences, it triggered us to investigate the consumer values between Thais and Japanese. With the different culture between two countries, this could shape different consumer values. In deeper details, the particular values and needs of consumers should be further investigated which might give rise to different requirement when they purchase products and services.

Based on the interview results from this study, this chapter only reflects a perspective of consumer attitudes and preferences. Thus, in the next case study, we will investigate another aspect of cross-cultural study from the values that Thai and Japanese customers hold in their daily life. Even though Thailand and Japan are located in Asia and they are classified as collectivism, the values that influence customers to consume cross-cultural food might be different. From this study, it was found that Thai and Japanese consumers usually dine in the ethnic restaurants to socialization with friends and family rather than purchase cross-cultural RTE food. Therefore, to investigate the second and third perspectives; values and key attributes which required a large number of data to represent the values precisely, the next study (Chapters 4–5) will focus on the ethnic restaurants which could give more insights about cultural comparison between Thais and Japanese.

3.6 Implications and Limitations

From academic perspective, this is a pioneer to compare the attitudes and preferences of ethnic RTE food with consumers in two Asian countries. In this study, we identified the image of Thai and Japanese food and interviewed their attitudes toward RTE food. The findings showed the negative attitudes toward ethnic RTE food, especially freshness and taste. However, consumers in both countries had different preferences when making a decision to purchase ethnic RTE food. For example, Japanese participants preferred original Thai taste while Thai participants preferred fusion taste (mixed between Thai and Japanese style).

For practical implications, the results from this study enhance marketers to develop ethnic RTE food to match with local consumer preferences in each country. With the negative attitudes related to freshness and taste should be addressed to improve the sales and encourage new consumers to try in the future. When developing Japanese RTE food in Thailand, the marketers should focus on the fusion taste and letter design on a clear container lid to allow participants to see the products inside. This will ensure the consumers

about the freshness of the product. However, for Japanese participants, the colorful picture design with authentic taste was more attractive than others.

There are some limitations in this study. First, the study focused on participants in two capital cities since the lifestyle might be changed across country. Second, the study conducted with two-types of ethnic food due to the emerging of Japanese RTE food in Thailand and the popularity of Thai food in Japan. Lastly, the product attributes in conjoint analysis were limited to only four factors in order to avoid information overload.

It would be benefit to the future study for comparing the attitudes and preferences with other types of ethnic RTE foods and with different nations apart from Asian countries. In addition, the attitudes and preferences of consumers who live in suburb might be different from consumers who live in urban areas. Therefore, exploring and comparing with these groups of consumers would give deeper details for producing products to match with consumer needs.

Definitions

¹MTO food: The food which consumers can customize the final product themselves, it is cooked and served after the consumer orders. In Investopedia. URL http://www.investopedia.com/terms/m/make-to-order.asp. (accessed on August 15th, 2015).

²Chicken Teriyaki rice: a rice bowl on top with grilled Japanese sweet soy source chicken. In Kikkonanusa. URL http://www.kikkomanusa.com/homecooks/recipes/recipedetail.php? rd=1551#.V0lDQPl96M8. (accessed on May 8th, 2016).

³Onigiri: It is the rice ball formed in rectangular or cylinder shape, normally wrapped with dry seaweed. In Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia. URL https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sashimi. (accessed on February 2nd, 2015).

⁴Oden: It is Japanese soup with boiled egg, fish cake, etc. In Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia. URL https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Oden. (accessed on January 9th, 2015).

⁵Sushi: It is cooked vinegar rice combined with vegetables, meat, etc. In Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia. URL https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sushi. (accessed on January 12th, 2015).

⁶Sashimi: It is fresh raw fish sliced into thin pieces served with white radish and wasabi. In Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia. URL https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sashimi. (accessed on January 25th, 2015).

⁷Pad Thai: It is stir-fried rice noodle mixed with spicy sauce, tofu, seafood and vegetables. In Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia. URL https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pad_Thai. (accessed on February 5th, 2015).

⁸Green curry: It is a Thai soup combined with meats and vegetables, added with coconut milk. In Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia. URL https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Green_curry. (accessed on March 7th, 2015).

⁹Tom yum: It is sour and spicy soup which has seafood, mushroom and herbs inside. In Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia. URL https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tom_ Yum. (accessed on March 18th, 2015).

¹⁰Pad Ka-Prao: It is a stir fried meat with chili and basil. It is normally served with rice. In Fromshorestoskylines.com. URL http://www.fromshorestoskylines.com/pad-ka-prao-recipe/. (accessed on May 20th, 2015).

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CHAPTER 4

INFLUENCE OF VALUES ON DINING INTENTION IN ETHNIC RESTAURANTS

Chapter 4 aims to investigate the influence of values on dining intention in ethnic restaurants. This chapter reflects the second perspective of a cross-cultural study in the dissertation. In order to appropriately respond to the requirements of customers and conform to their values, understanding the values and customer needs is necessitated, which in turn aids in enhancing satisfaction and the return intention. Thus, four main factors, including values, customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention, are explored in this chapter. In this study, data were collected from customers who had the experience of dining in Japanese restaurants in Thailand as well as Thai restaurants in Japan. Factor analysis and structural equation modeling (SEM) are utilized for grouping similar values and analyzing the proposed relationship, respectively. From the EFA, all nine values of List of Values (LOV) can be categorized as (i) enjoyment-related values, (ii) individualrelated values and (iii) society-related values. Additionally, the mean score revealed that Thai participants assigned the scores to every group of value equally, while Japanese participants assigned higher scores to the group of enjoyment-related values. However, there was no significant difference of mean of enjoyment-related values between Thais and Japanese which contrasted to the other two groups of values. The results also showed that three groups of values have a positive influence on particular types of customer needs. For example, society-related values were found to influence on social needs while enjoymentrelated values influenced on experiential needs and symbolic needs. Additionally, individual-related values positively influenced functional needs and symbolic needs. Nevertheless, only some needs have an influence on customer return intention, which are passed through customer satisfaction. For Thai participants, social and symbolic needs were found to be the determinants of customer satisfaction and return intention, whereas social and experiential needs were the influential factors for Japanese participants. Besides, the test of the mediating effect indicated that customer satisfaction served as a mediator in the customer needs—return intention relationship.

4.1 Research Background

Dining in ethnic restaurants is an option available for customers who prefer to consume food that is different from their typical cuisine. To successfully compete with other restaurants, satisfying customers and improving customer loyalty are two essential factors (Bearden & Teel, 1983; Sulek & Hensley, 2004; Szymanski & Henard, 2001). Herrmann, Huber, and Braunstein (2000) claimed that customer satisfaction can be achieved when customers receive products and services that match their needs. When customers are satisfied, they are more likely to continue to dine at those specific restaurants. In other words, the return intention will be higher if the restaurant is able to offer what its customers are seeking which could be motivated by values that customers hold in their lives. Moreover, these values are shaped by culture that customers are living in, which might be different from one country to another (Kim et al, 2002). This suggests that the restaurants should be aware of understanding customer values in order to response to their needs properly.

In this chapter, a study of how values influence on customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention is presented which could give the insights of both Thai and Japanese customers when dining in ethnic restaurants. Thus, this research aims to (1) identify the structure of values that can be grouped for Thais and Japanese (2) examine the relationship between values and customer needs, (3) assess the influence of customer needs on customer satisfaction and return intention, (4) examine the mediating role of customer satisfaction between the customer needs and return intention, and (5) compare the results between Thai and Japanese participants which lead to different implications for each country. In this study, the values were firstly classified in by using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Besides, four types of the customer needs were developed based on the past studies. These results will be used in structural equation modelling (SEM) for analyze the proposed relationship. Before introducing the hypotheses, three models that related to the LOV and customer needs were discussed in the following section.

4.1.1 Model 1: LOV and Purchase Behavior

Originally, Kahle (1983) initiated the concept of LOV which has been widely used to predict consumer behavior, especially purchase behavior as shown in Figure 4.1. Besides, other studies revealed that these values can be used for predicting shopping behavior. For example, people who hold the values of fun and enjoyment of life, self-fulfillment, excitement and self-respect were found to purchase natural food more frequent and spend larger amount of money than people who rated higher value on security and being well-respected (Homer & Kahle, 1988). Similarly, the study of Chryssohoidis and Krystallis (2005) revealed that personal values, especially internal values, positively influenced on purchase behavior in which the group of consumers who are health conscious organic buyers frequently shopped at the stores and were more likely to return in the future. Similarly, the group of loyalty customers believed that organic food is better than conventional food and purchased it weekly suggesting that the consumers who are more familiar with these products and focused on health tended to revisit the stores. These studies suggested the relationship between LOV and purchase behavior was measured by shopping frequency and the spending amount of money.

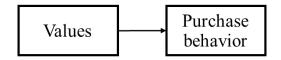


Figure 4.1 Relationship between Values and Purchase Behavior

4.1.2 Model 2: LOV, Customer Needs and Purchase Behavior

In the second model, Kim et al. (2002) indicated that these values were found to influence on different types of customer needs in which self-directed values positively influenced on experiential needs and functional needs among Korean and positively influenced on experiential needs among Chinese consumers. In addition, these needs were also found to influence purchase behavior, particularly loyal behavior, as presented in Figure 4.2.

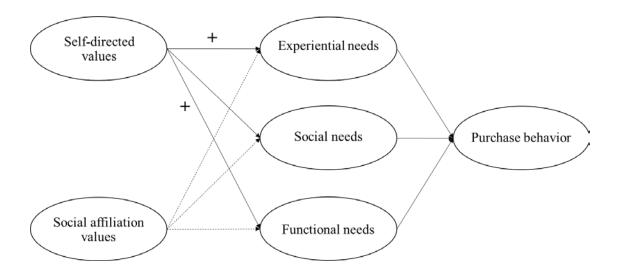


Figure 4.2 Influence of Values on Customer Needs and Purchase Behavior (based on Kim et al., 2002)

This suggests the values-needs-behavior relationship in Figure 4.3. Besides, in this study, purchase behavior consisted of the amount of purchase and brand loyalty behavior which slightly differed from the study of Kahle (1983).

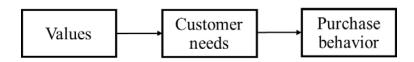


Figure 4.3 Relationship between Values, Customer Needs and Purchase Behavior

4.1.3 Model 3: Proposed Research Model

The proposed model is presented in Figure 4.4. Based on the second model, values were used to determine the customer needs as suggested by Kim et al. (2002). Therefore, the relationship between values and customer needs was investigated in this study. However, in the study of Kim et al. (2002), the scholars also used amount of purchase and loyal behavior (brand loyalty), such as customers purchase the same brand of clothing to determine their repurchase behaviors. In addition, other studies used amount of purchase

and shopping frequency as a measurement for store loyalty in purchase behavior (e.g. Chryssohoidis & Krystallis, 2005; Homer & Kahle, 1988) as mentioned in the previous model. These evidences indicated that the scholars only focused on past behavior of consumers, while the return intention that could lead to loyal behavior in the future has not yet been studied. Besides, the results in Chapter 3 revealed that Thai and Japanese customers are familiar with Japanese/Thai food and usually dine in the restaurants. Thus, the return intention was more appropriate and interesting to use for investigation in ethnic restaurants among Thais and Japanese. This brings us to the test relationship between customer needs and return intention.

In addition, other studies typically emphasized that fulfilling customer needs will enhance customer satisfaction (Andersson & Mossberg, 2004; Tontini, 2007) and lead to their return intention (Chandrashekaran et al., 2007), while those needs are identified based on the perspective of product and service attributes only, in which the direct relationship between customer needs and customer satisfaction has never been investigated. In this study, we argued that instead of using attributes to represent needs, customer satisfaction should be enhanced from the needs that are directly initiated by customers. Therefore, important needs are categorized to examine the relationship with customer satisfaction. Besides, when customer has positive experience regarding their consumption, the customer satisfaction will be increased and thus led to the return intention (Jani & Han, 2013). As a result, the strong relationship between customer satisfaction and return intention were found in various past literatures (e.g. Ryu, Heesup, & Kim, 2008; Wang, 2011), suggesting the relationship between these elements in this study.

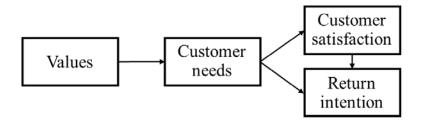


Figure 4.4 *Proposed Model (Made by Author)*

4.2 Hypotheses

4.2.1 Relationship between List of Values (LOV) and Customer needs

Homer and Kahle (1988) referenced various past studies on values-behaviors which supported the relationship of values-attitude-behavior. As LOV had been developed based on the Maslow's hierarchy of customer needs, these values were found associated with different types of customer needs. In the study of Kim et al. (2002), three types of customer needs (experiential needs, social needs and functional needs) were used in the analysis and they found that self-directed values were the determinants of the experiential needs when consumers in China and South Korea purchase apparel products. Nevertheless, selfdirected values were found to positively influence on functional needs among South Korean consumers while there was no statistically significant influence among Chinese consumers. Additionally, social affiliation values did not influence on any types of customer needs in both countries. Even though those two countries in Asian were classified as collectivism, the internal (self-directed) values have a greater influence when purchased apparel products. However, it might be possible that some groups of values positively influence on particular needs differently based on the group of customers as presented in the case of Chinese and South Korean customers, leading to the first hypothesis (H1) in this study as follows.

H1: Values positively influence customer needs among Thai and Japanese customers for dining in ethnic restaurants.

4.2.2 Relationship between Customer Needs, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention

In food service literatures, the researchers investigated the attributes that enhanced customer satisfaction and implied that they are related to the needs that customers are seeking. For example, Sulek and Hensley (2004) found that attributes such as food quality, restaurant atmosphere, and fairness and efficiency of the seating arrangement had a positive

influence on customer satisfaction for dining in the full service restaurants. Additionally, Andersson and Mossberg (2004) found that food and restaurant attributes were related to different types of customer needs. For instance, customers were more likely to satisfy with low priced fast food products because they can adequately fulfill their physiological needs.

In the case of product design literatures, customer needs are initially identified before the attributes are developed. For example, Hermann, Huber, and Braunstein (2000) used the quality function deployment (QFD) method to identify the key attributes that bridge the gap between customer needs, quality, and customer satisfaction. Besides, Tontini (2007) used Kano's model of satisfaction to determine customer needs by classifying attributes into different types of requirements in order to achieve customer satisfaction. These references indicated how customer needs should be met in order to achieve customer satisfaction.

Although the past studies highlighted the linkage between customer needs and satisfaction, the scholars only determined the attributes to be achieved in order to fulfill customer needs. In this study, we argued that customer satisfaction should be enhanced from the needs that are directly initiated by customers instead of using attributes to represent needs. Since various studies referred that when customer needs are met, the customer satisfaction will be fulfilled while the relationship between customer needs and customer satisfaction has not been investigated, this suggested the second hypothesis (H2).

H2: Customer satisfaction is influenced by customer needs among Thai and Japanese customers for dining in ethnic restaurants.

Additionally, the study of Kim et al. (2002) revealed that customer needs were found as the determinants of purchase behavior for apparel products among Chinese and Korean markets which measured by loyal behavior and amount of purchase. The results revealed that purchase behavior (loyal behavior) was influenced by customer needs. For example, loyal behavior was influenced by experiential needs, social needs and functional needs among Chinese and Korean customers. However, the scholars only examined the relationship between customer needs and past purchase behavior. The relationship between

customer needs and return intention/repatronage intention which could lead to purchase behavior in the future has not been investigated. Besides, the results in Chapter 3 also revealed that both Thai and Japanese participants usually dine in Japanese/Thai restaurants. Therefore, in order to predict the future behavior, we instead use the return intention in this study in which customer needs might also influence on the return intention. The third hypothesis (H3) was developed as follows.

H3: Return intention is influenced by customer needs among Thai and Japanese customers for dining in ethnic restaurants.

Lastly, the evidence of the strong relationship between satisfaction and return intention has been widely acknowledged (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Dongjin et al., 2008; Ryu, Heesup, & Kim, 2008; Wang, 2011). It indicated that the customers who are satisfied are more likely to repeat their purchase in the future. Thus, customers who are satisfied when dining in ethnic restaurants might have an intention to revisit later. Thus, the fourth hypothesis (H4) was stated as follows.

H4: Customer satisfaction positively influences return intention among Thai and Japanese customers for dining in ethnic restaurants.

In addition, the structural model in Figure 4.5 shows the relationship between values, customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention which analyzed by structural equation modeling (SEM). In addition, the values were firstly categorized by using exploratory factor analysis (EFA).

Regarding to the past literature, nine values of LOV can be grouped into different categories. For example, according to the study of Homer and Kahle (1988), these values were classified as (i) internal individual values, (ii) internal interpersonal values, and (iii) external values. However, in the study of Kim et al. (2002), only two groups of values can be classified from Chinese and Korean samples, (i) self-directed values and (ii) social affiliation values. In the study of Arambewela and Hall (2011), the researchers grouped excitement, and fun and enjoyment of life as hedonistic values while other values were

grouped as self-efficacy values. These studies suggested that values can be further grouped in different dimensions which are varied based on different group of consumers. Therefore, values in this study were adopted by Kahle (1983) which consisted of nine values (original concept). These values are excitement, self-fulfillment, self-respect, sense of accomplishment, warm relationship with others, fun and enjoyment of life, sense of belonging, being well respected, and security.

For the customer needs, various scholars classified type of needs into different dimensions. However, in this study, we did not intentionally classify the total customer needs of products and services but would instead like to classify the important customer needs related to dining in ethnic restaurants by building on the ideas from the past studies. For example, three types of customer needs were classified as functional needs, symbolic needs, and experiential needs (Park, Jaworski, & MacInnis, 1986). Functional needs refer to the basic needs that one has to fulfill in order to live his/her life. Symbolic needs pertain to the desire for self-enhancement, social image, status, and social affiliation. Experiential needs involve novelty, sensory pleasure, consumer aesthetics, and variety seeking. The study of Andersson and Mossberg (2004) classified customer needs into physiological needs, social needs, and intellectual needs based on three types of human satisfaction: personal comfort, social comfort, and stimulation (Scitovsky, 1986). For example, physiological needs can be fulfilled by relieving hunger which does not depend whether customers eat out for pleasure or for work. The social needs may be satisfied when customers dine in high acceptable restaurants with friends and family. Intellectual needs may be stimulated when customers try new dishes from the restaurants in an exciting surrounding. From the study of Woods (1960), he defined the customer needs as the demands of products which can be divided into three classes. First, the demand for egoinvolvement in the external symbols presented by the products. Second, the hedonic demand, which relates to the aesthetic. Third, functional demands which reflect little cultural or social meaning. Lastly, the study of Kim et al. (2002) classified the needs into three types; experiential needs, social needs and functional needs that related to the apparel products.

Therefore, by shaping the concept from literature, four types of customer needs were used in this study as presented in Figure 4.5. Functional needs can be fulfilled after one has finished eating and has received the service properly. Symbolic needs can be satisfied by dining in a restaurant that conforms to the social status and image of the ethnic food and service. Social needs can be satisfied when customers dine with friends, family, and coworkers. Experiential needs can be met when customers try new and various kinds of foods and receive entertainment services.

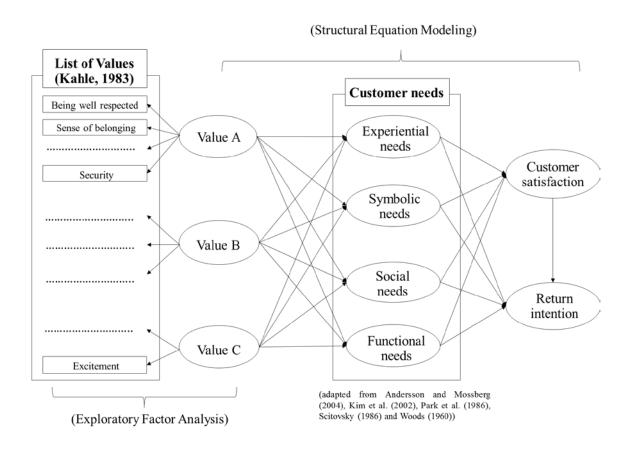


Figure 4.5 Structural Model

4.2.3 Operational Definition

- (1) Values referred to the nine values in List of Values (LOV) that closely related to the values that customer hold in their life.
- (2) Customer needs referred to the desires of customers when dining in ethnic restaurants. In this study, four types of customer needs were classified and used in the analysis.
 - (2.1) Experiential needs referred to the needs that can be fulfilled when customers try new or various kinds of foods, and receive entertainment services.
 - (2.2) Symbolic needs referred to the needs that can be satisfied by dining in a restaurant that conforms to the social status and image of the ethnic food and service.
 - (2.3) Social needs referred to the needs that can be satisfied when customers dine with family, friends and coworkers.
 - (2.4) Functional needs referred to the needs that can be fulfilled after one has finished eating to relieve hunger and has received the service properly.
- (3) Customer satisfaction referred to a positive feeling after receiving the food and service based on their experiences of dining in the ethnic restaurants.
- (4) Return intention was defined as the plan to dine ethnic food and return to the restaurants in the future.

4.3 Methodology

4.3.1 Participants

Participants in this study were scoped to Thai and Japanese customers who have experience of dining in Japanese/Thai restaurants. Particularly, Thai respondents were asked to answer the questionnaire related to Japanese restaurants in Thailand, while Japanese respondents were asked about Thai restaurants in Japan. Since this study focused on return intention and intended to present the values precisely, only the data collected from Thai participants (live in Bangkok) who have experience of dining in Japanese restaurants in Thailand and Japanese participants (live in Tokyo) who have experience of dining in Thai restaurants in Japan were used for further analysis. In total, 828 participants, including 410 Thai participants and 418 Japanese participants were used in this study.

4.3.2 Procedure

4.3.2.1 Data Collection

Data were collected from November 2015 to June 2016. The convenient sampling method was selected in this study. According to Thai culture and environment, there was more difficult to distribute paper-based questionnaire to the participants. In a contrast, online questionnaire was more difficult to distribute in Japan. Thus, both methods were applied in order to collect the data faster. The appropriate amount of samples for SEM is 200 participants (Weston & Gore, 2006). However, larger sample sizes were preferred to present the data precisely, leading to the target of 400 samples in this study. For paper-based questionnaire, each participant was asked to complete the questionnaire and return it to the staff. In Thailand, the questionnaire was distributed in the center of Bangkok near the department stores whereas in Japan, the questionnaire was distributed in Yoyogi park. For online questionnaire, the participants in both countries were asked to complete the questionnaire through online link of Google form posted in social media. The participants were mainly asked about each value that is important to them, and customer needs,

customer satisfaction and return intention based on their experience of dining in Japanese/Thai restaurants. Additionally, Thai participants were given the questionnaire in Thai language while Japanese participants were given the questionnaire in Japanese language in order to avoid the ambiguous meanings. After we reached the target of over 400 samples, the unqualified samples, such as participants who live outside Bangkok and Tokyo, participants who did not have experience of dining in Japanese/Thai restaurants, and participants who did not fully complete the questionnaire were discarded. Thus, a total of 410 Thai samples out of 512 samples (80%) and 418 Japanese samples out of 458 samples (91%) were used in the final data analysis. For Thai samples, the total numbers of paper-based and online questionnaire were 130 (32%) and 280 (68%) respectively. For Japanese samples, 383 (92%) were collected from paper-based and 35 samples (8%) were gathered from online questionnaires.

4.3.2.2 Analysis Method

Step 1: Exploratory factory analysis (EFA) was firstly conducted to (1) extract common values for both countries (total participants) as well as (2) identify the structure of values for each country (separated between Thais and Japanese). In addition, the results of value classification (total participants) were used for further analysis.

Step 2: Structural equation modeling (SEM) was applied to test all the relationships proposed in the hypotheses. In addition, the mediation test was conducted to see whether customer satisfaction was a mediator between customer needs and return intention. The tests were conducted with (1) total participants, (2) Thai participants and (3) Japanese participants. In this study, the SEM models were modified based on the data from participants of each group.

4.3.3 Measurement

4.3.3.1 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire was developed and refined based on the past studies, the interview with a small group of Thai and Japanese participants, and the pilot test (30 people) to assess each construct in the proposed model (Appendices D–F). Since this study utilized both online and paper-based questionnaire, the five-point Likert scale was chosen in order to show all the scales within a page when participants filled in the data online. This would cause fewer mistakes when participants use mobile phone to complete the questionnaire.

For the first section, the nine values of LOV developed by Kahle (1983) were used to measure the values for two countries. In addition, an explanation based on the study by Herche (1994) was added at the end of each value as following. In this section, the participants were asked to rate/assign the score to each of nine values of LOV in which the five-point Likert scale was applied (1 = strongly unimportant to 5 = strongly important).

- (1) Excitement: it is important to me to do something which is not ordinary and live my life by doing exciting activities.
- (2) Fun and enjoyment of life: it is important to me to have fun in life and have entertainment as part of my life.
- (3) Warm relationship with others: it is important to me to care others around myself, support others when they fail, be open-minded and genuine with friends and family.
- (4) Self-fulfillment: it is important to me to take care of myself well, often consume good things and do things as I desire.
- (5) Self-respect: it is important to me to do the right things even others disagree, proud of myself and will not compromise to do things that make me lose self-respect.

- (6) Sense of belonging: it is important to me to be a part of the society, play an important role in the family and be appreciated from close friends and relatives.
- (7) Being well-respected: it is important to me to have good status among others, know others' opinions and care what they think about me.
- (8) Security: it is important to me to have financial and physical safety, and security in life.
- (9) Sense of accomplishment: it is important to me to get everything done properly, see the work done till the end and achieve the task that I am responsible for.

In the second section, ten questions were used to measure the customer needs to be satisfied when dining in Japanese/Thai restaurants. The questions were constructed according to the concept of customer needs based on the studies by Andersson and Mossberg (2004), Kim et al. (2002), Park et al. (1986), Scitovsky (1986) and Woods (1960). As these past studies have shown the association of customer needs, customer satisfaction, and purchase behavior, four types of customer needs were utilized in this study (functional needs, symbolic needs, social needs, and experiential needs). To represent each type of customer needs, at least two questions related to both product and service elements were used in the questionnaire. In addition, the five-point Likert scale (from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) was used in this part of the questionnaire.

The last section examined the customer satisfaction and return intention aspects. These items were measured by adapting questions from hospitality studies (Ryu, Heesup, & Kim, 2008; Wang, 2011). When customers dine in restaurants, they will receive both products and services, and pay for the meals in return. For return intention, the questions were related to the intention to return to the same restaurant and dine in ethnic restaurants soon. Thus, six questions were used for measuring customer satisfaction and return intention. Similar to the second section, the participants were asked to rate the score from strongly disagree to strongly agree (from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

The pilot test was conducted with 30 participants to ensure the language correction, word ambiguous and check the internal linkage of each construct by using Cronbach's

alpha before distributing the final version of the questionnaire. Besides, the questionnaire is first composed in English and translated to Thai by Thai student who is capable for both languages. Similarly, Japanese questionnaire is translated by Japanese student who is capable for both English and Japanese. Later, both versions were back-translated to English to ensure the intended meaning was retained.

4.3.3.2 Homogeneity of Samples

Considering two methods were employed for collecting the questionnaires (online and paper-based), a homogeneity test of the samples was conducted. For Thai samples, 280 were collected from online questionnaires, while 130 samples were from paper-based. For Japanese samples, 383 were from paper-based and 35 samples were gathered from online questionnaires. After conducting homogeneity of variance, there was no statistically significant difference found in Thai samples. However, for Japanese samples, the social needs exhibited a statistically significant difference in variance (p < 0.05). Therefore, the Welch's test of equality of means was conducted which showed no statistically significant difference in means (F(1, 44.82) = 0.14, p = 0.71). As a result, the samples collected from both methods were assumed to be homogeneous.

4.3.3.3 Measurement of Model

In order to justify whether the model is acceptable, various indices were used when performing Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). From various studies, seven indices were used as the guideline for acceptable model (Byrne, 1994; Kaiwan, 2013; Marsh, Balla, & Hau, 1996; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

- (1) The chi-square (χ^2) measures whether the predicted covariance matrix is similar to the observed covariance matrix. If the Chi-square is not significant (p > 0.05), the model is considered an indication of acceptable fit (Kaiwan, 2013).
- (2) The relative chi-square or normed chi-square (χ^2/df) neglects the size of the sample which indicates the acceptable fit between hypothetical model and sample data (Ullman, 2001). The value less than 2 is suggested as the acceptable fit (Byrne, 1994).
- (3) The goodness of fit indices (GFI) measures the fit between overall data and the constructed model which suggests the cut-off value greater than 0.95 (Byrne, 1994).
- (4) Comparative fit index (CFI) compares the fit between an independent model and a proposed model. The value that is greater than 0.93 is suggested as the acceptable fit of the model (Byrne, 1994).
- (5) Normed fit index (NFI) is calculated based on the difference of the chi-square between the proposed model and the independent model, and divided by the chi-square of the null model. The value of NFI indicates the percent improvement of the proposed model. The cut-off values vary from 0.90 (Byrne, 1994) to 0.95 (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).
- (6) Root mean square residual (RMR) represents the square root of the average of covariance residuals. The suggested value should be less than 0.05 (Kaiwan, 2013).
- (7) Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) measures the error in the model which is similar to RMR. Therefore, the lower value indicates a smaller error of the data, typically, the value is less than 0.05 (Steiger, 1990). However, RMSEA that ranges from 0.05 to 0.10 is also considered fair fit indication (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996).

4.4 Results

The results of this study can be classified into six main parts; (1) profile of participants, (2) classification of values without ethnic of participants and separated between Thai and Japanese (3) *t*-test of mean difference of values and customer needs between Thais and Japanese samples, (4) mean of all construct and items, (5) confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results, and (6) structural results of overall participants (total participants) and separated results between Thai and Japanese participants.

4.4.1 Sample Characteristics

The participants' profile is shown in Table 4.1, in which the demographics of both Thai and Japanese are quite similar. The total number of participants in this study is 828 participants classified into two groups, Thais (410 participants) and Japanese (418 participants). More than half of the participants are female. For Thai participants, approximately 71 percent are female, whereas 29 percent are male. For Japanese participants, 64 percent are female, whereas 36 percent are male. Thai respondents with age range of 25–34 years accounted for 68 percent. On the other hand, the age range of Japanese respondents from 25 to 44 years accounted for 66 percent. Most of Thai and Japanese participants are employees, accounted for 69 percent and 64 percent, respectively. However, female participants in Japan include more full-time housewives than female participants in Thailand (31 people and 7 people, respectively). Thus, the number of housewives in Japan was higher.

Table 4.1 Profile of Participants

	Thais	Percentage	Japanese	Percentage
	(n = 410)	(%)	(n = 418)	(%)
Sex				
Male	120	29.3	149	35.6
Female	290	70.7	269	64.4
<u>Age</u>				
Below 20 years	25	6.1	17	4.1
20–24 years	44	10.7	74	17.7
25–34 years	278	67.8	172	41.1
35–44 years	40	9.8	102	24.4
45–54 years	13	3.2	39	9.3
Over 54 years	10	2.4	14	3.3
<u>Occupation</u>				
Employee	282	68.8	268	64.1
Business owner	52	12.7	26	6.2
Housewife	7	1.7	31	7.4
Student	61	14.9	47	11.2
Retired	1	0.2	2	0.5
Others	7	1.7	44	10.5

4.4.2 Classification of Values

In order to extract similar values from customers in both countries, the total number of Thai and Japanese participants was firstly used and the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in SPSS version 17 was utilized. In addition, EFA based on Thai and Japanese samples were also conducted to see the structure of factors for each group of values. Therefore, total 828 samples, and separated groups between 410 Thai sample and 418 Japanese sample were used in this step before conducting CFA and SEM. To reduce the number of items for the further analysis while retaining the original variance, principal component analysis (PCA) and varimax rotation were employed in this study (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003). The results showed that Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) value of 0.74, 0.81 and 0.77 for total participants, Thai samples and Japanese samples, respectively exceed the minimum value of 0.6. Thus, it suggested the appropriateness to use this method (Kaiser, 1974). Besides,

the value of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also significant (p < 0.001), which also ensured that the data were appropriate to use for extraction (Bartlett, 1954).

Various past studies suggested to use the cut-off point of 0.6 regardless of any sample size (Field, 2005; Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). Thus, the items that had factor loading greater than 0.6 were retained. Additionally, those factors had the eigenvalue greater than 1. In this study, three factors were extracted from EFA which represented 72.16 percent of variance, 62.20 percent of variance, and 73.08 percent of variance for total participants, Thai sample and Japanese sample, respectively. The details of component extraction are provided in Table 4.2–Table 4.4. The details of EFA are presented in Appendix I.

Table 4.2 Component Extraction Result (Total Participants)

	I	nitial Eigenva	alues	Rota	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings				
Factors	Total	Percent of variance	Cumulative percent	Total	Percent of Variance	Cumulative percent			
1	2.82	31.37	31.37	2.81	31.25	31.25			
2	2.14	23.83	55.20	2.15	23.88	55.13			
3	1.53	16.97	72.16	1.53	17.04	72.16			
4	0.52	5.78	77.95						
5	0.47	5.20	83.14						
6	0.43	4.80	87.95						
7	0.38	4.26	92.21						
8	0.37	4.07	96.28						
9	0.34	3.72	100.00						

Note: KMO value was 0.74, $\chi^2_{(36)} = 2138.93$ and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (p < 0.001)

Table 4.3 Component Extraction Result (Thai Participants)

]	Initial Eigenv	Rot	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings			
Factors	Total	Percent of variance	nce percent		Percent of Variance	Cumulative percent	
1	3.31	36.82	36.82	2.29	25.40	25.40	
2	1.25	13.88	50.70	1.75	19.46	44.86	
3	1.03	11.50	62.20	1.56	17.34	62.20	
4	0.80	8.85	71.05				
5	0.62	6.93	77.99				
6	0.57	6.33	84.32				
7	0.53	5.92	90.23				
8	0.47	5.23	95.46				
9	0.41	4.54	100.00				

Note: KMO value was 0.81, $\chi^2_{(36)} = 845.13$ and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (p < 0.001)

Table 4.4 Component Extraction Result (Japanese Participants)

Factors]	Initial Eigenv	alues	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings			
Factors	Total	Percent of Cumulative variance percent		Total	Percent of Variance	Cumulative percent	
1	3.16	35.12	35.12	2.90	32.26	32.26	
2	1.92	21.34	56.45	2.17	24.15	56.41	
3	1.50	16.63	73.08	1.50	16.67	73.08	
4	0.53	5.90	78.98				
5	0.45	5.01	83.99				
6	0.41	4.55	88.54				
7	0.39	4.35	92.89				
8	0.35	3.87	96.77				
9	0.29	3.23	100.00				

Note: KMO value was 0.77, $\chi^2_{(36)} = 1380.66$ and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (p < 0.001)

By using varimax (orthogonal) rotation, nine values were classified into three factors, namely (i) society-related values, (ii) individual-related values and (iii) enjoyment-related values. All the factor loadings are described in Table 4.5. From the similarity of the

values in each group (total participants) as presented in the first column of Table 4.5, the first factor (factor 1) was named as society-related values. Four values are relevant to the interaction with others in the society or the influence of the society, including warm relationship with others, sense of belonging, security, and being well respected. The second factor (factor 2) was named as individual-related values (self-respect, self-fulfillment, and sense of accomplishment) which composed of the values that associated with internal individual values. The last factor (factor 3) was named as enjoyment-related values, which consisted of having fun and trying out new things (fun and enjoyment of life, and excitement).

Comparing to the past literatures, the classification of LOV items in this study was more similar to the Homer and Kahle (1988) dimensions that consisted of (i) internal individual values, (ii) internal interpersonal values, and (iii) external values than the study by Kim et al. (2002) which categorized the values into (i) self-actualization and (ii) social affiliation. Nevertheless, excitement, and fun and enjoyment of life were tagged as another group which is similar to the study of Arambewela and Hall (2011).

In addition, the EFA of values for each country was also conducted separately (more details of exploratory factor for Thais and Japanese is presented in the Appendix I). The structure of factors for Japanese was able to be classified similarly to the one with combining total participants. As a result, three factors were extracted which consisted of society-related values (factor 1), individual-related values (factor 2) and enjoyment-related values (factor 3). The factor loading is presented in the right column of Table 4.5. For Thai participants, the result was slightly different. The results revealed that security (V6) was grouped into the individual-related values (factor 3) whereas self-respect (V8) was grouped into the society-related values (factor 1) as can be seen from the factor loading in the middle column of Table 4.5. However, both excitement, and fun and enjoyment of life were grouped into enjoyment-related values (factor 2), similar to the results of extraction with total participants. Regarding to the slightly different results of factor structure between Thais and total participants, the factors as extracted from total participants will be used in the further analysis.

Table 4.5 Factor Loading of Values (LOV)

	Tot	al $(N=8)$	28)	Tha	ais (n = 4)	10)	Japanese $(n = 418)$		
		Factors			Factors			Factors	
Items	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
V1	002	.021	.865	.150	.805	.017	038	.010	.859
V2	.133	.093	.839	.161	.815	.208	.040	034	.864
V3	.808	031	.188	.627	.483	135	.852	094	.085
V4	.823	.021	.011	.797	.134	.154	.843	083	070
V5	.829	.069	.044	.793	.069	.177	.827	060	.002
V6	.809	.045	028	.241	141	.737	.867	092	014
V7	032	.797	.068	.008	.363	.746	076	.847	.002
V8	.013	.816	.063	.548	.121	.233	135	.843	.033
V9	.108	.828	003	.469	.133	.539	052	.846	064

Note: V1 = Excitement, V2 = Fun and enjoyment of life, V3 = Warm relationship with others, V4 = Sense of belonging, V5 = Being well respected, V6 = Security, V7 = Self-fulfillment, V8 = Self-respect, V9 = Sense of accomplishment

4.4.3 Values between Thais and Japanese

In order to see whether Thai and Japanese participants hold different values, the factor scores (Table 4.6) of three groups of values (society-related values, individual-related values and enjoyment-related values) obtained from exploratory factor analysis (EFA) were used to test the difference of mean between Thais and Japanese participants.

Table 4.6 Factor Score Coefficient Matrix (LOV)

Items	Factor1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Warm relationship with others	0.294	-0.048	0.076
Sense of belonging	0.310	-0.011	-0.050
Being well respected	0.309	0.011	-0.030
Security	0.307	0.003	-0.077
Self-fulfillment	-0.037	0.401	0.000
Self-respect	-0.021	0.410	-0.008
Sense of accomplishment	0.019	0.418	-0.060
Excitement	-0.060	-0.042	0.594
Fun and enjoyment of life	-0.009	-0.008	0.563

Note: Factor 1 = Society-related values, Factor 2 = Individual-related values, Factor 3 = Enjoyment-related values

Regarding to t-test results between the means of two groups (Table 4.7), Thai participants' mean scores of society-related values (Thais: M = 0.30, SD = 0.65; Japanese: M = -0.29, SD = 1.18), individual-related values (Thais: M = 0.26, SD = 0.70; Japanese: M = -0.26, SD = 1.17)and enjoyment-related values (Thais: M = 0.06, SD = 0.81; Japanese: M = -0.06, SD = 1.16) were higher than Japanese participants. In addition, there was statistically significant difference between the mean of Thais and Japanese for society-related values (t = 8.91, df = 654.12, p < 0.001) and individual-related values (t = 7.79, df = 680.61, p < 0.001). However, there was no statistically significant difference found between Thais and Japanese for enjoyment-related values (t = 1.80, df = 744.67, p = 0.07). These findings suggested that Thai and Japanese participants are endorsed by enjoyment-related values equally while there are some differences between external and internal values that they hold. In addition, the mean scores showed that Thai participants' scores of society-related values and individual-related values were higher than Japanese participants' scores. These values may lead to different needs to be met when dining in ethnic restaurants.

Table 4.7 t-test of Factor Scores between Thais and Japanese (LOV)

	Thais $(n = 410)$		Japanese (1		
	M	SD	M	SD	<i>t</i> -value
Society-related values	0.30	0.65	-0.29	1.18	8.91***
Individual-related values	0.26	0.70	-0.26	1.17	7.79***
Enjoyment-related values	0.06	0.81	-0.06	1.16	1.80

Note: * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

4.4.4 Mean of Values, Customer Needs, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention

Table 4.8 presents the mean of values between Thais and Japanese. Since '1' means strongly unimportant and '5' means strongly important, higher score could be interpreted as greater importance. For Thai participants, the most two important values were security (M = 4.34, SD = 0.86) and sense of accomplishment (M = 4.34, SD = 0.91), while sense of belonging (M = 3.80, SD = 1.02), being well respected (M = 3.80, SD = 0.99) and excitement (M = 3.80, SD = 0.96), were rated as the least important among other factors.

In addition, warm relationship with others (M = 4.23, SD = 0.97), and fun and enjoyment of life (M = 4.19, SD = 0.79) were rated as the second and the third important values among Thais. For self-fulfillment (M = 3.94, SD = 1.02) and self-respect (M = 3.81, SD = 1.01), these values were rated slightly lower than other values and ranked at the fourth and the fifth, respectively. The results also showed that the most three important values that Thai participants hold come from different groups of values. This suggests that they are highly concern with security and the accomplishment, while still prefer the good relationship with other people in the society and seek for fun and enjoyment in their lives. These mixes of values lead to small differences between each group of values, which implied that they hold every value equally. Thus, the mean of society-related values (M = 4.04, SD = 0.76) dominated by security, while the mean of individual-related values (M = 4.03, SD = 0.82) dominated by sense of accomplishment. Lastly, enjoyment-related values had the lowest mean score (M = 4.00, SD = 0.80), leading by fun and enjoyment of life.

Comparing to Thai participants, every value rated by Japanese participants were lower. With the average score over 3.00 but less than 4.00, this implied moderate importance of each value in the eyes of Japanese which might happened due to humble culture in Japan. The most two important values are excitement (M = 3.81, SD = 1.12), followed by warm relationship with others (M = 3.78, SD = 1.17). It can be noticed that both Thai and Japanese are collectivism which lead to the higher concern on warm relationship with others than other values. Thus, this value dominated the group of societyrelated values (M = 3.54, SD = 0.97). However, fun and enjoyment of life was also reflected as the third rank (M = 3.77, SD = 1.17), suggesting that the young generations hold higher values on enjoyment-related values (M = 3.79, SD = 0.99) than other groups of values, even though the society-related values such as sense of belonging (M = 3.56, SD = 1.12) and security (M = 3.54, SD = 1.17) were rated importantly. Surprisingly, self-respect (M =3.39, SD = 1.09) and being well respected (M = 3.29, SD = 1.10) were rated as the lowest important values. Nevertheless, both self-fulfillment (M = 3.76, SD = 1.08) and sense of accomplishment (M = 3.65, SD = 1.12) were rated at the fourth and fifth rank in which self-fulfillment was the most dominant value in this group (M = 3.60, SD = 0.93). Therefore, the mean of individual-related values was revealed as the second important group of values, followed by society-related values.

Additionally, t-test was conducted to compare the difference of the means between Thai and Japanese for each value as presented in Table 4.8. Since Thai participants typically rated higher score than Japanese participants, some values were found to have statistically significant difference between the mean scores, even though the ranks were different. Among nine values, excitement was found no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of Thais and Japanese which implied that participants in both countries gave high importance to this value (t = -0.12, df = 812.32, p = 0.91). However, the ranking score between two countries was differ. For Thai samples, this score fell as the 6^{th} rank which suggested that there were other values that more important than excitement, whereas Japanese samples' rank was shown at the 1^{st} rank, suggesting the most important value for them. Apart from excitement, other values were found statistically significant difference between the mean scores of two groups, especially security (t = 11.30, df = 765.64, p < 0.001) and sense of accomplishment (t = 9.70, df = 797.17, p < 0.001). In addition, the difference of ranks between two samples supported that Thais gave more importance to these values than Japanese.

For the rest of values, the results revealed that there was significant difference of mean, while the ranks were similar. As can be seen in Table 4.8, there were a large significant difference of mean for being well respected (t = 7.00, df = 819.98, p < 0.001) and self-respect (t = 5.72, df = 822.17, p < 0.001). However, Thai and Japanese participants rated them as the least important values among nine values, suggesting that they did not consider these two values so important in their life. For other values, warm relationship with others (t = 6.00, df = 802.28, p < 0.001), and fun and enjoyment of life (t = 5.98, df = 733.38, p < 0.001), these values were found statistically significant differences between mean while the rankings were not different. These results implied that Thai and Japanese gave more importance to good relationship with other people in the society as well as considered doing fun and enjoyment activities importantly. Nevertheless, the level of importance that they gave to these values was differed which could be noticed that Thai participants gave much higher score than Japanese participants. Even though, Thai and Japanese considered self-fulfillment and sense of belonging as the 4th and the 6th rank, there was slightly statistically significant difference found between the mean of two groups (t = 80.001).

2.41, df = 825.26, p < 0.05; t = 3.09, df = 820.72, p < 0.01, respectively) which implied that Thais gave little higher importance than Japanese.

Table 4.8 Mean of Values

	Thai	s (n =	410)	Japane	ese (n =	= 418)	
	M	SD	Rank	M	SD	Rank	t-test
Society-related values	4.04	0.76		3.54	0.97		-
Warm relationship with others	4.23	0.97	2	3.78	1.17	2	6.00***
Sense of belonging	3.80	1.02	6	3.56	1.12	6	3.09**
Being well respected	3.80	0.99	6	3.29	1.10	9	7.00***
Security	4.34	0.86	1	3.54	1.17	7	11.30***
Individual-related values	4.03	0.82		3.60	0.93		-
Self-fulfillment	3.94	1.02	4	3.76	1.08	4	2.41*
Self-respect	3.81	1.01	5	3.39	1.09	8	5.72***
Sense of accomplishment	4.34	0.91	1	3.65	1.12	5	9.70***
Enjoyment-related values	4.00	0.80		3.79	0.99		-
Excitement	3.80	0.96	6	3.81	1.12	1	-0.12
Fun and enjoyment of life	4.19	0.79	3	3.77	1.17	3	5.98***

Note: 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly unimportant, 5 = strongly important);

In terms of customer needs, the mean scores of both countries were rated similarly. As shown in Table 4.9, functional needs were rated as highest among Thais (M = 4.11, SD = 0.90) and Japanese (M = 3.63, SD = 0.92), followed by social needs in which the mean score of Thais (M = 3.78, SD = 0.87) was slightly higher than Japanese (M = 3.58, SD = 1.01). Nevertheless, while Japanese participants assigned a higher score to the symbolic needs (M = 3.39, SD = 0.97) as the third rank, Thai participants assigned a higher score to experiential needs (M = 3.54, SD = 0.78). Therefore, experiential needs were rated as the fourth rank for Japanese participants (M = 3.24, SD = 0.99), whereas symbolic needs were rated at least for Thai participants (M = 3.46, SD = 1.01). Besides, the mean scores also showed that Thai participants were satisfied when dining in Japanese restaurants (M = 3.95, SD = 0.69) and tended to return again (M = 4.09, SD = 0.70). Similarly, Japanese respondents were also satisfied when dining in Thai restaurants (M = 3.70, SD = 0.78) and they were more likely to revisit again (M = 3.95, SD = 0.83).

^{*} p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Additionally, t-test was conducted to compare the difference of the means between Thai and Japanese participants for each type of customer needs as presented in Table 4.9. Since Thai participants typically rated higher score than Japanese participants, some needs were found to have statistically significant difference between the mean scores of Thai and Japanese sample, even though the rank was different. Among four types of needs, there were statistically significant differences between the mean scores of two samples for functional needs (t = 7.58, df = 825.98, p < 0.001) and social needs (t = 2.99, df = 811.17,p < 0.01), while the ranks were similar (functional needs: the 1st rank and social needs: the 2nd rank). These results implied that these two types of customer need were more preferred than other types of needs when Thai and Japanese participants dined in ethnic restaurants but the level of perception was different, leading to the significant results for functional needs and social needs. For symbolic needs, there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of two groups (t = 1.01, df = 822.62, p = 0.31), implying that participants in both countries preferred this type of needs similarly when dining in ethnic restaurants. However, there was statistically significant difference between the mean scores of experiential needs (t = 4.80, df = 787.72, p < 0.001), indicating that Thai participants slightly preferred experiential needs that Japanese participants. With lower ranks, it suggested that Thai and Japanese participants dine in ethnic restaurants to satisfy their symbolic needs as well as experiential needs, but less than social needs and functional needs.

Table 4.9 Mean of Customer needs, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention

	Т	hais (n	= 410)	Japa	nese (n	= 418)	
	M	SD	Rank	M	SD	Rank	t-test
Experiential needs	3.54	0.78	3	3.24	0.99	4	4.80***
Symbolic needs	3.46	1.01	4	3.39	0.97	3	1.01
Social needs	3.78	0.87	2	3.58	1.01	2	2.99**
Functional needs	4.11	0.90	1	3.63	0.92	1	7.58***
Customer satisfaction	3.95	0.69	-	3.70	0.78	-	-
Return intention	4.09	0.70	-	3.95	0.83	-	-

Note: 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree);

^{*} p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

4.4.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Before conducting structural equation modelling (SEM) the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was firstly conducted to validate whether the multiple manifest indicators reflected the underlying latent constructs by using AMOS version 21. Therefore, the CFA results from total participants (total participants) and separated between Thais and Japanese are presented in Tables 4.10–4.12, respectively. The results supported the convergent validity of measures since all factor loadings are significant at p < 0.001 and most of the average variance extracted (AVE) exceeded the minimum criterion of 0.5 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). While the AVE of some factors was slightly below 0.5, reliability values exceeded the minimum (0.6), suggesting a moderate internal consistency between items in the constructs (Duhachek, Coughlan, & Iacobucci, 2005). Therefore, these manifest measurement items were not removed from the proposed model. In addition, the square correlation between constructs (based on the correlation in Tables 4.13–4.15) was less than the AVE, confirming discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The measurement model fitted with the data well based on the goodness-fit indices and the p-value were greater than 0.05 for total participants model (p = 0.07), Thai participants model (p = 0.07) and Japanese participants model (p = 0.08).

Table 4.10 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Total Participants)

		Total particip	pants	
Construct and items	Loading	<i>t</i> -value	Reliability	AVE
Society-related values (SOCV)			0.85	0.60
Warm relationship with others	0.78	22.08		
Sense of belonging	0.79	19.26		
Being well respected	0.79	19.22		
Security	0.71	N/A		
Individual-related values (IDV)			0.80	0.57
Self-fulfillment	0.74	19.34		
Self-respect	0.75	19.38		
Sense of accomplishment	0.78	N/A		
Enjoyment-related values (ENJV)			0.68	0.52
Excitement	0.72	11.74		
Fun and enjoyment of life	0.72	N/A		
Experiential needs (EXP)			0.73	0.42
Experiential needs 1	0.74	13.49		
Experiential needs 2	0.75	13.52		
Experiential needs 3	0.50	12.11		
Experiential needs 4	0.55	N/A		
Symbolic needs (SYM)			0.73	0.58
Symbolic needs 1	0.70	10.68		
Symbolic needs 2	0.82	N/A		
Social needs (SOC)			0.71	0.55
Social needs 1	0.75	N/A		
Social needs 2	0.73	15.28		
Functional needs (FUNC)			0.73	0.57
Functional needs 1	0.75	15.02		
Functional needs 2	0.76	N/A		
Customer satisfaction (SAT)			0.85	0.65
Satisfaction 1	0.82	N/A		
Satisfaction 2	0.87	27.11		
Satisfaction 3	0.72	22.08		
Return intention (RI)			0.81	0.59
Return intention 1	0.80	N/A		
Return intention 2	0.76	20.68		
Return intention 3	0.74	20.50		

Note: All factor loadings are significant at p < 0.001. t-values were not obtained for the fixed items (1.00) due to the maximum likelihood estimation. Thai samples: $\chi^2_{(217)} = 249.12$, $\chi^2/df = 1.15$, GFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.97, RMR = 0.03, RMSEA = 0.01

Table 4.11 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Thai Participants)

		Thai particip	ants		
Construct and items	Loading	<i>t</i> -value	Reliability	AVE	
Society-related values (SOCV)			0.81	0.53	
Warm relationship with others	0.75	9.68			
Sense of belonging	0.80	9.03			
Being well respected	0.81	9.04			
Security	0.50	N/A			
Individual-related values (IDV)			0.78	0.56	
Self-fulfillment	0.74	13.06			
Self-respect	0.69	12.39			
Sense of accomplishment	0.80	N/A			
Enjoyment-related values (ENJV)			0.77	0.63	
Excitement	0.82	11.04			
Fun and enjoyment of life	0.77	N/A			
Experiential needs (EXP)			0.72	0.41	
Experiential needs 1	0.70	8.12			
Experiential needs 2	0.75	8.28			
Experiential needs 3	0.57	8.26			
Experiential needs 4	0.50	N/A			
Symbolic needs (SYM)			0.71	0.56	
Symbolic needs 1	0.76	7.87			
Symbolic needs 2	0.73	N/A			
Social needs (SOC)			0.72	0.57	
Social needs 1	0.75	N/A			
Social needs 2	0.76	10.22			
Functional needs (FUNC)			0.73	0.58	
Functional needs 1	0.78	11.93			
Functional needs 2	0.74	N/A			
Customer satisfaction (SAT)			0.86	0.69	
Satisfaction 1	0.79	N/A			
Satisfaction 2	0.90	18.76			
Satisfaction 3	0.79	16.74			
Return intention (RI)			0.81	0.57	
Return intention 1	0.76	N/A			
Return intention 2	0.74	13.07			
Return intention 3	0.76	13.30			

Note: All factor loadings are significant at p < 0.001. t-values were not obtained for the fixed items (1.00) due to the maximum likelihood estimation. Thai samples: $\chi^2_{(233)} = 265.35$, $\chi^2/df = 1.14$, GFI = 0.95, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.93, RMR = 0.04, RMSEA = 0.02

Table 4.12 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Japanese Participants)

	Ja	panese partic	cipants		
Construct and items	Loading	<i>t</i> -value	Reliability	AVE	
Society-related values (SOCV)			0.87	0.63	
Warm relationship with others	0.80	18.25			
Sense of belonging	0.79	17.73			
Being well respected	0.75	16.83			
Security	0.84	N/A			
Individual-related values (IDV)			0.81	0.58	
Self-fulfillment	0.78	13.91			
Self-respect	0.76	13.75			
Sense of accomplishment	0.75	N/A			
Enjoyment-related values (ENJV)			0.66	0.50	
Excitement	0.75	7.75			
Fun and enjoyment of life	0.65	N/A			
Experiential needs (EXP)			0.75	0.44	
Experiential needs 1	0.75	11.44			
Experiential needs 2	0.71	11.09			
Experiential needs 3	0.52	8.82			
Experiential needs 4	0.66	N/A			
Symbolic needs (SYM)			0.76	0.62	
Symbolic needs 1	0.77	9.87			
Symbolic needs 2	0.80	N/A			
Social needs (SOC)			0.70	0.54	
Social needs 1	0.75	N/A			
Social needs 2	0.72	11.04			
Functional needs (FUNC)			0.70	0.54	
Functional needs 1	0.77	9.35			
Functional needs 2	0.70	N/A			
Customer satisfaction (SAT)			0.83	0.63	
Satisfaction 1	0.84	N/A			
Satisfaction 2	0.86	19.64			
Satisfaction 3	0.66	14.38			
Return intention (RI)			0.82	0.61	
Return intention 1	0.82	N/A			
Return intention 2	0.76	15.65			
Return intention 3	0.76	15.53			

Notes: All factor loadings are significant at p < 0.001. t-values were not obtained for the fixed items (1.00) due to the maximum likelihood estimation. Japanese samples: $\chi^2_{(239)} = 269.74$, $\chi^2/df = 1.13$, GFI = 0.95, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.94, RMR = 0.04, RMSEA = 0.02

In addition, correlations for each factor for total participants, Thai and Japanese participants are presented in Table 4.13, Table 4.14 and Table 4.15, respectively. Besides, the correlations between each pair of factors were less than or equaled to 0.6 which caused the square correlation to be less than the AVE values for every factor. For example, the square correlation between customer satisfaction and return intention in Table 4.14 was 0.28 which calculated from $(0.53)^2$, and was less that AVE value in Table 4.11. Thus, the results confirmed that there was no multicollinearity in this study.

Table 4.13 *Correlation Matrix (Total Participants)*

	SOCV	IDV	ENJV	EXP	SYM	SOCN	FUNC	SAT	RI
SOCV	1.00								
IDV	-0.02	1.00							
ENJV	0.06	0.01	1.00						
EXP	0.08	0.13	0.58	1.00					
SYM	0.02	0.28	0.37	0.35	1.00				
SOCN	0.51	-0.02	0.14	0.12	0.07	1.00			
FUNC	0.07	0.65	0.09	0.34	0.28	0.06	1.00		
SAT	0.31	0.07	0.22	0.35	0.28	0.63	0.19	1.00	
RI	0.28	0.03	0.20	0.29	0.20	0.42	0.16	0.71	1.00

Note: SOCV = Society-related values, IDV = Individual-related values, ENJV = Enjoyment-related values, EXP = Experiential needs, SYM = Symbolic needs, SOCN = Social needs, FUNC = Functional needs, SAT = Customer satisfaction, RI = Return intention; all correlations are significant at p < 0.05 except the correlations between pairs of constructs that are less than 0.10

Table 4.14 *Correlation Matrix (Thai Participants)*

	SOCV	IDV	ENJV	EXP	SYM	SOCN	FUNC	SAT	RI
SOCV	1.00								_
IDV	0.05	1.00							
ENJV	0.07	-0.02	1.00						
EXP	0.03	0.02	0.47	1.00					
SYM	-0.08	0.16	0.27	0.27	1.00				
SOCN	0.38	0.02	0.08	0.04	0.04	1.00			
FUNC	0.02	0.44	0.06	0.32	0.21	0.03	1.00		
SAT	0.10	0.09	0.19	0.30	0.26	0.43	0.24	1.00	
RI	0.07	0.09	0.12	0.21	0.22	0.25	0.20	0.53	1.00

Note: SOCV = Society-related values, IDV = Individual-related values, ENJV = Enjoyment-related values, EXP = Experiential needs, SYM = Symbolic needs, SOCN = Social needs, FUNC = Functional needs, SAT = Customer satisfaction, RI = Return intention; all correlations are significant at p < 0.05 except the correlations between pairs of constructs that are less than 0.10

Table 4.15 *Correlation Matrix (Japanese Participants)*

	SOCV	IDV	ENJV	EXP	SYM	SOCN	FUNC	SAT	RI
SOCV	1.00								
IDV	-0.01	1.00							
ENJV	0	-0.02	1.00						
EXP	-0.02	0.06	0.39	1.00					
SYM	0.01	0.26	0.3	0.3	1.00				
SOCN	0.41	-0.07	0.10	0.06	0.07	1.00			
FUNC	-0.07	0.43	0.04	0.10	0.22	0.04	1.00		
SAT	0.28	0.01	0.16	0.32	0.23	0.49	0.17	1.00	
RI	0.30	0.06	0.13	0.23	0.10	0.35	0.10	0.60	1.00

Note: SOCV = Society-related values, IDV = Individual-related values, ENJV = Enjoyment-related values, EXP = Experiential needs, SYM = Symbolic needs, SOCN = Social needs, FUNC = Functional needs, SAT = Customer satisfaction, RI = Return intention; all correlations are significant at p < 0.05 except the correlations between pairs of constructs that are less than 0.10

4.4.6 Structural Results

4.4.6.1 Structural Result (Total participants)

In this model, we used the total number of Thai and Japanese participants (828 samples). Regarding to the results of structural equation modeling (SEM) along with maximum likelihood method, the overall results showed that the model is acceptable as the model fit values were greater than the cut-off values as mentioned above ($\chi^2_{(232)} = 260.69$, $\chi^2/df = 1.12$, GFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.97, RMR = 0.03, RMSEA = 0.01). Regarding to the adjusted model to yield the *p*-value > 0.05 (Kaiwan, 2013), the *p*-value of 0.09 indicated that the model was acceptable (please see the full model in Appendix K). The structural result is presented in Figure 4.6.

The results showed that enjoyment-related values positively influenced different types of needs, mainly experiential needs ($\chi_{31} = 0.68$, t = 7.10, p < 0.001) and symbolic needs ($\chi_{32} = 0.53$, t = 6.99, p < 0.001). Since these values involved fun and enjoyment of life, and excitement, it can be expected that the customers who hold these values are more likely to seek for new experiences and sensory pleasure when dining in ethnic restaurants. In addition, it can be noticed that this group of values also motivate the needs for self-

enhancing such as symbolic needs. Nevertheless, a small influence from these values to social needs were found significantly ($\gamma_{33} = 0.15$, t = 2.45, p < 0.05). These results suggested that people who hold enjoyment-related values would seek for different types of needs when dining in ethnic restaurants and tend to do something different from their routines. Thus, this group of values did not influence on functional needs which is considered as the basic needs that can be fulfilled by other types of the restaurants ($\gamma_{34} = 0.10$, t = 1.99, p = 0.06).

Next, the individual related-values were found to influence mainly with functional needs ($\gamma_{24} = 0.65$, t = 12.78, p < 0.001) and symbolic needs ($\gamma_{22} = 0.26$, t = 5.59, p < 0.001). However, this group of values slightly influenced on experiential needs as well ($\gamma_{21} = 0.17$, t = 2.75, p < 0.05). Since this group of values are derived from the internal individual values such as self-respect and self-fulfillment, these values motivate customers to seek for the needs that particularly response to themselves rather than the needs that involve interaction with society. Thus, small negative value indicated the unrelated relationship between individual-related values and social needs ($\gamma_{23} = -0.01$, t = -0.19, p = 0.85).

The last values are society-related values. The results showed that this group of values had a positive influence to the social needs ($\gamma_{13} = 0.49$, t = 10.57, p < 0.001), while this group of values did not influence to other types of needs ($\gamma_{11} = 0.01$, t = 0.07, p = 0.95; $\gamma_{14} = 0.07$, t = 1.77, p = 0.08). In addition, it can be seen that there was a negative standardized path coefficient from society-related values to the symbolic needs ($\gamma_{12} = -0.05$, t = -1.17, p = 0.24). Since this group of values consisted of warm relationship with others, sense of belonging, security, and being well respected, it is more likely to motivate the needs that relate to interaction with other people in the society.

Among four types of needs, social needs were found to have the strongest influence on customer satisfaction which implied that most of the Thai and Japanese customers dine in the ethnic restaurants for socializing with family, friends or coworkers ($\beta_{35} = 0.59$, t = 12.93, p < 0.001). While other groups of customer dine in the restaurants to enjoy their experiential needs ($\beta_{15} = 0.22$, t = 5.17, p < 0.001) and fulfilling symbolic needs ($\beta_{25} = 0.19$, t = 3.74, p < 0.001). In a contrast, functional needs were found no significant influence on

customer satisfaction ($\beta_{45} = 0.01$, t = 0.23, p = 0.82). Since ethnic restaurants provide unique foods and services more than other restaurants, the customers are more likely to seek for the needs beyond the basic needs.

However, none of customer needs directly influence on return intention ($\beta_{16} = 0.05$, t = 1.22, p = 0.22; $\beta_{26} = -0.02$, t = -0.55, p = 0.58; $\beta_{36} = -0.03$, t = -0.49, p = 0.62; $\beta_{46} = 0.01$, t = 0.30, p = 0.76), whereas the customer satisfaction positively influenced on return intention in this study ($\beta_{56} = 0.72$, t = 11.56, p < 0.001). These findings suggested that customer satisfaction could be a mediator between customer needs and return intention. Therefore, the mediation test was conducted in the following section.

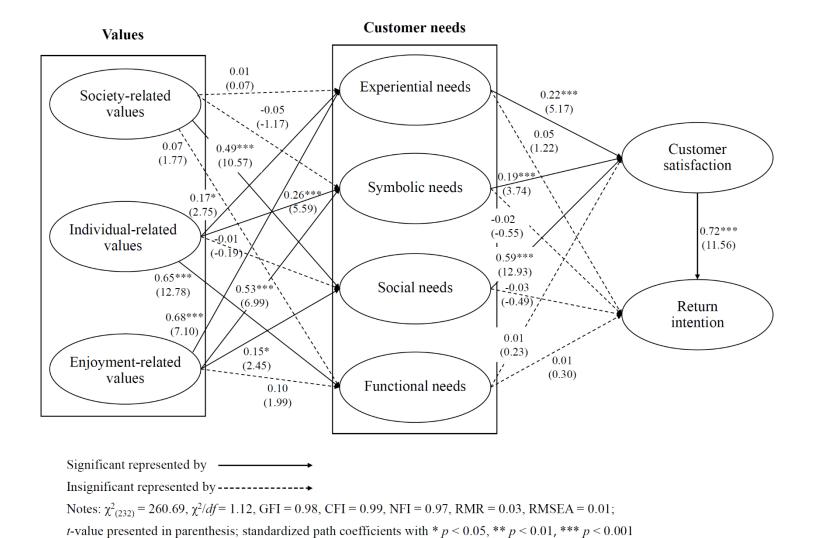


Figure 4.6 Structural Result (Total participants)

4.4.6.2 Structural Result (Thai and Japanese Participants)

Next, the separate analysis of two countries was conducted. For this part, the SEM results from both Thai and Japanese participants revealed that the model was found to fit the data well for both countries based on the goodness-of-fit indices (Thai samples: $\chi^2_{(244)} = 274.58$, χ^2/df = 1.13, GFI = 0.95, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.93, RMR = 0.04, RMSEA = 0.02; Japanese samples: $\chi^2_{(250)} = 282.74$, $\chi^2/df = 1.13$, GFI = 0.95, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.93, RMR = 0.05, RMSEA = 0.02). Based on the adjusted model to yield the p-value > 0.05 (Kaiwan, 2013), the p-value of Thai model was 0.09 while the p-value of Japanese model was 0.08 (please see the full model in Appendix K). These values suggested that the model was acceptable since the p-value is greater than 0.05. When conducting the SEM for each country separately, the results were slightly different from testing all participants together (total participants). The results from both countries revealed that value positively influenced customer needs as presented in Figure 4.7 and 4.8. Based on the standardized path coefficient, it was clearly noticed that enjoyment-related values positively influenced the experiential needs in both countries (Thais: $y_{31} = 0.63$, t = 8.64, p < 0.001; Japanese: $y_{31} = 0.63$ 0.58, t = 7.21, p < 0.001) which is similar to the first model ($\chi_{31} = 0.68$, t = 7.10, p < 0.001). However, little weaker relationship can be found in both Thais and Japanese. Besides, this group of values were found to positively influenced the symbolic needs (Thais: $y_{32} = 0.40$, t = 5.72, p < 0.001; Japanese: $y_{32} = 0.50$, t = 6.34, p < 0.001). The results also similar to the first model ($\chi_{32} = 0.53$, t = 6.99, p < 0.001). In a contrast, there was no significant relationship between this group of values, social needs (Thais: $\chi_{33} = 0.12$, t = 1.88, p =0.06; Japanese: $y_{33} = 0.14$, t = 2.16, p = 0.06) and functional needs (Thais: $y_{34} = 0.13$, t = 0.16) 2.22, p = 0.06; Japanese: $\chi_{34} = 0.09$, t = 1.48, p = 0.09), which differed from the first model that these values had a little positive influence on social needs ($\chi_{33} = 0.15$, t = 2.45, p <0.05). It implied that people who hold enjoyment-related values will seek for the experiential needs and symbolic needs while there is a small chance that they will also look for social needs.

For individual-related values, this group of values positively influenced the functional needs (Thais: $y_{24} = 0.62$, t = 9.22, p < 0.001; Japanese: $y_{24} = 0.65$, t = 8.92, p < 0.001). Compared to the first model ($y_{24} = 0.65$, t = 12.78, p < 0.001), the standardized

path coefficient of Japanese group is similar, whereas it is slightly weaker in the group of Thais. Besides, this group of values was also found to positively influenced symbolic needs (Thais: $\gamma_{22} = 0.23$, t = 3.58, p < 0.001; Japanese: $\gamma_{22} = 0.37$, t = 5.64, p < 0.001) in which the result of Thais was slightly lower than the result when combined all participants ($\gamma_{22} = 0.26$, t = 5.59, p < 0.001). On the other hand, when testing two groups of participants separately, these values did not strongly influence enough to the experiential needs (Thais: $\gamma_{21} = 0.09$, t = 1.60, p = 0.11; Japanese: $\gamma_{21} = 0.08$, t = 1.39, p = 0.17), suggesting different results from combining all participants together ($\gamma_{21} = 0.17$, t = 2.75, p < 0.05). In addition, there was no significant relationship between individual-related values and social needs (Thais: $\gamma_{23} = -0.02$, t = -0.36, p = 0.72; Japanese: $\gamma_{23} = 0.02$, t = 0.36, t = 0.72). These findings implied that Thai and Japanese customers who hold this group of values were more likely to seek for functional needs and symbolic needs when dining in ethnic restaurants.

For society-related values, these values were found to positively influence the social needs in both countries (Thais: $\gamma_{13} = 0.36$, t = 5.06, p < 0.001; Japanese: $\gamma_{13} = 0.57$, t = 8.62, p < 0.001). It can be seen that the standardized path coefficient is weaker in the group of Thais than combining total participants in the first model ($\gamma_{13} = 0.49$, t = 10.57, p < 0.001). For Japanese participants, the relationship between this group of values and other types of needs were found no statistically significance ($\gamma_{11} = 0.03$, t = 0.48, p = 0.63; $\gamma_{12} = 0.11$, t = 1.90, p = 0.06; $\gamma_{14} = 0.10$, t = 1.71, p = 0.09). In addition, negative path coefficient from society-related values to other types of customer needs were found in Thai model which suggested that only customers who hold society-related values are more likely to seek for social needs only when they dine in the ethnic restaurants ($\gamma_{11} = -0.02$, t = -0.31, t = 0.75; $t_{12} = -0.16$, t = -2.49, t = 0.06; $t_{14} = -0.02$, t = -0.32, t = 0.75). These results are similar to the results from the total participants model in Figure 4.6.

When comparing the SEM results between (1) without ethnic group and (2) separated ethnic group, the results were slightly different. It can be noticed that when total participants are included in the model, individual-related values and enjoyment-related values slightly associated with experiential needs and social needs, respectively. However,

when the group of participants was divided into Thais and Japanese, other values had larger effects on those types of needs, leading to no significant relationship in this study.

The relationship between customer needs and customer satisfaction was found to be significant for Thai and Japanese participants; especially social needs, the main motivation for dining in ethnic restaurants (Thais: $\beta_{35} = 0.52$, t = 7.96, p < 0.001; Japanese: $\beta_{35} = 0.65$, t = 9.83, p < 0.001). These results are similar to the first model (total participants) which showed that this group of values strongly influenced customer satisfaction ($\beta_{35} = 0.59$, t = 12.93, p < 0.001). Besides, the experiential needs were found to be another determinant of customer satisfaction for Japanese customers ($\beta_{15} = 0.25$, t =4.67, p < 0.001), while symbolic needs influenced customer satisfaction for Thai participants ($\beta_{25} = 0.21$, t = 3.61, p < 0.001). In a contrast, functional needs were not found to influence on customer satisfaction (Thais: $\beta_{45} = 0.15$, t = 2.15, p = 0.06; Japanese: $\beta_{45} =$ 0.10, t = 1.83, p = 0.07) for both countries. These results are corresponding to the first model when the data of all participants are used for the analysis, all three types of customer needs (experiential needs, symbolic needs and social needs) were found to influence customer satisfaction ($\beta_{15} = 0.22$, t = 5.17, p < 0.001; $\beta_{25} = 0.19$, t = 3.74, p < 0.001; $\beta_{35} =$ 0.59, t = 12.93, p < 0.001). As a result, when we separated the group of participants, it can be clearly seen that experiential needs were motivated from the group of Japanese, while symbolic needs were motivated from the group of Thais.

In this proposed model, it was found that none of the customer needs directly influenced return intention for Thais ($\beta_{16} = 0.04$, t = 0.54, p = 0.59; $\beta_{26} = 0.10$, t = 1.67, p = 0.10; $\beta_{36} = 0.01$, t = -0.01, p = 0.99; $\beta_{46} = 0.04$, t = 0.64, p = 0.52) and Japanese ($\beta_{16} = 0.05$, t = 0.95, p = 0.34; $\beta_{26} = -0.10$, t = -1.87, p = 0.62; $\beta_{36} = -0.01$, t = -0.07, p = 0.95; $\beta_{46} = 0.02$, t = 0.35, p = 0.72) which is similar to the results of the first model. Lastly, the customer satisfaction was found to positively influence the return intention in both countries, in which the standardized path coefficient of Japanese sample was higher than Thai sample (Thais: $\beta_{56} = 0.57$, t = 7.15, p < 0.001; Japanese: $\beta_{56} = 0.77$, t = 8.24, p < 0.001).

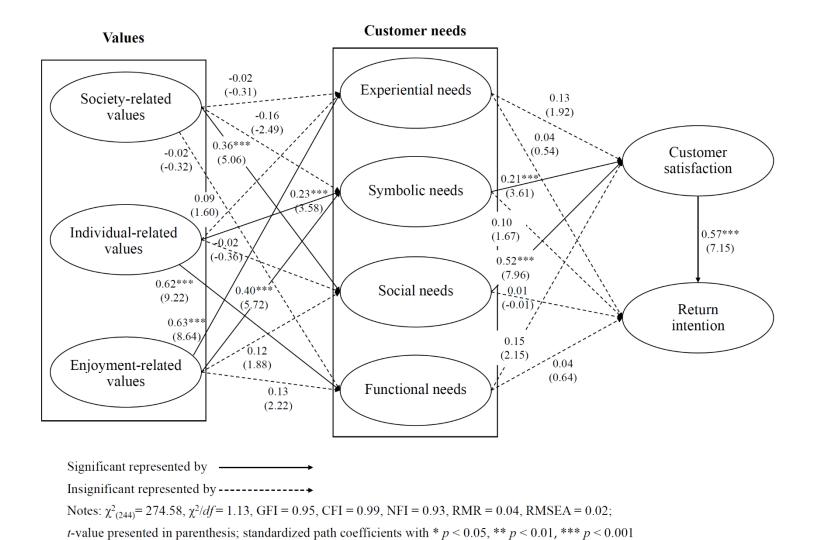


Figure 4.7 Structural Result (Thai participants)

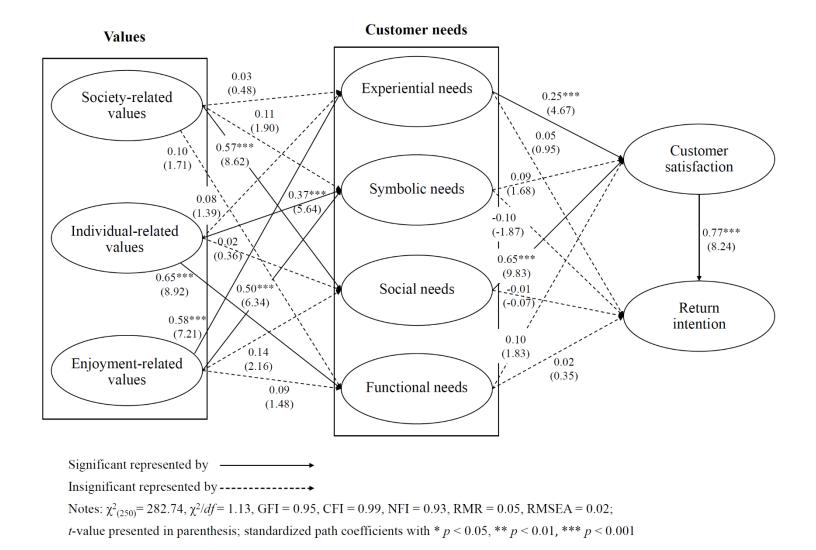


Figure 4.8 Structural Result (Japanese participants)

Finally, the summary of all hypotheses are presented in Table 4.16. Since each type of customer needs was positively influenced by the values in every model, we concluded that H1 was supported. In addition, only experiential needs have an influence on customer satisfaction in the first model (total participants) and in Japanese participants model. On the other hand, symbolic needs were found to influence on customer satisfaction in the first model (total participants) and in Thai participants model. For social needs, this type of needs was found to highly influence customer satisfaction regardless of any model. Nevertheless, functional needs did not influence customer satisfaction. Thus, H2 was partially supported. For the relationship between customer needs and return intention, there was no statistically significant relationship found in any models, suggesting the rejection of H3. Lastly, the results showed that customer satisfaction positively influenced return intention, indicating the support of H4.

Table 4.16 Summary of Hypotheses for Structural Results

Hypotheses	Relationships	Results
H1	Values → Customer needs	Supported
H2	Customer needs → Customer satisfaction	Partially Supported
H3	Customer needs → Return intention	Not supported
H4	Customer satisfaction → Return intention	Supported

4.4.7 Mediation Test

None of the past studies has investigated the relationship between customer needs, customer satisfaction, and return intention. In order to fully understand the relationship between these factors, the mediation test was examined to see whether customer satisfaction mediated the customer needs and return intention relationship (Table 4.17). As suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), first, the direct relationship between customer needs and return intention (without customer satisfaction) was tested. The relationship was statistically significant for total participants ($\beta_{16} = 0.21$, t = 4.49, p < 0.001; $\beta_{26} = 0.11$, t = 2.38, p < 0.05; $\beta_{36} = 0.56$, t = 11.47, p < 0.001), and for separated groups between Thai

(β₂₆ = 0.27, t = 3.98, p < 0.001; β₃₆ = 0.40, t = 6.00, p < 0.001), and Japanese samples (β₁₆ = 0.27, t = 4.68, p < 0.001; β₃₆ = 0.69, t = 9.79, p < 0.001). Second, the constrained model (fixed the customer needs–return intention relationship to zero) was tested to obtain the chi-square statistics. For the model from all participants, the results of chi-square difference between the constrained model (χ^2 ₍₂₃₆₎ = 263.14) and proposed model (χ^2 ₍₂₃₂₎ = 260.69) indicated that the constrained model is not statistically different from the proposed model since the difference of p-value was larger than 0.05 ($\Delta\chi^2$ ₍₄₎ = 2.45, p > 0.05). Similarly, there was no significant relationship between constrained model (Thais: χ^2 ₍₂₄₈₎ = 280.48; Japanese: χ^2 ₍₂₅₄₎ = 286.27) and proposed model (Thais: χ^2 ₍₂₄₄₎ = 274.58; Japanese: χ^2 ₍₂₅₀₎ = 282.74) for both Thai model ($\Delta\chi^2$ ₍₄₎ = 5.90, p > 0.05) and Japanese model ($\Delta\chi^2$ ₍₄₎ = 3.53, p > 0.05). Therefore, this findings indicate that customer satisfaction serves as a full mediator between customer needs and return intention.

Table 4.17 Results of Mediating Effect

	Needs → RI (without CS)	Constrained model	Proposed model	$\Delta \chi^2$
Total participants	$\beta_{16} = 0.21, t = 4.49$ $\beta_{26} = 0.11, t = 2.38$ $\beta_{36} = 0.56, t = 11.47$	$\chi^2 = 263.14$ $df = 236$	$\chi^2 = 260.69$ $df = 232$	$\Delta \chi^2_{(4)} = 2.45$ $p > 0.05$
Thais	$\beta_{26} = 0.27, t = 3.98$ $\beta_{36} = 0.40, t = 6.00$	$\chi^2 = 280.48$ $df = 248$	$\chi^2 = 274.58$ $df = 244$	$\Delta \chi^2_{(4)} = 5.90$ $p > 0.05$
Japanese	$\beta_{16} = 0.27, t = 4.68$ $\beta_{36} = 0.69, t = 9.79$	$\chi^2 = 286.27$ $df = 254$	$\chi^2 = 282.74$ $df = 250$	$\Delta \chi^2_{(4)} = 3.53$ $p > 0.05$

4.5 Discussion

Among the nine values, Thai and Japanese customers were revealed that they hold some different values when we look at the highest mean score of each value. Due to the protests and economic downturn in Thailand during the past 2–3 years, people might be feeling insecure. Thus, security in physical and monetary terms reflected as the most important value in daily life for Thai people. This result can be found in a group of people

who lack of economic and psychological security (Kahle & Kennedy, 1988). Besides, the intention to achieve the goal (sense of accomplishment) was also found to carry importance. Since the participants in this study are working generations, the values that they hold are also similar to the study of Singhapakdi, Rallapalli, Rao and Vitell (1995) which showed that sense of accomplishment was rated remarkably high for the top marketers in Thailand.

On the other hand, excitement (doing something extraordinary) was rated as the most important value by Japanese customers. This result is similar to the score of Americans which showed that excitement as the most important value for them (Kahle, 1984; Kahle, Poulos, & Sukhdial, 1988). However, Yamagishi, Hashimoto, and Schug (2008) revealed that Japanese people preferred the uniqueness, but once they were observed by other people, the uniqueness declined. It is worth noting that this result differs from the study of Kohlbacher and Chéron (2011) which showed that elderly Japanese customers gave the lowest importance to excitement while they rated higher values on warm relationships with others. In addition, they still give high value to good relationship with others which formed a harmonize culture that can be seen in Japan. Surprisingly, being well respected was rated as the least important values, which implied that Japanese concerned less on having good status among other people and care what others think about them. This values were expected to be found importantly for Japanese according to the high score on masculinity (Hofstede et al., 2010). However, the results might be different because majority of the participants in this study were female. Even though both Thailand and Japan are located in Asia, the values they hold are quite different. While Thai samples weighted every group of values equally, Japanese samples clearly weighted the highest score to enjoyment-related values.

In this study, we employed LOV theory (Kahle, 1983) because these values are closely related to consumer behavior which would be precise more than viewing the results from national culture (Hofstede et al., 2010). From the EFA, these values can be classified into three groups, society-related values, individual-related values and enjoyment-related values. As we explored the values in smaller scale, different results can be found. According to six dimensions of national culture, we would like to discuss three dimensions that related to customer behavior for consuming ethnic food in the restaurants.

First, both Thais and Japanese are endorsed by collectivism, suggesting the demand for social needs when customers dined in ethnic restaurants, in which this type of needs was influenced from society-related values. The ranking score also revealed that Thais and Japanese focused on warm relationship with others as the second important value among nine values. This result was supported from Hirai (2000) which revealed that the Japanese are endorsed as collectivist due to the perceived norm while, on average, they are individualist. However, there was significant difference between the mean scores of Thais and Japanese for society-related values (Table 4.7). Thus, even customers in both countries looked for social needs when dining in ethnic restaurants, there were also some differences between the society-related values that they hold.

Second, the individual-related values were found to be important for Thais and Japanese differently. These values are similar to the masculinity dimension which refers to the demand for achievement and assertiveness. Even though, Thais endorsed by femininity, a individual-related values was carried out as the important level as society-related values. The ranking score of sense of accomplishment were rated importantly as the first rank among nine values, still other values in this group were also found moderated important. For Japanese, the results also showed that they are more likely to ignore this group of values since the ranking score of self-respect was rated as the eight rank and other two values also rated at the fourth (self-fulfillment) and the fifth rank (sense of accomplishment), although they are endorsed by masculinity. It could be noticed that the majority of participants in our study are female, especially in Japan that the number of housewife also greater than Thailand. Therefore, this group of values was not dominant for Japanese group as stated in Hofstede's dimension. This also led to the significant difference of mean of individual-related values between two countries. In addition, this group of values influenced Thai customers to demand for symbolic needs.

Third, the ranking score of fun and enjoyment of life showed that Japanese are more likely to hold this group of values more than other groups of values. This group of values can be viewed as indulgence from national culture. Similarly, these values were slightly less important than society-related values and individual-related values among Thai customers. Even though, Japanese rated excitement as the first rank, the overall mean

score were found no significant difference between Thais and Japanese. It suggests that new generation in both countries also spend more time for relaxing which lead to the needs for trying new things (experiential needs) and taking good things for themselves (symbolic needs) for Japanese and Thais, respectively. Therefore, they were prone to indulgence and optimistic than pessimistic that mentioned in Hofstede's study.

Despite the different values that Thais and Japanese hold in daily life (see the mean in Table 4.8), the results of SEM showed that similar values were found to positively influence particular needs which supported H1 (as presented in Figure 4.9). For both Thai and Japanese customers who hold society-related values, dining in a place to socialize with friends, family, and colleagues was most important for them as these groups of people would like to be accepted in the society (Homer & Kahle, 1988). In addition, social needs were associated with warm relationship with others (belongs to society-related values) which is excess values, endorsed by people, particularly women who have a lot of friends (Kahle & Kennedy, 1988). This corresponds to the profile of the participants that the majority is female which cause this group of values positively influence social needs. Interestingly, even Thais were more likely to be adhesive in a group than Japanese (Hofstede et al., 2010), weaker relationship between society-related values and social needs was found among Thais when comparing with the first model (total participants).

However, we also found similar results either testing by using total participants (total participants) or separating ethnicity. The results suggested that people who hold individual-related values would like to fulfill the values that were related to themselves and thus led to the positively influence on functional needs, much like Korean customers when purchasing apparel products (Kim et al., 2002). Interestingly, symbolic needs were also positively influenced by this group of values. It can also be explained that these groups of customers might love the symbolic cultural expression as well as take good things for themselves. Thus, dining healthy cuisine as well as receiving symbolic service of ethnic restaurants, for example, serving green tea and Thai herb water to the customers would satisfy customers who hold this group of values. This result corresponded with the study of Chryssohoidis and Krystallis (2005), which found that internal values such as self-respect and enjoyment of life motivated the customer purchase intention for organic food.

On the other hand, these results suggested that people who hold enjoyment-related values would seek for different types of needs when dining in the ethnic restaurants and tend to do something that are different from their routines. First, they were more likely to seek for experiential needs such as new dishes, pleasant restaurants, and unique services. This group of customers enjoyed consuming unique food which was different from their local food either in Thailand and Japan. For example, the results in Chapter 3 showed that Thai food is perceived as spicy and tasty among Japanese customers. The results corresponded to the study of Jang, Ha and Silkes (2009) which revealed that American customers perceived Thai and Japanese food as the unique cuisine comparing to other types of ethnic food (e.g. Korean, Vietnamese and Indian). Second, they tend to look for selfenhancement and expressing the image of dining in ethnic restaurants. Thus, a strong relationship between enjoyment-related values and symbolic needs were found. It implied that customers who hold this group of values also try to seek for the needs that enhancing good feeling to themselves. Lastly, when the total participants were tested in the SEM, it was found that enjoyment-related values slightly influenced social needs. As a result, there might be a chance that customers would seek for social needs to fulfill excitement, and fun and enjoyment of life values as well.

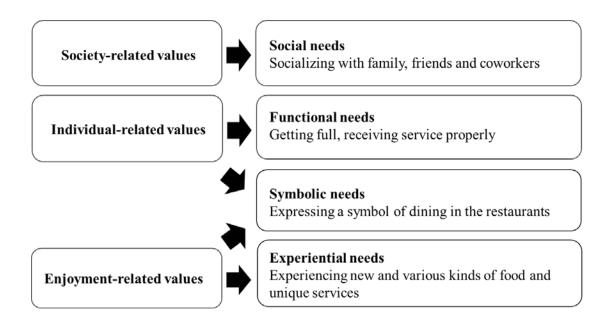


Figure 4.9 Summary of Relationship between Values and Customer Needs

According to the study by Andersson and Mosssberg (2004), social and intellectual needs were essential for evening restaurants, whereas physiological needs were essential for lunch restaurants. In addition, the interview with participants in Chapter 3 showed that Thai and Japanese customers typically dine in Japanese/Thai restaurants on Friday and holidays for special occasion and to socialize with friends. This suggested that social needs were found to be the main determinant for customers to dine in ethnic restaurants (see Figure 4.7 and 4.8). It implied that both Thais and Japanese customers still prefer to dine at a place where they can socialize with friends and family while enjoying the unique food from other countries. In addition to social needs, Thai participants were more likely to seek for symbolic needs when dining in Japanese restaurants (e.g. consuming Japanese food because of the health aspect). However, experiential needs were not found to influence on customer satisfaction among Thai customers, which implied that they did not look for exciting and fun as can be seen from the lowest score of enjoyment-related values. In contrast, Japanese participants tend to seek for newer and unique experiences, corresponding to the highest score of enjoyment-related values in Table 4.8. This result is similar to the study of Ha and Jang (2010) which showed that American customers did not only look for tasty and nutritious food but also looked for fun and exciting experiences when dining in ethnic restaurants. This result suggested that restaurateurs should create novel and different types of food, which differ from the local food, and provide exciting services to satisfy Japanese customers. Besides, the result corresponded to the study by White and Kokotsaki (2004), which revealed that "enjoyment" and "social life" were important for English customers to consume Indian food. These days, restaurants are becoming more of a place where people have a business talk and a meeting with friends than a place for relieving hunger. Although functional needs were rated as the highest important customer needs, these needs did not influence customer satisfaction in this case. Since ethnic restaurants are different from fast food restaurants and typical restaurants, the customers might expect more than the basic needs. Similarly, the symbolic needs were not found to influence customer satisfaction for Japanese customers which influenced by both individual-related values and enjoyment-related values. It implied that Japanese customers who hold these two values partially looked for symbolic needs but these needs could not be satisfied when dining in Thai restaurants. Therefore, Japanese customers who hold higher values on society-related values and enjoyment-related values tended to Thai restaurants in the future. These findings suggested that customer satisfaction was influenced by only some types of customer needs which partially supported H2.

However, return intention was not influenced by any type of customer needs when there was customer satisfaction in the model, only the positive influence from customer satisfaction was found in our study. These results suggested that the customer satisfaction was a key determinant of return intention than the customer needs, leading to the rejection of H3 while the result supported H4. It was also confirmed by the mediation test that customer satisfaction was found to be a mediator between customer needs and return intention. In other words, these needs influenced customer satisfaction that led to return intention in the future. This is why various studies have suggested that customer satisfaction should be fulfilled by responding to the appropriate customer needs, in turn leading to increase in loyalty (Andersson & Mossberg, 2004; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Dongjin et al., 2008; Wang, 2011). However, Japanese customers who are satisfied with Thai restaurants were more likely to return again than Thai customers due to higher standardized path coefficient from customer satisfaction to return intention. With these findings, it suggested the relationship between values, customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention as presented in Figure 4.10.

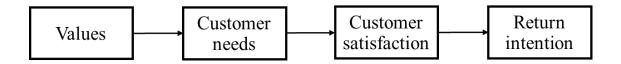


Figure 4.10 Relationship between Values, Customer Needs, Customer Satisfaction and
Return Intention

4.6 Conclusion

According to the second sub-objective, this study investigated the association between values, customer needs, customer satisfaction, and return intention in ethnic restaurants. The relationship of a value as a determinant of customer needs was supported by the positive standardized path coefficient from each group of values to customer needs to be met for Japanese and Thai respondents. The results revealed that the respondents in both countries tried to satisfy the experiential needs through the enjoyment-related values and satisfy the social needs through the society-related values. Besides, the functional needs were positively influenced by individual-related values as well as individual-related values.

In addition, certain needs should be fulfilled depending on the customers in each country. Japanese customers were more likely to seek for experiential and social needs, while Thai customers tended to look for symbolic and social needs. In both countries, these needs indirectly influenced return intention through customer satisfaction. However, functional needs were found to have no significant influence on customer satisfaction, and even the mean score was rated very high. Therefore, these findings implied that customers currently seek for other specific needs more than functional needs, which can be found in any typical restaurant.

Since there were some differences of values in two countries that guided customers to look for the needs to be met when dining in ethnic restaurants, the key attributes that should be served to the customers might be varied which could lead to the different strategy for enhancing customer satisfaction and return intention in the future. Therefore, the next chapter will examine the last perspective which will answer how the key attributes for ethnic restaurants influence on customer satisfaction and return intention.

4.7 Implications and Limitations

From a theoretical viewpoint, this study supported the hierarchical relationship between values, customer needs, customer satisfaction, and return intention. One of the most interesting contributions is that customer satisfaction served as a mediator over a customer needs-return intention path. In a contrast, a few past studies only showed the effect of values or customer needs on behavioral intention (Chryssohoidis & Krystallis, 2005; Kahle, 1983; Kim et al., 2002). Besides, the linkage between customer needs and customer satisfaction are underlined, but no statisticallytest was conducted to confirm this relationship (Andersson & Mossberg 2004; Hermann et al., 2000). Thus, another noticeable finding of current study is that the customer needs were found to directly influence on customer satisfaction. This supports the theory that customers will feel satisfied when their needs are met and they can fulfill the values they hold in life. Apart from social needs, Thai and Japanese customers were more likely to seek for different needs to be satisfied when dining in ethnic restaurants since they hold different values. In addition, to prompt the customers to return, customer satisfaction should be enhanced by fulfilling the customer needs through ones' values.

The findings suggest that the ways to make customers return were influenced by how the restaurants serve the products and services to satisfy customer needs and values. Both Thai and Japanese restaurateurs who operate ethnic restaurants across countries can use these results for improving their restaurants in the future. In the case of Thai customers, the atmosphere of Japanese restaurants should encourage them to socialize with friends. Besides, the expression of Japanese style (serving green tea, promoting healthy products) should be provided to the customers since they are also concerned about the symbolic needs. Unique dishes, enjoyment-filled experiences, and socialized atmosphere should be served to Japanese customers to enhance their satisfaction and return intention of dining in Thai restaurants. To appeal more, the restaurants may offer a special performance occasionally. Unlike typical restaurants, the customers of both countries seek for needs beyond functional needs (eating for getting full and receiving proper service proper) when dining in ethnic restaurants. Nevertheless, any restaurant should cater to these basic human

needs. Therefore, restaurateurs should be careful when creating marketing strategies for each market.

There are some limitations in this study. First, the participants who live in Bangkok and Tokyo were included because the values might be different across geographical areas. Second, the restaurants were not classified into different classes since most of the Japanese/Thai restaurants are full service restaurants. Lastly, the participants were not asked whether they are of Thai origin or Japanese origin because this might be a sensitive issue for them. However, only Thai questionnaires were distributed to Thai participants and Japanese questionnaires to Japanese participants.

Even though specific values positively influenced the customer needs to be met for both Thai and Japanese customers, customer values and customer needs may change rapidly due to globalization and lifestyles. In addition, purchasing different products and services may be influenced by different types of needs and values. Thus, a future research should apply this model to examine the relationship among these factors in the context of other industries or other types of ethnic foods. Furthermore, this model can be applied to various branches of marketing. For example, the marketing communication methods can be added to the model to examine the effect on customer values that can aid in promoting the restaurants in the future.

Additionally, this study focused on the repeat intention to dine in the restaurants that initiated from the customers themselves. Thus, a future research can be conducted with the customer loyalty which included both return intention and word-of-mouth to gain more insights.

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CHAPTER 5

INFLUENCE OF KEY ATTRIBUTES ON DINING INTENTION IN ETHNIC RESTAURANTS

Chapter 5 aims to investigate the influence of restaurant attributes on dining intention in ethnic restaurants. This chapter reflects the third perspective of a cross-cultural study in this dissertation. In order to response to the customer preferences properly, there is a need to understand the key attributes that enhance their satisfaction as well as return intention. Thus, three main factors, including restaurant attributes, customer satisfaction and return intention, are explored. This chapter is a continued study from the second part of the questionnaire. Data were collected from the same group of the customers who had the experience of dining in Japanese restaurants in Thailand and Thai restaurants in Japan as described in Chapter 4. Factor analysis is utilized for categorizing the attributes before analyzing the proposed relationship with the structural equation modeling (SEM). From the exploratory factor analysis (EFA), eleven attributes can be categorized as (i) basic attributes, (ii) unique attributes and (iii) food and service quality attributes. Additionally, the mean score revealed that Thai participants assigned higher scores to food and service quality attributes while Japanese participants assigned higher scores to unique attributes. However, there was no significant difference of mean of unique attributes between Thais and Japanese which contrasted to the other two groups of attributes. The results showed that only unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes positively influenced customer satisfaction. Nevertheless, the standardized path coefficient from unique attributes to customer satisfaction was higher than food and service quality attributes for Japanese participants. In addition, the results of mediating effect indicated that customer satisfaction served as a mediator in the key attributes—return intention relationship.

5.1 Research Background

Nowadays, the restaurants are the places for socialization more than relieving hunger. Not only the restaurants have to serve the delicious food, but also have to provide the excellent service to the customers because the good experience would enhance the customer satisfaction and lead to the return intention in the future. Therefore, both tangible attributes and services are the major factors that the restaurant marketers should focus on.

Based on these past studies, there are evidences suggest that the attributes in the restaurants, especially food and service quality (e.g. Liu & Jang, 2009; Nam & Lee, 2011; Sulek & Hensley, 2004) and fundamental attributes such as price and interior design (Kim W.G., Ng, & Kim, Y, 2009; Ryu & Han, 2010) positively influenced customer satisfaction and/or return intention. However, there is a lack of the investigation by including the unique attributes of the restaurants in those studies, for example, signature dish and customized menu which might affect their satisfaction as well as return intention for ethnic restaurants. Even though culture and lifestyle of customers in Asia were similar, the important attributes that satisfy customers in each country might be different. Therefore, there is a need for cross-cultural study to investigate the key attributes influence on customer satisfaction and return intention.

Additionally, even Thailand and Japan are located in Asia, cultures, social environment and lifestyles between these two countries are different. Therefore, the consumer preferences of each country might be varied. In the study of Sukalakamala and Boyce (2007), the findings revealed that American customers preferred authentic taste when dining in Thai restaurants. Additionally, the results from Chapter 3 also revealed that Thai participants preferred fusion taste while Japanese participants preferred authentic Thai taste. Thus, when customers dine in ethnic restaurants, their preferences might be varied as well as the originality of the ingredients. In addition, the type of food that provided in Thailand (e.g. Ootoya, 2016) and Japan (e.g. Krungsiam, 2015) are similar which can be classified as a set menu (the set of food including main dish, dessert and drink) and single dish. The results in Chapter 3 also indicated that Thai and Japanese participants preferred different design for cross-cultural RTE food. Thus, the preferences of Thai and Japanese

customers might differ when dining ethnic cuisines in the restaurants. Also, the waiting time was found as the important factor in service industry (Kursunluoglu, 2014). The appropriate amount of time that customers have to wait can increase their satisfaction after using the service (Tom & Lucy, 1995). Therefore, based on the past literatures, results from Chapter 3 and the characteristic of Japanese restaurants in Thailand and Thai restaurants in Japan, consumer preferences about taste of food, type of food, country of origin of ingredients and waiting time which were chosen to investigate in this study.

In this chapter, a study of how restaurant attributes influence on customer satisfaction and return intention is presented which could give the insights of both Thai and Japanese customers when dining in ethnic restaurants. Thus, this research aims to (1) identify the structure of restaurant attributes that can be grouped for Thais and Japanese (2) examine the relationship between restaurant attributes, customer satisfaction and return intention, (3) examine the mediating role of customer satisfaction between the restaurant attributes and return intention, (4) compare the results between Thai and Japanese participants which lead to different implications for each country, and (5) examine the choice preferences among Thais and Japanese. In this study, the restaurant attributes were firstly classified in by using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). This result will be used in structural equation modelling (SEM) for analyze the relationship between restaurant attributes, customer satisfaction and return intention. Before introducing the hypotheses, four models about the restaurant attributes, customer satisfaction, and restaurant attributes and return intention were discussed in the following section.

5.1.1 Model 1: Restaurant Attributes and Customer Satisfaction

In the foodservice literature, food and service quality attributes are the common attributes that enhanced customer satisfaction, especially in the restaurant research (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Ha & Jang, 2010; Mattila, 2001). In addition, SERVQUAL dimension has been used to assess the relationship with customer satisfaction which consisted of tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). Tangibles refer to appearance of equipment and physical facilities such as attracting

dining areas, comfortable seats and appropriate dress of the employees; reliability defined as the ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately such as serving the correct food as customers ordered; responsiveness refers to the readiness and willingness to help customers and provide service promptly such as giving the extra efforts to handle a special request; assurance is defined as an employee's knowledge competency and courtesy to provide trust and confidence to customers such as explaining about menu items; empathy relates to individualized attention to make an effort to understand the needs of customers. These attributes were found to enhance customer satisfaction in various service industries. Particular, several determinants such as food, physical environment, and employee services are commonly reflected as key components of restaurant experience for evaluating the restaurant service quality that fulfilled customer satisfaction (Namkung & Jang, 2008). These studies indicated the relationship between restaurant attributes and customer satisfaction as presented in Figure 5.1.

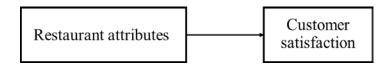


Figure 5.1 Relationship between Restaurant Attributes and Customer Satisfaction

5.1.2 Model 2: Restaurant Attributes and Return Intention

Several studies in food service industry then used this theory to investigate the impact of service quality on customer loyalty. For example, the study of Moorthy et al. (2016) found that service quality, including tangibles, reliability, assurance, and empathy have a positive relationship with customer loyalty. In addition, they also investigated the role of price fairness in this study in which the results revealed that this factor also have an influence on customer loyalty. Apart from these attributes, the study of Chang (2013), and Wu, T.J., Yeh and Wu, C.C. (2015) had proved the relationship between brand reputation and customer loyalty. The reputation of the brand might guarantee the good experience that the customers would receive when dining in a well-known restaurant.

In addition, other studies investigated the relationship between restaurant attributes and return intention which could lead to loyal behaviors. For example, theme restaurants that do not only provide meals but also provide entertaining services to the customers, food quality, atmosphere and novelty were also used in the study of Weiss, Feinstein, and Dalbor (2004). The findings revealed that food quality and atmosphere were the predictors of customer return intention whereas the novelty was found no statistically significant influence on return intention. In addition, the study of Soriano (2002) indicated that food quality and fresh ingredients were the key reasons for returning to the restaurants. These studies indicated the relationship between restaurant attributes and return intention as presented in Figure 5.2.

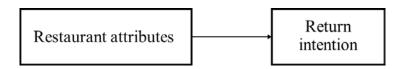


Figure 5.2 Relationship between Restaurant Attributes and Return Intention

5.1.3 Model 3: Restaurant Attributes, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention

Regarding to the past literatures, many scholars examined the relationship between restaurant attributes, customer satisfaction and return intention as presented in Figure 5.3. For example, Kim W.G., Ng, and Kim, Y (2009) revealed that food quality, service quality, atmosphere, price, and convenience in five dimensions of restaurant attributes significantly influenced on both customer satisfaction and return intention. The study of Liu and Jang (2009) also reported that food quality, service reliability and environmental cleanliness, interior design and neat and well-dressed employees positively affected customer satisfaction and post dining behavioral intentions. They compared the rank categories between complaint and compliment attributes which grouped into neutral, critical, satisfier and dissatisfier attributes. The results showed that the quality of service, food quality, helpful attitude of employees, and price of the food were the critical factors which could either lead to the customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction depended on the situation. Thus,

these attributes were suggested to improve beyond the norm so that at least the minimum standard was met.

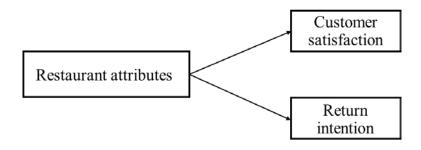


Figure 5.3 Relationship between Restaurant Attributes, Customer Satisfaction and Return
Intention

5.1.4 Model 4: Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention

Several scholars found a positive influence of customer satisfaction on return intention such as those by Ryu, Heesup, & Kim (2008) and Wang, (2011). It is also indicated that customers are more likely to return to the shop/restaurant when they are satisfied with products and services, which generate more profit in the future (Gupta, McLaughlin, & Gomez, 2007). Therefore, the relationship between customer satisfaction and return intention was shown in Figure 5.4.



Figure 5.4 Relationship between Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention

5.2 Hypotheses

Regarding to the past studies as discussed in the research background, various scholars revealed that restaurants attributes positively influenced customer satisfaction and/or return intention for dining in the restaurants. For example, the study of Ha and Jang (2010) revealed that food and service quality had positive and significant effects on customer satisfaction. The study of Weiss, Feinstein, and Dalbor (2004) revealed that food quality and atmosphere were the predictors of customer return intention. Besides, the study of Kim W.G., Ng, and Kim, Y (2009) found that food quality, service quality, atmosphere, price, and convenience positively influenced on both customer satisfaction and return intention. These studies indicated that restaurant attributes have a positive influence on customer satisfaction and return intention, suggesting the first and second hypotheses.

H1: Restaurant attributes positively influence customer satisfaction among Thai and Japanese customers for dining in ethnic restaurants.

H2: Restaurant attributes positively influence return intention among Thai and Japanese customers for dining in ethnic restaurants.

In addition, the strong relationship between customer satisfaction and return intention were revealed in various past literatures about restaurants (e.g. Ryu, Heesup, & Kim, 2008; Wang, 2011). This evidence indicated that the customers who are satisfied are more likely to repeat their purchase in the future. Thus, H3 was stated as follows.

H3: Customer satisfaction positively influences return intention among Thai and Japanese customers for dining in ethnic restaurants.

In addition, the structural model in Figure 5.5 shows the relationship between restaurant attributes, customer satisfaction and return intention which analyzed by structural equation modeling (SEM). In addition, the restaurant attributes were firstly categorized by using exploratory factor analysis (EFA).

Regarding to the past literature as discussed in research background, various studies used different attributes for assess their relationship with customer satisfaction and/or return intention. The common attributes consisted of three categories (1) fundamental attributes such as price and atmosphere (Kim, Lee & Yoo, 2006), (2) food and service quality attributes such as food quality, employee and reliability (Namkung & Jang, 2008; Jang, Ha & Silkes, 2009), and (3) originality attributes, for example, brand originality (Ebster & Guist, 2005).

Furthermore, some well-known restaurants have provided signature dishes to differentiate themselves from other restaurants which can attract the group of customers who prefer the uniqueness but this attribute have not yet been examined in restaurant context with other attributes. In addition, the trend of consuming healthy food has been increased in many countries due to the growth of obesity and the awareness of the disease. In U.S, the customers suggested Irish-pub-style full service restaurants to increase choices in the menu, particularly, they were interested in additional healthy menu (Sulek & Hensley, 2004). The study of Eves and Cheng (2007) also revealed that Chinese customers are interested in new healthy food products. When customers take care more about themselves, various low calorie food products for controlling weight and good dietary products have been launched to the market (Cardello & Wolfson, 2013).

In this study, we developed the attributes from those literatures and the results from the interview in Chapter 3. Therefore, four attributes, including signature dish, customize menu, convenient location and low calorie menu were developed from Chapter 3 results. Additionally, other attributes were adopted from the past literatures, including brand originality (Ebster & Guist, 2005), price (Kim, Lee, & Yoo, 2006), brand reputation (Chang, 2013), atmosphere (Kim, Lee, & Yoo, 2006), food quality (Jang, Ha & Silkes, 2009), standardize of service and energetic employee (Liu & Jang, 2009). In total eleven, attributes were used in this study to investigate the relationship with customer satisfaction and return intention.

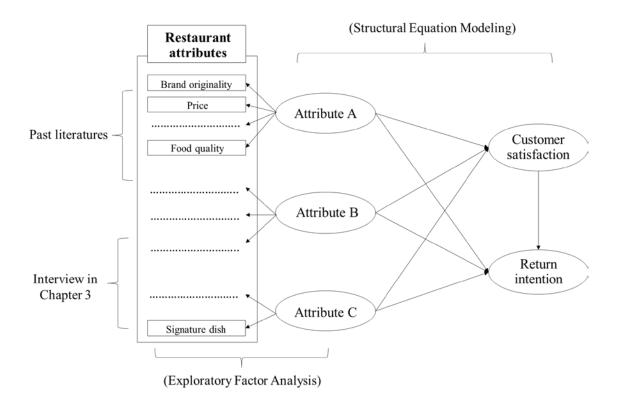


Figure 5.5 Structural Model

5.2.1 Operational Definition

- (1) Restaurant attributes referred to the attributes that relate to the restaurants both tangible and intangible items.
- (2) Customer satisfaction referred to a positive feeling after receiving the food and service based on their experiences of dining in the ethnic restaurants.
- (3) Return intention was defined as the plan to dine ethnic food and return to the restaurants in the future.

5.3 Methodology

5.3.1 Participants

Similar to the previous study (Chapter 4), the same group of the participants was asked to answer the second part of the questionnaire that related to the restaurant attributes. Thus, Thai and Japanese participants included in this study also have an experience of dining in Japanese/Thai restaurants. In total, 828 participants, including 410 Thai participants and 418 Japanese participants were used in the analysis.

5.3.2 Procedure

5.3.2.1 Data Collection

Data were collected from November 2015 to June 2016. The convenient sampling method was selected in study. As mentioned in Chapter 4, two method were used for collecting data (paper-based questionnaire and online questionnaire). Thai participants were asked about restaurant attributes in Japanese restaurants, while Japanese participants were asked about Thai restaurants. The unqualified samples, such as participants who live outside Bangkok and Tokyo, participants who did not have experience of dining in Japanese/Thai restaurants, and participants who did not fully complete the questionnaire were discarded. Thus, a total of 410 Thai samples out of 512 samples (80%) and 418 Japanese samples out of 458 samples (91%) were used in the final data analysis. For Thai samples, the total numbers of paper-based and online questionnaire were 130 (32%) and 280 (68%) respectively. For Japanese samples, 383 (92%) were collected from paper-based and 35 samples (8%) were gathered from online questionnaires.

5.3.2.2 Analysis Method

Step 1: Chi-square was conducted to test the association between ethnic of participants and consumer preferences for ethnic restaurants. Four questions related to choice preferences, including (1) taste of food, (2) type of food, (3) country of origin of ingredients and (4) waiting time were used in the analysis.

Step 2: Exploratory factory analysis (EFA) was firstly conducted to (1) extract common attributes for both countries (total participants) as well as (2) identify the structure of attributes for each country (separated between Thais and Japanese). In addition, the restaurant attributes classification (total participants) was used for further analysis.

Step 3: Structural equation modeling (SEM) was applied to test all the relationships proposed in the hypotheses. In addition, the mediation test was conducted to see whether customer satisfaction was a mediator between restaurant attributes and return intention. The test was conducted with (1) total participants, (2) Thai participants and (3) Japanese participants. In this study, the SEM models were modified based on the data from participants of each group.

5.3.3 Measurement

5.3.3.1 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire in this study was built on (1) the literature as mentioned the past studies of restaurant attributes such as food and service quality, and atmosphere, and (2) from the results of the interview in Chapter 3 such as healthy could refer to low calorie menu and a set menu that customers typically dine during lunch time were asked as a customized menu in the questionnaire. In total, eleven attributes (rating score of attributes) with another four attributes (choice selection preference) were used in this study. Similar to the first part of the questionnaire, the pilot test was conducted with 30 participants to ensure the language correction, word ambiguous and check the internal linkage of each

construct by using Cronbach's alpha before distributing the final version of the questionnaire to Thai and Japanese participants.

In this part of the questionnaire, the participants were asked to rate the 5-point Likert score (from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) to the eleven questions of restaurant attributes (Appendices D–F). Four questions of choice preferences, including types of food, taste of food, country of origin of ingredients and waiting time were asked by letting participants choose one choice that best matches with them. The same questions (in Chapter 4) for customer satisfaction and return intention were used for the analysis.

5.3.3.2 Homogeneity of Samples

Considering two methods were employed for collecting the questionnaires (online and paper-based), a homogeneity test of the samples was conducted. For Thai samples, 280 were collected from online questionnaires, while 130 samples were from paper-based. For Japanese samples, 383 were from paper-based and 35 samples were gathered from online questionnaires. The results from conducting homogeneity of variance (restaurant attribute questions) showed that there was no statistically significant difference found in both Thai and Japanese samples (p > 0.05). As a result, the samples collected from both methods were assumed to be homogeneous.

5.3.3.3 Measurement of Model

In order to justify whether the model is acceptable, various indices were used when performing Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). Thus, seven indices as described in Chapter 4 (Measurement of Model) were used as the guideline for justifying acceptable model, including chi-square, normed chi-square, GFI, CFI, NFI, RMR and RMSEA.

5.4 Results

The results of this study can be classified into seven main parts; (1) profile of participants, (2) choice preferences for dining in ethnic restaurants, (3) classification of restaurant attributes without ethnic of participants and separated between Thai and Japanese, (4) *t*-test of mean difference of restaurant attributes between Thais and Japanese, (5) mean of all construct and items, (6) confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results, and (7) structural results of overall participants (total participants) and separated results between Thai and Japanese participants.

5.4.1 Sample Characteristics

The participants in this study is the same group as presented in Chapter 4 (please see more details in Profile of Participants). In brief, more than half of the participants are female. For Thai participants, approximately 71 percent are female, whereas 29 percent are male. For Japanese participants, 64 percent are female, whereas 36 percent are male. Thai respondents with age range of 25–34 years accounted for 68 percent. On the other hand, the age range of Japanese respondents from 25 to 44 years accounted for 66 percent. Most of Thai and Japanese participants are employees, accounted for 69 percent and 64 percent, respectively. However, female participants in Japan include more full-time housewives than female participants in Thailand (31 people and 7 people, respectively). Thus, the number of housewives in Japan was higher.

5.4.2 Choice Preferences

From asking the preferences regarding to types of food, taste of food, country of origin of ingredients and acceptable waiting time. The results revealed that Thai respondents preferred both single dish and set menu of Japanese food which accounted for 62 percent as presented in Figure 5.6. In a contrast, Japanese respondents preferred single dish more than other types (44%). Typically, Japanese restaurants in Thailand serve both

type of Japanese food. The single dish normally comes as a snack or a rice bowl with the grilled meat while the set of food usually served with soup, desserts and drinks. Similarly, Thai restaurants in Japan offered both single dish and set menu. However, the set menu normally served only at the lunch time with soup, salad and desserts. In addition, the variety of the Thai set menu is limited, typically, one to four choices are available in the restaurants while over ten choices of the Japanese set menu are offered in Thailand. Thus, a single dish was a better choice for Japanese respondents. Besides, the result from chi-square test showed the statistically significant association between ethnic and food choices, $\chi^2(2, N = 828) = 125.20$, p < 0.001.

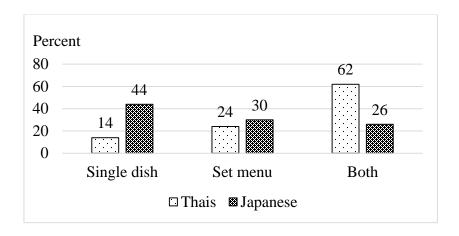


Figure 5.6 Type of Japanese/Thai Food Preferences

As shown in Figure 5.7, the authentic taste of the food was the most selected choices from both Thai and Japanese respondents (47% and 42%, respectively). In addition, around 37 percent of Thai respondents preferred both authentic and fusion taste while only 26 percent of Japanese respondents selected this choice. On the other hand, 32 percent of Japanese respondents selected fusion taste while a lower percentage of Thai respondents selected this choice (16%). In addition, the results from conducting chi-square test showed the statistically significant association between ethnic and taste preferences, $\chi^2(2, N = 828) = 30.49$, p < 0.001.

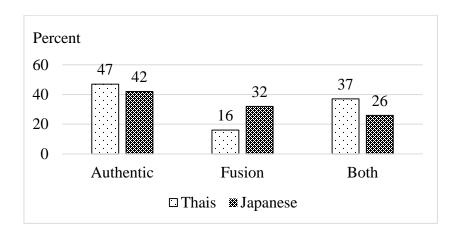


Figure 5.7 Taste of Japanese/Thai Food Preferences

For asking about the country of origin of ingredients, the results revealed that almost 50 percent of Thai respondents preferred the ingredients from Japan while 35 percent did not care where the ingredients come from (Figure 5.8). Surprisingly, over 50 percent of Japanese respondents chose "It does not matter" choice while a slightly higher percent chose ingredients from Thailand choice (21%). From chi-square test, the result revealed the statistically significant association between ethnic and country of origin of ingredients, $\chi^2(2, N = 828) = 71.19$, p < 0.001.

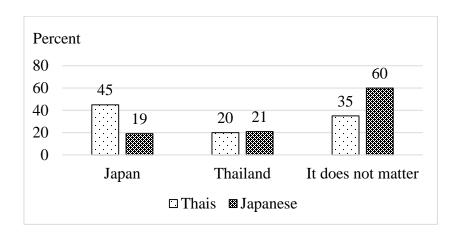


Figure 5.8 Country of Origin of Ingredients Preferences

The waiting time preference is presented in Figure 5.9. It is predictable that faster serving time is better than long service hours. Both Thai and Japanese participants agreed that the most acceptable waiting time from ordering to receiving the food was around 5 to 15 minutes (above 60%). In addition, some groups of Japanese participants were able to wait about half an hour (35.2%) while a few number of Thai participants would wait for more than 1 hour (19%). This is a challenging issue for managers to provide the good food and service within little time. From chi-square test, the result revealed the statistically significant association between ethnic and waiting time, $\chi^2(3, N = 828) = 200.58$, p < 0.001.

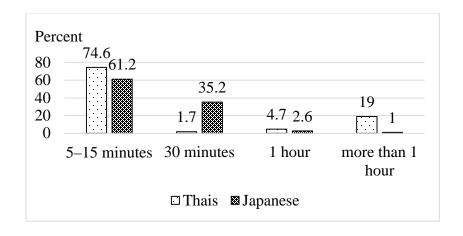


Figure 5.9 Waiting Time Preferences

5.4.3 Classification of Restaurant Attributes

The total number of Thai and Japanese participants was firstly used for grouping similar attributes by utilizing the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in SPSS version 17. The factors were extracted by employing the principal component analysis (PCA) and varimax rotation. The results showed that Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) value of 0.77, 0.76 and 0.73 for total participants, Thai samples and Japanese samples, respectively exceed the minimum value of 0.6, suggesting the appropriateness to use this method (Kaiser, 1974). Besides, the value of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also significant (p < 0.001), which also ensured that the data were appropriate to use for extraction (Bartlett, 1954).

Various past studies suggested to use the cut-off point of 0.6 regardless of any sample size (Field, 2005; Guadagnoli &Velicer, 1988). Thus, the items that had factor loading greater than 0.6 were retained for each component. Additionally, those factors had the eigenvalue greater than 1. In this study, three factors were extracted from EFA which represented 56.75 percent of variance, 56.29 percent of variance, and 57.03 percent of variance for total participants, Thai sample and Japanese sample, respectively. The details of component extraction are provided in Table 5.1–Table 5.3. The details of EFA are presented in Appendix J.

Table 5.1 Component Extraction Result (Total Participants)

Г	I	Initial Eigenvalues			ation Sums of Loadings	1
Factors —	Total	Percent of variance	Cumulative percent	Total	Percent of Variance	Cumulative percent
1	3.09	28.13	28.13	2.17	19.70	19.70
2	1.71	15.57	43.70	2.13	19.31	39.02
3	1.44	13.05	56.75	1.95	17.73	56.75
4	0.81	7.36	64.10			
5	0.71	6.47	70.57			
6	0.64	5.84	76.42			
7	0.62	5.64	82.05			
8	0.56	5.07	87.12			
9	0.53	4.79	91.91			
10	0.46	4.17	96.08			
11	0.43	3.92	100.00			

Note: KMO value was 0.77, $\chi^2_{(55)} = 1882.34$ and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (p < 0.001)

Table 5.2 Component Extraction Result (Thai Participants)

	I	nitial Eigenva	alues	Rota	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings			
Factors	Total	Percent of	Cumulative	Total	Percent of Variance	Cumulative		
	2.10	variance	percent	2.22		percent		
1	3.19	29.02	29.02	2.22	20.21	20.21		
2	1.59	14.42	43.43	2.01	18.25	38.46		
3	1.41	12.86	56.29	1.96	17.83	56.29		
4	.84	7.60	63.89					
5	.76	6.95	70.84					
6	.68	6.14	76.98					
7	.62	5.64	82.62					
8	.56	5.10	87.72					
9	.49	4.42	92.14					
10	.47	4.29	96.43					
11	.39	3.57	100.00					

Note: KMO value was 0.76, $\chi^2_{(55)} = 944.11$ and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (p < 0.001)

Table 5.3 Component Extraction Result (Japanese Participants)

F	I	nitial Eigenva	alues	Rota	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings			
Factors	Total Percent of Cumulative Variance percent Total		Total	Percent of Variance	Cumulative percent			
1	2.87	26.12	26.12	2.16	19.60	19.60		
2	1.90	17.31	43.43	2.13	19.35	38.95		
3	1.50	13.60	57.03	1.99	18.08	57.03		
4	0.82	7.41	64.44					
5	0.75	6.79	71.23					
6	0.65	5.90	77.13					
7	0.64	5.85	82.98					
8	0.53	4.79	87.77					
9	0.50	4.53	92.30					
10	0.48	4.35	96.65					
11	0.37	3.35	100.00					

Note: KMO value was 0.73, $\chi^2_{(55)} = 965.12$ and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant (p < 0.001)

By using varimax (orthogonal) rotation, eleven attributes were classified into three factors. All the factor loadings are described in Table 5.4. These groups were named as; (i) unique attributes, (ii) basic attributes, and (iii) food and service quality attributes. From the similarity of the attributes in each group (total participants) as presented in the first column of Table 5.4, the first group (factor 1) related to the new and unique attributes including the brand originality, signature dish, customize menu and low calorie menu. These attributes might differentiate one restaurant to another. Moreover, the trend of customize and low calorie menu could be the interesting alternative choices for customers. Thus, the first factor was named as unique attributes. The second category (factor 2) involved the typical attributes that the customers are able to search the information and compare it with other restaurants easily. These attributes are the basic elements including price, brand reputation, convenient location and atmosphere. Therefore, the second factor was named as basic attributes. The last group (factor 3) was named as food and service quality attributes which included food quality, standardize of service and energetic employee. These attributes are the intrinsic attributes that could be reached when dining in the restaurants.

Besides, the EFA of restaurant attributes for each country was also conducted separately (more details of exploratory factor for Thais and Japanese is presented in the Appendix J). The structures of factors for both Thais and Japanese are able to be classified similarly to the one with combining total participants. As a result, three factors were extracted and the factor loading is presented in the middle and right column of Table 5.4 for Thais and Japanese, respectively. Since there is similar pattern of extracting the restaurant attributes into different category, three groups of attributes, including (i) unique attributes, (ii) basic attributes, and (iii) food and service quality attributes were used for further analysis.

Table 5.4 Factor Loading of Restaurant Attributes

	Tota	1 (N = 8	328)	Thais $(n = 410)$			Japanese $(n = 418)$		
]	Factors			Factors			Factors	
Items	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
A1	.068	.667	.051	.130	.652	080	.654	.056	.041
A2	.040	.731	.033	039	.678	.170	.772	.085	065
A3	.092	.769	.059	.141	.744	.025	.782	.025	.077
A4	.103	.709	.134	.149	.705	.162	.695	.043	.120
A5	.767	.056	.089	.730	.114	.190	.023	.776	.039
A6	.768	.023	.061	.736	.101	.212	.012	.765	.005
A7	.159	.098	.739	.170	.099	.745	.120	.134	.733
A8	.111	.054	.797	.110	027	.813	.054	.113	.777
A9	.102	.097	.835	.103	.158	.772	021	.095	.859
A10	.701	.114	.150	.718	.081	.075	.074	.743	.153
A11	.650	.115	.116	.721	.094	001	.122	.581	.241

Note: A1 = Price, A 2 = Brand reputation, A3 = Convenient location, A4 = Atmosphere, A5 = Brand originality, A6 = Signature dish, A7 = Food quality, A8 = Energetic employee, A9 = Standardized service, A10 = Customized menu, A11 = Low calorie menu

5.4.4 Restaurant Attributes between Thais and Japanese

Firstly, the factor scores (Table 5.5) of three groups of attributes (basic attributes, unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes) obtained from exploratory factor analysis (EFA) were used to test the difference of mean between Thais and Japanese participants. Therefore, the null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis was stated as below.

Table 5.5 Factor Score Coefficient Matrix (Restaurant Attributes)

Items	Factor1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Price	-0.028	0.328	-0.038
Brand reputation	-0.046	0.364	-0.049
Convenient location	-0.026	0.377	-0.045
Atmosphere	-0.026	0.339	0.001
Brand originality	0.382	-0.044	-0.064
Signature dish	0.389	-0.058	-0.078
Customized menu	0.334	-0.014	-0.024
Low calorie menu	0.312	-0.007	-0.037
Food quality	-0.032	-0.027	0.395
Energetic employee	-0.062	-0.050	0.439
Standardized service	-0.075	-0.031	0.459

Note: Factor 1 = Unique attributes, Factor 2 = Basic attributes, Factor 3 = Food and service quality attributes

Regarding to t-test results between the means of two groups (Table 5.6), Thai participants' mean scores of basic attributes (Thais: M = 0.24, SD = 0.96; Japanese: M = -0.23, SD = 0.99) and food and service quality attributes (Thais: M = 0.20, SD = 0.96; Japanese: M = -0.19, SD = 1.01) were higher than Japanese participants. However, the mean of unique attributes of Japanese sample was slightly higher than Thai sample (Thais: M = -0.02, SD = 1.03; Japanese: M = -0.02, SD = 0.97). Besides, there was statistically significant difference between the means of Thais and Japanese for basic attributes (t = 6.89, df = 826, p < 0.001) and food and service quality attributes (t = 5.74, df = 826, p < 0.001). In addition, the mean scores from factor 2 and 3 showed that Thai participants' scores of basic attributes, and food and service quality were higher than Japanese participants' scores. On the other hand, there was no statistically significant difference found between the means of Thais and Japanese for unique attributes (t = -0.64, df = 826, p = 0.52). These findings suggested that Thai and Japanese participants emphasized on unique attributes equally while there are some differences exist between basic attributes, and food and service quality attributes.

Table 5.6 t-test of Factor Scores between Thais and Japanese (Restaurant Attributes)

	Thais $(n = 410)$		Japanese (a		
	M	SD	M	SD	<i>t</i> -value
Unique attributes	-0.02	1.03	0.02	0.97	-0.64
Basic attributes	0.24	0.96	-0.23	0.99	6.89***
Food and service quality attributes	0.20	0.96	-0.19	1.01	5.74***

Note: * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

5.4.5 Mean of Restaurant Attributes, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention

The mean of each restaurant attribute is presented in Table 5.7. As mentioned in the questionnaire development part, in this section, the participants were asked to rate the score (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) from their perceptions based on experiences of dining in Japanese/Thai restaurants, for example, to what extent they feel that the price is reasonable, and the food quality is good. Thus, the result of this part is different from the important factors for purchasing RTE food in Chapter 3 which reflected the important factors from rating the importance scores directly.

For Thai participants, customized menu was rated to the highest score (M = 3.86, SD = 1.11) among eleven attributes and dominated the group of unique attributes (M = 3.62, SD = 0.82). This result showed that customers can customize some drinks, side dishes and desserts when they ordered a set menu, suggesting high score on customized menu. For low calorie menu and signature dish that were grouped into the same category, these two attributes received less scores than customized menu (low calorie menu: M = 3.57, SD = 1.18; signature dish: M = 3.41, SD = 1.06). However, with the mean scores around 3.50, it implied that low calorie menus are provided to the customers and signature dishes are still considered delicious for them. For the brand originality, it was rated slightly higher than those two attributes (M = 3.64, SD = 1.07). This score implied that customers dined in the restaurants that originated from Japan.

For basic attributes, most of the attributes in this group were rated slightly higher than the attributes in the unique attributes group, especially brand reputation (M = 3.60, SD

= 1.09) and convenient location (M = 3.62, SD = 1.19). To reflect this, recently, there are a large number of Japanese restaurants opened in Thailand. The customers usually dine in famous restaurants and these stores are also easy to access by public transportation, as we saw that participants assigned the scores prone to 4.00. In addition, Thai participants typically dine in the restaurants that are located in department stores (from the interview results in Chapter 3), suggesting the perception of convenience from their points of views. Even though Thai participants felt that the price of Japanese food is expensive (from the word classification in Chapter 3), they perceived that the restaurants offer reasonable price (M = 3.70, SD = 1.12) with the high food quality (M = 3.85, SD = 1.12). Thus, the price dominated the group of basic attributes (M = 3.64, SD = 0.79). Lastly, the atmosphere had similar score to other attributes in this group (M = 3.64, SD = 1.04), which could be interpreted that Japanese restaurants had nice decoration.

For the group of food and service quality, the rating score revealed that Thai participants have an experience of good food quality (M = 3.85, SD = 1.12) served by Japanese restaurants. Since major ingredients of Japanese food are fresh meat and seafood, it is important to serve good quality to the customers. This result also corresponds to the study of Japanese RTE food in Thailand (Chapter 3) which found that most of the participants dine in Japanese restaurants rather than purchase RTE food due to the negative attitudes about freshness of RTE food. In addition, the restaurant services, including standardized service (M = 3.82, SD = 1.09) and energetic employee (M = 3.74, SD = 1.09) were also rated very high. These results confirmed that the restaurants serve good quality of food as well as excellent service to the customers and thus lead to the highest score on the group of food and service quality attributes (M = 3.80, SD = 0.88).

For Japanese participants, food quality (M = 3.71, SD = 1.22) was rated very high comparing to the other attributes which dominated high mean score of the group of food and service quality attributes. This result indicated that the Thai restaurants also served good quality food to Japanese customers. Nevertheless, the service elements in this category were rated much lower than food quality and the scores were prone to 3.00 (energetic employee: M = 3.26, SD = 1.09); standardized service: M = 3.33, SD = 1.08), suggesting that the customers received average quality of service, which might be below

their expectations. Thus, the overall score for food and service quality attributes was rated in a good level (M = 3.44, SD = 0.91), slightly lower than the group of the unique attributes.

For the group of unique attributes, each attribute received similar score around 3.50, leading to the highest average score (M=3.56, SD=0.76) which dominated by brand originality. Similar to Thai participants, Japanese participants usually dine in the restaurants that originated from Thailand as can be seen from high score of brand originality (M=3.64, SD=1.10). In addition, the customers perceived that signature dish is delicious (M=3.59, SD=1.03) and they can customize menu by themselves (M=3.53, SD=1.00). Lastly, we also found that Thai restaurants provide low calories menu to Japanese customers as well (M=3.46, SD=1.05). Even though Thai food is considered healthy (as mentioned in Thai RTE food of Chapter 3), low calorie menus are also available as an alternative for customers such as spicy glass noodles.

For basic attributes, the average score of this group is lower than other groups which received the least score among three groups (M = 3.24, SD = 0.79). Surprisingly, the price of food received moderate score (M = 3.09, SD = 1.10), which implied that they feel neutral to this attribute. Although Thai food is not sold expensively in Japan (the average price was similar to Japanese food), the price of Thai food in Thailand is actually cheaper than dining in Japan. Thus, they might perceive that the price was not so reasonable. The convenient location and atmosphere were rated slightly higher than price (convenient location: M = 3.25, SD = 1.06; atmosphere M = 3.29, SD = 1.16). Since most of Thai restaurants in Tokyo typically are located at the center and can be conveniently accessed by public transportation, the customers felt that it is easy to reach the restaurants. Lastly, the brand reputation was rated above 3.00 (M = 3.31, SD = 1.02) which reflected that they dined in well-known restaurants and this attribute dominated the group of basic attributes.

Besides, the mean scores also showed that Thai participants were satisfied when dining in Japanese restaurants (M = 3.95, SD = 0.69) and tended to return again (M = 4.09, SD = 0.70). Similarly, Japanese respondents were also satisfied when dining in Thai

restaurants (M = 3.70, SD = 0.78) and they were more likely to revisit again (M = 3.95, SD = 0.83).

In addition, t-test was conducted to see the difference between the means of attribute from Thai and Japanese participants. As presented in Table 5.7, every item in the group of basic attributes was found statistically significant differences between the mean scores of two groups, especially the price (t = 7.89, df = 826, p < 0.001). With the higher mean score of Thai participants, it implied that they perceived that the price of food is reasonable more than Japanese participants. Similarly, other attributes in this group were also found to have statistically significant differences between the means, including brand reputation (t = 3.96, df = 826, p < 0.001), convenient location (t = 4.12, df = 818.98, p < 0.001) and atmosphere (t = 4.50, df = 826, p < 0.001) which indicated that Thai participants perceived that brand of the Japanese restaurants that they dined were famous, easy to access and the atmosphere was nice more than the group of Japanese participants.

For the group of unique attributes, there was no statistically significant difference between the means of two groups for brand originality (t = 0.60, df = 825.75, p = 0.95) and low calorie menu (t = 1.31, df = 811.32, p = 0.19), indicating that Thai and Japanese participants tended to dine in the restaurants that originated from Japan/Thailand and these restaurants also provided the healthy menu for their alternatives. For signature dish, a little higher mean score of this attribute from Japanese participants implied that they perceived that Thai food was more delicious than Thai participants, which lead to the small significant difference between the means (t = -2.45, df = 826, p < 0.05). In a contrast, customized menu was rated higher in the group of Thais than Japanese. The statistically significant difference between the means of two groups also confirmed that Thai participants could customize Japanese menu more than the group of Japanese participants (t = 4.43, df = 826, p < 0.001).

Lastly, among three attributes in food and service quality attributes, food quality was found no statistically significant difference between the mean score of two groups (t = 1.79, df = 826, p = 0.07). This result suggested that both Thai and Japanese participants

agreed that quality of food in the Japanese/Thai restaurants was very good, leading to the high score in both countries. On the other hand, the mean scores of other attributes from Thai participants were much higher than Japanese participants. As a result, there were statistically significant differences between the mean scores of two groups for both energetic employee (t = 6.30, df = 826, p < 0.001) and standardized service (t = 6.39, df = 826, p < 0.001). These results implied that Thai participants perceived that employee are energetic and they received standardized service most of the time that they dine in Japanese restaurants rather than the group of Japanese participants who dined in Thai restaurants.

Table 5.7 Mean of Restaurant Attributes, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention

	Thais (n	= 410)	Japanese (n	= 418)	
	M	SD	M	SD	<i>t</i> -test
Basic attributes	3.64	0.79	3.24	0.79	-
Price	3.70	1.12	3.09	1.10	7.89***
Brand reputation	3.60	1.09	3.31	1.02	3.96***
Convenient location	3.62	1.19	3.25	1.06	4.12***
Atmosphere	3.64	1.04	3.29	1.16	4.50***
Unique attributes	3.62	0.82	3.56	0.76	-
Brand originality	3.64	1.07	3.64	1.10	0.60
Signature dish	3.41	1.06	3.59	1.03	-2.45*
Customized menu	3.86	1.11	3.53	1.00	4.43***
Low calorie menu	3.57	1.18	3.46	1.05	1.31
Food and service quality attributes	3.80	0.88	3.44	0.91	-
Food quality	3.85	1.12	3.71	1.22	1.79
Energetic employee	3.74	1.09	3.26	1.09	6.30***
Standardized service	3.82	1.09	3.33	1.08	6.39***
Customer satisfaction	3.95	0.69	3.70	0.78	-
Return intention	4.09	0.70	3.95	0.83	-

Note: 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree)

^{*} p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

5.4.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Next, the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to validate whether the multiple manifest indicators reflected the underlying latent constructs by using AMOS version 21. Therefore, the CFA results from total participants (total participants) and separation between Thais and Japanese are presented in Tables 5.8–5.10, respectively. The measurement model fitted with the data well based on the goodness-fit indices. The results supported the convergent validity of measures since all factor loadings are significant at p < 0.001 and average variance extracted (AVE) exceeded the minimum criterion of 0.5 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). In addition, the square correlation between constructs was less than the AVE (based on the correlation in Tables 5.11–5.13), confirming discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The reliability was measured by using Cronbach's Alpha and the values exceeded 0.6 confirmed that the data were reliable for both samples (Duhachek, Coughlan, & Iacobucci, 2005). The measurement model fitted with the data well based on the goodness-fit indices and the p-value were greater than 0.05 for total participants model (p = 0.08), Thai participants model (p = 0.08) and Japanese participants model (p = 0.07).

Table 5.8 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Total Participants)

Construct on Literary		Total par	ticipants	
Construct and items	Loading	<i>t</i> -value	Reliability	AVE
Basic attributes (BA)			0.86	0.61
Price	0.79	23.35		
Brand reputation	0.72	21.19		
Convenient location	0.80	23.59		
Atmosphere	0.81	N/A		
<u>Unique attributes (UA)</u>			0.85	0.58
Brand originality	0.80	20.36		
Signature dish	0.75	20.90		
Customized menu	0.74	18.89		
Low calorie menu	0.76	N/A		
Food and service quality attributes (FSQA)			0.83	0.62
Food quality	0.75	21.05		
Energetic employee	0.76	21.35		
Standardized service	0.84	N/A		
Customer satisfaction (SAT)			0.85	0.65
Satisfaction 1	0.84	N/A		
Satisfaction 2	0.86	27.54		
Satisfaction 3	0.71	22.15		
Return intention (RI)			0.81	0.59
Return intention 1	0.80	N/A		
Return intention 2	0.76	20.35		
Return intention 3	0.74	20.61		

Note: All factor loadings are significant at p < 0.001. t-values were not obtained for the fixed items (1.00) due to the maximum likelihood estimation. Thai samples: $\chi^2_{(104)} = 124.37$, $\chi^2/df = 1.20$, GFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.98, RMR = 0.02, RMSEA = 0.02

Table 5.9 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Thai Participants)

		Thai par	ticipants	
Construct and items	Loading	<i>t</i> -value	Reliability	AVE
Basic attributes (BA)			0.85	0.60
Price	0.82	15.49		
Brand reputation	0.70	12.95		
Convenient location	0.80	16.47		
Atmosphere	0.77	N/A		
<u>Unique attributes (UA)</u>			0.84	0.57
Brand originality	0.81	15.71		
Signature dish	0.76	14.77		
Customized menu	0.68	13.29		
Low calorie menu	0.77	N/A		
Food and service quality attributes (FSQA)			0.80	0.57
Food quality	0.75	13.89		
Energetic employee	0.74	13.78		
Standardized service	0.78	N/A		
Customer satisfaction (SAT)			0.86	0.70
Satisfaction 1	0.82	N/A		
Satisfaction 2	0.88	20.28		
Satisfaction 3	0.79	17.97		
Return intention (RI)			0.81	0.57
Return intention 1	0.76	N/A		
Return intention 2	0.74	13.04		
Return intention 3	0.76	13.26		

Note: All factor loadings are significant at p < 0.001. t-values were not obtained for the fixed items (1.00) due to the maximum likelihood estimation. Thai samples: $\chi^2_{(103)} = 124.29$, $\chi^2/df = 1.21$, GFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.96, RMR = 0.03, RMSEA = 0.02

Table 5.10 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Japanese Participants)

Construct and items	J	apanese p	articipants	
Construct and items	Loading	<i>t</i> -value	Reliability	AVE
Basic attributes (BA)			0.85	0.61
Price	0.78	16.19		
Brand reputation	0.77	15.97		
Convenient location	0.77	16.03		
Atmosphere	0.81	N/A		
Unique attributes (UA)			0.85	0.58
Brand originality	0.74	14.08		
Signature dish	0.80	15.17		
Customized menu	0.75	14.37		
Low calorie menu	0.75	N/A		
Food and service quality attributes (FSQA)			0.84	0.65
Food quality	0.76	16.14		
Energetic employee	0.77	16.03		
Standardized service	0.88	N/A		
Customer satisfaction (SAT)			0.83	0.63
Satisfaction 1	0.85	N/A		
Satisfaction 2	0.85	19.13		
Satisfaction 3	0.66	14.20		
Return intention (RI)			0.82	0.60
Return intention 1	0.81	N/A		
Return intention 2	0.76	15.54		
Return intention 3	0.76	15.50	C	(1.00)

Note: All factor loadings are significant at p < 0.001. t-values were not obtained for the fixed items (1.00) due to the maximum likelihood estimation. Japanese samples: $\chi^2_{(109)} = 131.95$, $\chi^2/df = 1.21$, GFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.96, RMR = 0.03, RMSEA = 0.02

In addition, correlations for each factor for total participants, Thai and Japanese participants are presented in Table 5.11, Table 5.12 and Table 5.13. Besides, the correlations between each pair of factors were less than or equaled to 0.6 which caused the square correlation to be less than the AVE values for every factor. For example, the square correlation between customer satisfaction and return intention in Table 5.12 was 0.28 which calculated from $(0.53)^2$, and was less that AVE value in Table 5.9. Thus, the results confirmed that there was no multicollinearity in this study.

Table 5.11 *Correlation Matrix (Total Participants)*

	BA	UA	FSQA	SAT	RI
BA	1.00				_
UA	0.17	1.00			
FSQA	0.15	0.25	1.00		
SAT	0.19	0.56	0.52	1.00	
RI	0.15	0.43	0.37	0.71	1.00

Note: BA = Basic attributes, UA = Unique attributes, FSQA = Food and service quality attributes, SAT = Customer satisfaction, RI = Return intention; all correlations are significant at p < 0.05

Table 5.12 *Correlation Matrix (Thai Participants)*

	BA	UA	FSQA	SAT	RI
BA	1.00				
UA	0.16	1.00			
FSQA	0.12	0.31	1.00		
SAT	0.17	0.54	0.63	1.00	
RI	0.11	0.31	0.38	0.53	1.00

Note: BA = Basic attributes, UA = Unique attributes, FSQA = Food and service quality attributes, SAT = Customer satisfaction, RI = Return intention; all correlations are significant at p < 0.05

Table 5.13 Correlation Matrix (Japanese Participants)

	BA	UA	FSQA	SAT	RI
BA	1.00				
UA	0.12	1.00			
FSQA	0.05	0.15	1.00		
SAT	0.11	0.46	0.31	1.00	
RI	0.09	0.38	0.25	0.60	1.00

Note: BA = Basic attributes, UA = Unique attributes, FSQA = Food and service quality attributes, SAT = Customer satisfaction, RI = Return intention; all correlations are significant at p < 0.05 except the correlations between pairs of constructs that are less than 0.10

5.4.7 Structural Results

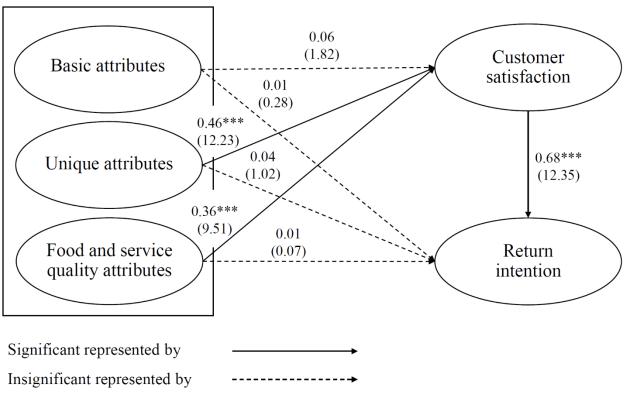
5.4.7.1 Structural Result (Total Participants)

The structural result is presented in Figure 5.10, which analyzed from the total number of Thai and Japanese participants (828 samples). The results of structural equation modeling (SEM) along with maximum likelihood method showed that the model is acceptable as the model fit values were greater than the cut-off values as mentioned above $(\chi^2_{(105)} = 125.10, \chi^2/df = 1.19, \text{RMSEA} = 0.02, \text{CFI} = 0.99, \text{GFI} = 0.98, \text{NFI} = 0.98).$ Regarding to the adjusted model to yield the *p*-value > 0.05 (Kaiwan, 2013), the *p*-value of 0.09 indicated that the model was acceptable (please see the full model in Appendix L).

The results revealed that unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes have a positive influence to customer satisfaction in which the standardized path coefficient from unique attributes to customer satisfaction was slightly higher than the standardized path coefficient from food and service quality to customer satisfaction ($\gamma_{21} = 0.46$, t = 12.23, p < 0.001; $\gamma_{31} = 0.36$, t = 9.51, p < 0.001). On the other hand, basic attributes did not influence customer satisfaction ($\gamma_{11} = 0.06$, t = 1.82, p = 0.07). In the total participants model, the results suggested that when unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes are provided to the customers, their satisfaction will be increased. On the other hand, basic attributes could be viewed as the must-be attributes from the Kano's model. Even though this group of attributes did not enhance customer satisfaction, it should be provided in the appropriate level to the customers as these are basic factors that customers expected. Thus, the relationship between basic attributes and customer satisfaction are not linear, leading to the non-significant relationship.

Besides, it was found that none of restaurant attributes positively influenced on return intention ($\chi_{12} = 0.01$, t = 0.28, p = 0.78; $\chi_{22} = 0.04$, t = 1.02, p = 0.31; $\chi_{32} = 0.01$, t = 0.07, p = 0.94), whereas only customer satisfaction positively influenced return intention in this study ($\beta_{12} = 0.68$, t = 12.35, p < 0.001). These findings suggested that customer satisfaction could be a mediator between customer needs and return intention.

Restaurant attributes



Notes: $\chi^2_{(105)} = 125.10$, $\chi^2/df = 1.19$, GFI = 0.98, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.98, RMR = 0.02, RMSEA = 0.02; *t*-value presented in parenthesis; standardized path coefficients with * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Figure 5.10 Structural Result (Total participants)

5.4.7.2 Structural Result (Thai and Japanese Participants)

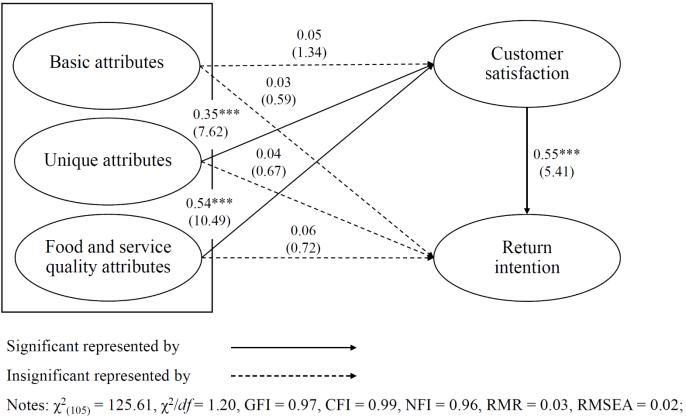
Next, the analysis between two countries separately was conducted. The results revealed that the model was found to fit the data well for both countries based on the goodness-of-fit indices (Thai samples: $\chi^2_{(105)} = 125.61$, $\chi^2/df = 1.20$, RMSEA = 0.02, CFI = 0.99, GFI = 0.97, NFI = 0.96; Japanese samples: $\chi^2_{(109)} = 131.95$, $\chi^2/df = 1.21$, RMSEA = 0.02, CFI = 0.99, GFI = 0.97, NFI = 0.96). Based on the adjusted model to yield the *p*-value > 0.05 (Kaiwan, 2013), the *p*-value of Thai model was 0.07 while the *p*-value of Japanese model was 0.06 (please see the full model in Appendix L). These values suggested that the model was acceptable since the *p*-value is greater than 0.05.

When conducting the SEM for each country separately, the results were similar from testing all participants together (total participants). The results of Thai and Japanese participants are presented in Figure 5.11 and 5.12. Overall, the results showed that unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes positively influenced the customer satisfaction. It can be seen that the standardized path coefficient from unique attributes to customer satisfaction was weaker in the group of Thais than combining total participants in the first model (Thais: $y_{21} = 0.35$, t = 7.62, p < 0.001; total participants: $y_{21} = 0.46$, t =12.23, p < 0.001). In a contrast, the standardized path coefficient from food and service quality attributes to customer satisfaction was stronger than the first model (Thais: y_{31} = 0.54, t = 10.49, p < 0.001; total participants: $y_{31} = 0.36$, t = 9.51, p < 0.001). These results indicated that food and service quality attributes are more important to enhance customer satisfaction than unique attributes among Thai customers. Comparing the first model (total participants) and the Japanese participants' model, we can see that the standardized path coefficient from unique attributes to customer satisfaction slightly higher than the result from total participants model (Japanese: $\chi_{21} = 0.49$, t = 8.56, p < 0.001; total participants: $y_{21} = 0.46$, t = 12.23, p < 0.001) whereas the standardized path coefficient from food and service quality attributes to customer satisfaction was much lower (Japanese: $\chi_{31} = 0.25$, t = 4.08, p < 0.001; total participants: $\chi_{31} = 0.36$, t = 9.51, p < 0.001). These results suggested that Japanese satisfaction can be greater enhanced by unique attributes rather than food and service quality attributes when dining in Thai restaurants.

However, basic attributes were found to have no statistically significant influence on customer satisfaction that was similar to the result from conducting the first model (Thais: $\gamma_{11} = 0.05$, t = 1.34, p = 0.18; Japanese: $\gamma_{11} = 0.04$, t = 0.79, p = 0.43). The result suggested that not only Thai customers but also Japanese customers take basic attributes for granted. Therefore, this group of attributes did not highly improve customer satisfaction, but should be maintained as a basic requirement. On the other hand, unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes should be improved for both Thai and Japanese customers as one-dimensional requirement, which will consequently increase their satisfaction given that they are satisfied with these attributes. For example, the better the food quality is provided, the higher customer satisfaction will be, and vice versa.

In addition, it was found that none of restaurant attributes positively influenced on return intention when we tested by separating the ethnic groups (Thais: $\gamma_{12} = 0.03$, t = 0.59, p = 0.56; Thais: $\gamma_{22} = 0.04$, t = 0.67, p = 0.50; Thais: $\gamma_{32} = 0.06$, t = 0.72, p = 0.47; Japanese: $\gamma_{12} = 0.02$, t = 0.41, p = 0.68; Japanese: $\gamma_{22} = 0.09$, t = 1.52, t = 0.13; Japanese: $\gamma_{32} = 0.04$, t = 0.92, t = 0.36) which is similar to the results of the first model. Lastly, customer satisfaction positively influenced return intention among Thai and Japanese participants (Thais: $\gamma_{12} = 0.55$, $\gamma_{12} = 0.55$, $\gamma_{12} = 0.001$; Japanese: $\gamma_{12} = 0.70$, $\gamma_{12} = 0.70$, $\gamma_{13} = 0.70$). Even though the standardized path coefficients between customer satisfaction and return intention were very high in both countries, in particular, standardized path coefficient of Thai participants was lower than the group of Japanese participants. It implied that the chance that Thai participants who were satisfied when dining in Japanese restaurants and will repeat their patronage was less than Japanese participants who were satisfied with Thai restaurants.

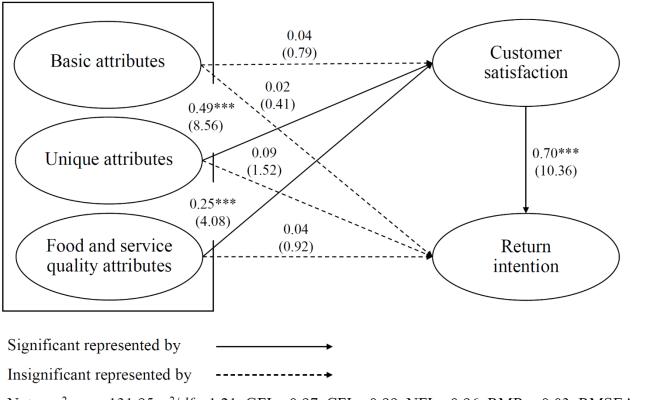
Restaurant attributes



t-value presented in parenthesis; standardized path coefficients with * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Figure 5.11 Structural Result (Thai Participants)

Restaurant attributes



Notes: $\chi^2_{(109)} = 131.95$, $\chi^2/df = 1.21$, GFI = 0.97, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.96, RMR = 0.03, RMSEA = 0.02; *t*-value presented in parenthesis; standardized path coefficients with * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Figure 5.12 Structural Result (Japanese Participants)

Finally, the summary of all hypotheses are presented in Table 5.14. Since basic attributes did not influence customer satisfaction in every model, while both unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes have a positive influence on customer satisfaction in every model. Therefore, H1 was partially supported. On the other hand, there was no significant relationship between restaurant attributes and return intention found in any models, suggesting the rejection of H2. Lastly, the results showed that customer satisfaction positively influenced return intention, indicating the support of H3.

Table 5.14 Summary of Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Relationships	Results
H1	Restaurant attributes → Customer satisfaction	Partially supported
H2	Restaurant attributes → Return intention	Not supported
Н3	Customer satisfaction → Return intention	Supported

5.4.8 Mediation Test

Since some attributes in this study were created from the participant opinion and did not investigated in other studies, the particular relationship between attributes—customer satisfaction—return intention was examined in this study to confirm whether customer satisfaction mediated the restaurant attributes and return intention relationship (Table 5.15). As suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), first, the direct relationship between customer needs and return intention (without customer satisfaction) was tested. The relationship was statistically significant for total participants ($\gamma_{22} = 0.39$, t = 9.38, t = 0.001; $\gamma_{32} = 0.29$, t = 7.18, t = 0.001) and for separated groups between Thai ($\gamma_{22} = 0.25$, t = 4.03, t = 0.001; t =

there was no significant relationship between constrained model (Thais: $\chi^2_{(108)} = 126.88$; Japanese: $\chi^2_{(112)} = 135.23$) and proposed model (Thais: $\chi^2_{(105)} = 125.61$; Japanese: $\chi^2_{(109)} = 131.95$) for both Thai model ($\Delta\chi^2_{(3)} = 1.27$, p > 0.05) and Japanese model ($\Delta\chi^2_{(3)} = 3.28$, p > 0.05). Therefore, customer satisfaction serves as a full mediator between restaurant attributes and return intention.

Table 5.15 Results of Mediating Effect

	Attributes → RI	Constrained	Proposed	$\Delta \chi^2$
	(without CS)	model	model	Δχ
Total participants	$y_{22} = 0.39, t = 9.38$	$\chi^2 = 126.26$	$\chi^2 = 125.10$	$\Delta \chi^2_{(3)} = 1.16$
	$ \chi_{32} = 0.29, t = 7.18 $	df = 108	df = 105	p > 0.05
	$ \chi_{22} = 0.25, t = 4.03 $	$\chi^2 = 126.88$	$\chi^2 = 125.61$	$\Delta \chi^2_{(3)} = 1.27$
Thais	$ \gamma_{32} = 0.41, t = 6.20 $	df = 108	df = 105	p > 0.05
Iananasa	$ \gamma_{22} = 0.48, t = 8.10 $	$\chi^2 = 135.23$	$\chi^2 = 131.95$	$\Delta \chi^2_{(3)} = 3.28$
Japanese	$y_{32} = 0.23, t = 4.37$	df = 112	df = 109	p > 0.05

5.5 Discussion

From the choice preferences, most of Thai customers preferred the authentic taste of food which could be served as both single dish and set menu. With the various menus offered in Japanese restaurants and the price of the set menu was slightly higher than single dish, both types of food were preferred. However, the results were different from the study of Japanese ready-to-eat food which showed that Thai customers preferred fusion taste (from Chapter 3). Even though it is the same ethnic food, the preference of customers might be changed according to different types of products. Besides, the ingredients originated from Japan were also preferred more than the local ingredients in the eyes of Thai people. In addition, Japanese food in Thailand is sold more expensive than local restaurants. Thus, when the customers have to pay more, the imported ingredients give them higher value perception when dining in the restaurants.

On the other hand, Japanese customers were more likely to prefer single dish when dining in Thai restaurants. However, the percent of customers who selected the set menu was slightly lower than the single dish. It implied that the customers might dine for both lunchtime and dinner time which reflected different preferences when dining in Thai restaurants. Besides, with the limited choices of Japanese set menu normally served only at lunchtime, a higher number of Japanese customers showed that they preferred the single dish which has plenty of choices. For the taste of food, we found that majority preferred authentic taste more than other choices. According to the unique characteristic of Thai food, many famous menus are spicy and sour. Thus, the fusion taste might not be suitable for Japanese customers as much as the authentic taste. Similar to the U.S. customers, the traditional hot and spicy tastes was rated as the second important rank for dining in Thai restaurants (Sukalakamala & Boyce, 2007). However, there was another group of customers who still preferred fusion taste when dining in Thai restaurants, suggesting that they would like to try new things that hardly found in typical Thai restaurants. Surprisingly, a large number of Japanese customers did not concern about the country of origin (COO) of the ingredients. Regarding to the constraint of cooking Thai food in Japan, some ingredients are adapted such as the purple eggplant was used instead of the green eggplant. However, some basils can be planted in Japan or in neighbor countries. Thus, the importance of the originality might not be a serious issue.

The results from EFA in this study showed that the attributes can be classified into three groups, basic attributes, unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes. In addition, the *t*-test of factor scores showed that there is no statistically significant difference found between Thais and Japanese for unique attributes, suggesting that their perceptions towards this group of attributes is similar. However, there are some differences existed between Thais and Japanese customers for basic attributes, and food and service quality attributes, suggesting that they perceived these groups of attributes differently, which can be seen from the large gap of mean score as well.

When comparing the mean scores of the attributes for each country, it can be seen clearly that Thai customers weighted higher values on food and service quality attributes than other attributes. The results implied that Japanese restaurants in Thailand provided both excellent services and food quality to the customers. However, the perception

regarding to basic attributes and unique attributes are similar, which could be interpreted as Thai customers perceived that these attributes are moderately provided by the restaurants which are not dominant as food and service quality attributes. Nevertheless, they did not feel that the price was too expensive as can be seen from the high score of price in Table 5.7. This result was different from the study of Josiam & Montiero (2004) which revealed that South Asians are price-sensitive when dining in Indian restaurants. On the hand, Japanese customers assigned the highest score to unique attributes, especially brand originality and signature dish. This result implied that Japanese customers perceived that they received unique attributes properly when dine in Thai restaurants while other groups of attributes are not dominant, except the food quality that was rated very high. Interestingly, when looking at individual factor, food quality was rated at the top over the other factors in both countries. This could imply that the customers are satisfied with the good food quality provided in the ethnic restaurants regardless of any countries. Moreover, it supported the findings from Liu and Jang (2009) which showed that the food quality was also an important factor for American customers when dining in ethnic restaurants. This might be the reason that the ethnic restaurants try to provide the good quality of food to the customers. Interestingly, the basic attributes had no significant influence on customer satisfaction and return intention. This result is different from other studies which found that price, convenient location, brand reputation and atmosphere had an impact on customer satisfaction and return intention (e.g. Chang, 2013; Kim W.G., Ng, & Kim, Y, 2009).

The general findings from SEM (total participants) revealed that both unique attributes and food and service quality attributes positively influenced customer satisfaction, whereas no significant influence from basic attributes. These results suggested that basic attributes are considered as must-be attributes that should be maintained at the appropriate level; otherwise it could lead to dissatisfaction. In a contrast, the remaining attributes (unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes) should be improved as one-dimensional requirement, which will enhance customer satisfaction after they dine in the ethnic restaurants. Similarly, the results of separated groups of participants are slightly different in term of standardized path coefficients from conducting with total number of participants. When looking at the standardized path coefficients between the

group of Thais and Japanese, it suggested that food and service quality attributes exerted the greatest influence on customer satisfaction for Thai customers while unique attributes exerted the greatest influence on customer satisfaction for Japanese customers. From these results, it indicated that H1 was partially supported because only some groups of the attributes positively influenced customer satisfaction. Besides, when customer satisfaction was included in the model, these attributes did not have a positive influence on return intention except customer satisfaction. Thus, H2 was rejected whereas H3 was supported in this study. With a greater influence of customer satisfaction on return intention, this might cause no direct influence from restaurant attributes to return intention. It was also supported when the mediation test was conducted and the restaurant attributes were found to positively influence return intention. Thus, when customer satisfaction was included, the restaurant attributes positively influenced customer satisfaction which led to return intention As a result, the summary of all relationship between key restaurant attributes, customer satisfaction and return intention is presented in Figure 5.13.

According to the types of ethnic restaurants, the price of Japanese food in the restaurants is quite expensive. Therefore, Thai customers were more likely to satisfy with the excellent food and service when dining in the restaurants. These results corresponded to the study of Namkung and Jang (2008) that customers typically use food, physical environment and employee services as key components for evaluating the overall service quality of restaurants. Additionally, the cross-cultural study of Min, H.O. and Min, H.Y. (2013) also found that service quality such as employee courtesy was more considered for Koreans than Americans. This corresponded to the results in this study and implied that Asian customers take service quality into accounted as one of the important attributes which will make them return to dine in ethnic restaurants in the future. Besides, the study of Ha and Jang (2010) revealed that food quality is considered to be one of important dimensions for restaurant quality. Similarly, the findings of Marinkovic, Senic and Mimovic (2015) also showed that food quality was one of important attributes for selecting ethnic restaurants in Serbia. This leads to the awareness of maintaining a good quality of food in the restaurants while the quality of services such as energetic employee should not also be neglected. For example, the employee should glance at the customers' tables to check whether they completely receive all dishes they ordered, or to continue serving them

the tea or water. In addition, the restaurants should maintain a good standard to make the customers impress every time they visit the restaurants. With the high competition in ethnic restaurants, numerous restaurants are able to serve delicious food, but some of them might not pay attention to food quality and ensure employee to have service minds. This might cause customers turn away after then dine in the restaurants.

In addition, the second influenced factor on customer satisfaction for Thai group was unique attributes, such as customized menu and brand originality. With the familiarity of Japanese culture through travelling and watching medias such as Japanese dramas and TV programs, Thai customers usually preferred to dine in good restaurants that served different menus with customized options by themselves. In addition, the brand originality from Japan is also popular among Thai customers, for example, Ootoya and Hachiban, which have expanded their branches continuously throughout Thailand. Besides, the restaurants should be aware of the taste of food provided to Thai customers. With the different results between Japanese RTE food and food in the restaurants, customers seek for authentic taste when dining in the restaurants whereas the fusion taste can be served for RTE food. Thus, the taste of signature dish, which received the least scores among eleven attributes, should be improved to match with local customers' preferences. Apart from customized menu, it would be better to provide several low calories menu to the customers which could increase customer satisfaction (Eves & Cheng, 2007).

For Japanese customers, the findings suggested that unique attributes were the most influent attributes on the customer satisfaction when dining in Thai restaurants, followed by food and service quality attributes. It suggested that the novelty and specialty of the restaurants were the key attributes to attract Japanese customers. Despite several Thai restaurants in Japan, each restaurant offers similar menus. Therefore, to distinguish an authentic Thai cuisine, brand originality and signature dish are considered importantly. When the customers dine in Thai restaurants that originated from Thailand, their satisfactions tend to be enhanced by giving them a sense of authentic taste, corresponding to their preferences (Figure 5.7). Moreover, the restaurants should maintain the good level of signature dish even they are satisfied with the current signature dish to increase their satisfaction as well. In addition, the healthy ethnic products such as Asian fast food have

been increased due to the healthy trend consumption in Japan (Euromonitor, 2016). Thus, it would be better if the restaurants were able to provide or increase alternative choices such as the low calorie and customized menu to the customers. For example, the customers can choose to reduce the level of salt or mix and match the dishes they preferred.

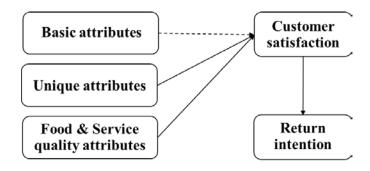


Figure 5.13 Summary of Relationship between Key Restaurant Attributes, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention

Regarding the findings from Chapter 4, Thai participants were more likely to dine in the Japanese restaurants to satisfy the symbolic needs which involved taking good things for themselves to increase self-enhancement, as well as express the social image that they consume the healthy and authentic cuisine from Japan. In this chapter, the results regarding to key attributes perspective also suggested that the details of food and service quality, and unique attributes should be developed to match with those needs which will enhance their satisfaction. In addition to Thai participants, Japanese participants were more likely to satisfy the experiential needs based on the high standardized path coefficient from unique attributes to customer satisfaction. These attributes could also be viewed as the attributes that brought enjoyment and excitement to the customers as well as provided more choices to the customers. Besides, food and service quality attributes were the essential attributes that should be served to Japanese participants since the Japanese products and services are famous in term of quality. However, basic attributes did not significantly influence on customer satisfaction and return intention. Since these factors were the common attributes that did not provide high values to customers, they were less important than other attributes but still need to be maintained at an appropriate level. However, this group of attributes might influence customer satisfaction and return intention for other types of restaurants

such as fast-food restaurants as presented in the study of Baek, Ham and Yang (2006) that Koreans and Filipinos viewed menu price as the most important attribute. Importantly, the customer satisfaction was a mediator between the restaurant attributes and the return intention for dining in ethnic restaurants. Thus, understanding key attributes of the restaurants that enhance customer satisfaction and return intention in the future is essential.

5.6 Conclusion

According to the third sub-objective, this study investigated the influence of restaurant attributes on customer satisfaction and return intention. A cross-cultural study between Thai and Japanese participants were conducted. The results of food choice preference showed that single dish was more preferred by Japanese participants while both single and set menu were more preferred by Thais in which an authentic taste was the most preferable choice in both countries. Interestingly, country of origin of ingredients was more likely to be concerned for Thais than Japanese. The SEM results revealed that both unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes had an influence on return intention passed through customer satisfaction. Particularly, food and service quality attributes highly influenced on the customer satisfaction, followed by unique attributes for Thai participants. In a contrast, the standardized path coefficient from unique attributes to customer satisfaction was higher than the standardized path coefficient from food and service quality attributes to customer satisfaction among Japanese participants. These attributes were found indirectly influenced on the return intention through customer satisfaction in both countries. Nevertheless, basic attributes did not influenced customer satisfaction and return intention which suggested to be a must-be attributes in this study.

In order to see the application of values and key attributes in another context, another case study of small hotels and resorts will be conducted in the next chapter. Similar to Chapter 4 and 5, this case study will be used for investigating the influence of values and key attributes on intention to stay in small hotels and resorts.

5.7 Implications and Limitations

Comparing to other studies, this research is a pioneer in cross-cultural studying between Thai and Japanese participants, especially ethnic restaurant industry. The attributes were classified differently from other studies which typically focused on product and service separately. In order to be more competitive in the ethnic restaurant industry, the unique attributes should be improved as well as provided excellent services and food quality. Besides, these attributes can be used as a benchmark with future research.

In practical, these findings can be used for restaurant marketers to create a new strategy and improve the key attributes in the future. For Thai customers, food and service quality should be emphasized as the first priority. Since Japanese food is more expensive than Thai dishes, the customers will expect the high quality of both food and services. Thus, the better quality it is, the higher chance that customers are satisfied and will return in the future. In addition, the restaurants should improve the unique attributes together such as offering more customized choices to participants for the set menu. It is worth noting that, the restaurants that originated from Japan are more likely to influence Thai customers to dining in Japanese restaurants.

For Japanese customers, unique attributes that differentiate the restaurant from the others should be firstly addressed to enhance their satisfactions, for example, different signature dishes and low calorie menus. Similar to Thai participants, brand originality from Thailand is also important, which could attract customers to dine in the restaurants and make them perceived that the taste of Thai food will be genuine. Recently, the sets of food in almost Thai restaurants in Japan are usually limited and provided only during lunchtime. Thus, it would be better to add more choices to the customers which will increase their satisfaction too. Besides, the quality of food should be maintained at a good level while the service attributes should be improved (based on the lower score on these attributes).

In summary, when the restaurants focused on these two groups of attributes, it will enhance customer satisfaction and influence customers to return again. Therefore, it would be beneficial to the restaurant marketers to understand and apply the results in our study to match with local customers who dine in ethnic restaurants.

There are some limitations in this study. According to the different of customer behavior, this study focused on the capital city of two countries (Bangkok, Thailand and Tokyo, Japan). In addition, this study selected some key attributes from literature review and the interview (as mentioned in Chapter 3), which included the unique attributes apart from other ethnic restaurant studies. In addition, this study limited only the respondents who have experience of dining in the ethnic restaurants (two types of ethnic foods). Therefore, the future research can expand the scope to different geographical areas in order to compare the similarities and differences between people who live in urban and rural areas as well as comparing with different ethnic restaurants to find the common key attributes and the preferences of the customers.

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CHAPTER 6

A CASE STUDY OF SMALL HOTELS AND RESORTS

Chapter 6 aims to apply the concept of values and key attributes which is presented in the food-related industry case study (Chapters 4–5) in the case of small hotels and resorts (1–3 stars). Therefore, both the influence of values and key attributes for hotel industry are examined in this study. This chapter reflects the last perspective of a cross-cultural study in this dissertation. Therefore, the main findings in this study are divided into two parts. In the first part, four main factors, including values, customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention are examined in this chapter. In addition, data were collected from customers who had the experience of staying in small hotels and resorts in Thailand Factor analysis and structural equation modeling (SEM) are utilized for grouping similar values and analyzing the proposed relationship, respectively. From the EFA, all nine values of LOV can be categorized as (i) enjoyment-related values, (ii) individual-related values and (iii) society-related values. The results also showed that these values have a positive influence on particular types of customer needs. Nevertheless, functional needs had a greater influence on customer return intention pass through customer satisfaction, followed by social needs. These results suggested that the needs of customers could be changed in different industry. Besides, the results of mediating effect indicated that customer satisfaction served as a mediator in the customer needs-return intention relationship.

For the second part, three main factors, including small hotel and resort attributes, customer satisfaction and return intention are explored. Factor analysis is utilized for categorizing the attributes before analyze the proposed relationship with the structural equation modeling (SEM). From the exploratory factor analysis (EFA), fifteen attributes can be categorized as (i) scenery and decoration attributes, (ii) access and location attributes, (iii) employee characteristic attributes, (iv) fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes (v) entertainment attributes. Additionally, the mean score revealed that Thai participants assigned higher scores to reasonable price. The results revealed that only

employee characteristic attributes, and fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes positively influenced customer satisfaction. However, the standardized path coefficient from fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes to customer satisfaction was slightly higher than another one. Besides, the results of mediating effect indicated that customer satisfaction served as a mediator between the key attributes and return intention.

6.1 Research Background

From Chapter 4, the main finding revealed that there was a positive influence of values on customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention in the case of food-related industry. Besides, in Chapter 5, some groups of the restaurant attributes were also found to positively influence customer satisfaction and return intention. Since previous study in this dissertation relates to the case study of ethnic restaurants which involve both products and services (hybrid), the next study which relates to the major service with accompanying minor goods and services is chosen to see whether the concept of both chapters can be applied in other industries. In this study, we focus on the hotels that can be afford by a large group of Thai people. Thus, the case study of small hotels and resorts (1–3 stars) is chosen to show the implication in another industry.

Regarding to the prior study, two models need to be conducted to investigate the influence of values and to find the key attributes for small hotels and resorts. The first model is to investigate the influence of values on customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention which will be called as LOV model (Figure 6.1). The second model is to examine the relationship between the attributes of small hotels and resorts, customer satisfaction and return intention which will be called as small hotel and resort attributes model (Figure 6.2).

In this chapter, a study of how values influence on customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention, and how attributes influence on customer satisfaction and return intention are presented which could give the insights of both Thai and Japanese

customers when dining in staying in small hotels and resorts. Thus, this research aims to (1) identify the structure of values and attributes (2) examine the relationship in both LOV model and small hotel and resort attributes model, and (3) compare the results with the case study of ethnic restaurants which lead to different implications for each industry. In this study, the values and attributes were firstly classified in by using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Besides, four types of the customer needs were developed based on customer needs in Chapter 4. These results will be used in structural equation modelling (SEM) for analyze all relationship.

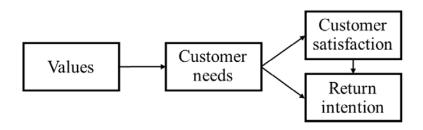


Figure 6.1 LOV Model (Presented in Chapter 4)

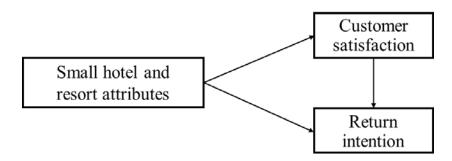


Figure 6.2 Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model (Similar to Chapter 5)

6.1.1 Definition of Small Hotels and Resorts (1–3 stars)

The definitions of small hotels and resorts (1–3 stars) are presented as follow (Department of Tourism, 2014):

- 1. Hotel or resort (1 star) refers to the hotel that provides mainly the room service and offers a small dining place.
- 2. Hotel or resort (2 stars) refers to the hotel that provides both room and food service or offers the dining hall and the cooking space.
- 3. Hotel or resort (3 stars) refers to the hotel that provides both room and food service or offers the dining hall and the cooking space, and provides the entertainment facilities or meeting room.

6.2 Hypotheses

6.2.1 Hypotheses of LOV Model

The hypotheses in this model were developed based on the hypotheses in Chapter 4 in order to see whether the industry has been changed, values still influence customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention.

- H1: Values positively influence customer needs among Thai customers for staying in small hotels and resorts.
- H2: Customer satisfaction is influenced by customer needs among Thai customers for staying in small hotels and resorts.
- H3: Return intention is influenced by customer needs among Thai customers for staying in small hotels and resorts.
- H4: Customer satisfaction positively influences on return intention among Thai customers for staying in small hotels and resorts.

The structural model is demonstrated in Figure 6.3 which shows the relationship between values, customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention. In addition, the mediating role of the customer satisfaction between customer needs and return intention was investigated.

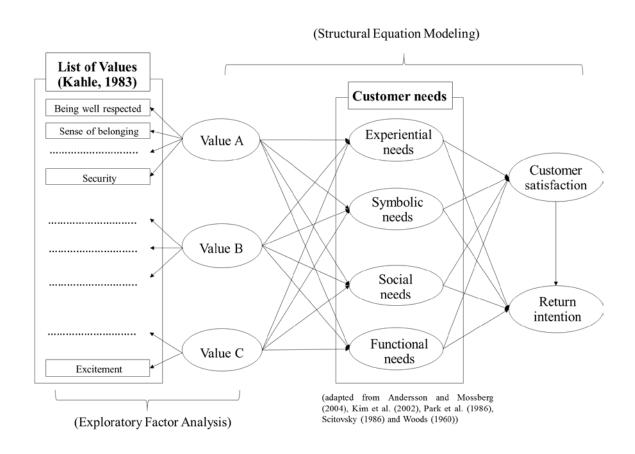


Figure 6.3 Structural Model (LOV Model)

6.2.2 Operational Definition (LOV Model)

In this study, nine values from LOV were adopted. However, since the industry has been changed to small hotels and resorts, the customer needs were developed based on gathering the opinions of participants and the studies of Andersson and Mossberg (2004), Kim, et al. (2002), Park et al. (1986), Scitovsky (1986), and Woods (1960). Therefore, four

types of customer needs in this study were built based on the concept of customer needs as presented in Chapter 4. In addition, the customer satisfaction and return intention were defined as the pleasurable feeling after staying in small hotels and resorts and the plan to revisit the small hotels and resorts in the future, respectively. The details of operational definition are provided as below.

- (1) Values referred to the nine values in List of Values (LOV) that closely related to the values that customer hold in their life.
- (2) Customer needs referred to the desires of customers when staying in small hotels and resorts. Four types of customer needs were adapted from Chapter 4 and used in the analysis.
 - (2.1) Experiential needs refer to the needs to be met when customers are able to stay in the nice and beautiful hotels and resorts as well as able to choose different types of room and join interesting activities provided by small hotels and resorts.
 - (2.2) Symbolic needs refer to needs to be fulfilled when customers stay in small hotels and resorts for expressing social status or perceiving the symbol that represents the styles of small hotels and resorts.
 - (2.3) Social needs refer to the needs to be satisfied when customers are able to socialize with friends, family and coworkers while staying in small hotels and resorts.
 - (2.4) Functional needs refer to the simple needs that guests should be received when staying in small hotels and resorts such as having good sleep and receive service properly (e.g. check-in and checkout process).
- (3) Customer satisfaction referred to a positive feeling after receiving services based on their experiences of staying in small hotels and resorts.
- (4) Return intention was defined as the plan to return to the small hotels and resorts in the future.

6.2.3 Hypotheses of Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model

Based on results of Chapter 5 which revealed that the attributes have a positive influence on return intention through customer satisfaction. Thus, in this study, we used similar hypotheses to see the results when the industry has been changed. Thus, by gathering data from Thai participants during the interview and the results from Chapter 5, fifteen attributes were developed in which some attributes were similar to the attributes in previous chapter. Three hypotheses for small hotel and resort attributes model are presented as following:

H1: Small hotel and resort attributes positively influence on customer satisfaction among Thai customers for staying in small hotels and resorts.

H2: Small hotel and resort attributes positively influence on return intention among Thai customers for staying in small hotels and resorts.

H3: Customer satisfaction positively influences on return intention among Thai customers for staying in small hotels and resorts.

In addition, the structural model in Figure 6.4 shows the relationship between small hotel and resort attributes, customer satisfaction and return intention which analyzed by structural equation modeling (SEM). In addition, the attributes were firstly categorized by using exploratory factor analysis (EFA).

In this study, we developed the attributes from the interview with small groups of Thai participants and the results from Chapter 5. Therefore, three attributes, including price, easy access and energetic employee were developed from Chapter 5 results. Additionally, other attributes were adopted from the interview, including security, new room, cleanliness, brightness inside the room, basic amenities, special activities, local food service, surprising and entertaining activities, smiling face, beautiful scenery, theme decoration and good location. In total fifteen, attributes were used in this study to investigate the relationship with customer satisfaction and return intention for small hotel and resort case study.

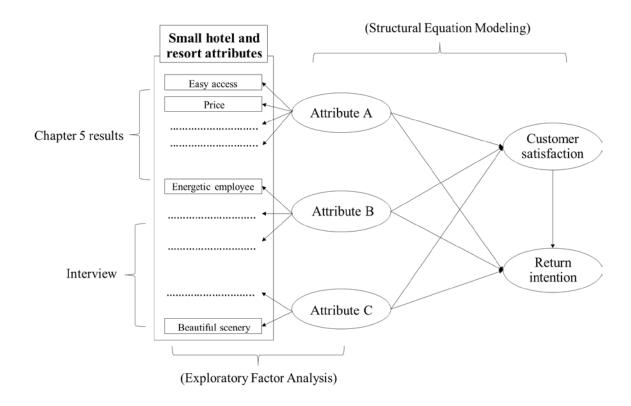


Figure 6.4 Research Model (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)

6.2.4 Operational Definition (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)

- (1) Small hotel and resort attributes referred to the attributes that relate to the hotel industry both tangible and intangible items.
- (2) Customer satisfaction referred to a positive feeling after receiving services based on their experiences of staying in small hotels and resorts.
- (3) Return intention was defined as the plan to return to the small hotels and resorts in the future.

6.3 Methodology

6.3.1 Participants

Participants in this study were scoped to Thai customers who have experience of staying in small hotels and resorts. Since this study focused on return intention and intended to present the values precisely, only the data collected from Thai participants (live in Bangkok) who have experience of staying in small hotels and resorts were used for further analysis. The total number of participants used in this study was 205 samples.

6.3.2 Procedure

6.3.2.1 Data Collection

This research used convenience sampling method to distribute the online questionnaire to Thai participants in April 2017. As recommended by Weston and Gore (2006), the appropriate sample size for the SEM is 200 participants and the time constraint, the total number of 238 participants was collected. The participants who answered this questionnaire were firstly screened whether they have the experience of staying in small hotels and resorts (1–3 stars) for leisure purpose, otherwise they were screened out. In addition, only the data from participants who live in Bangkok are used for the analysis to avoid misinterpreting of values. After deleting unqualified samples such as people who live outside Bangkok, and participants who did not have experience of staying in small hotels and resorts, a total number of 205 from 238 samples (86%) was used in this study.

6.3.2.2 Analysis Method

Step 1: Exploratory factory analysis (EFA) was first conducted to extract values and attributes for small hotels and resorts of Thai participants. In addition, the results of value and attribute classification were used for further analysis.

Step 2: Structural equation modeling (SEM) was applied to test all the relationships proposed in the hypotheses. In addition, the mediation test was conducted to see whether customer satisfaction was a mediator between (1) customer needs and return intention, and (2) small hotel and resort attributes and return intention.

6.3.3 Measurement

6.3.3.1 Questionnaire Design

Similar to the previous studies, the questions in the first part of the questionnaire, including (1) nine values from LOV, (2) four types of customer needs, customer satisfaction, and return intention in which each factor consisted of at least three questions. The questions in this part were adapted from the questions in Chapter 4.

The second part of the questionnaire relates to the attributes for small hotels and resorts. The questions were developed and refined based on the interview with a small group of Thai participants who had experiences of studying in this type of hotels. In total fifteen attributes that participants mentioned it as the most satisfied attributes were chosen in this study. The questionnaire used in both LOV model and small hotel and resort attributes model is presented in the Appendices G and H.

Inside the questionnaire, the participants were asked to rate/assign the score to each of nine values of LOV in which the five-point Likert scale was applied (1 = strongly unimportant). For other parts of the questionnaire, the participants

were asked to rate the five-point Likert scale (from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) was used in this part of the questionnaire.

The pilot test was conducted with 30 participants to ensure the language correction, word ambiguous and check the internal linkage of each construct by using Cronbach's alpha before distributing the final version. Besides, the questionnaire is first composed in English and translated to Thai by Thai student who is capable for both languages.

6.3.2.2 Measurement of Model

In order to justify whether the model is acceptable, various indices were used when performing Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). Thus, seven indices as described in Chapter 4 (Measurement of Model) were used as the guideline for justifying acceptable model, including chi-square, normed chi-square, GFI, CFI, NFI, RMR and RMSEA.

6.4 Results (LOV Model)

6.4.1 Sample Characteristics

The participants' profile is presented in Table 6.1. The total number of participants used in this study is 205 participants. Most of the participants are female, which accounted for 60 percent of the total participants. The range of age is between 25–34 years. The majority of the participants are employees while some of them are business owners.

Table 6.1 *Profile of Participants*

	Thais (<i>N</i> = 205)	Percentage (%)
Sex		
Male	84	40.98
Female	121	59.02
<u>Age</u>		
Below 20 years	1	0.49
20–24 years	11	5.37
25–34 years	153	74.63
35–44 years	30	14.63
45–54 years	10	4.88
<u>Occupation</u>		
Employee	169	82.44
Business owner	18	8.78
Housewife	3	1.46
Student	8	3.90
Others	7	3.41

6.4.2 Classification of Values

In order to extract similar values from Thai customers, following the study in Chapter 4, similar values were firstly extracted by utilizing the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in SPSS version 17. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) value of 0.68 exceeds the minimum value of 0.6 (Kaiser, 1974) and the value of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also significant (p < 0.001), which showed that the data were appropriate for this method (Bartlett, 1954). The items with factor loading greater than 0.6 were retained for each component with eigenvalues greater than 1.

Various past studies suggested to use the cut-off point of 0.6 regardless of any sample size (Field, 2005; Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). Thus, the items that had factor loading greater than 0.6 were retained for each component. Additionally, those components had the eigenvalue greater than 1. Similar to the previous study, three factors were extracted

from EFA which represented 78.27 percent of variance. The details of component extraction are provided in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Component Extraction Result (LOV Model)

г.]	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Factors	Total	Percent of variance	Cumulative percent	Total	Percent of Variance	Cumulative percent	
1	3.21	35.70	35.70	3.11	34.58	34.58	
2	2.20	24.43	60.13	2.21	24.60	59.17	
3	1.63	18.13	78.27	1.72	19.09	78.27	
4	0.50	5.57	83.83				
5	0.45	4.94	88.77				
6	0.38	4.21	92.98				
7	0.29	3.17	96.14				
8	0.21	2.27	98.45				
9	0.14	1.59	100.00				

By using varimax (orthogonal) rotation, nine values were classified into three components, namely society-related values (component 1), individual-related values (component 2) and enjoyment-related values (component 3). All the factor loadings are described in Table 6.3. These results are similar to the previous study of ethnic restaurants. However, security in this study was highly correlated to the group of society-related values and self-respect was grouped to the individual related values much like the Japanese samples in the ethnic restaurant case study.

Table 6.3 Factor Loading of List of Values (LOV Model)

		Factors					
Items	1	2	3				
V1	045	006	.923				
V2	094	.030	.913				
V3	.864	027	079				
V4	.896	.144	021				
V5	.872	.063	.018				
V6	.884	055	137				
V7	.029	.830	.055				
V8	023	.867	.032				
V9	.086	.861	060				

Note: V1 = Excitement, V2 = Fun and enjoyment of life, V3 = Warm relationship with others, V4 = Sense of belonging, V5 = Being well respected, V6 = Security, V7 = Self-fulfillment, V8 = Self-respect, V9 = Sense of accomplishment

Since the similar groups of values were found in this study, similar hypotheses for the below model were developed as presented below. Therefore, twelve hypotheses were developed in this study to test the association between values, customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention.

6.4.3 Mean of Values, Customer Needs, Customer Satisfaction and Return Intention

The descriptive statistic in Table 6.4 shows that Thai participants hold society-related values (M = 4.15, SD = 0.84) as the most important values followed by individual-related values (M = 4.04, SD = 0.77) and enjoyment-related values (M = 3.98, SD = 0.86). These results were similar to the study of ethnic restaurants which revealed that Thai participants hold every values equally. However, the scores were slightly varied from one group of values to another group in which society-related values were obviously seen as the most important group of values among Thais. From the total nine values, sense of accomplishment and security were found as the most important values (sense of accomplishment: M = 4.44, SD = 0.86; security: M = 4.35, SD = 0.87), similar to the previous study in ethnic restaurants. Particular, security dominated the group of society-related values, while sense of accomplishment dominated the individual related values. On

the other hand, self-respect was revealed as the least important value in this study (M = 3.65, SD = 0.94). For the group of enjoyment-related values, fun and enjoyment of life dominated the high score of this group.

In addition, the most important needs were functional needs (M = 4.11, SD = 0.68) which was similar to the study in ethnic restaurants, followed by social needs (M = 4.09, SD = 0.86), experiential needs (M = 4.00, SD = 0.94) and symbolic needs (M = 3.94, SD = 0.84). Lastly, the customer satisfaction was assigned very high score (M = 4.07, SD = 0.81) while the return intention was rated at moderated level (M = 3.56, SD = 1.01) which implied that the chance that customers will revisit small hotels and resorts is not so high.

Table 6.4 *Mean of Construct and Items (LOV Model)*

	M	SD
Society-related values	4.15	0.84
Warm relationship with others	4.29	0.94
Sense of belonging	3.91	0.98
Being well respected	3.90	1.01
Security	4.35	0.87
Individual-related values	4.04	0.77
Self-fulfillment	4.04	0.89
Self-respect	3.65	0.94
Sense of accomplishment	4.44	0.86
Enjoyment-related values	3.98	0.86
Excitement	3.81	0.98
Fun and enjoyment of life	4.15	0.89
Experiential needs	4.00	0.94
Symbolic needs	3.94	0.84
Social needs	4.09	0.86
Functional needs	4.11	0.68
<u>Customer satisfaction</u>	4.07	0.81
Return intention	3.56	1.01

Note: 5-point Likert scale of values (1 = strongly unimportant, 5 = strongly important); 5-point Likert scale of other factors (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree)

6.4.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Result

Before conducting structural equation modelling (SEM) the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was firstly conducted to validate whether the multiple manifest indicators reflected the underlying latent constructs by using AMOS version 21. Therefore, the CFA result from Thai participants is presented in Table 6.5. The results supported the convergent validity of measures since all loadings are significant at p < 0.001 and most of the average variance extracted (AVE) exceeded the minimum criterion of 0.5 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). In addition, the square correlation between constructs (based on the correlation in Table 6.6) was less than the AVE, confirming discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The measurement model fitted with the data well based on the goodness-fit indices and the p-value 0.09.

Table 6.5 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (LOV Model)

Construct and items	Loading	<i>t</i> -value	Reliability	AVE
Society-related values (SOCV)			0.88	0.65
Warm relationship with others	0.87	15.92		
Sense of belonging	0.78	13.54		
Being well respected	0.66	11.79		
Security	0.88	N/A		
Individual-related values (IDV)			0.82	0.60
Self-fulfillment	0.71	10.09		
Self-respect	0.83	11.24		
Sense of accomplishment	0.78	N/A		
Enjoyment-related values (ENJV)			0.83	0.71
Excitement	0.90	8.81		
Fun and enjoyment of life	0.78	N/A		
Experiential needs (EXP)			0.92	0.80
Experiential needs (EXT) Experiential needs 1	0.89	20.64	0.92	0.80
Experiential needs 2	0.92	N/A		
Experiential needs 2 Experiential needs 3	0.87	19.25		
1	0.07	19.28	0.00	0.71
Symbolic needs (SYM)	0.02	14.40	0.88	0.71
Symbolic needs 1	0.82	14.48		
Symbolic needs 2	0.92	N/A		
Symbolic needs 3	0.78	13.57		
Social needs (SOC)			0.91	0.77
Social needs 1	0.88	16.62		
Social needs 2	0.85	N/A		
Social needs 3	0.90	17.17		
Functional needs (FUNC)			0.82	0.61
Functional needs 1	0.80	N/A		
Functional needs 2	0.86	12.20		
Functional needs 3	0.66	9.72		
Customer satisfaction (SAT)			0.94	0.83
Satisfaction 1	0.93	N/A	0.71	0.03
Satisfaction 2	0.92	23.99		
Satisfaction 3	0.89	21.65		
Return intention (RI)			0.91	0.76
Return intention 1	0.87	N/A	0.71	0.70
Return intention 2	0.92	17.45		
Return intention 3	0.83	15.32		
	0.03	13.32		

Note: All factor loadings are significant at p < 0.001. t-values were not obtained for the fixed items (1.00) due to the maximum likelihood estimation. Thai samples: $\chi^2_{(259)} = 290.15$, $\chi^2/df = 1.12$, GFI = 0.91, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.93, RMR = 0.04, RMSEA = 0.02

In addition, correlations for each factor are presented in Table 6.6. Besides, the correlations between each pair of factors were less than or equaled to 0.6 which caused the square correlation to be less than the AVE values for every factor. For example, the square correlation between customer satisfaction and return intention in Table 6.6 was 0.37 which calculated from $(0.61)^2$, and was less that AVE value in Table 6.5. Thus, the results confirmed that there was no multicollinearity in this study.

Table 6.6 *Correlation Matrix (LOV Model)*

	SOCV	IDV	ENJV	EXP	SYM	SOCN	FUNC	SAT	RI
SOCV	1.00								
IDV	0.07	1.00							
ENJV	-0.13	-0.02	1.00						
EXP	-0.03	0.02	0.43	1.00					
SYM	-0.08	0.26	0.29	0.05	1.00				
SOCN	0.44	0.10	0.02	0.11	0.28	1.00			
FUNC	-0.02	0.34	0.06	0.03	0.29	0.40	1.00		
SAT	0.07	0.19	0.07	0.02	0.17	0.30	0.42	1.00	
RI	0.12	0.13	0.04	0.06	0.16	0.28	0.35	0.61	1.00

Note: SOCV = Society-related values, IDV = Individual-related values, ENJV = Enjoyment-related values, EXP = Experiential needs, SYM = Symbolic needs, SOCN = Social needs, FUNC = Functional needs, SAT = Customer satisfaction, RI = Return intention; all correlations are significant at p < 0.05 except the correlations between pairs of constructs that are less than 0.10

6.4.5 Structural Result (LOV Model)

Regarding to the results of structural equation modeling (SEM) along with maximum likelihood method, the overall results showed that the model is acceptable as can be seen that the model fit values were the greater than the cut-off values as mentioned in Chapter 4 ($\chi^2_{(268)} = 303.56$, $\chi^2/df = 1.13$, GFI = 0.91, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.93, RMR = 0.04, RMSEA = 0.03). Regarding to the adjusted model to yield the *p*-value > 0.05 (Kaiwan, 2013), the *p*-value of 0.07 indicated that the model was acceptable (please see the full model in Appendix M). In addition, the *p*-value of 0.07 showed that the model was the acceptable. The structural result is presented in Figure 6.5.

The results showed that society-related values positively influenced to the social needs ($\chi_{13} = 0.48$, t = 7.09, p < 0.001), while there was no significant association to experiential needs ($\chi_{11} = 0.04$, t = 0.53, p = 0.60). In addition, it can be seen that the standardized path coefficients from this group of values to symbolic needs and functional needs were in negative direction ($\chi_{12} = -0.07$, t = -0.96, p = 0.34; $\chi_{14} = -0.03$, t = -0.39, p = 0.70). Since this group of values consisted of warm relationship with others, sense of belonging, security, and being well respected, it is more likely to motivate the needs that relate to interaction with other people in the society.

Next, individual related-values were found to positively influence mainly with symbolic needs ($\gamma_{22} = 0.41$, t = 5.26, p < 0.001) and functional needs ($\gamma_{24} = 0.41$, t = 5.04, p < 0.001). However, this group of values did not influence on experiential needs and social needs ($\gamma_{21} = -0.09$, t = -1.25, p = 0.21; $\gamma_{23} = 0.05$, t = 0.72, t = 0.47).

Lastly, enjoyment-related values positively influenced customer needs, mainly experiential needs ($y_{31} = 0.52$, t = 6.66, p < 0.001) and symbolic needs ($y_{32} = 0.22$, t = 3.09, p < 0.001). Since these values involved fun and enjoyment of life, and excitement, it can be expected that the customers who hold these values are more likely to seek for new experiences and sensory pleasure when staying in small hotels and resorts. In addition, it can be noticed that this group of values also motivated the needs for self-enhancing such as symbolic needs. Nevertheless, there was no relationship between this group of values, social needs and functional needs ($\chi_{33} = 0.09$, t = 1.31, p = 0.19; $\chi_{34} = 0.03$, t = 0.37, p = 0.090.71). Since particular values were found to positively influence on different types of customer needs, these findings suggested that the first hypotheses (H1) was supported. These results were similar to the previous study in Chapter 4, suggesting that there was a specific pattern between values and customer needs. The values that involved doing new activities which bring enjoyment and fun to the customers would associate with experiential needs. On the other hand, the values that involved external values to interact with other people would link to the social needs, while values that related to internal values would positively influence the functional needs. In addition, it can be seen that values that bring fun and enjoyment of life as well as the values that involved internal values would associate with symbolic needs.

Among four types of needs, social needs were found to have the strongest influence on customer satisfaction which implied that most of the Thai customers stay in the small hotels and resorts for socializing with family, friends or coworkers ($\beta_{35} = 0.20$, t = 2.55, p < 0.05) and to satisfy their functional needs ($\beta_{45} = 0.30$, t = 3.87, p < 0.001). In a contrast, experiential needs ($\beta_{15} = 0.03$, t = 0.50, p = 0.62) and symbolic needs ($\beta_{25} = 0.09$, t = 1.18, p = 0.24) were found no significant influence on customer satisfaction. Since small hotels and resorts are considered as lower grade hotels than other types of hotels, the customers expected for the basic needs to have good sleep in the hotel and receive a proper service. In addition, guests also looked for social needs to enjoy pleasant time with friends and family. Therefore, H2 was partially supported. Comparing to the study of ethnic restaurants, the results were different since functional needs were found to play a greater important role to influence on customer satisfaction together with social needs. Nevertheless, the standardized path coefficient from functional needs to customer satisfaction was slightly higher than the standardized path coefficient from social needs to customer satisfaction.

Besides, it was found that none of customer needs directly influence on return intention ($\beta_{16} = 0.06$, t = 0.97, p = 0.33; $\beta_{26} = -0.03$, t = -0.43, p = 0.67; $\beta_{36} = 0.06$, t = 0.83, p = 0.41; $\beta_{46} = 0.10$, t = 1.42, p = 0.67), whereas customer satisfaction positively influenced return intention in this study ($\beta_{56} = 0.60$, t = 8.28, p < 0.001). Therefore, H3 was not supported whereas H4 was supported in this study. These findings suggested that customer satisfaction could be a mediator between customer needs and return intention. Therefore, the mediation test was conducted in the next section.

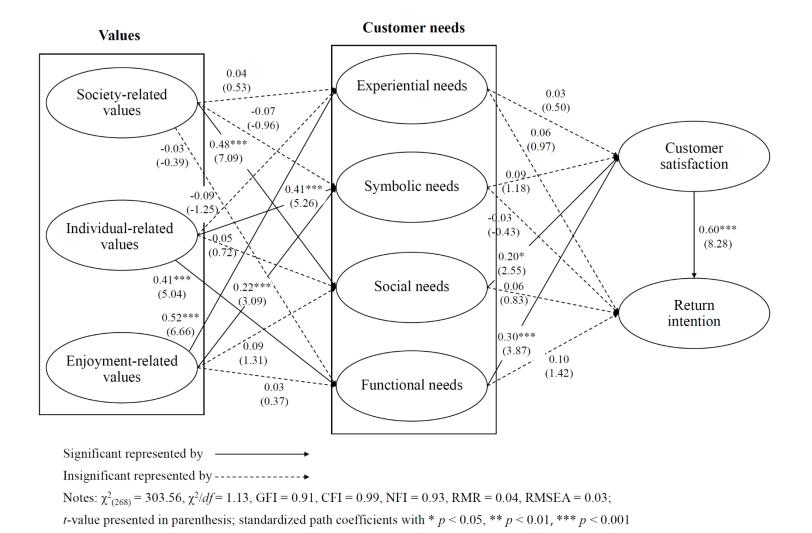


Figure 6.5 Structural Result (LOV Model)

6.4.6 Mediation Test (LOV model)

Similar to the previous study in Chapter 4, the mediating effect was conducted and the results confirmed that customer satisfaction was found as a mediator between needs and return intention (Table 6.7). As suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), first, the direct relationship between customer needs and return intention (without customer satisfaction) was tested. The relationship was statistically significant for Thai participants ($\beta_{36} = 0.17$, t = 2.16, p < 0.05; $\beta_{46} = 0.32$, t = 3.84, p < 0.001). Second, the constrained model (fixed the restaurant attributes—return intention relationship to zero) was tested to obtain the chisquare statistics. For the model from all participants, the chi-square of constrained model was 307.83 with the degree of freedom 272, while the chi-square of the proposed model was 303.56 with the degree of freedom 268. The results from calculation of chi-square difference between the constrained and proposed model ($\Delta \chi^2_{(4)} = 4.27$) indicated that the constrained model is not statistically different from the proposed model since the difference of p-value was larger than 0.05.

Table 6.7 Results of Mediating Effect (LOV Model)

Needs → RI (without CS)	Constrained model	Proposed model	$\Delta \chi^2$
$\beta_{36} = 0.17, t = 2.16$	$\chi^2 = 307.83$	$\chi^2 = 303.56$	$\Delta \chi^2_{(4)} = 4.27$
$\beta_{46} = 0.32, t = 3.84$	df = 272	df = 268	p > 0.05

From investigating the relationship between values, customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention, the summary of hypotheses are summarized in Table 6.8. Since values positively influenced customer needs, we concluded that H1 was supported. It implied that values and customer needs were associated with each other since values are determinants of needs as mentioned in the value-attitude-behavior relationship (Homer & Kahle, 1988).

However, the needs that have an influence on customer satisfaction were different from the case of ethnic restaurants. Although social needs were found to influence customer satisfaction, functional needs exerted the greatest influence on customer satisfaction when they stay in small hotels and resorts. Therefore, only social needs and functional needs have an influence on customer satisfaction. Therefore, H2 were partially supported. For the relationship between customer needs and return intention, there was no significant relationship found in this study, suggesting the rejection of H3. Lastly, the results showed that customer satisfaction positively influenced return intention, indicating the support of H4.

Table 6.8 Summary of the Hypotheses (LOV Model)

Hypotheses	Relationships	Results
H1	Values → Customer needs	Supported
H2	Customer needs → Customer satisfaction	Partially Supported
Н3	Customer needs → Return intention	Not supported
H4	Customer satisfaction → Return intention	Supported

6.5 Results (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)

6.5.1 Classification of Small Hotel and Resort Attributes

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was firstly conducted to group similar attributes together. The factors were extracted by employing the principal component analysis (PCA) and varimax rotation. The value of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was around 0.79 which above the cutoff value of 0.6, suggesting the appropriateness to use this method (Kaiser, 1974). The value of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also significant (*p*-value < 0.001), which showed that the data were appropriate for this method (Bartlett, 1954).

In Table 6.9, items that had factor loading greater than 0.6 were retained for each component as suggested by the part studies (Field, 2005; Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). Additionally, those components had the eigenvalue greater than 1. In this study, three factors were extracted from EFA which represented 84.34 percent of variance.

Table 6.9 Component Extraction Result (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)

Factors -]	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings			
	Total	Percent of variance	Cumulative percent	Total	Percent of Variance	Cumulative percent		
1	5.65	37.67	37.67	4.63	30.90	30.90		
2	2.52	16.80	54.47	2.44	16.29	47.18		
3	1.78	11.90	66.40	1.98	13.17	60.36		
4	1.52	10.14	76.51	1.90	12.65	73.00		
5	1.18	7.83	84.34	1.70	11.34	84.34		
6	0.42	2.81	87.15					
7	0.41	2.74	89.88					
8	0.29	1.96	91.84					
9	0.27	1.78	93.62					
10	0.25	1.64	95.25					
11	0.24	1.58	96.83					
12	0.18	1.21	98.04					
13	0.15	0.97	99.01					
14	0.10	0.67	99.68					
15	0.05	0.32	100.00					

By using varimax (orthogonal) rotation, fifteen attributes were classified into five components. These groups were named as; (i) fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes which consisted of price, security, new room, cleanliness, brightness inside the room and basic amenities, (ii) entertainment attributes which consisted of special activities, local food service and surprising and entertaining activities, (iii) employee characteristic attributes which consisted of energetic employee and smiling face, (iv) scenery and decoration attributes which consisted of beautiful scenery and theme decoration and (v) access and location attributes which consisted of good location and easy access. All the factor loadings are presented in Table 6.10. In addition, these results were different from the case study of ethnic restaurants which grouped the attributes into basic attributes, unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes.

Table 6.10 Factor Loading of Small Hotel and Resort Attributes

	Factors					
Items	1	2	3	4	5	
A1	.059	.090	.019	.959	.099	
A2	.034	.084	.045	.967	.038	
A3	.209	.018	.048	.113	.904	
A4	.344	.059	.057	.031	.850	
A5	.215	.098	.949	.041	.045	
A6	.228	.118	.949	.029	.060	
A7	.772	069	.249	.048	.207	
A8	.861	.069	.101	.058	.181	
A9	.861	.055	.180	.002	.171	
A10	.895	008	.169	.030	.112	
A11	.866	.088	.106	.027	.143	
A12	.846	.104	027	.018	.061	
A13	.149	.850	.069	.079	.018	
A14	.035	.887	.123	.118	.038	
A15	028	.928	.020	005	.022	

Note: A1 = Beautiful scenery, A2 = Theme decoration, A3 = Good location, A4 = Easy access, A5 = Energetic employee, A6 = Smiling face, A7 = Price, A8 = Security, A9 = New room, A10 = Cleanliness, A11 = Brightness inside the room, A12 = Basic amenities, A13 = Special activities, A14 = Local food service, A15 = Surprising and entertaining activities

6.5.2 Mean of Small Hotel and Resort Attributes

The descriptive statistic in Table 6.11 shows that customers who stay in small hotels and resorts perceived that price was reasonable (M = 4.18, SD = 0.86) and the location of hotel was located in good areas which are near tourist attraction (M = 4.04, SD = 0.93), leading to the two highest mean scores among other attributes. On the other hand, with this type of limited budget hotel, the guests did not receive surprising and entertaining activities when they stay in small hotels and resorts (M = 2.89, SD = 1.13).

From the mean score of each group, we could see that the guests agreed that the employee characteristic attributes were very good (M = 3.96, SD = 0.89) which consisted of two items, energetic employee (M = 3.97, SD = 0.89) and smiling face of the employee (M = 3.96, SD = 0.92). Similarly, the access and location attributes were also rated highly (M = 3.95, SD = 0.85) which consisted of good location (M = 4.04, SD = 0.93) and easy access (M = 3.85, SD = 0.96). These findings implied that Thai participants might look at these attributes as the primary attributes when they choose to stay in small hotels and resorts. In addition, the group of fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes was assigned high score (M = 3.85, SD = 0.81) which mainly dominated by price (M = 4.18, SD = 0.86). For other attributes in this group such as security (M = 3.74, SD = 0.94), new room (M = 3.86, SD = 0.93), cleanliness (M = 3.89, SD = 0.98), brightness inside the room (M = 3.78, SD = 0.91) and basic amenities (M = 3.66, SD = 0.97), the scores greater than 3.50 indicated that participants perceived that these attributes were provided in a good level.

For the last two groups, scenery and decoration attributes, and entertaining attributes, these groups had the lowest scores less than 3.50 which implied that the guests did not receive these attributes in a good range. In the group of scenery and decoration attributes, participants perceived that the scenery was moderately beautiful (M = 3.39, SD = 1.07) and these hotels might not decorate with the theme (M = 3.44, SD = 1.06), leading to the average score almost 3.50 (M = 3.41, SD = 1.03). Similarly, the attributes in entertaining attributes group, including special activities (M = 2.96, SD = 1.10), local food service (M = 3.19, SD = 1.06) and surprising and entertaining activities (M = 2.89, SD = 1.06) and surprising and entertaining activities (M = 2.89, SD = 1.06)

1.13) were rated lower than other attributes. Thus, this group of attributes had the lowest score (M = 3.01, SD = 0.98) among five groups of small hotel and resort attributes.

Table 6.11 Mean of Small Hotel and Resort Attributes

	М	SD
Scenery and decoration attributes	3.41	1.03
Beautiful scenery	3.39	1.07
Theme decoration	3.44	1.06
Access and location attributes	3.95	0.85
Good location (near tourist attractions)	4.04	0.93
Easy access (by public transportation)	3.85	0.96
Employee characteristic attributes	3.96	0.89
Energetic employee	3.97	0.89
Smiling face	3.96	0.92
Fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes	3.85	0.81
Price	4.18	0.86
Security	3.74	0.94
New room	3.86	0.93
Cleanliness	3.89	0.98
Brightness inside the room	3.78	0.91
Basic amenities (e.g. shampoo and soap)	3.66	0.97
Entertainment attributes	3.01	0.98
Special activities (e.g. making souvenirs back home)	2.96	1.10
Local food service	3.19	1.06
Surprising and entertaining activities (e.g. birthday party)	2.89	1.13

Note: 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree)

6.5.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Result

Before conducting structural equation modelling (SEM) the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was firstly conducted to validate whether the multiple manifest indicators reflected the underlying latent constructs by using AMOS version 21. Therefore, the CFA result for small hotel and resort attributes model is presented in Table 6.12. The results supported the convergent validity of measures since all factor loadings are significant at p < 0.001 and most of the average variance extracted (AVE) exceeded the minimum criterion of 0.5 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). In addition, the square correlation between constructs

(based on the correlation in Table 6.13) was less than the AVE, confirming discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The measurement model fitted with the data well based on the goodness-fit indices and the *p*-value 0.07.

Table 6.12 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)

Construct and items	Loading	<i>t</i> -value	Reliability	AVE
Scenery and decoration attributes			0.92	0.86
Beautiful scenery	0.96	N/A		
Theme decoration	0.89	6.84		
Access and location attributes			0.84	0.72
Good location (near tourist attractions)	0.78	8.65		
Easy access (by public transportation)	0.91	N/A		
Employee characteristic attributes			0.95	0.91
Energetic employee	0.96	N/A		
Smiling face	0.95	21.77		
<u>Fundamental equipment and hotel standard</u> attributes			0.94	0.72
Price	0.78	12.59		
Security	0.86	14.17		
New room	0.90	13.68		
Cleanliness	0.90	15.04		
Brightness inside the room	0.85	14.09		
Basic amenities	0.79	N/A		
Entertainment attributes			0.88	0.71
Special activities	0.76	N/A		
Local food service	0.86	12.64		
Surprising and entertaining activities	0.90	12.76		
Customer satisfaction (SAT)			0.94	0.84
Satisfaction 1	0.93	N/A		
Satisfaction 2	0.92	22.62		
Satisfaction 3	0.90	21.36		
Return intention (RI)			0.90	0.76
Return intention 1	0.87	N/A		
Return intention 2	0.92	17.71		
Return intention 3	0.82	15.21		

Note: All factor loadings are significant at p < 0.001. t-values were not obtained for the fixed items (1.00) due to the maximum likelihood estimation. Thai samples: $\chi^2_{(157)} = 184.49$, $\chi^2/df = 1.18$, GFI = 0.92, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.95, RMR = 0.04, RMSEA = 0.03

In addition, correlations for each factor are presented in Table 6.13. Besides, the correlations between each pair of factors were less than or equaled to 0.6 which caused the square correlation to be less than the AVE values for every factor. For example, the square correlation between customer satisfaction and return intention in Table 6.13 was 0.37 which calculated from $(0.61)^2$, and was less that AVE value in Table 6.12. Thus, the results confirmed that there was no multicollinearity in this study.

Table 6.13 Correlation Matrix (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)

	SDA	ALA	ECA	FEA	EA	SAT	RI
SDA	1.00						
ALA	0.11	1.00					
ECA	0.09	0.21	1.00				
FEA	0.10	0.51	0.37	1.00			
EA	0.17	0.05	0.20	0.12	1.00		
SAT	0.13	0.43	0.48	0.54	0.06	1.00	
RI	0.03	0.34	0.31	0.33	0.04	0.61	1.00

Note: SDA = Scenery and decoration attributes, ALA = Access and location attributes, ECA = Employee characteristic attributes, FEA = Fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes, EA = Entertainment attributes, SAT = Customer satisfaction, RI = Return intention; all correlations are significant at p < 0.05 except the correlations between pairs of constructs that are less than 0.10

6.5.4 Structural Result (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)

The result of SEM is presented in Figure 6.6. Regarding to the results of structural equation modeling (SEM) along with maximum likelihood method, the overall results showed that the model is acceptable as can be seen that the model fit values were the greater than the cut-off values as mentioned above ($\chi^2_{(158)} = 183.03$, $\chi^2/df = 1.16$, GFI = 0.92, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.95, RMR = 0.04, RMSEA = 0.02). Regarding to the adjusted model to yield the *p*-value > 0.05 (Kaiwan, 2013), the *p*-value of 0.08 indicated that the model was acceptable (please see the full model in Appendix M).

The results revealed that employee characteristic attributes, and fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes have a positive influence on customer satisfaction in which the standardized path coefficient from employee characteristic attributes to customer satisfaction was slightly lower than the standardized path coefficient from fundamental equipment and hotel standard to customer satisfaction ($y_{31} = 0.33$, t = 5.22, p< 0.001; $\gamma_{41} = 0.41$, t = 5.24, p < 0.001). These results indicated that fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes are more important to enhance customer satisfaction than employee characteristic attributes among Thai customers when they stay in small hotels and resorts. On the other hand, there is no significant relationship between scenery and decoration attributes, access and location attributes, and customer satisfaction ($y_{11} = 0.07$, $t = 1.19, p = 0.23; \chi_{21} = 0.08, t = 1.10, p = 0.27$). Interestingly, we found that entertainment attributes slightly negative influenced on customer satisfaction but there was no statistically significance ($\chi_{51} = -0.06$, t = -0.94, p = 0.35). For access and location attributes, it could be viewed as a must-be attributes in Kano's model that guests already perceived that these attributes should exist, leading to no association with customer satisfaction. For the groups of scenery and decoration attributes, and entertainment attributes, they should be viewed as the attributes that could give customers beyond their expectation similar to attractive attributes in Kano's model. Nevertheless, these attributes did not yet satisfy customers as could be viewed from the lower mean score of these attributes than others. Therefore, there was no significant relationship found in our study. These results indicated that H1 was partially supported.

Besides, it was found that none of small hotel and resort attributes directly influenced return intention ($\gamma_{12} = -0.08$, t = -1.35, p = 0.18; $\gamma_{22} = 0.10$, t = 1.29, p = 0.20; $\gamma_{32} = 0.01$, t = 0.01, t = 0.98; $\gamma_{42} = -0.06$, t = -0.75, t = 0.45; $\gamma_{52} = 0.02$, t = 0.25, t = 0.80), whereas customer satisfaction positively influenced return intention in this study ($\beta_{12} = 0.66$, t = 7.56, t = 0.001). Therefore, H2 was not supported whereas H3 was supported in this study.

Small hotel and resort attributes

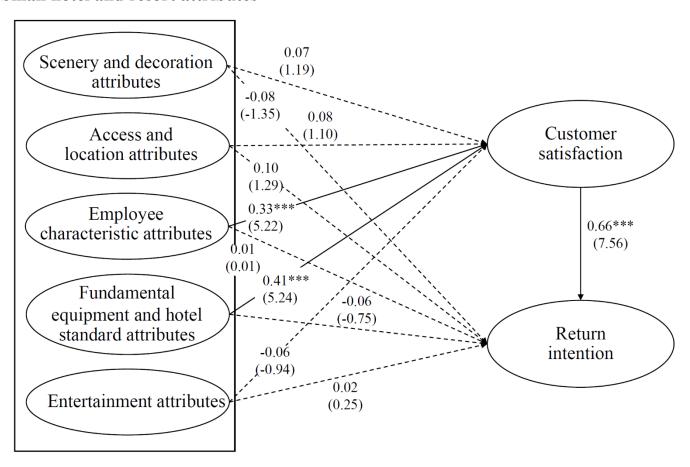


Figure 6.6 Structural Result (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)

Finally, the summary of all hypotheses are presented in Table 6.14. Since employee characteristic attributes and fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes only had a positive influence on customer satisfaction, H1 was partially supported. In addition, there was no significant relationship between small hotels and resorts attributes and return intention, suggesting the rejection of H2. Lastly, the results showed that customer satisfaction positively influenced return intention, indicating the support of H3.

Table 6.14 Summary of Hypotheses (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes model)

Hypotheses	Relationships	Results
H1	Attributes → Customer satisfaction	Partially supported
H2	Attributes → Return intention	Not supported
Н3	Customer satisfaction → Return intention	Supported

6.5.5 Mediation Test (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes model)

Similar to the previous study in Chapter 5, the mediating effect was conducted and the results confirmed that customer satisfaction was found as a mediator between needs and return intention (Table 6.15). First, the direct relationship between customer needs and return intention (without customer satisfaction) was tested. The relationship was statistically significant ($\chi_{32} = 0.22$, t = 2.99, p < 0.001; $\chi_{42} = 0.21$, t = 2.39, p < 0.05), Second, the constrained model (fixed the attributes–return intention relationship to zero) was tested to obtain the chi-square statistics. For the model from all participants, the chi-square of constrained model was 186.21, while the chi-square of the proposed model was 183.03. The results from calculation of chi-square difference between the constrained and proposed model ($\Delta\chi^2_{(5)} = 3.18$, p > 0.05) indicated that the constrained model is not statistically different from the proposed model since the difference of p-value was larger than 0.05.

Table 6.15 Results of Mediating Effect (Small Hotel and Resort Attributes Model)

Attributes → RI (without CS)	Constrained model	Proposed model	$\Delta \chi^2$
$ \gamma_{32} = 0.22, t = 2.99 $	$\chi^2 = 186.21$	$\chi^2 = 183.03$	$\Delta \chi^2_{(5)} = 3.18$
$y_{42} = 0.21, t = 2.39$	df = 163	df = 158	p > 0.05

6.6 Discussion

From the cross-cultural studies between Thai and Japanese participants, Thai and Japanese customers looked for different needs based on the values that they hold. However, from both case studies (ethnic restaurants and small hotels and resorts), there were similar patterns that values positively influenced specific types of customer needs. This might occur because the customer needs that used in both studies were developed from the same concept. Therefore, the values that positively influenced each type of customer needs might be found in another case study in service context. For example, society-related values could be predicted to positively influence social needs. The interesting point is that we found functional needs influenced customer satisfaction which differed from the ethnic restaurants case study. Since ethnic restaurants are classified as hybrid while small hotels and resorts are classified as major service with accompanying minor goods and services, customers who engage in different services were also motivated by different values and needs.

In this study, the important values were similar to the previous study (ethnic restaurants). Among nine values, Thai participants gave more importance to security and sense of accomplishment which confirmed that these are the two most important values in the eyes of Thais. In addition, these values can also be classified into three groups (i) enjoyment-related values, (ii) individual-related values and (iii) society-related values. It is suggested that in Thai people viewed these values into three different ways, leading to the clear separated group of values. Besides, when we looked at each group of values, we can see that society-related values were rated as the highest important group of values among three groups. For the customer needs, functional needs and social needs were assigned the highest score when they stay in small hotels and resorts. It implied that Thai customers who chose to stay in this type of hotels expected only the basic needs such as sleep well in the room and check-in and checkout properly. Nevertheless, another group of customers preferred to socialize with friends and family when they travel to other provinces and stay in small hotels and resorts. This lead to the different needs to be met when the industry has been changed to hotel instead of ethnic restaurants. The findings revealed that similar values have a positive influence on customer needs among Thai customers to stay

in small hotel and resorts. For example, society-related values were found to positively influence on social needs whereas individual-related values were found to influence mainly on functional needs and slightly influence on symbolic needs. For enjoyment-related values, this group was found to mainly influence on experiential needs and slightly influence on symbolic needs. Therefore, the first hypothesis (H1) was supported.

Even though similar pattern between values and customer needs were found, in this study, only social needs and functional needs influenced customer satisfaction. Besides, the correlation path between functional needs and customer satisfaction was slightly higher than the relationship of social needs. This result was different from the study of ethnic restaurants which showed that symbolic needs had an influence on customer satisfaction. Since ethnic restaurants are unique from typical restaurants, the customers then seek for the symbolic needs when dining in Japanese restaurants. In a contrast, small hotels and resorts are considered as limited budget hotel in which customers did not expect the higher level of needs such as experiential needs and symbolic needs. Therefore, only functional needs and social needs influenced customers to have great experience when they stay in this hotel which will increase the chance that they will return again in the future. These findings indicated that the customers who were more likely to revisit the small hotels and resorts hold individual-related values and society-related values which lead them to seek for functional needs and social needs. Therefore, the second hypothesis (H2) was partially supported. However, return intention was not influenced by any type of customer needs when there was customer satisfaction in the model, only the positive influence from customer satisfaction was found in this study which is similar to the study of ethnic restaurants. These results suggested that the customer satisfaction was a key determinant of return intention than the customer needs. It was also confirmed by the mediation test that customer satisfaction was found to be a mediator between customer needs and return intention, leading to the rejection of H3 while the result supported H4. Besides, the details are presented in Table 6.16 to compare the difference between customer needs for two industries that influenced customer satisfaction.

Table 6.16 Comparison of Customer Needs between Ethnic Restaurants and Small Hotels and Resorts

Ethnic restaurants	Small hotels and resorts
Symbolic needs (influenced by IDV and ENJV)	Functional needs (influenced by IDV)
Social needs (influenced by SOCV)	Social needs (influenced by SOCV)

Note: SOCV = Society-related values, IDV: Individual-related values, ENJV = Enjoyment-related values

For the small hotel and resort attributes, the attributes were classified into five groups; (i) fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes which consisted of price, security, new room, cleanliness, brightness inside the room and basic amenities, (ii) entertainment attributes which consisted of special activities, local food service and surprising and entertaining activities, (iii) employee characteristic attributes which consisted of energetic employee and smiling face, (iv) scenery and decoration attributes which consisted of beautiful scenery and theme decoration and (v) access and location attributes which consisted of good location and easy access. These results differed from the case study of ethnic restaurants which showed that the attributes can be grouped into three categories; basic attributes, unique attributes and food, and service quality attributes. In addition, the results also showed that Thai customers perceived that fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes were provided in a good level such as the price is reasonable, security in the hotels is fine, the room is clean and new, and there are basic stuffs (shampoo and soap) in the room. Thus, this group of attributes was found to positively influence customer satisfaction. With the basic requirements, this enhances customer satisfaction to stay in small hotels and resorts. This result could fulfill to the needs that customer are seeking (functional needs) when staying in this type of hotel. Even though this type of needs was more likely to be the fundamental needs, the entrepreneurs should not ignore it and should improve these fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes to continue enhancing customer satisfaction. Thus, while unique attributes were important for ethnic restaurants, the fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes were the key attributes for small hotels and resorts (1–3 stars).

In addition, the customers also perceived that employees are energetic and always smile, which leads to high score on this group of attributes. The results were similar to the case study of ethnic restaurants which found that the food and service quality attributes are the most influential factors to customer satisfaction. Since the nature of the service is variability, service quality that relates to an employee is essential to serve good experiences to guests who either come to the ethnic restaurants or stay in a small hotels and resorts. Thus, the group of employee characteristic attributes also had a strong influence on customer satisfaction. On the other hand, other groups of attributes did not influence customer satisfaction. Due to different types of service industry (hybrid and major service with accompanying minor goods and services), customers demanded different needs which lead to address of the different key attributes. From these findings, only some groups of attributes positively influenced customer satisfaction which partially supported the first hypothesis in this model (H1). In addition, there was no influence from small hotel and resort attributes to return intention except customer satisfaction, which was similar to the study of ethnic restaurants that customer satisfaction had greater influence on return intention. It was also confirmed by the mediation test that customer satisfaction was found to be a mediator between small hotel and resort attributes and return intention. Thus, H2 was not supported while H3 was supported. Lastly, the comparison of the key attributes between two cases is presented in Table 6.17.

Table 6.17 Comparison of Key Attributes between Ethnic Restaurants and Small Hotels and Resorts

Ethnic restaurants	Small hotels and resorts
Unique attributes	Fundamental equipment and hotel standard
	attributes
Food and service quality attributes	Employee characteristic attributes

6.7 Conclusion

According to the fourth sub-objective, this study investigated the relationship between values, customer needs and small hotel and resort attributes. In this study, we would like to ensure the implication of LOV model and to investigate the aspects of the key attributes for hotel industry. These findings can be used to compare with the ethnic restaurants as presented in the discussion. Similar groups of values can be classified from the EFA. In addition, these values were found to positively influence specific needs of customers which is similar to the case study of ethnic restaurants. Nevertheless, only functional needs and social needs that influenced customer satisfaction whereas other needs were found no statistical significant relationship. These findings suggested that the values that customers hold in their life will guide them to seek for a specific needs that match with themselves which increased their satisfaction when staying small hotels and resorts. In addition, fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes, and employees characteristic should be emphasized to increase customer satisfaction and their return intention in the future which were different from the case study of ethnic restaurants.

6.8 Implications and Limitations

The findings from this study showed that Thai customers who tend to stay in small hotels and resorts are people who hold individual-related values and society-related values. Therefore, the customers will look for functional needs and social needs from the hotels. In this sense, the managers should focus on those two needs and ensure that customers will receive the needs that match with themselves. For example, there should be a space for guest to relax and do activities with family around hotels. Additionally, the room should be prepared properly to make guest feel comfortable and sleep well at night.

For the key attributes that managers of small hotels and resorts should take into accounted are employee characteristic and fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes. The employees should be enthusiasm and willing to help guest upon their

requests. In addition, they should have smiling face all the time to make guest feel good as well. For the attributes related to the room, the managers should check the cleanliness inside the room, the light is bright enough and the basic stuffs such as shampoo and soap are provided in a bathroom. Besides, the managers might set the price similar to other hotels and try to renovate the room as if it is new, since there are various hotels that available for the customers, especially homestay in Thailand. Therefore, these guidelines could help the managers improve the hotels to be attractive for Thai customers which will enhance their satisfaction and return intention.

As this study conducted to reflect the perspective of values and key attributes in another industry, there were some limitations similar to previous studies. First, the participants in this study were gathered from people who live in capital city (Bangkok) only. In addition, we scoped the framework to the small hotels and resorts in tourism province in Thailand which might not be able to apply for the other types of hotels because the needs of customers might be changed. Therefore, the future research should conduct with participants from other provinces in Thailand and compare the results together as well as apply these models with other types of hotel industry.

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CHAPTER 7 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the main objective of this dissertation is to investigate the cross-cultural differences between Thais and Japanese for ethnic food consumption. This chapter discusses the key findings from conducting cross-cultural studies between Thais and Japanese for food-related industry. In addition, general summary, implications and limitations are provided at the end of this chapter.

First, the findings from Thai survey and Japanese survey are discussed in three perspectives; (1) attitudes and preferences, (2) values and (3) key attributes of product and service. Second, the general summary is presented to explain how each sub-objectives is fulfilled. Lastly, the implications, limitations and future research directions are also provided in this chapter.

7.1 Discussion between Thais and Japanese for Food-Related Industry

To reflect the discussion in food-related industry, this dissertation presented the results from two main case studies, cross-cultural RTE food and ethnic restaurants. The similarities and differences of consumer attitudes and preferences when Thais and Japanese purchase cross-cultural RTE food and dine in ethnic restaurants were discussed. In addition, the values that customers in each country hold would guide them to seek for different types of needs when they dine in the restaurants. Lastly, the key attributes that should be developed to match with local customers were discussed. These findings would help researchers and entrepreneurs to understand how these three perspectives could affect consumer decision making for food consumption in the food-related industry.

According to the study in Chapter 3, Japanese consumers thought that Thai RTE food was healthy. Since Thai cuisine usually consisted of a wide variety of herbs and spices, this could reflect a healthy image in the eyes of Japanese as well as of American consumers (Jang, Ha & Silkes, 2009). For Thai consumers, they thought that Japanese RTE food was easy-to-eat. This result is similar to the study of Seubsman, et al. (2009) which showed that convenience and hygiene were main factors for Thai consumers to consume fast food products. Nevertheless, consumers in both countries had negative attitudes toward RTE food, especially for its freshness and taste. Therefore, these two factors were the key attributes for consumers to purchase this type of products, corresponding to the study from Chatthipmongkol and Jangphanish (2016) which also suggested that Thai consumers focus on the taste as the primary attribute when purchasing food products.

In addition, we found that both Thai and Japanese consumers usually dine in the restaurants rather than consume cross-cultural RTE food. It also supported that Thais and Japanese generally dine in the ethnic restaurants to satisfy social needs (to socialize with family, friends or co-workers) which are motivated by society-related values that they hold in life (in Chapter 4). In this group of values, we also saw that both Thais and Japanese gave high important score to "warm relationship with others" which could be one of the determinants toward dining in the ethnic restaurants. Since both countries are collectivism as classified by Hofstede et al. (2010), the purpose of dining in the ethnic restaurants is mainly to find a space for meeting others while enjoying unique cuisine.

Besides, Thai customers perceived that Japanese food is quite expensive comparing to their local food. Therefore, when they have to pay extra, the customers seek for symbolic needs to fulfill their self-enhancement such as eating healthy food and receiving the services that represent the cultural elements, for example, drinking green tea in Japanese restaurants. As can be seen from the similar scores of values, individual-related values and enjoyment-related values then have a positive influence on the symbolic needs for Thai customers. This result implied that Thai customers dine in Japanese restaurants to relax and take good things for themselves, similar to the findings from Chryssohoidis and Krystallis (2005) that internal values (individual-related values in this study) motivated Greece customers to buy organic food for healthiness.

In a contrast, Japanese customers perceived that Thai food is spicy and tasty, which could be implied that it is much different from their everyday food and thus led to the demand for experiential needs when dining in Thai restaurants. With the highest important score on the group of enjoyment-related values, it also suggested that Japanese customers give high importance to this group of values which motivate them to look for experiential needs. These results corresponded to the study of Ha and Jang (2010) which showed that American customers also looked for fun and exciting experiences when dining in ethnic restaurants.

Interestingly, it can be noticed that the participants in this study are female, which cause the higher scores on "fun and enjoyment of life" and "excitement" for Thais and Japanese, respectively. Thus, these findings supported why enjoyment-related values were found to have a positive influence on symbolic needs for Thais and experiential needs for Japanese. Nevertheless, these results contradicted the indulgence dimension which revealed that Thais and Japanese are prone to pessimistic and hardly spend time for doing relaxing activities (Hofstede et al., 2010).

In addition, the customer preferences are also varied between RTE food and MTO food. Thai consumers preferred the clear container lid design with a letter label in order to clearly see the food inside, which might help increase their confidence about freshness of Japanese RTE food. This type of design can also be found commonly in the market. Besides, the study Silayoi and Speece (2007) suggested that Thai consumers preferred the simple design in which they are familiar to when buying products in the stores, rather than the fancy one. On the other hand, the colorful picture on a packaging was more preferred by Japanese consumers. They might judge the quality of food inside based on the design of the products which implied that high quality of packaging associated with the high quality of products (Underwood, Klein, & Burke, 2001). In addition, Japanese foods and snacks are typically wrapped in a colorful design paper, which could ensure customers of a high quality and tasty products. Thus, the consumers were more likely to favor more on the design that they used to see in the markets. In addition, they preferred medium calories which are the average calories for RTE food in Japan, while Thai consumers preferred low calories, corresponding to the recent popular trend of healthy food in Thailand.

Furthermore, we found that Thai customers preferred fusion taste for Japanese RTE food while they preferred authentic taste for MTO food when they dine in Japanese restaurants (from Chapter 5). With the attitude that Japanese food is expensive, dining in the restaurants that can provide them a sense of genuine Japanese food might be worth to pay a higher price. For Japanese customers, they still preferred the authentic taste for both RTE and MTO food. These results corresponded to the studies of Sukalakamala and Boyce (2007) which found that authentic cuisine was the main preferences for American customers who dine in Thai restaurants. These results suggested that the brand originality from Japan and Thailand is also important to represent the authentic taste of ethnic food. This also corresponds to the rating score of key restaurant attributes showing that customers preferably dine in the restaurants originated from Japan and Thailand.

Interestingly, the country of origin of ingredients were ignored for Japanese customers, but were more important for Thai customers. It can be noticed from the image of Japanese food that the name of fish, such as salmon, is frequently mentioned (Chapter 3), and the Japanese food ingredients are quite unique from Thai ingredients as well. On the other hand, Thai food that is usually sold in the restaurants and typically consumed by Japanese customers (as mentioned in the image of Japanese food) is made from pork, chicken and shrimp, which all can be found easily in Japan. Therefore, countries of origin seemed to be more preferred by Thai customers than Japanese customers. In this study, the result from Japanese customers was different from the study of Tseng and Balabanis (2011) which found that country-of-origin (COO) of the cross-cultural products had an influence on Taiwanese purchasing behavior, suggesting that Asian customers, despite living in the same region, did not have the same preferences towards this factor.

For the types of food served, the study revealed that Thai customers preferred both types of single dish and set menu. In Thailand, there are various kinds of Japanese dishes (e.g. Udon and Sukiyaki) and set menus (e.g. set of rice with meat, pickles and soup). Therefore, customers were more likely to order the food and share among friends and family when they dined in Japanese restaurants. On the other hand, the choices of Thai food in Japan are quite limited (compared to Japanese food), in which only famous menus typically found in Thai restaurants such as Tom yum and Green curry are available. In

addition, the set menu is served only during lunch time which is different in Thailand that the set menu is also offered in the evening. Therefore, majority of Japanese customers preferred single dish to set menu. Besides, the appropriate waiting time for both Thai and Japanese customers should be around 5–15 minutes which poses a challenge for the restauranteurs to provide good food and service within little time.

While we found that price is more important than calories for RTE food, there is no significant influence of basic attributes (price, atmosphere, convenient location and brand reputation) on customer satisfaction when they dine in the restaurants which are also similar to the Japanese customers. These results differed from the study of Baek, Ham, and Yang (2006) which found that menu-price was the main motivator for customers when dining in fast-food restaurants. In addition, Thai restaurants are typically located in the center of Tokyo, where Japanese customers can easily reach the restaurants by train. Similarly, Thai customers typically dine in the restaurants located in the department stores which are easy to access by sky train and subway. It implied that basic attributes could be considered as must-be attributes in the Kano's model that should be maintained at a good level; otherwise it can lead to customer dissatisfaction (Tontini, 2007). On the other hand, unique attributes as well as great foods and services should be considered as the essential attributes to enhance customer satisfaction and increase their return intention for both Thais and Japanese, corresponding to the study of Marinkovic, Senic and Mimovic (2015) which revealed that food quality was one of the most important attributes in selecting ethnic restaurants in Serbia. In addition, these results supported the study of the healthy food trend in Asian countries (Euromonitor, 2016), suggesting that the healthy or low calorie menu is one of the key attributes for ethnic restaurants.

Nevertheless, the way to prioritize the key attributes for customers in both countries should be different. In Thailand, customers are likely to focus more on food and service quality than unique attributes. Therefore, customers' perspective on this group of attributes is considered to be the most important factors for enhancing their satisfaction and return patronage, which is similar to the study of Liu and Jang (2009). For Japanese customers, they are likely to focus more on unique attributes than food and service quality attributes. Since Japanese customers usually looked for novelty, sensory pleasure, aesthetic food and

entertainment services regarding to their experiential needs, dining in the restaurants that offered unique attributes would increase their satisfaction.

Regarding different cultures between Thai and Japanese consumers, we found that their attitudes are similar but their preferences are different. As can be seen from the case study in Chapter 3 and 5, Thai customers had different preferences when purchasing crosscultural RTE food and MTO food in the restaurants. The summarized details between these perspectives are presented in Table 7.1 and 7.2. In addition, this study used values to determine the difference of culture between Thai and Japanese customers. We found that participants in both countries hold some similar values leading to the common needs, such as social needs (influenced by society-related values), to be met when dining in ethnic restaurants. Moreover, beyond social needs, Thai customers also look for symbolic needs that are motivated by both individual-related values and enjoyment-related values, whereas enjoyment-related values were found to positively influence Japanese customers to look for experiential needs. These lead to the understanding of the role of values that influence on customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention when customers dine in ethnic restaurants. It is worth noting that ethnic restaurants are more unique than other types of the restaurants such as fast food restaurants and cause customers to demand beyond their functional needs. Besides, in the last perspective, we also investigated the key attributes of ethnic restaurants that should be addressed for both Thai and Japanese customers. Even similar group of attributes were found to positively influence on customer satisfaction, the standardized path coefficient are different. Thus, the key attributes for Thai and Japanese customers should be prioritized in different ways.

Lastly, it can be noticed that the standardized path coefficient from customer satisfaction to return intention among Thai participants were greater than Japanese participants in both LOV and restaurant attributes model. This results implied that the chance that Thai customers will return to Japanese restaurants was lower than Japanese customers who will repeat their patronage in Thai restaurants. In Thailand, Japanese food is sold more expensive comparing to the local food. Even though the restaurant provided a great service and quality of food as well as unique attributes, these attributes might be served to customers in other types of ethnic restaurants that offer similar prices such as

Italian restaurants. In addition, Thai customers also dined for satisfying healthy image, corresponding to the findings in Chapter 4 which implied that the customers might not take it regularly but when they want to reward themselves. Besides, the results from the interview in Chapter 3 also revealed that participants usually dine in Japanese restaurants for socialize with friends and on special occasion. In a contrast, the price of Thai food is similar to other ethnic food in Japan which is not so expensive. Thus, when customers preferred to dine unique food, Thai food could be a primary choice that corresponded to their needs (experiential needs) of enjoying a variety of food with affordable prices. As a result, these might affect the customers who are satisfied with Japanese food but might not revisit the Japanese restaurants in the future.

Table 7.1 Summary of Attitudes and Preferences of Thais

Attitudes	Preferences
Japanese MTO food	Japanese MTO food
 Negative: expensive 	• Taste: authentic taste
• Positive: tasty	 Country of origin of ingredients: Japan
	 Types of food: both single dish/set menu
	• Waiting time: 5–15 minutes
Japanese RTE food	Japanese RTE food
 Negative: not fresh/ not taste good 	• Taste: fusion taste
Positive: easy to eat	• Design: clear container lid with letter label
	• Price: 10–30 THB
	• Amount of calories: less than 400 Kcal

Table 7.2 Summary of Attitudes and Preferences of Japanese

Attitudes	Preferences
Japanese MTO food	Japanese MTO food
• Negative: -	• Taste: authentic taste
• Positive: tasty	 Country of origin of ingredients: ignored
	Types of food: single dish
	• Waiting time: 5–15minutes
Japanese RTE food	Japanese RTE food
 Negative: not fresh/ not strong taste 	• Taste: authentic taste
Positive: healthy	 Design: colorful picture on a container
	• Price: 201–500 JPY
	• Amount of calories: 401–800 Kcal

Note: "ignored" means that Japanese consumers did not concern about the country of ingredients.

7.2 General Summary

This research is divided into four main parts (Chapters 3–6) that sequentially attempts to fulfil (1) the main objective of investigating the cross-cultural differences between Thais and Japanese for ethnic food consumption, and (2) four sub-objectives (as stated in Chapter 1). In the beginning, consumer attitudes and preferences toward RTE food were investigated between Thais and Japanese (Chapter 3) which address the first sub-objective. In this study, the interview with Thai and Japanese participants had been conducted. The results revealed the similar direction that consumers concerned about freshness and taste as primary factors when they make a decision to purchase cross-cultural ready meals at convenient stores. Thai participants also mentioned that Japanese food is expensive whereas Japanese RTE food is easy to eat. On the other hand, Japanese participants mentioned that Thai food is spicy and tasty while Thai RTE food is healthy. Moreover, conjoint analysis was also used to identify the important attributes for crosscultural ready meals by which the results suggested that Thai participants preferred fusion taste while Japanese preferred authentic taste. It is found that the Japanese participants took the design of the products as the most important attribute while Thai participants interested in the taste more than other factors. The overview of this study leads to the conclusion that consumers in both countries have different preferences, but similar attitudes about the

freshness of RTE food. Thus, most of the participants mentioned that they typically dine in Japanese/Thai restaurants instead of purchasing the ethnic ready meals. Due to the unfamiliarity of cross-cultural RTE food from the interview, this might cause the difficulty when asking the participants about the return intention and gathering a large number of data to explore the values between Thais and Japanese in the following study. Thus, the scope was changed to ethnic restaurants for investigating other perspectives of values and key attributes of products and services.

To fulfill the second sub-objective, the relationship between values, customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention had been investigated in Chapter 4. Firstly, the values were categorized into three groups, including society-related values, personal related-values and enjoyment-related values. In addition, four types of needs were developed by shaping the concepts of past literatures (experiential needs, symbolic needs, social needs and functional needs). The results showed that there are statistical significant differences among individual-related values and society-related values between Thais and Japanese. On the other hand, there is no statistical significant difference for enjoymentrelated values which implied that both groups of participants endorsed these values equally. Besides, it is also found that particular values had a positive influence on different types of customer needs for both Thai and Japanese participants. The general findings for values and customer needs relationship showed that enjoyment-related values were found to positively influence experiential needs and symbolic needs while society-related values were found to positively influence social needs. In addition, the individual-related values were found to positively influence functional needs and symbolic needs. Nevertheless, only symbolic needs and social needs influenced customer satisfaction for Thai participants, while experiential needs and social needs were found to be important for Japanese participants. These results suggested that both Thai and Japanese customers dine in ethnic restaurants to satisfy their social needs and fulfill society-related values. In addition, apart from social needs, Thai customers also look for symbolic needs which are motivated by both enjoyment-related values and individual-related values. On the other hand, Japanese customers also look for experiential needs when dining in ethnic restaurants to fulfill their enjoyment-related values. Thus, the challenge lies in not only providing a good quality of

food and service but also meeting customer needs that are positively influenced by values that they hold in daily life.

In the last perspective of this study, the investigation between attributes for service industry, customer satisfaction and return intention were conducted in Chapter 5 to fulfill the third sub-objective of this research. These attributes were divided into three main categories; including basic attributes, unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes. The results revealed that there are statistical significant differences among basic attributes, and food and service quality attributes between Thais and Japanese. In a contrast, there is no significant difference for unique attributes, suggesting that their perceptions on this group of attributes are similar. The results showed that unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes were found to enhance customer satisfaction for both Thai and Japanese participants. Particularly, food and service quality attributes had more positive influence on customer satisfaction than unique attributes for Thai participants and vice versa. On the other hand, basic attributes were found to have no significant influence on the customer satisfaction and return intention for participants in both countries. These results suggested that unique attributes, and food and service quality attributes are considered as the key attributes that should be emphasized for both Thai and Japanese customers when they dine in ethnic restaurants.

In addition, the implication of small hotels and resorts (1–3 stars) in Thailand was conducted to cross-validate results in another service industry. The findings revealed that similar results supported the positive influence of values on particular types of customer needs. However, the functional needs, instead of social needs, have an influence on the customer satisfaction (compared to ethnic restaurants). It implied that the needs of customers can be varied in different industries. Even though Thai participants weighted every value similarly, society-related values and individual-related values had greater influence on customer needs (especially, social needs) than enjoyment-related values. Thus, the fourth sub-objective of this research was fulfilled.

7.3 Contributions

7.3.1 Theoretical Contributions

Even though RTE food is commonly sold in Thailand and Japan, customers hardly consumed Japanese/Thai RTE food due to various reasons. For example, it did not look delicious / fresh, or the price is expensive. In addition, the results also showed that the preferences between Thais and Japanese are different when they purchase RTE food. In this study (Chapter 3), we investigated various aspects to understand consumer attitudes and preferences for consuming cross-cultural RTE food. Therefore, the findings are beyond what is found in the other literatures that usually focused on attitudes and preferences of RTE food. In those studies, the scholars try to identify the attributes that customers are satisfied based on their experiences (Candel, 2001; Chatthipmongkol & Jangphanish, 2016). However, in this study, we investigated the factors that customers expected when they purchase cross-cultural RTE food. Therefore, the findings from this study gathered from the participants who did not purchase RTE food regularly, which reflected another aspects from consumers. The results from this study will be useful for developing crosscultural products that could turn customer attitudes in a positive direction. In this study, we also provided the combination of key attributes for Japanese/Thai RTE food, which give the image of the whole future products and more details inside each level of key attributes, rather than prioritizing individual attribute alone (Honkanen & Frewer 2009; Nuntasriwiwat, 2012; Traphagan & Brown, 2002). With the findings from our study, understanding both attitudes and preferences of local consumers would enhance them to receive the products that match their preferences. When a cross-cultural study had been conducted, we could see that consumer preferences between Thailand and Japan were different even both countries are located in Asia.

In Chapter 4, the findings revealed that values were found as the determinants of customer needs which influenced customer satisfaction and return intention. Customer satisfaction was triggered from the value fulfillment by receiving the needs that match with customers' preferences as well as the attributes that lead to customer satisfaction. While several past studies focused on the attributes that enhanced customer satisfaction to respond

to the customer needs, this study showed that values could be used for identifying customer needs to increase customer satisfaction and return intention. This can be seen from the linkage between values, customer needs and key attributes that customer needs can also be identified by using LOV to develop the key attributes for service and industry in the future. Even though LOV was applied in this study, the results of grouping values were also different from an original study of Homer and Kahle (1988). In addition, beyond other studies that use similar theory, this study investigates the relationship of the key aspects including customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention while the past studies only focus on predicting consumer behaviors directly from the values-behavioral intention relationship (Khare A.R., Khare A.N., & Singh, 2012; Woosnam, McElroy & Winkle, 2009).

Importantly, this study supported the hierarchical relationship of values-needs-satisfaction-intention which differs from the study of Kim et al. (2002) that only investigated the value-need-behavior relationship. Additionally, customer satisfaction was found as a mediator between customer needs and return intention which addressed the importance of the relationship between customer needs, customer satisfaction and return intention. Even though LOV typology is utilized in the study of food choice selection, these values are only addressed in the values-attitude-behavior (VAB) relationship without examining customer needs and customer satisfaction. Furthermore, it is hardly to find the application of LOV in service industry context whereas other studies focused on tangible products such as organic goods (Chryssohoidis & Krystallis, 2005) and garment (Kim et al., 2002). Lastly, the cross-cultural study between Thais and Japanese were conducted which confirmed that the difference between values that participants in both countries hold in their life positively influenced the particular needs to be met.

From the perspective of key attributes (Chapter 5), the unique attributes, including signature dishes, low calorie menu, customized menu and brand originality, were included in the model. Even though this study used the similar model as the literatures, the past literatures only focused on the quality of food and service attributes (Liu & Jang, 2009; Namkung & Jang, 2008). In addition, other studies that investigated about unique attributes such as country of origin (Tseng & Balabanis, 2011) and healthy concern (Eves & Cheng,

2007), only focused on the products, whereas it is hardly seen in the literatures of ethnic restaurants. For the basic attributes such as price and brand reputation, these elements were already investigated by various researches which revealed that basic attributes have a positive influence on customer satisfaction (Kim W.G., Ng, & Kim, Y, 2009; Wu, T.J., Yeh and Wu, C.C., 2015). Nevertheless, in different cultures, the customers might demand for different attributes when dining in ethnic restaurants. Thus, every attribute related to basic attributes, unique attributes and food and service quality attributes were included in this study.

It is worth noting that, instead of investigating each dimension separately, we argued that those important elements should be examined together in the same model so that the key attributes that match with local customers' preferences can be extracted. Therefore, in our study, we investigated all three groups of attributes that enhance customer satisfaction and return intention which lead to more understandings of customer preferences for Thais and Japanese. The findings also suggested that apart from food and service quality attributes, another dimension that restaurants should emphasize is unique attributes. However, they could give less importance to the basic attributes which should be maintained at only an appropriate level.

7.3.2 Practical Contributions

7.3.2.1 Contributions to Food-Related Industry

Since the culture and lifestyle of customers in each country are varied, deep understanding of what customers preferred and what makes them satisfy when consume cross-cultural products are essential. Even though most of Thai and Japanese customers know Japanese/Thai food, our findings revealed that a few of them tried ready-to-eat food. Instead, they usually dine in ethnic restaurants to socialize with friends and family. It suggested that ethnic food consumption for each food category between Thais and Japanese was also differed.

In addition, the preferences and key attributes of cross-cultural ready-to-eat food and ethnic restaurants were found differently among Thai and Japanese customers. It suggested that when offering ethnic food to other countries, the mass product strategy might not be able to apply worldwide, instead the customized product strategy adapted to local customer preferences would lead company to succeed. For example, Thai consumers preferred fusion taste for RTE food while authentic Japanese taste was more preferred for MTO food in the restaurants. On the other hand, authentic Thai taste was more preferred among Japanese customers. In addition, the key attributes that could influence Japanese customers to return via customer satisfaction were unique attributes, whereas food and service quality attributes had a greater influence among Thai customers when dining in ethnic restaurants.

Importantly, instead of focusing on the key attributes only which found in many literatures of food-related industry, the findings from Chapter 4 suggested that it is essential to meet customer needs based on the values that customers hold in their life. In this study, not only social needs that customers preferred, but experiential needs and symbolic needs were also important for Japanese and Thai customers when dining in ethnic restaurants, respectively. Thus, when values are investigated, the marketers can prioritize and focus on the important needs that have an effect on the customer satisfaction and return intention which could lead to the new strategy to response to their needs effectively for each group of customers. The results presented in this dissertation can be used as a guideline to understand customer values, attitudes and preferences, and key attributes that will enhance customer satisfaction and return intention which hardly found in food-related industry.

7.3.2.2 Contributions to Hotel Industry

The implication of this study revealed how values influenced customer needs and the key attributes for small hotels and resorts. The results from this study contributed the new perspective of hotel industry, which provided the comprehensive insights for the managers. The findings supported that the needs that customers are seeking derived from the values that they have. The groups of customers who were more likely to stay in this

type of hotels hold individual-related values and society-related values, guiding them to seek for functional needs and social needs. Thus, instead of focus on four types of customer needs, the managers should emphasize on functional needs and social needs which will make customers satisfied and revisit again. In addition, the key attributes for small hotels and resorts were employee characteristic and fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes. These are the common attributes in which employee characteristic attributes were also found important in the ethnic restaurant case study. It implied that for service industry, the employee characteristic is one of the main attributes that managers should emphasize, especially for Thai customers. Thus, the managers can focus on the target group of the customers who tend to revisit the hotels and resorts as well as improve the key attributes to influence customers to return in the future.

Regarding to small hotel and resort case study, the values of consumer in each country should not be only studied, but also assessed how they influenced on customer needs. In addition, the general findings from both cases studies (ethnic restaurants and small hotels and resorts) suggested that the needs of customers and some of the key attributes were changed from one industry to another industry. Therefore, this study brings the benefits for the industries by which the findings can be used as a guideline for improving the service elements to match with local preferences.

7.4 Research Implications

7.4.1 Implications for Food-Related Industry

The results to be addressed from conducting the case studies of food-related industry can be divided into three main parts; perspective of attitudes and preferences, values, and key attributes. First, for cross-cultural RTE food, the marketers should focus on improving the freshness and taste of food; otherwise the customers might not repurchase it in the future. In addition, the marketers can promote the attributes such as convenience feature of Japanese RTE food, and improve various healthy menus of Thai

RTE food. To improve the cross-cultural RTE food, fusion taste, clear label design on container, and low amount of calories, are the key attributes for selling Japanese RTE food in Thailand. In addition, the price should not be too high from the average local meals (10–30 THB). For Thai RTE food, the authentic taste, colorful design container and medium calories are the key attributes regarding to customer preferences. In addition, the price should also be competitive with other types of RTE food which is normally sold at 500 JPY.

Second, according to different values that people hold in daily life, they will demand for different needs when consuming products and services. In the case of Japanese restaurants in Thailand, social needs and symbolic needs, which were derived from every value that they hold equally, should be focused for Thai customers. The restaurateurs have to ensure the dining space for a large groups of customers as well as try to encourage customers that dining Japanese food is healthy. In addition, the Japanese symbol should be obviously presented in foods and drinks to fulfill the needs of Thai customers such as sakura flavor and green tea. On the other hand, social and experiential needs should be focused for Japanese customers who dine in Thai restaurants in Japan. Apart from the wide space for socialization, the restaurateurs might create unique styles of food decoration and interesting services to provide new experience to the customers. Therefore, the product and service attributes are needed to be addressed differently to enhance customer satisfaction and return intention.

Third, for Japanese restaurants in Thailand, good quality of food and service should be the most important factor to be maintained at a high level to make customer satisfy and return again. In addition, providing the signature dishes and low calorie menu will give a sense of specialty to meet symbolic needs. For Thai restaurants in Japan, unique factors should be firstly emphasized, followed by the food and service quality factors. For example, the restaurants need to address brand originality and customize menu to ensure the original taste from Thailand and offer a variety of choices for customers. The restaurants may also add family and kid menu to increase the choices for customers as well.

7.4.2 Implications for Hotel Industry

For small hotels and resorts in Thailand, the managers can apply the results from this study directly to improve customer satisfaction and attract them to revisit in the future. Since the findings suggested that Thai customers who hold individual-related values and society-related values were more likely to revisit the small hotels and resorts to fulfill their functional needs and social needs. Thus, the managers might provide the space for a group of family and friends to do activities together. In addition, the size of the room might be varied to response to different number of guests, but focused on the large group as well. The managers also need to ensure that the fundamental services such as check-in and checkout are correct. It is worth noting that the customers did not seek for experiential needs and symbolic needs, but it might be expected from the luxurious hotels. These results implied that the customers did not seek for very unique hotels, nice and beautiful hotels and resorts, a symbol that represents the styles of hotels or express their social status when staying in small hotels and resorts. Thus, these types of customer needs can be ignored.

In addition, the fundamental equipment and hotel standard attributes were the most significant attributes among Thai customers. This group of attributes included acceptable price range, security of the hotel, clean and new room, the appropriate brightness and basic amenities. Our findings suggested that the managers should emphasize on these attributes as the first priority which will make customer satisfy and lead to return intention in the future. Additionally, the employee characteristic attributes were found as the second determinant of return intention through customer satisfaction. Since small hotels and resorts mainly involved with service, the great service between employees and guests is inevitable. Thus, the energetic employee and smiling face were the most two important elements of this industry as well. Training the employees to serve the best service as well as providing the essential basic equipment and ensuring hotel standard would make customers satisfied and patronage in the future for small hotels and resorts.

7.5 Limitations

Even though several aspects are investigated in our study, there are some limitations when conducting the cross-cultural study between Thais and Japanese. In addition, future research directions are suggested as follows.

The first limitation in this dissertation is that this research focused on the food-related industry and provided an implication in small hotels and resorts. Thus, three perspectives; (1) attitudes and preferences, (2) values and (3) key attributes of product and service should be investigated in other industries or other types of products.

Second, we only choose values to represent different culture between Thai and Japanese consumers, because, in academic research, it is hard to investigate the culture in a broader view. Furthermore, this study focused on consumer behavior in a smaller scale such as purchasing cross-cultural food and dining in ethnic restaurants. Therefore, using values are more appropriate and concrete in our study. However, other theories such as norms and schemas should be investigated in the cross-cultural studies between Thais and Japanese as well.

Third, due to different geographical region, the values that participants hold might be varied. In this study, we collected the values to represent Thais and Japanese who live in capital cities (Bangkok and Tokyo). Therefore, applying the concept of LOV from participants in other regions in Thailand and Japan to see whether they hold similar or different values that may affect different needs to be served to the customers or not, and how. Additionally, it would be more beneficial to cross-validate the results in other countries, such as Asian and European countries.

Lastly, in this study, we only tested the mediating effect between customer needs and return intention. In addition, customer loyalty can be divided into word-of-mouth and return intention. However, this study focused only return intention that initiated be customers themselves.

7.6 Future Research Directions

For future research, we would like to suggest that the scholars should investigate other factors from the manufacturers and companies such as the influence of the brand image or brand loyalty on the customer needs. In addition, the advertisement and 4P strategy should be explored in the next study. Since this study only investigated the needs that derived from customers themselves based on the values that they have in their life, the relationship between factors that mainly associated with the products or service itself and customer needs have not been yet conducted.

In addition, the key attributes for the restaurant industry and hotel industry were found differently, in which some of them were similar since a restaurant is a part of the service industry. These key attributes were also specified based on ethnic restaurants, particular Japanese/Thai restaurants and small hotel and resort industry. Thus, the key attributes for ethnic restaurants might not be applicable for other types of the restaurants. Similarly, the attributes for luxurious hotel might be differed from small hotel and resorts. Thus, the future research can be conducted with other types of industry by using the similar attributes as presented in this research. Nevertheless, new attributes that might be essential to serve to customers should be developed beyond the previous studies.

Lastly, it would be more interesting to expand the existing model to include word-of-mouth together with return intention. Thus, it would be more concrete to examine the influence of customer needs on behavioral intention. With the different industry, the customer needs and the key attributes might be varied. Therefore, it would be more beneficial to focus on what the customer want from purchasing products and services from other industry in the future research.

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Appendix A: Consumer Attitudes and Preferences toward Cross-Cultural Ready-To-Eat (RTE) Food Interview Questionnaire: English version

Questionnaire

Part 1: Perception towards Japanese made-to-order food

1.	Have you ever tried Japanese made-to-order food? ☐Yes ☐No (go to Q6.)
2.	Write down the first five words that come in your mind when thinking about
	Japanese made-to-order food.
3.	How often do you eat Japanese made-to-order food?
	☐ Everyday ☐ Every week ☐ Every month ☐ Other
4.	Where do you commonly eat Japanese made-to-order food?
5.	List the Japanese made-to-order food that you have ever tried?
6.	Why you have not tried Japanese made-to-order food?
7.	When do you buy Japanese made-to-order food?
	☐ Morning ☐ Afternoon ☐ Evening ☐ Night
Dart 2	: Perception towards Japanese ready-to-eat food
<u> 1 a1 t 2</u>	. 1 erception towards Japanese ready-to-eat rood
1.	Have you ever tried Japanese ready-to-eat food? ☐ Yes ☐ No (Q6.)
2.	Write down the first five words that come in your mind when thinking about
	Japanese ready-to-eat food.
3.	How often do you eat Japanese ready-to-eat food?
	☐ Everyday ☐ Every week ☐ Every month ☐ Other
	Where do you commonly buy Japanese ready-to-eat food?
	List the Japanese ready-to-eat food that you have ever tried?
	Why you have not tried Japanese ready-to-eat food?
7.	When do you buy Japanese ready-to-eat food? Morning
	☐ Morning ☐ Afternoon ☐ Evening ☐ Night
Part 3	: Perception towards Japanese made-to-order food in convenience stores
1.	Have you ever tried Japanese made-to-order food in a convenience store?
	☐ Yes ☐ No (Q6.)
2.	Write down the first five words that come in your mind when thinking about
	Japanese made-to-order food in a convenience store.
3.	How often do you eat Japanese made-to-order food in a convenience store?
	☐ Everyday ☐ Every week ☐ Every month ☐ Other
4.	Which convenience stores do you commonly buy Japanese made-to-order
	food?
_	List the Impress made to order food that you have eventuiled in a constitution
5.	List the Japanese made-to-order food that you have ever tried in a convenience
	store?
6.	Why you have not tried Japanese made-to-order food in a convenience store?
0.	

7.	When do you buy Ja	panese n ☐ Aftern			d in a cor vening	nvenience Nigh	
Part 4	: Perception toward	s Japane	ese ready	-to-eat	food in c	<u>onvenien</u>	<u>ce stores</u>
1.	Have you ever tried ☐ Yes ☐ No ((-	ready-to	eat foo	d in a con	venience	store?
2.	Write down the first Japanese ready-to-ea					when thi	nking about
		☐ Every	week	\square E	very mor	nth	Other
4.	Which convenience	stores do	you con	nmonly b	ouy Japan	iese ready	-to-eat food?
5.	List the Japanese reastore?	ndy-to-ea	t food tha	at you ha	ive ever t	ried in a c	convenience
6.	Why you have not tr	ried Japan	nese read	y-to-eat	food in a	convenie	nce store?
7.	When do you buy Ja ☐ Morning [panese re	-		n conven	ience stor	
	: Factors influence of mark the score for ea						
	Factors	1	2	3	4	5	
Price							
Taste							
	access location						
	of consumption						
Fresh							
Calor	ety of food						
	arance of food						
Prom							
Part 6: Factors influence on buying Japanese ready-to-eat food in retail stores Please mark the score for each factor that best match with your behavior.							
	Factors	1	2	3	4	5	
Price							
Taste	<u> </u>						
Easy	access location						
Ease	of consumption						
Fresh	nness						
Calor	ie						
	ety of food						
	arance of food						
Prom	otion						

Part 7: Conjoint analysis

Please rank the card from the most to the least preference.

Part 8: Personal data	<u>1</u>
Gender	☐ Male ☐ Female
Age	☐ 18-24 years ☐ 25-40 years ☐ 41-60 years
	$\square > 60 \text{ years}$
Education	☐ High school ☐ Bachelor ☐ Master or higher
	Others
Occupation	☐ Students ☐ Officer ☐ Business owner
	☐ Housewife ☐ Others
Salary	□<10K □10K-19K □20K-29K □30K-39K
	40K or more
Travelling to Japan	☐ Yes ☐ No
Interest in Japanese cu	ılture
	© Thank you for your cooperation ©
ordering. <u>Japanese</u>	nade-to-order food refers to food which is cooked after custome ready-to-eat food refers to food which is packed in a package omers can open and eat it immediately or/and warm it before

Appendix B: Consumer Attitudes and Preferences toward Cross-cultural Ready-To-Eat (RTE) Food Interview Questionnaire: Thai version

แบบสอบถาม

ส่วนที่ 1: การทานอาหารญี่ปุ่นตามสั่ง (ปรุงสดใหม่) ในที่อื่นๆ ยกเว้นร้านสะดวกชื้อ

1. 2.		อาหารญี่ปุ่นตามสั่ ามคำแรกที่คุณนึเ		_	่ □ใช่ □ใม่ใช่ (ข้อที่ 6) เ่ว (ปราสอใหม่)
3.		ารญี่ปุ่นตามสั่ง (ร	•		
	🗌 ทุกวัน	□ ทุกสัปดาห์	🗌 ทุกเคือน	่ 🗌 อื่นๆ	
4.	โดยทั่วไปแล้	ล้ว คุณมักจะทาน ^ะ	อาหารญี่ปุ่นตาม	มสั่ง (ปรุงสดใหร	ม่)ที่ไหน
5.	กรุณาบอกชื่	ออาหารญี่ปุ่นตาม	มสั่ง (ปรุงสคให	ม่)ที่คุณเคยทาน	
6.	เพราะเหตุใด	า คุณถึงไม่เคยทา	นอาหารญี่ปุ่นต	ามสั่ง (ปรุงสดใา	หม่)
7.	โดยทั่วไปแล้	ล้ว คุณมักจะทาน	เอาหารญี่ปุ่นตา	มสั่ง (ปรุงสดให	ฆ่)ในช่วงเวลาใค
	่	่ ⊓ กั∂	กางวัน	🗌 เย็น	🗌 กลางคืน
ส่วนที่	<u>2: การทานอา</u>	หารญี่ปุ่นพร้อมร้	<u>รับประทาน ในท</u> ี	ู่ เอ็นๆ ยกเว้นร้าน	<u>เสะดวกซื้อ</u>
1.	คุณเคยซื้ออา	าหารญี่ปุ่นพร้อมร์	รับประทาน มาศ	่อนหรือไม่ 🔲	ใช่ 🔲 ใม่ใช่ (ข้อที่ 6)
2.	กรุณาบอกส	ามคำแรกที่คุณนึเ	าถึงเมื่อพูคถึงอา	าหารญี่ปุ่นพร้อม	เร้บประทาน
3.	 กุณซื้ออาหา	รญี่ปุ่นพร้อมรับบ		 ป่ใหน	
	🗌 ทุกวัน	□ ทุกสัปดาห์	🗌 ทุกเคือน	่ 🗆 อื่นๆ	
4.					ใหน
5.	_	_	• .	- 01	
6.	•	.		•	
7.		้ ล้ว คุณมักจะซื้ออ			
	่		างวัน	🗆 เย็น	🗌 กลางคืน
<u>ส่วนที่ :</u>	<u>ง: การทานอา</u>	<u>หารญี่ปุ่นตามสั่ง</u>	<u>(ปรุงสดใหม่) ใ</u>	<u>นร้านสะดวกซื้</u>	<u>9</u>
1.	คุณเคยทาน	วาหารญี่ปุ่นตามลั่	ั้ง (ปรุงสดใหม่)	มาก่อนหรือไม่	่ 🗆 ใช่ 🔻 🗎 ไม่ใช่ (ข้อที่ 6)
2.	กรุณาบอกส	ามคำแรกที่คุณนึ่	าถึงเมื่อพูคถึงอ	าหารญี่ปุ่นตามล่	ั่ง (ปรุงสดใหม่)

3.	คุณทานอาห	กรญี่ปุ่นตามสั่ง (ป	รุงสดใหม่) บ่อย	ยแค่ใหน				
	🗌 ทุกวัน	่ □ทุกสัปดาห์	🗌 ทุกเคือน	🗌 อื่นๆ				
4.	โดยทั่วไปแล้ว คุณมักจะทานอาหารญี่ปุ่นตามสั่ง (ปรุงสดใหม่)ที่ไหน							
5.	กรุณาบอกชื่ออาหารญี่ปุ่นตามสั่ง (ปรุงสดใหม่)ที่คุณเคยทาน							
6.	เพราะเหตุใจ	ค คุณถึงไม่เคยทาน	อาหารญี่ปุ่นตาม	มสั่ง (ปรุงสคใหม่)			
7.	โดยทั่วไปแ	ล้ว คุณมักจะทานอ	าหารญี่ปุ่นตาม	สั่ง (ปรุงสคใหม่)	ในช่วงเวลาใด			
	🗌 เช้า	่ กลา	งวัน	🗌 เย็น	🗌 กลางคืน			
<u>ส่วนที่</u>	4: การทานอ <i>า</i>	<u>าหารญี่ปุ่นพร้อมรับ</u>	<u>เประทาน ในที่</u> รั	ร้านสะดวกซื้อ				
1.	คุณเคยซื้ออ	าหารญี่ปุ่นพร้อมรับ	เประทาน มาก่อ	อนหรือไม่ 🔲ใช่	่ ไม่ใช่ (ข้อที่ 6)			
2.	กรุณาบอกส	ชามคำแรกที่คุณนึก	ถึงเมื่อพูคถึงอา	หารญี่ปุ่นพร้อมรัก	บประทาน			
3.			ะทาน บ่อยแค่ไ	ใหน				
	🗌 ทุกวัน	🗌 ทุกสัปดาห์	🗌 ทุกเคือน	🗌 อื่นๆ				
4.	โดยทั่วไปแ	ล้ว คุณมักจะซื้ออา	หารญี่ปุ่นพร้อม	รับประทาน ที่ร้า	นใด			
5.	กรุณาบอกขึ้	ชื่ออาหารญี่ปุ่นพร้อ	มรับประทาน ที่	คุณเคยซื้อ				
6.	เพราะเหตุใจ	ค คุณถึงไม่เคยซื้ออ	าหารญี่ปุ่นพร้อ	มรับประทาน				
7.	โดยทั่วไปแ	ล้ว คุณมักจะซื้ออา	หารญี่ปุ่นพร้อม	เร้บประทาน ในว	ช่วงเวลาใด			
	🗌 เช้า	่ กลา	เงวัน	🗌 เย็น	่			

ส่วนที่ 5: ความสำคัญของแต่ละปัจจัยที่มีผลต่อการเลือกซื้ออาหารญี่ปุ่นตามสั่ง (ปรุงสดใหม่) ใน ร้านสะดวกซื้อ

1: มีความสำคัญน้อยที่สุด 5: มีความสำคัญมากที่สุด

ป้อจัย	1	2	3	4	5
ราคา					
รสชาติ					
สะดวกในการเดินทางไปซื้อ					
แกะทานง่าย					
ความสดใหม่					
แคลอรี่					
ความหลากหลายของผลิตภัณฑ์					
รูปลักษณ์ของผลิตภัณฑ์					
โปรโมชั่น					

ส่วนที่ 6: ความสำคัญของแต่ละปัจจัยที่มีผลต่อการเลือกซื้อาหารญี่ปุ่นพร้อมรับประทานในร้าน สะดวกซื้อ

1: มีความสำคัญน้อยที่สุด 5: มีความสำคัญมากที่สุด

ปัจจัย	1	2	3	4	5
ราคา					
รสชาติ					
สะดวกในการเดินทางไปซื้อ					
แกะทานง่าย					
ความสดใหม่					
แคลอรี่					
ความหลากหลายของผลิตภัณฑ์					
รูปลักษณ์ของผลิตภัณฑ์					
โปรโมชั่น					

ส่วนที่ 7: Conjoint analysis

กรุณาเรียงลำคับก	าร์ดที่คุณความชอ	บที่ตรงกับตัว	คุณมากที่สุด (มา	กที่สุดไปน้อยที่สุด)
คำตอบ				

ส่วนที่ 8: ข้อมูลส่วนตัว

เพศ	่ 🗆 ชาย	่□หญิง		
อายุ	□ 18-24 ปี	่ 25-40 ปี	☐ 41-60°	ปี
การศึกษา	🗆 มัธยมศึกษา	🗆 ปริญญาตรี	🗆 ปริญญา	าโทหรือสูงกว่า
	🗆 อื่นๆ			
อาชีพ	่ นักเรียน่ ส่วนตัว	รับราชการ/บ่แม่บ้าน		ประกอบธุรกิจ อื่นๆ
รายได้ต่อเดือน	🗌 น้อยกว่า 10,0	000บาท 🗌 10,0	00-20,000 บ	าาท
	20,000-30,00	00 บาท 🔲 30,0	00-40,000 บ	ภาท
	🗌 มากกว่า 40,0	000 บาท		
การเดินทางมาประเทศญี่ปุ่น	่	□ไม่เคย		
ความสนใจเกี่ยวกับวัฒนธรรม สนใจ	มญี่ปุ่น □มีคว	ามสนใจ เช่น		🗌 ไม่มีความ

😊 ขอบคุณที่ให้ความร่วมมือค่ะ 😊

Conjoint cards for Thai participants

หมายเลข1

ราคา: 31-50 บาท รสชาติ: ญี่ปุ่น เช่น ข้าวหน้าหมูทอดชุบไข่ ดีไชน์: ตัวอักษรแปะบนห่อพลาสติก แคลลอรี่: ปานกลาง (401-800Kcal)



ที่มา:comfortfoodstuff.blogspot.com

หมายเลข2

ราคา: 51-70 บาท รสชาติ: ไทย เช่น ข้าวปั้นกระเพราหมูสับ, ข้าวปั้นแกงเขียวหวานไก่ ดีไซน์: ผ่อพลาสติกธรรมดา แคลลอรี่: ปานกลาง (401-800Kcal)



ที่มา:newyork.seriouseats.com

หมายเลข3

ราคา: 31-50 บาท รสชาติ: ไทย เช่น ข้าวปั้นต้มยำกุ้ง, ข้าว ปั้นน้ำพริกต่างๆ ดีไซน์: รูปภาพสีสันสดใส แคลลอรี่: น้อย (น้อยกว่า400 Kcal)



ที่มา:http://www.catdumb.com

หมายเลข4

ราคา: 51-70 บาท รสชาติ: ญี่ปุ่น เช่น ข้าวหน้าแกงกะหรี่หมู ทอด

ดีไซน์: รูปภาพสีสันสดใส แคลลอรี: สูง (>801Kcal)



ที่มา:cherryful.com

หมายเลข5

ราคา: 31-50 บาท รสชาติ: ไทยและญี่ปุ่น เช่น ข้าวบั้นกระ เพราแชลมอน, ข้าวบั้นไข่หวานพแนงหมู ดีไซน์: ห่อพลาสติกธรรมดา แคลลอรี่: สูง (>801Kcal)



ที่มา:www.moonrivergirl.com

หมายเลข6

ราคา: 10-30 บาท รสชาติ: ไทยและญี่ปุ่น เช่น ข้าวปั้นคั่วกลิ้ง แซลมอน, ข้าวหมูย่างชีอิ๊ว ดีไซน์: วูปภาพสีสันสดใส แคลลอรี: ปานกลาง (401-800Kcal)



ที่มา:www.toptweet.org

หมายเลข7

ราคา: 51-70 บาท รสชาติ: ไทยและญี่ปุ่น เช่น รางเมงตัมยำ แซลมอลน้ำใส เข้าบั้นหน้าลาบ ปลาแซลมอน ดีไซน์: ตัวอักษรแปะบนห่อพลาสติก แคลลอรี่: น้อย (น้อยกว่า400 Kcal)



ที่มา:www.reginamac.wordpress.com

หมายเลข8

ราคา: 10-30 บาท รุสซาดิ: ญี่ปุ่น เช่น ข้าวปั้นแซลมอน, ข้าว ปั้นทูน่ามายองเนส ดีไซน์: ห่อพลาสติกธรรมดา แคลลอร์: น้อย (น้อยกว่า400 Kcal)



ที่มา:www.oknation.net

หมายเลข9

ราคา: 10-30 บาท รสชาติ: ไทย เช่น ข้าวปั้นทะเลผัดฉ่า, ข้าวปั้นหมูสามชั้นผัดน้ำพริกเผา ดีไซน์: ตัวอักษรแปะบนห่อพลาสติก แคลลอรี่: สูง (>801Kcal)



ที่มา:www.exteen.com

Appendix C: Consumer Attitudes and Preferences toward Cross-cultural Ready-To-Eat (RTE) Food Interview Questionnaire: Japanese version

アンケート

パート1:タイ料理を食事することについて

	タイ料理を食べたことがありますか (デパト、レストラン)。 □ はい □ いいえ (6番の問題へ) タイ料理を食事することといって、最初に思いつく 3 つの単語(イメージ、料理名等)を教えてください。
4. 5. 6.	タイ料理を食事することをどれくらいの頻度で食べますか。 毎日 毎月 □その他 どこでよくタイ料理を食べていますか。 食べたことがあるタイ料理のメニューを教えてください。 なぜ食べたことがありませんか。 どの時間帯で食べていますか。 □夕方 □夜
パート	· 2 : デパ地下で売られているタイ料理のお弁当やお惣菜について
	デパ地下のタイ料理の弁当を食べたことがありますか。 □ はい □ いいえ(6番の問題へ) デパ地下のタイ料理の弁当といって、最初に思いつく3つの単語(イメ
	ージ、料理名等)を教えてください。
4. 5.	タイ料理弁当をどれくらいの頻度で食べますか。 □毎日 □毎週 □毎月 □その他 どこのデパ地下でよくタイ料理の弁当を買っていますか。 食べたことがあるタイ料理の弁当のメニューを教えてください。 なぜ食べたことがありませんか。
	どの時間帯で買っていますか。□ 午前□ 午後□ 夕方□ 夜
パート	·3:コンビニで売られているタイ料理のお弁当やお惣菜について
	コンビニのタイ料理の弁当を食べたことがありますか。 □ はい □ いいえ(6番の問題へ) コンビニのタイ料理の弁当といって、最初に思いつく3つの単語(イメージ、料理名等)を教えてください。
3.	タイ料理弁当をどれくらいの頻度で食べますか。 □毎日 □毎月 □その他

4. どこのコンビニでよくタイ料理(の弁当を買っていますか。
5. 食べたことがあるタイ料理の弁論	当のメニューを教えてください。
6. なぜ食べたことがありませんか。	
7. どの時間帯で買っていますか。	
□ 午前 □午後	□夕方 □夜
パート4:スーパーで売られているタ	イ料理のお弁当やお惣菜について
1. スーパーのタイ料理の弁当を食	べたことがありますか。
□ はい □ いいえ(6番の問]題へ)
2. スーパーのタイ料理の弁当とい	って、最初に思いつく3つの単語(イメ
ージ、料理名等)を教えてくださ	•
3. タイ料理の弁当をどれくらいの#	
□ 毎日 □ 毎週	□ 毎月 □その他
4. どこのスーパーでよくタイ料理(
5. 食べたことがあるタイ料理の弁	
6. なぜ食べたことがありませんか。	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
7. どの時間帯で買っていますか。	
□午前□午後	□夕方 □夜
— 1 13 — 1 1X	
パート5:コンビニで売られているタ	イ料理の缶詰について
1. コンビニのタイ料理缶詰を食べる	
□はい □いいえ(6番の問題	,
	て、最初に思いつく3つの単語(イメー
ジ、料理名等)を教えてください	0
3. タイ料理缶詰をどれくらいの頻	度で食べますか。
□ 毎日 □ 毎週	□ 毎月 □その他
4. どこのコンビニでよくタイ料理(の缶詰を買っていますか。
5. 食べたことがあるタイ料理の缶	詰のメニューを教えてください。
6. なぜ食べたことがありませんか。	
7. どの時間帯で買っていますか。	
□ 午前 □午後	□夕方 □夜

パート6:スーパーで売られているタイ料理の缶詰について

1.	スーパーのタイ料理の缶詰を食べたことがありますか。
	□はい □いいえ(6番の問題へ)
2.	スーパーのタイ料理の缶詰といって、最初に思いつく3つの単語(イメ
	ージ、料理名等)を教えてください。
3.	タイ料理缶詰をどれくらいの頻度で食べますか。
	□毎日 □毎週 □毎月 □その他
4.	どこのスーパーでよくタイ料理の缶詰を買っていますか。
5.	食べたことがあるタイ料理の缶詰のメニューを教えてください。
6.	なぜ食べたことがありませんか。
7.	どの時間帯で買っていますか。
	□ 午前 □ □ 午後 □ 夕方 □ 夜

パート7:小売店で売られているタイ料理の弁当の購入に影響する項目について

1:もっとも重要でない 5:もっとも重要

項目	1	2	3	4	5
価格					
味					
便利					
開けやすさ					
鮮度 カロリー 種類の数					
カロリー					
種類の数					
外装					
割引					

パート8:小売店でタイ料理の缶詰を買うことに影響がある項目について

1:もっとも重要 5:もっとも重要

項目	1	2	3	4	5
価格					
味					
便利					
開けやすさ					
鮮度 カロリー 種類の数					
カロリー					
種類の数					
外装					
割引					

パート9	:全てのカー	ドを一番好	きなものから	っ順に書いて	下さい。
炊 ラ・					

パート10:個人情報

性別	□男	□女				
年齢	□18-24歳	□25-40歳	□41-60歳	□60歳以上		
教育	□高校	□大学	□大学院	□専門学校		
職業	□学生	□会社員	□主婦	□その他他		
給与(月給)	□20万円以	下 □ 20-2	29 万円	□30-39万円		
上	□40-49 万円	□ 50-	59 万円	□60万円以		
タイの経験 がない	□行ったこ	とがある 何[<u> </u>	一行ったこと		
タイの文化に興味の有無						

◎ご協力ありがとうございました◎

Conjoint cards for Japanese participants

カード 1

価格: 501-800円

味: タイ: ガパオライス

デザイン: 文字上にプラスチック カロリー: 並み (401-800 Kcal)



Source: blogs.yahoo.co.jp

カード 4

価格: 801-1200円

味: タイ: グリーンカレー デザイン: カラフルラベル カロリー: 高い (>801 Kcal)



Source: frozenfood-mania.blogspot.com

カード 7

価格: 801-1200円

味: タイ-日本: サバのパパイヤサラダ デザイン: 文字上にプラスチック カロリー: 少し (〈400 Kcal)



Source: twitter.com

カード 2

価格: 801-1200円

味:日本:豚肉照り焼き,鮭照り焼き

タイライス

デザイン: プラスチック カロリー: 並み (401-800 Kcal)



Source: www.wongnai.com

カード 5

価格: 501-800円

味:タイ-日本:タイ風鮭焼きそば

デザイン: プラスチック カロリー: 高い (>801 Kcal)



Source: lekthaifood.blogspot.com

カード 8

価格: 201-500円

味: タイ: オレンジ カレー デザイン: プラスチック カロリー: 少し (〈400 Kcal)



Source: pantip.com

カード 3

価格: 501-800円

味: 日本: チキン味噌照り焼き デザイン: カラフルラベル カロリー: 少し (<400 Kcal)



Source: pantip.com

カード 6

価格: 201-500円

味: タイ-日本: トムヤムスープワサビ

ライス

デザイン: カラフルラベル カロリー: 並み (401-800 Kcal)



Source: www.7review.in.th

カード 9

価格: 201-500円

味: 日本: 焼き肉と野菜と卵 デザイン: 文字上にプラスチック カロリー: 高い (>801 Kcal)



Source: www.velamall.com

Appendix D: Customer Behaviors and Factors Affecting Japanese Food Consumption at the Restaurants Questionnaire: English version Customer behaviors and factors affecting Japanese food consumption at the restaurants

This survey is conducted for studying customer's values, needs and behaviors

related to the dining of Japanese food at the restaurants in Thailand.

The survey is divided into 5 sections including individual values, consuming behaviors, customer needs and important factors from dining Japanese food at the restaurants and personal data. The results will be used for analyzing to enhance cross-

cultural products and services in the future.

It takes about 8-15 minutes to complete the survey.

If you have any questions, do not hesitate to contact the below e-mail.

Thank you

Supimmas Thienhirun

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Tokyo Institute of Technology

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281

The value from individual point of view

Section 1: This section consists of 9 values which relate to values that you perceive to yourself.

Please select the answer that best match with yourself.

1. Excitement: it is import by doing exciting activition		to do so	mething	g which	is not ord	inary and live my life
-,	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
2. Fun and enjoyment of l as part of my life.	ife: it is im	portant (o me to	have fu	ın in life aı	nd have entertainment
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
3. Warm relationship wisupport others when they			-			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
4. Self-fulfillment: it is in things and do things as I	_	me to	take ca	re of my	yself well,	often consume good
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
5. Self-respect: it is impo of myself and will not co			_	_		• •
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
6. Sense of belonging: it role in the family and be	-			-		
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important

7. Being well-respected others' opinions and care	-			_	ood status	among others, know
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
8. Security: it is importa	nt to me to	have fin	ancial a	and phys	sical safety	, and security in life.
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
9. Sense of accomplishm work done till the end ar		-		_		one properly, see the
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
Have you eaten Japanese	e food at res	staurant	s before	?		
Yes, go to page 2						
No, submit form						
If you never eat Japanes	e food at the	e restau	rants, p	lease tel	l the reason	n in the space below.
Eating Japanese food a	t restaurar	<u>nts</u>				
Section 2: This section Please select the answer	_		-		ıt Japanese	e food at restaurants.
1. Which type of restaur 1)	ants, do yo	u norma	ally eat	Japanes	e food? (c.	an answer more than
☐ Japanese restaurants	inside depa	rtment	stores			
Other Japanese resta	urants outsi	de depa	rtment	store		
2. When do you normall	y eat Japane	ese food	l at resta	aurants?	(can answ	ver more than 1)
Monday-Thursday: 1	Morning					
Monday-Thursday: A	Afternoon					
Monday-Thursday: I	Evening					
Friday: Morning						

Friday: Afternoon						
Friday: Evening						
Saturday-Sunday and	holidays: l	Morning	3			
Saturday-Sunday and	holidays: A	Afterno	on			
Saturday-Sunday and	holidays: l	Evening	5			
3. What kinds of Japanese 1)	food do	you usu	ally eat	at resta	urants? (c	an answer more than
Appetizer (e.g. gyoza,	takoyaki,	okonon	niyaki,	salad, se	eweed)	
Side dish (e.g. miso so	oup, steam	ed egg,	tofu, ki	mji)		
Sushi and sashimi (e.g	. raw fish))				
Grilled menu (e.g. bee	f, saba, ch	icken te	eriyaki)			
Noodle menu (e.g. sob	a, somen,	udon, ra	imen)			
Fried menu (e.g. temp	ura, tonka	tsu, kara	aake)	Bent	to set	
Boiled menu (salmon	boiled wit	h soy so	ource)			
Hot pot (e.g. sukiyaki,	shabu, na	lbe)				
Set menu (included de	sserts and	or fruit	s and d	rinks)		
Grilled meat on the sie	eve (e.g. sl	iced be	ef and p	ork)		
Fushion food (e.g. sp Japanese dressing)	icy Thai	salad w	ith sal	mon, sp	picy imita	tion crab salad with
Customer's needs, attit	udes and	l behav	vior in	consu	ming Ja _l	panese food at the
Section 3: This section rel at the restaurants.	ates to nee	eds, attit	udes ar	ıd behav	viors from	dining Japanese food
Please select the answer th	at best ma	atch wit	h yours	elf.		
1. I always try new Japane	se food at	restaur	ants.			
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree

2. I always choose restar	arants offere	ed varie	ties of J	apanese	e food.	
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
3. It is important for me	to eat Japan	nese foo	d in aes	thetic re	estaurants.	
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
4. Having a unique servi a conveyor belt and the tand enjoy eating Japanes	rain will sto		_		-	•
	1115500000 00000	00000				
	Carriery.	Refe	rence: gunjar	neetsjapan.w	ordpress.com	
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
5. I feel healthy when I	eat Japanese	e food at	t restauı	rants.		
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
6. I feel that I am high c	lass people	when I	eat Japa	nese fo	od at resta	urants.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
7. I always eat Japanese	food at rest	aurants	with fri	ends an	d/or famil	y, and/or coworkers.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
8. I like restaurants that towel before bringing m		anese se	ervice (e	e.g. serv	ing Japan	ese tea and refreshing
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree

9. I get full after I eat Jap	panese food	at resta	urants.			
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
10. Serving food correct	ly is import	ant to n	ne.			
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
11. Overall, I am satisfie	d with the m	noney I j	paid for	when I	eat Japan	ese food at restaurants
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
12. Overall, I am satisfie	ed with the f	food wh	en I eat	Japane	se food a	t restaurants.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
13. Overall, I am satisfie	ed with the s	service	when I	eat Japa	nese foo	d at restaurants.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
14. When I eat Japanese	food in go	od servi	ice resta	urants,	I tend to	come back again next
time.						
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
15. I usually eat Japanes	e food at the	e same	restaura	nt I ate	last time	
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
16. I am going to eat Jap	panese food	soon.				
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
17. Typically, Thai peop	ole will eat f	oreign 1	food rat	her than	Thai foo	od at restaurants.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree

n as foods, o	desserts	and dre	essing a	re well-kr	nown in Thai society.
1	2	3	4	5	
0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
es and/or id	ols.				
1	2	3	4	5	
0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
apanese foo	od resta	urants n	nake me	e eat Japar	nese food more often.
1	2	3	4	5	
0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
e food on s	social n	etwork,	it make	e me want	t to eat Japanese food
1	2	3	4	5	
0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
side with fa	mily or	friends	, they of	ften choos	e Japanese restaurant
1	2	3	4	5	
0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
		a place	e where	e I can rel	ax and socialize with
1	2	3	4	5	
0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
food at rest	aurants	is expe	nsive.		
1	2	3	4	5	
0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
food that I h	ave eat	en still v	was not	the origin	al Japanese style (liko
1	2	3	4	5	
0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
	apanese food apane	apanese food restant 1	1 2 3 ces and/or idols. 1 2 3 companies of food restaurants in the food on social network, 1 2 3 companies of food on social network, 1 2 3 companies	1 2 3 4 O O O O es and/or idols. 1 2 3 4 O O O O apanese food restaurants make me 1 2 3 4 O O O O e food on social network, it make 1 2 3 4 O O O O d in a restaurant is a place where d/or coworkers. 1 2 3 4 O O O d in a restaurant is expensive. 1 2 3 4 O O O food at restaurants is expensive. 1 2 3 4 O O O food that I have eaten still was not	es and/or idols. 1 2 3 4 5 O O O O apanese food restaurants make me eat Japan 1 2 3 4 5 O O O O e food on social network, it make me want 1 2 3 4 5 O O O O cside with family or friends, they often choose 1 2 3 4 5 O O O O d in a restaurant is a place where I can relation coworkers. 1 2 3 4 5 O O O O d on a restaurant is a place where I can relation coworkers. 1 2 3 4 5 O O O O food at restaurants is expensive. 1 2 3 4 5 O O O O food at restaurants is expensive. 1 2 3 4 5 O O O O food at restaurants is expensive. 1 2 3 4 5 O O O O food at I have eaten still was not the origin

26. I think restaurants vlanguage are very popular		-	e name	and/or	products	which have Japanese
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
27. I think that the service	ce of Japane	ese resta	urants i	n Thail	and is not	similar as in Japan.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
28. I believe that Japane	se food at re	estauran	ıts is ma	ide fron	n high qua	lity ingredients.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
29. I believe that the ser typical restaurants.	vice in well	l-knowr	ı Japane	ese resta	nurants wi	ll be better than other
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
30. I believe that eating	Japanese fo	od at re	staurant	s is a re	ward for i	myself.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
Important factors for of Section 4: This section refood at the restaurants.					h have effe	ect on dining Japanese
Please select the answer	that best ma	atch wit	th yours	elf.		
1. The price of Japanese	food is reas	sonable.				
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
2. The brand of restauran	nts is famou	s and p	opular.			
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree

3. The location of restaur	ants (i.e. h	ave park	king spa	ice, near	r train stat	tion) is convenient.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
4. The atmosphere of the	restaurants	(inside	e) is app	ealing a	and beauti	ful.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
5. The brand of restauran	ts is origin	ated fro	m Japaı	1.		
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
6. A signature dish of res	taurants is	deliciou	ıs.			
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
7. Which type of Japanes	e food do y	ou pref	er?			
Single dish						
Set menu (with drink	and desser	t/fruit)				
☐ I like both single dish	and set me	enu				
8. Which taste of Japanes	se food do	you pre	fer?			
Original Japanese sty	le					
Fusion Japanese with	Thai style	(e.g. sp	icy sou	rce saln	non)	
☐ I prefer both types.						
9. Does country of origin	of ingredie	nts usec	l for ma	king Ja _l	panese foo	od is important to you?
Yes, I prefer ingredie	nts (e.g. ve	getable	s and m	eats) fro	om Japan.	
Yes, I prefer organic	ingredients	(e.g. ve	egetable	es and n	neats) from	n Japan.
No, it does not matter	r to me.					
10. The quality (e.g. fresh	hness, safet	y) of th	e ingred	lients is	good.	
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree

11. How long will you thinl Japanese restaurants?	c it is a	cceptat	ole to w	ait fron	n orderi	ng to receiving food at
☐ 5 - 15 minutes						
around 30 minutes						
around 1 hour						
more than 1 hour						
12. Employees at Japanese re	estaurai	nts are e	nthusia	stic and	take ca	re of customers.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
13. I received standardized se	ervice e	every tir	ne I eat	Japane	se food	at restaurants.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
14. I can customize menu (i.e	e. selec	t the ma	in and	side disl	nes in a	set menu) by myself.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
15. Healthy menu (low calor	ies) is a	ıvailable	e.			
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree

Personal data

Section 5: This section relates to your personal information. Please select the answer that best match with yourself.

Note: the data will be kept as a secret and will be used for this research only.
1. Sex
☐ Male
Female
2. Age
below 20 years
20-24 years
25-34 years
35-44 years
45-54 years
more than 55 years
3. Status
Single
Married
4. Education
Lower than high school
High school
☐ Diploma
☐ Bachelor degree
Master degree or higher
Others
5. Occupation
Government officer
Private company employee
Own business

Housewife
Student
Retired person
Others
6. Monthly salary
Lower than 10,000 baht
10,000-15,000 baht
15,001-20,000 baht
20,001-25,000 baht
25,001-30,000 baht
more than 30,000 baht
7. Have you traveled to Japan before?
Yes
□ No
8. Do you have interest in Japanese culture? (can answer more than 1)
Food
Dessert
Lifestyle
Animation
Sightseeing
☐ Sport
Dressing (Kimono, Yukata)
☐ No interest
9. Where do you live?
Bangkok
Around bangkok i.e. Pathumthani, Samutprakarn, Samutsakorn, Samutsongkram, Ayuttha, Nakorn pathum, Nonthaburi, Chonburi
Others

10. Email:	
	Thank you very much

Appendix E: Customer Behaviors and Factors Affecting Japanese Food Consumption at the Restaurants Questionnaire: Thai version

พฤติกรรมและปัจจัยที่มีผลต่อการรับประทานอาหารญี่ปุ่นในร้านอาหาร

แบบสอบถามนี้จัดทำขึ้นเพื่อศึกษาค่านิยม ความต้องการ และพฤติกรรมของลูกค้า เกี่ยวกับอาหารญี่ปุ่น ในประเทศไทย

แบบสอบถามนี้แบ่งออกเป็น 5 ส่วน ซึ่งประกอบด้วย ค่านิยม พฤติกรรมการบริโภคอาหารญี่ปุ่น ทัศนคติ ปัจจัยสำคัญในการเลือกรับประทานอาหารญี่ปุ่น และข้อมูลส่วนตัวของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม ผลที่ได้จากการสอบถามครั้งนี้ จะถูกนำไปใช้วิเคราะห์เพื่อพัฒนาอาหารญี่ปุ่นและการบริการใน ร้านอาหารต่อไป

เวลาที่ใช้ในการตอบแบบสอบถามนี้: 8-15 นาที
หากมีคำถาม กรุณาสอบถามเพิ่มเติมตามอีเมลล์ที่อยู่ข้างล่างนี้
ขอบคุณที่ให้ความร่วมมือในการตอบแบบสอบถามค่ะ

สุพิมพ์มาศ เชียรหิรัญ นักศึกษาปริญญาเอก คณะวิศกรรมอุตสาหการและการจัดการ สถาบันเทคโนโลยีแห่งโตเกียว

อีเมลล์: thienhirun.s.aa@m.titech.ac.jp

<u>ค่านิยมของแต่ละบุคคล</u>

ส่วนที่ 1: ประกอบด้วย 9 คำถามเกี่ยวกับค่านิยมที่คุณยึดถือในการใช้ชีวิตประจำวัน กรุณาเลือกคำตอบที่ตรงกับตัวคุณมากที่สุด

1. ความตื่นเต้น: ฉันให้ความสำ	เค้ญในกา	รทำสิ่งที่	แปลกให	าม่ และใ	ช้ชีวิตทำสิ	ชิงที่น่าตื่นเต้น
	1	2	3	4	5	
้ สำคัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด
2. ความสนุกสนาน และความ	เพลิคเพลิ	นในชีวิต	: ฉันให้	เ้ความสำ	คัญในการ	เใช้ชีวิตร่าเริง และมีความ
สนุกสนานเป็นส่วนหนึ่งในชีวิต	1					
	1	2	3	4	5	
สำคัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด
3. ความสัมพันธ์ที่ดีต่อคนอื่น: จ	ลันให้คว ^า	ามสำคัญ	ในการใช	ส่ใจคนร	อบข้าง ช่ว	ยเหลือเมื่อเขาผิดหวัง เปิด
ใจและจริงใจกับเพื่อนๆรวมถึงค	เรอบครัว					
	1	2	3	4	5	
สำคัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด
4. การทำตามสิ่งที่ตัวเองต้องกา	าร: ฉันใ ^ง	ห้ความสำ	าคัญในศ	าารคูแลต่	เวเองอย่าง	ดี ทานของที่ดีต่อสุขภาพ
และได้ทำในสิ่งที่อยากทำบ่อยๆ						
	1	2	3	4	5	
- สำคัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด
5. การเคารพตัวเอง: ฉันให้ควา	มสำคัญใ	นการทำ	ในสิ่งที่ถู	กแม้ว่าค	นอื่นจะไม	
ในตัวเองและจะไม่ยอมประนีป	ระนอมเพื่	ื่อทำในสิ่	เ เ เ เ เ เ เ เ เ เ เ เ เ เ เ เ เ เ เ	เ เ นินต้องเ	สียศักดิ์ศริ	ริของตัวเองไป
	1	2	3	4	5	
สำคัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด

6. ความรู้สึกเป็นส่วนหนึ่ง:	้ง: ฉันให้ความสำคัญในการเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของสังคม มีบทบาทสำคัญใ							
ครอบครัว และได้รับการชื่นชมจากเพื่อนฝูงและญาติมิตร								
	1	2	3	4	5			
สำคัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด		
7. การได้รับความเคารพ:	ฉันให้ความ	สำคัญสำ	าหรับกา	รมีสถาน	ะภาพที่ดีท่ามเ	าลางคนอื่นๆ รู้ความ		
คิดเห็นของคนอื่นและใส่ใจว่า	พวกเขาคิด	อย่างไรก็	_เ บิฉัน					
	1	2	3	4	5			
สำคัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด		
8. ความปลอดภัย: ฉันใ								
ทรัพย์สิน								
	1	2	3	4	5			
- สำคัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด		
9. ความรู้สึกในการประสบศ	าวามสำเร็จ:	ฉันให้	เความสำ	คัญในก′	ารทำสิ่งต่างๆอ	วย่างถูกต้อง เห็นงาน		
คำเนินมาจนถึงขั้นตอนสุดท้าย	ย และทำงา	นที่ได้รับ	เมอบหม	ายสำเร็จ				
	1	2	3	4	5			
สำคัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด		
คุณเคยทานอาหารญี่ปุ่นในร้าง	นอาหารมา เ	า่อนหรือ	ไม่					
🗌 เคยทาน ไปหน้าที่ 2								
🗌 ไม่เคยทาน ส่งแบบสอบถ	าม							
หากคุณไม่เคยทานอาหารญี่ปุ่ง	นในร้านอา	หาร กรุถ	นากรอกเ	หตุผลใน	เช่องด้านถ่าง			
		- 1		•				

การรับประทานอาหารญี่ปุ่นในร้านอาหาร

ส่วนที่ 2: คำถามในส่วนนี้เกี่ยวข้องกับการรับประทานอาหารญี่ปุ่นในร้านอาหาร กรุณาเลือกคำตอบที่ ตรงกับตัวคุณมากที่สุด 1. จากตัวเลือกข้างล่าง คุณมักจะทานอาหารญี่ปุ่นที่ร้านอาหารแบบใด (ตอบได้มากกว่า 1ข้อ) ร้านอาหารญี่ปุ่นที่อยู่ในห้างสรรพสินค้า ร้านอาหารญี่ปุ่นอื่นๆที่อยู่นอกห้างสรรพสินค้า 2. คุณมักจะทานอาหารญี่ปุ่นในร้านอาหารช่วงใหนบ้าง (ตอบได้มากกว่า1ข้อ) 🔲 จันทร์-พฤหัสบดี: ช่วงเช้า 🗌 จันทร์-พฤหัสบดี: ช่วงกลางวัน 🔲 จันทร์-พฤหัสบดี: ช่วงเย็น 🔲 ศุกร์: ช่วงเช้า 🔲 ศุกร์: ช่วงกลางวัน 🔲 ศุกร์: ช่วงเย็น 🔲 เสาร์-อาทิตย์ และวันหยุด: ช่วงเช้า 🔲 เสาร์-อาทิตย์ และวันหยุด: ช่วงกลางวัน 🔲 เสาร์-อาทิตย์ และวันหยุด: ช่วงเย็น 3. คุณมักจะทานอาหารญี่ปุ่นประเภทใหนบ้างที่ร้านอาหาร (ตอบได้มากกว่า1ข้อ) 🔲 ของทานเล่น (เช่น เกี้ยวซ่า, ทาโกยากิ, พิชซ่าญี่ปุ่น, สลัด, สาหร่าย) 🔲 เครื่องเคียง (เช่น ซุปมิโซะ, ไง่ตุ้น, เต้าหู้, กิมจิ) 🔲 ซูชิและซาชิมิ (เช่น ปลาดิบต่างๆ) 🔲 เมนูปึ้งย่าง (เช่น เนื้อวัว,ปลาซาบะ, ไก่ย่างซอสเทอริยากิ) 🔲 เมนูเส้น (เช่น โซบะ, โซเมน, อุด้ง, ราเมน) แมนูของทอด (เช่น เทมปุระ, ทงคัตสึ, คาราเกะ) 🗌 ชุดอาหารกล่องเบนโตะ

🗌 เมนูต้มต่างๆ (เช่น แซลม	อนต้มซีอิ๊ว)					
🗌 หม้อไฟ (เช่น สุกี้, ชาบู)						
🔲 เมนูอาหารเซท (มีขนมหา	วาน และหรื	อ ผลไม้	໌ ເເດະເຄ <i>ື</i> ່ວ	องดื่ม)		
🗌 อาหารปึ้งย่างบนเตา (เช่น	เนื้อสไลค์	หมูสไลเ	ค์ย่าง)			
🗌 อาหารฟิวชั่น (เช่น พล่าเ	ไลาแซลมอา	ม ยำสลัด	เปู่อัค)			
<u> </u>			9			
ความต้องการ ทัศนคติ และท	<u>งฤติกรรมกา</u>	<u>เรทานอา</u>	<u>หารอาห</u>	<u>ารญี่ปุ่นใ</u>	<u>นร้านอาห</u>	<u>115</u>
ส่วนที่ 3: คำถามต่อไปนี้เกี่ยว	งข้องกับควา	มต้องกา	ร ทัศนค	ติ และพ	ฤติกรรม จ	ากการรับประทานอาหาร
ญี่ปุ่นในร้านอาหาร						
กรุณาเลือกคำตอบที่ตรงกับตั	200112000	'				
រទើញ មេតារារម្យ ស្រេតការសេខ រប្រាស	ារព្រៃវា ព្រេលជំ	PI				
1. ฉันชอบลองอาหารญี่ปุ่นใจ	หม่ๆที่ร้านอ	าหาร				
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	ี่มีอาหารญี่ป	ปุ่นหลาก	หลายปร	ະເກທ		
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
3. ฉันให้ความสำคัญในการท	านอาหารญี่	ปุ่นในร้า	นอาหาร	ตกแต่งที่	์ โตกแต่งสา	วยงาม
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด -	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด

4. ฉันรู้สึกตื่นเต้นและสนุกกับการทานอาหารญี่ปุ่น เมื่อมีการบริการที่แปลกใหม่ในร้านอาหาร (เช่น การเสิร์ฟซูชิบนรถไฟชิงคันเซนบนสายพาน แล้วรถไฟจะหยุดตรงหน้าคุณ ตามภาพข้างล่าง)



	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
- 5. ฉันรู้สึกสุขภาพคีเมื่อทานเ	อาหารญี่ปุ่นที่	์ เร้านอาห	การ			
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	า (ไอโซ) เมื่อ	ทานอา	หารญี่ปุ่น	เที่ร้านอา	เหาร	
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	ที่ร้านอาหาร	กับเพื่อน	ເໆ ແລະ/າ	หรือ คร	บบครัว แถ	ละ/หรือ เพื่อนร่วมงาน
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	การแบบญี่ปุ่า	า (เลุ่ม เ	สิร์ฟชา	และมีผ้าเ	ช็ดมือให้	ก่อนเสิร์ฟอาหาร)
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	ที่ร้านอาหารเ	เล้วฉันรู้ ^เ	สึกอิ่มท้อ)1		
	1	2	3	4	5	
	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด

10. ฉันให้ความสำคัญในกา	ารเสิร์ฟอาหาร	ญกต้องต	ามที่ฉัน	ส้ง		
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
11. โดยรวมแล้วฉันรู้สึกพอ	วใจ กับเงินที่จ	่ายไปเมื่อ	อทานอา	หารญี่ปุ่น	เในร้าน	อาหาร
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
12. โดยรวมแล้วฉันรู้สึกพอ	วใจกับอาหาร ^ะ	ที่ฉันได้รั	ับ เมื่อท	านอาหาร	รญี่ปุ่นใ	นร้านอาหาร
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
13. โดยรวมแล้วฉันรู้สึกพอ	วใจกับการบริ	การ เมื่อ	ทานอาห	ารญี่ปุ่นใ	ในร้านฮ	าหาร
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	เที่ร้านอาหาร ^เ	ชึ่งมีบริก	ารดี ฉัน	ມັກຈະກຄ້	ับมาใช้	บริการอีกครั้ง
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
15. ฉันมักจะทานอาหารญี่เ	ปุ่นที่ร้านเดิมที่	เ แคยทาน				
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
16. ฉันกำลังจะไปทานอาห	ารญี่ปุ่นเร็วๆเ	J. 7				
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
17. โดยทั่วไป คนไทยม	มักจะออกไปเ	าานอาหา	เรต่างชา	ติในร้าน	อาหาร	มากกว่าทานอาหารไทยใน
ร้านอาหาร						
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นค้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด

18. วัฒนธรรมญี่ปุ่น เช่น	อาหาร ขน	เมหวาน	เครื่องแ	เต่งกาย	เป็นที่รู้จัก	อย่างแพร่หลายของคนใน
สังคมไทย						
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	หรือ ศิลปิน ,	ดาราญี่ป	ปุ่น			
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	ารญี่ปุ่น ทำใ	ห้ฉันทา	นอาหารถ่	ญี่ปุ่นบ่อ	ยขึ้น	
	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
21. เมื่อฉันเห็นอาหารญี่ปุ่น	ตามสังคมอย	่วนไลน์	(social	netwo	rk) มันทำ	ให้ฉันอยากจะทานอาหา
ญี่ปุ่นบ้าง						
	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	เก้บครอบครั	່ວ ແລະ/າ	หรือ เพื่อ	านๆ แถ	ะ/หรือ เพื่อ	านร่วมงาน พวกเขามักจะ
ชอบเลือกร้านอาหารญี่ปุ่น						
	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
23. การทานอาหารญี่ปุ่นในร	ร้านอาหาร เ ^ร ็	ป็นที่ที่ฉัน	เสามารถ	าผ่อนคล	าย และพบ	ปะพูดคุยกับเพื่อนๆ และ
หรือ ครอบครัว และ/หรือ เท่	พื่อนร่วมงาน	Į.				
	1	2	3	4	5	
 เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	านอาหารมีร	าคาแพง				
	1	2	3	4	5	
 เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด

25. ฉันคิดว่าอาหารญี่ปุ่นที่ฉั	นเคยทาน ไร	ม่ใช่อาห	ารญี่ปุ่นแ	เบบดั้งเดิ	็ม (แบบที่	คนญี่ปุ่นทานกัน)
	1	2	3	4	5	
 เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
26. ฉันคิดว่าร้านอาหารที่มีชื่	อเป็นภาษาถุ	ขี่ปุ่น แล	ะ/หรือผล	ลิตภัณฑ์	ที่มีภาษาถุ็	์ เปุ่น ได้รับความนิยมอย่า
มากในไทย						
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
27. ฉันคิดว่าร้านอาหารญี่ปุ่น	เทิ่มีชื่อเสียง	มีการบริ	การที่ดีก	าว่า		
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
28. ฉันเชื่อว่าอาหารญี่ปุ่นใน	เร้านอาหารา	ทำจากวัต	เถุดิบคุณ	ภาพชั้นเ	ยู่ยม	
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
29. ฉันเชื่อว่าการบริการในร้	านอาหารญี่่า	ปุ่นที่ไทย	กับที่ญี่:	ปุ่นไม่เห	มือนกัน	
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
30. ฉันเชื่อว่าการทานอาหาร	ญี่ปุ่นในร้าน	เอาหาร เ	ป็นการใ	ห้รางวัล	ตัวเอง	
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด

ปัจจัยสำคัญเกี่ยวกับการรับประทานอาหารญี่ปุ่นในร้านอาหาร

ส่วนที่ 4: คำถามต่อไปนี้เกี่ยวข้องกับปัจจัยต่างๆที่มีผลต่อการรับประทานอาหารญี่ปุ่นในร้านอาหาร กรุณาเลือกคำตอบที่ตรงกับตัวคุณมากที่สุด

1. ราคาของอาหารมีความเ	หมาะสม					
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
2. แบรนค์ของร้านอาหารมีร	ชื่อเสียงและใค้	, รับความ	นิยม			
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
3. ทำเลที่ตั้งของร้านอาหาร	(เช่น มีที่จอด	ารถ ใกล้	รถไฟฟ้า) สะคว	าในการไา	ไร้บประทาน
	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	เร (ภายในร้าน) คูน่าส	นใจและ	สวยงาม		
	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	มาจากประเทศ	_ใ ญี่ปุ่น				
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	องร้าน (signa	ature dis	sh) อร่อ	ប		
	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สด

7. อาหารญี่ปุ่นประเภทใหนที่คุณ	ชอบทา	นที่ร้านอ	าหาร				
🔲 อาหารจานเคียว							
🗆 อาหารชุด (มีน้ำและ ของหวานหรือผลไม้)							
🗆 ฉันชอบทั้งสองอย่าง							
8. รสชาติอาหารญี่ปุ่นแบบใหนที่ รสชาติดั้งเดิมแบบญี่ปุ่นแท้ๆ ฟิวชั่นระหว่างไทยและญี่ปุ่น (ฉันชอบทั้งสองอย่าง 9. แหล่งที่มาของวัตถุดิบ (ผัก และ เล่าคัญ ฉันชอบวัถุดิบ (ผัก และ เล่าคัญ ฉันชอบวัถุดิบ (หัก และ เล่าคัญ ฉันชอบวัถุดิบ (หัก และ เล่าคัญ ฉันชอบวัถุดิบแกษตรอิง	(เช่น พ ะ เนื้อส่	ล่าปลาแ• ชัตว์ต่างๆ สัตว์ต่าง•) ที่ใช้ทำ ๅ) ที่มาจ	าอาหารถู่ ากญี่ปุ่นม	มากกว่า	•	
มันไม่สำคัญสำหรับฉัน							
10. คุณภาพ (เช่น ความสดใหม่ เ	และคว	ามปลอดเ	กัย) ของ	วัตถุดิบอ	ายู่ในเกณฑ์	์ ดี	
	1	2	3	4	5		
- เห็นค้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด	
11. คุณคิดว่าเวลาที่คุณรับได้ เวลานานเท่าใด 5 ถึง15 นาที	ใน	เการรออ	าหารตั้งเ	เต่สั่งจนเ	ถึงใค้รับอา	หารที่ร้านอาหารควรจะมี	
🗌 ราวๆ 30 นาที							
🗌 ราวๆ 1ชั่วโมง							
🗌 มากกว่า 1 ชั่วโมง							

12. พนักงานในร้านอาหารญี	ปุ่นมีความก	ระติอริอ	รัน และ	ใส่ไจถูกเ	ก้า	
	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	มาตรฐานเห	มือนเดิม	ทุกครั้ง า	ที่ฉันทาน	เอาหารญี่เ	ปุ่นที่ร้านอาหาร
	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	าหารชุด (เว	ช่น เลือก	อาหารจ	จานหลัก	และ เครื่	องเคียง ในเมนูอาหารชุด
ได้เอง						
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	นูเพื่อสุขภา	พ (เมนูแ	คลลอรี่น์	้เอย)		
	1	2	3	4	5	
 เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด

9J	1	٥
ขอม	ิลสว	นตว

กรุณาตอบคำถามทัตรงกบตัวคุณมากที่สุด
นี้เท่านั้น

5. อาชีพ
🗆 พนักงานราชการ
🗌 พนักงานบริษัท
🔲 ธุรกิจส่วนตัว
🗆 แม่บ้าน
🗌 นักเรียน
🗌 เกษียณ
🗌 อื่นๆ
6. รายได้ต่อเดือน
🔲 น้อยกว่า 10,000 บาท
่ 10,000-15,000 บาท
่
่ 20,001-25,000 บาท
่ 25,001-30,000 บาท
🔲 มากกว่า 30,000 บาท
7. คุณเคยมาเที่ยวที่ญี่ปุ่นหรือไม่
เคย
🗌 ไม่เคย
8. วัฒนธรรมญี่ปุ่นเรื่องใดบ้างที่คุณมีความสนใจ (ตอบได้มากกว่า1ข้อ)
อาหาร
ู
 กีฬา

🗌 การแต่งกาย (กิโมโน, ยูกาตะ)
🔲 อื่นๆ
9. คุณพักอาศัยอยู่ที่ใหน
กรุงเทพมหานคร
🗌 ปริมณฑล เช่น นนทบุรี, ปทุมธานี, นครปฐม, ชลบุรี, อยุธยา, สมุทรปราการ, สมุทรสาคร
สมุทรสงคราม
🗌 อื่นๆ
10. อีเมลล์

ขอบคุณที่ตอบแบบสอบถามค่ะ

Appendix F: Customer Behaviors and Factors Affecting Thai Food Consumption at the Restaurants Questionnaire: Japanese version

レストランでタイ料理を食べることに影響する顧客の要因

こんにちは、

本アンケートは、日本国内のタイ料理に対する顧客の考え方、ニーズ、行動を調査するために行われます。 このアンケートはそれぞれ、価値観について、食生活について、ニーズについて、レストランでタイ料理を選ぶ主な要因について、個人データについて、の5部に分けられています。

このアンケートから得た結果は、タイ料理レストラン内のサービスを向上するために使用します。

アンケートを記入するおよその時間:8-15分。

ご質問がありましたら以下のアドレスまで遠慮なくご連絡ください。

ありがとうございました。

スピムマス テインヒラン

東京工業大学大 工学院 経営工学専攻 博士後期課程

メール: thienhirun.s.aa@m.titech.ac.jp

価値観について

最も重要でない

第1部:ご自身で感じる日常でください。	生活にお	ける 9 つ	の価値	観につい	て、最も当	当てはまる選択肢を選ん
1. 興奮:新しいことをしたり	、ワクワ 1	/クするこ 2	ことをし	て生きた 4	こりするこ。 5	とを重要視している。
最も重要でない	0	0	0	0	0	最も重要である
2. 楽しいことや快感:楽しく ことを重要視している。	く生きた	り、エン	ターティ	イメント	が生活の一	一部になっていたりする
	1	2	3	4	5	
最も重要でない	0	0	0	0	0	最も重要である
3. 良好な関係:自分の周りの いたり正直でいたりすること				ている人	を助けたり)、友人や家族に心を開
	1	2	3	4	5	
最も重要でない	0	0	0	0	0	最も重要である
4. 欲を満たす事:十分に自分 ことを重要視している。	計自身を含	気に掛け	ることや	や、良い	物を食べた	こり、したいことをする
	1	2	3	4	5	
最も重要でない	0	0	0	0	0	最も重要である
5. 自尊心:たとえ他人が同意を持って自尊心を傷つけるよ						
	1	2	3	4	5	
最も重要でない	0	0	0	0	0	最も重要である
6. 所属意識:自分が社会の一般に感謝されることを重要視			自身の領	家族にお	いて大切な	な役割を持ち、友人や親
	1	2	3	4	5	
最も重要でない	0	0	0	0	0	最も重要である
7. 尊敬される事:良いステークか気を遣っていることを重要者			、他人の	の意見を	理解し、他	也人からどう思われるの
	1	2	3	4	5	

最も重要である

8. 安全性:金銭的にも特別である。	の座門にも女主	2	3	4	- を里安焼し	, (v ' Ø °
 最も重要でない	0	0	0	0	0	 最も重要である
9. 達成感: すべてにおい		遂げるこ	とや、イ	壬された	仕事を最後	まで過程を見て達成す
ることを重要視している					_	
目4 壬亜ベハ、	1 O	$\frac{2}{\bigcirc}$	3 O	4 O	5 O	見よ壬亜ベセフ
最も重要でない 						最も重要である
あなたはレストランでタ □ はい, 第2部	1 程建を良い	/ <i>N</i> -	· <i>w</i>)	ンよりねず	0	
□ いいえ, 送信						
もしあなたはタイレスト	ランで行った	ことがあ	りまけん	7 理由	を書いてく	ださい
						7.2.0 V .
1.っ 1 ニンベカノ炉押ナ	企由ナファ 1、					
レストランでタイ料理を			· A .: 7	テー]、/ テ月E	ナッキシナ	・め仁利についての所用
第2部:以下はレストラ です。	ンにわいてダ	1 科理 8	で良べる	_ と (二)失	9 る与え刀	~11 動についての負問
ご自身に最も当てはまる	選択肢を選ん	でくださ	· / / o			
1. どちらのレストラン	で普段タイ料理	里を食べ	ますか。	(1つ以	(上でも可)	
デパートの中のレ	ストラン					
デパート以外のレ	ストラン					
2. 普段レストランでタ	イ料理を食べる	らのはい	つですか	. (1 <	以上でも可	·)
月曜日から木曜日	の午前					
月曜日から木曜日	の午後					
月曜日から木曜日	の夕方					
金曜日の午前						
金曜日の午後						
金曜日の夕方						
休日の午前						
休日の午後						
休日の夕方						

ー ーン (若鶏のグリル)						
メインディッシュ: パ	『ットガパ	オ (スパ	イシーノ	ヾジル炒	め)	
スープ:トムヤムクン 肉スープ)	(トムヤ	ムクンス	ープ)、	トムカ	ーガイ(:	ココナッツミルク入り鶏
■ 麺:クイッティオパッ	タイ(タ	イ焼きそ	ば)			
□ 飯:カーオクルックカ 炒めと目玉焼きのせご飯)	ピ(タイ:	式五目炒	飯)、フ	カーオガ	イパット	バイガパオ(鶏肉バジル
カレー:ゲーンキョワ	ーン(グ	リーンカ	レー)、	ゲーン	ペット (1	ノッドカレー)
レストランでタイ料理を食べ	ることに	対する顧	客の考え	え方とニ	ーズと行	<u>b</u>
第 3 部: 以下はレストランで 問です。	でタイ料理	を食べる	ことに	関するニ	・一ズや考	え方や行動についての質
ご自身に最も当てはまる選択	肢を選ん	でくださ	い。			
1. レストランでいつも新しい	ハタイ料理	をたべつ	てみる。			
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
2. 様々な種類のタイ料理があ	あるレスト	・ランを。	よく選ぶ	0		
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
3. きれいな内装のレストラン	ンでタイ料	理を食/	べること	を重要視	見している	0
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う

3. レストランではいつも何のタイ料理を食べていますか。(1つ以上でも可)

前菜: ポーピヤソット(生春巻き)、ムーピン(タイ東北地方豚肉の串焼き)、ガイヤ

4. 新しいサービスがあるレストラン (例えば、タイのダンスショー、タイの服を着ている店員) でタイ料理を食べると楽しくなる。



	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
5. レストランでタイ料理	を食べること	は健康に	こいいと	思う。		
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
6. レストランでタイ料理	を食べると富	K裕層で	あると感	じる。		
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
7. 友達や家族や同僚とよ	くレストラン	/でタイ料	斗理を食	べる。		
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
8. タイ独自のサービスが	あるレスト	ランが好	きである	5 (例え	ば、食前に	こタイのハーブが入って
いる水を提供すること)。						
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
9. タイ料理を食べた後は	おなかがいっ	ぱいにた	なると感	じる。		
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
10. 注文した通りに配膳さ	れることを	重要視し	ている。			
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う

11. 一般的に、レストラン	でタイ料理	を食べる	とき、打	ムったお	金に満足す	- る。
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
12. 一般的に、レストラン	でタイ料理	を食べる	とき、米	斗理に満	足する。	
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
13. 一般的に、レストラン	でタイ料理	を食べる	とき、サ	ナービス	に満足する	,) ₀
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
14. サービスの良いレスト	・ランでタイ	料理を食	べたら、	次回も	また来たレ	いと思う。
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
15. 以前食べたことのある	タイ料理レ	ストラン	でいつも	食べる	0	
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
16. 近いうちにタイ料理を	食べにいく	つもりだ	•			
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
17. おおよそ、日本人はレ	マストランで:	タイ料理	より他の	の外国の	料理を食へ	べる方が多い。
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
18. 料理、デザート、服装	そのようなター	イの文化	は日本の	り社会で	広く知られ	iている。
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
19. タイの映画や芸能人や	有名人が好	きである	0			
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う

20. タイ科理のレストラン (る。	: :メンバー:	会員にな	ったら、	タイ料	理をもっと	よく食べるようにな
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
	でタイ料:	理の写真	を見たら	っ、タイ:	料理を食べ	たくなる。
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
22. 家族や友達と外食すると	きに、彼	らはよく	タイレス	ストラン	を選ぶ。	
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
23. レストランでタイ料理を 向上する。	食べるこ	とで、リ	ラックス	ス出来て	、家族や友	[達や同僚との社交性
	1	2	3	4	5	
 全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
	里は高いと	思う。				
	1	2	3	4	5	
 全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
	単は、オリ	ジナルの	タイ料理	里(タイ	人が食べて	「いる料理)ではない
	1	2	3	4	5	
 全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
	/やタイ語	で書かれ	ている集	製品は、	日本でとて	も好まれていると思
	1	2	3	4	5	
	$\overline{}$	$\overline{\bigcirc}$	0	0	0	強くそう思う
全くそう思わない	\circ	$\overline{}$	_			
			スは日本	のものと	は似てい	ないと思う。
			スは日本 3	のものと 4	: は似てい: 5	ないと思う。
全くそう思わない 27. タイにあるタイ料理のレ 全くそう思わない	ストランの	サービ				ないと思う。 強くそう思う
27. タイにあるタイ料理のレ	ストランの 1 〇	2 O	3	4 O	5	
27. タイにあるタイ料理のレ	ストランの 1 〇	2 O	3	4 O	5	

J.						
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
30. レストランでタイ料理	埋を食べるこ	とは自分	へのご猛	&美だと	思う。	
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
レストランでタイ料理をi	選ぶ主な要因					
第 4 部: 以下の質問はレ いて最も当てはまる選択			選ぶ主	な要因に	ついてです	す。ご自身の経験に基づ
1. タイ料理の値段が適正	である。					
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
2. レストランのブランド	が有名で人気	〔がある。				
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
3. レストランの場所が便	利である(駐	主車場がる	ある、駅	に近いた	ほど)。	
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
4. 店内の雰囲気が魅力的	である。					
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
5. 本場タイから日本に上	陸したタイ料	理のレ	ストラン	である。		
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
6. レストランのおすすめ	メニューがお	3いしい。				
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	\circ	0	\circ	0	強くそう思う

29. 良く知られているタイ料理のレストランのサービスの方がほかのレストランよりいいと思

	タイ料理においてどちら		. X1 G C	, , , ,			
	単品						
	セットメニュー(飲み	物、デザー	ートや果	:物が付レ	っている)	
	どちらも好きである。						
8.	どちらの風味のタイ料理	が好きです	った。				
	タイオリジナルの風味	₹					
	日本風に合わせた風味	ミ (例:ス/	パイスソ	ースサー	ーモン)		
	どちらも好きである						
9.	タイ料理に使われる素材	の原産国((野菜と同	肉類) は	あなたに	ことって重	重要ですか。
	はい、私はタイ産の素	材(野菜。	と肉類)	の方が好	子きであ	る。	
	はい、私はタイ産の有	「機素材(野菜と肉	類)の力	すが好き	である。	
	いいえ、重要視してい	ません。					
10.	食材の質(新鮮さ、安全	と性など) 7	がよい。				
		1	2	3	4	5	
<u></u>	そう思わない	1	2	3	4 O	5	強くそう思う
	そう思わない 注文してから料理が来る	0	0	0	0	0	
	- ,	0	0	0	0	0	
	注文してから料理が来る	0	0	0	0	0	
	注文してから料理が来る 5 - 15 分	0	0	0	0	0	
	注文してから料理が来る 5 - 15 分 ~30分	0	0	0	0	0	
	注文してから料理が来る 5 - 15 分 ~30分 ~1 時間	うまでの時間	間はどの	程度であ	0	0	
	注文してから料理が来る 5 - 15 分 ~30 分 ~1 時間 1 時間以上	うまでの時間	間はどの	程度であ	0	0	
11.	注文してから料理が来る 5 - 15 分 ~30 分 ~1 時間 1 時間以上	(を) までの時間 ないない ないない ないない ないがい ないがい ないがい ないがい かいし おいま おいま かいま かいま かいま かいま かいま かいま かいま かいま かいま か	間はどのて気が利	O 程度で ^は Iく。	O	許容でき	
11. □ □ 12.	注文してから料理が来る 5-15分 ~30分 ~1時間 1時間以上 従業員のやる気があり、	O までの時 客に対し 1	〇 間はどの て気が利 2	○ 程度であ 3 ○	0 53なら ¹ 4	○ 許容でき 5	るか?
11. □ □ 12.	注文してから料理が来る 5-15分 ~30分 ~1時間 1時間以上 従業員のやる気があり、 そう思わない	O までの時 客に対し 1	〇 間はどの て気が利 2	○ 程度であ 3 ○	0 53なら ¹ 4	○ 許容でき 5	るか?

る)。						
	1	2	3	4	5	
全くそう思わない	0	0	0	0	0	強くそう思う
15. 健康的なメニュー (カロ)	リーが低い	ハなど)	がある。			
	1	2	3	4	5	

0 0

0

強くそう思う

0

0

全くそう思わない

14. 自分でメニューを組み合わせることができる(セットメニューでメインと副菜を自分で選べ

個人データ

専業主婦

第5部:以下はあなた自身に関する質問です。 ご自身に最も当てはまる選択肢を選んでください。 回答データはこの調査でのみ使用され、外部に漏れることはありません。 1. 性別 男性 女性 2. 年齢 20 歳以下 20-24 歳 25-34 歳 35-44 歳 45-54歳 55 歳以上 3. 身分 独身 既婚 4. 学歴 中学校 高等学校 高等学校卒業 大学卒業 修士卒業かそれ以上 その他_____ 5. 職業 公共団体職員 民間企業職員 自営業

	学生
	退職者
	その他
6. 給	与(月給)
	200,000 円以下
	200,000-290,000 円
	300, 000-390, 000 円
	400,000-490,000 円
	500,000-590,000 円
	600,000 円余
7. タ	イに行ったことがありますか
	はい
	いいえ
8. 夕	イの文化に興味がありますか(1 つ以上でも可)
8. タ	イの文化に興味がありますか(1 つ以上でも可) 食品
8. <i>A</i>	
	食品
	食品デザート
	食品デザート生き方
	食品 デザート 生き方 歌、アニメ、映画
	食品 デザート 生き方 歌、アニメ、映画 観光
	食品 デザート 生き方 歌、アニメ、映画 観光 スポーツ
	食品 デザート 生き方 歌、アニメ、映画 観光 スポーツ 衣類
	食品 デザート 生き方 歌、アニメ、映画 観光 スポーツ 衣類 その他
□ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □	食品 デザート 生き方 歌、アニメ、映画 観光 スポーツ 衣類 その他 ちらにお住まいですか。

ありがとうございました。

Appendix G: Customer Behaviors and Factors Affecting the Stay in Small Hotels or Resorts (1–3 Stars) in Thailand Questionnaire: English version

Customer's values, needs, behaviors and factors affecting the stay in small hotels or

resorts (1-3 stars) in Thailand

This survey is conducted for studying values, needs, behaviors and the important

factors affecting the stay in small hotels or resorts (1–3 stars) for leisure purpose in popular tourism provinces in Thailand (e.g. Samut Prakan, Samut Sakhon, Chiang-mai, Chiang Rai,

Ratchaburi, Rayong, Phuket and Kanchanaburi).

The survey is divided into 4 sections including individual values, needs and

behaviors, important factors for staying in the small hotels or resorts (1-3 stars) and

personal data in which the results will be used for analyzing to improve the service of the

small hotels or resorts (1–3 stars) in the future.

Definition (Reference from the hotel standard, Department of Tourism, Thailand, 2014.)

Hotel or resort (1 star) refers to the hotel that provides mainly the room service and offers

a small dining place.

Hotel or resort (2 stars) refers to the hotel that provides both room and food service or

offers the dining hall and the cooking space.

Hotel or resort (3 stars) refers to the hotel that provides both room and food service or

offers the dining hall and the cooking space, and provides the entertainment facilities or

meeting room.

It takes about 5 minutes to complete the survey.

If you have any questions, do not hesitate to contact the below e-mail.

Thank you very much

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324

The value from individual point of view

Section 1: This part is consisted of 9 values which related to values that you perceive to yourself.

Please rate the scale that best match with yourself.

	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
2. Fun and enjoyment of as part of my life.	life: it is im	portant	to me to	have fu	ın in life an	d have entertainment
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
3. Warm relationship w support others when the			-			•
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
4. Self-fulfillment: it is things and do things as I	-	me to	take ca	re of my	yself well,	often consume good
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
5. Self-respect: it is important of myself and will not co			_	_		
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
6. Sense of belonging: in role in the family and be	-			-		
	1	2	3	4	5	

others' opinions and care	windt they			•		
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
8. Security: it is importa	nt to me to	have fin	ancial a	and phys	sical safety	, and security in life.
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
9. Sense of accomplishm work done till the end ar		-		_		one properly, see the
	1	2	3	4	5	
very unimportant	0	0	0	0	0	very important
Customer's needs and l	behaviors f	or stay	ing in t	he smal	ll hotels or	4. (1. 2. 4)
Section 2: This section r						resorts (1–3 stars)
Thailand (e.g. Samut Pra	ort (1–3 star kan, Samut	s) for le	eisure p	urpose	in popular	ntention from staying tourism provinces in
Thailand (e.g. Samut Pra Phuket and Kanchanabu Please select the answer	ort (1–3 star kan, Samut ri).	rs) for le Sakhon	eisure p , Chian	urpose : g-mai, (in popular	ntention from staying tourism provinces in
Thailand (e.g. Samut Pra Phuket and Kanchanabu	ort (1–3 stankan, Samutri).	rs) for le Sakhon atch wit	eisure p , Chian h yours	urpose : g-mai, (elf.	in popular Chiang Rai	ntention from staying tourism provinces in , Ratchaburi, Rayong
Thailand (e.g. Samut Pra Phuket and Kanchanabu Please select the answer Note: "small hotel or res	ort (1–3 stankan, Samutri). that best moort" in this content of the content of th	rs) for le Sakhon atch wit	eisure p , Chian h yours naire re	urpose : g-mai, C elf. efers to t	in popular Chiang Rai he hotel or	ntention from staying tourism provinces in Ratchaburi, Rayong resort with 1–3 stars
Thailand (e.g. Samut Pra Phuket and Kanchanabu Please select the answer Note: "small hotel or resonly.	ort (1–3 stankan, Samutri). that best moort" in this content of the content of th	rs) for le Sakhon atch wit	eisure p , Chian h yours naire re	urpose : g-mai, C elf. efers to t	in popular Chiang Rai he hotel or	ntention from staying tourism provinces in Ratchaburi, Rayong resort with 1–3 stars

2. I usually choose the si view room, mountain view					s types of	f room (e.g. river or sea
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
3. Having interesting actown, boating, snorkeling		•				
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
4. I feel relaxed among I	natural atmo	sphere	when I	stay in 1	the small	l hotel/resort.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
5. I feel that the small ho	otel/resort p	rovides	warm a	nd kind	service	to the guests.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
6. I like the small hotel/n province (e.g. a drawing		•			•	
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
7. I always stay at the sn	nall hotel/re	sort wh	en I tra	vel with	friends	and/or family.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
8. I like the small hotel family, which does not r		_	_		-	=
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
9. Staying in the small hand/or family.	notel/resort	is a plac	ce wher	e I can	relax and	d socialize with friends
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree

10. I had a good sleep w	hen stayed	in the si	nall hot	el/resor	t.	
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
11. I can use water and e	lectricity in	the roor	n prope	rly whe	n stayed i	in the small hotel/resor
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
12. Receiving the servi correct, the check-in and	•					
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
13. Overall, I am satisfic	ed with the 1	noney I	paid fo	r when	I stay in	this small hotel/resort.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
14. Overall, I am satisfic	ed with the 1	oom I s	tay in tl	his sma	ll hotel/re	esort.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
15. Overall, I am satisfic	ed with the s	service v	when I s	stay in t 4	his hotel	/hostel.
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
16. I usually stay in the	same small	hotel/re	sort tha	t I staye	d last tin	ne.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
17. I will stay in this sm	all hotel/res	ort in th	e future	e .		
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
Important factors for s	staying in tl	he smal	l hotels	or reso	orts (1–3 s	stars)
Section 3: This section resorts (1–3 stars) for lei Prakan, Samut Sakhon Kanchanaburi).	sure purpos	e in pop	ular tou	ırism pr	ovinces in	Thailand (e.g. Samu
Please select the answer	that best m	atch wit	th yours	self.		
Note: "small hotel or resonly.	ort" in this c	question	ınaire re	efers to t	the hotel o	r resort with 1–3 stars
1. The scenery around si	mall hotel/re	esort is	beautifu	ıl.		
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
2. The small hotel/resort	is decorate	d with ı	ınique t	hemes.		
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
3. The location of the sn	nall hotel/re	sort is n	ear the	tourist a	attraction.	
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
4. I can access to the sm	all hotel/res	ort easi	ly by pı	ıblic tra	nsportatio	n or free shuttle bus.
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
5. The employees of the the request.	small hotel/	resort a	re energ	getic and	d willing to	o help the guests upor
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
						

18. I will come back to this small hotel/resort more often in the coming years.

6. The employees of the	small hotel	/resort a	ılways l	nave sm	iling face.	
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
7. The price of the small	hotel/resor	t is reas	onable.			
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
8. The small hotel/resort	has a good	security	y.			
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
9. The room of the small	hotel/resor	t is new	7.			
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
10. The room of small h	otel/resort is	s clean.				
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
11. The light in the roon	n is bright e	nough.				
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
12. The small hotel/reso	rt provides	basic eq	uipmen	t for gu	ests such a	as shampoo and soap
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
13. The small hotel/reso and take back home.	rt provides	special	activiti	es such	as doing	hand-made souvenirs
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree
14. The small hotel/reso	rt has a loca	ıl meal s	service	for the g	guests.	
	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree

15. The small hotel/resort has surprised and entertaining service to the guests (e.g. provi	ides
a birthday card, help arrange the private party).	

	1	2	3	4	5	
strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	strongly agree

Personal data

Housewife

Section 4: This section relates to your personal information. Please select the answer that best match with yourself. Note: the data will be kept as a secret and will be used for this research only.1. Sex Male Female 2. Age below 20 years 20-24 years 25-34 years 35-44 years 45-54 years more than 55 years 3. Status Single Married 4. Education Lower than high school High school Diploma Bachelor degree Master degree or higher Others____ 5. Occupation Government officer Private company employee Own business

Student	
Retired person	
Others	
6. Monthly salary	
Lower than 10,000 baht	
10,000-15,000 baht	
15,001-20,000 baht	
20,001-25,000 baht	
25,001-30,000 baht	
more than 30,000 baht	
7. Where do you live?	
Bangkok	
Others	
8. Email:	

Thank you very much

Appendix H: Customer Behaviors and Factors Affecting the Stay in Small Hotels or Resorts (1–3 Stars) in Thailand Questionnaire: Thai version

ค่านิยม ความต้องการ พฤติกรรมของลูกค้า และปัจจัยที่มีผลต่อการใช้บริการโรมแรมหรือรี สอร์ทขนาดเล็กระดับ 1–3 ดาว ในประเทศไทย

แบบสอบถามนี้จัดทำขึ้นเพื่อศึกษาค่านิยม ความต้องการ พฤติกรรมของลูกค้า และปัจจัยสำคัญที่มีผล ต่อการใช้บริการโรงแรมหรือรีสอร์ทขนาดเล็ก (ระดับ 1–3 ดาว) เพื่อการพักผ่อน ตามเมืองท่องเที่ยว ต่างๆที่มีชื่อเสียงในประเทศไทย (เช่น สมุทรสาคร สมุทรปราการ เชียงใหม่ เชียงราย ราชบุรี ระยอง ภูเก็ต และ กาญจนบุรี เป็นต้น)

แบบสอบถามนี้แบ่งออกเป็น 4 ส่วน ซึ่งประกอบด้วย ค่านิยม ความต้องการและพฤติกรรม ปัจจัย สำคัญในการใช้บริการโรงแรมหรือรีสอร์ท และข้อมูลส่วนตัวของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม ซึ่งผลที่ได้จาก การสอบถามครั้งนี้ จะถูกนำไปใช้วิเคราะห์เพื่อพัฒนาการบริการในโรงแรมต่อไป

<u>คำชี้แจง</u> (อ้างอิงจาก มาตรฐานโรงแรม กรมการท่องเที่ยว 2557)

โรงแรมหรือรีสอร์ทระดับ 1 ดาว หมายถึง โรงแรมที่ให้บริการห้องพักเป็นหลัก และมีมุมทานอาหาร ให้เล็กน้อย

โรงแรมหรือรีสอร์ทระดับ 2 ดาว หมายถึง โรงแรมที่ให้บริการห้องพักและห้องอาหารหรือ สถานที่ สำหรับบริการอาหารหรือสถานที่สำหรับประกอบอาหาร

โรงแรมหรือรีสอร์ทระดับ 3 ดาว หมายถึง โรงแรมที่ให้บริการห้องพักและห้องอาหารหรือ สถานที่ สำหรับบริการอาหารหรือสถานที่สำหรับประกอบอาหาร และสถานบริการตามกฎหมายว่าด้วยสถาน บริการ หรือห้องประชุมสัมมนา

เวลาที่ใช้ในการตอบแบบสอบถามนี้: 5 นาที
หากมีคำถาม กรุณาสอบถามเพิ่มเติมตามอีเมลล์ที่อยู่ข้างล่างนี้
ขอบคุณที่ให้ความร่วมมือในการตอบแบบสอบถามค่ะ

สุพิมพ์มาศ เชียรหิรัญ นักศึกษาปริญญาเอก คณะวิศกรรมอุตสาหการและการจัดการ สถาบันเทคโนโลยีแห่งโตเกียว อีเมลล์: thienhirun.s.aa@m.titech.ac.jp

<u>ค่านิยมของแต่ละบุคคล</u>

ส่วนที่ 1: ประกอบด้วย 9 คำถามเกี่ยวกับค่านิยมที่คุณยึดถือในการใช้ชีวิตประจำวัน กรุณาเลือกคำตอบที่ตรงกับตัวคุณมากที่สุด

1. ความตื่นเต้น: ฉันให้ความสำคั	ัญในกา	เรทำสิ่งที่	แปลกให	เม่ และใ	ช้ชีวิตทำสิ่งที่น่	ักดื่นเต้น -
	1	2	3	4	5	
	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด
2. ความสนุกสนาน และความเพ	เลิดเพลิ	นในชีวิต	: ฉันให้	์ ความสำ	คัญในการใช้ชี	วิตร่าเริง และมีความ
สนุกสนานเป็นส่วนหนึ่งในชีวิต						
	1	2	3	4	5	
สำคัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด
3. ความสัมพันธ์ที่ดีต่อคนอื่น: ฉั	นให้คว	ามสำคัญ	ในการใส	ไ ใจคนรถ	อบข้าง ช่วยเหล็	า ขอเมื่อเขาผิดหวัง เปิด
ใจและจริงใจกับเพื่อนๆรวมถึงคร	อบครัว					
	1	2	3	4	5	
สำคัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด
4. การทำตามสิ่งที่ตัวเองต้องการ	: ฉันใ	ห้ความสํ	ากัญในก	ารคูแลต์	้าเองอย่างค <u>ื</u> ท	านของที่ดีต่อสุขภาเ
และได้ทำในสิ่งที่อยากทำบ่อยๆ						
	1	2	3	4	5	
สำคัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด
5. การเคารพตัวเอง: ฉันให้ความ	สำคัญใ	นการทำ	ในสิ่งที่ถู	กแม้ว่าค	นอื่นจะไม่เห็น	ด้วยก็ตาม รู้สึกภูมิใ
ในตัวเองและจะไม่ยอมประนีประ	ะนอมเท็	เอทำในสิ่	ใงที่ทำให้	เล้นต้อง เ	เสียศักดิ์ศรีของ	ตัวเองไป
	1	2	3	4	5	
สำคัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด
6. ความรู้สึกเป็นส่วนหนึ่ง: เ	วันให้ค _ั	วามสำคัญ	ู่ในการเ	ป็นส่วนเ	หนึ่งของสังคม	มีบทบาทสำคัญใเ
ครอบครัว และได้รับการชื่นชมจ	ากเพื่อน	เฝ็งแยะช์	ุาติมิตร			
	1	2	3	4	5	
สำคัญน้อยที่สด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สด

7. การได้รับความเคารพ: ฉั	นให้ความ	สำคัญสำ	าหรับการ	รมีสถาน	ะภาพที่ใ	ลีท่ามกลางคนอื่นๆ รู้ความ
คิดเห็นของคนอื่นและใส่ใจว่าพ	เวกเขาคิด	อย่างไรศ์	_{กับฉัน}			
	1	2	3	4	5	
สำกัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด
8. ความปลอดภัย: ฉันให้	, ความสำคั	ัญเรื่องค	วามมั่นค	งทางการ	ัเงิน	มีความปลอดภัยในชีวิตและ
ทรัพย์สิน						
	1	2	3	4	5	
สำกัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด
9. ความรู้สึกในการประสบคว	ามสำเร็จ:	: ฉันให้	เความสำ	คัญในก′	ารทำสิ่ง	ต่างๆอย่างถูกต้อง เห็นงาน
คำเนินมาจนถึงขั้นตอนสุดท้าย	และทำงา	นที่ได้รับ	บมอบหม	ายสำเร็จ		
	1	2	3	4	5	
- สำกัญน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	สำคัญมากที่สุด
คุณเคยใช้บริการโรงแรมหรือรีกต่างๆที่มีชื่อเสียงในประเทศไทย ภูเก็ต และ กาญจนบุรี เป็นต้น) ☐ เคย ไปหน้าที่ 2 ☐ ไม่เคย ส่งแบบสอบถาม	ย (เช่น ส					

ความต้องการและพฤติกรรมในการใช้บริการโรงแรมหรือรีสอร์ทขนาดเล็ก (ระดับ 1–3 ดาว)

ส่วนที่ 2: คำถามต่อไปนี้ เ	กี่ยวข้องกับ	ความต้อ	งการและ	ะพฤติกร	รม จากก	ารใช้บริการโรงแรมหรือรื
สอร์ทขนาดเล็ก (ระดับ 1-3	ดาว) เพื่อก	ารพักผ่อ	น ตามเม็	เ ของท่องเ	ที่ยวต่างๆเ	ก็มีชื่อเสียงในประเทศไทย -
(เช่น สมุทรสาคร สมุทรปราเ	การ เชียงให	ม่ เชียงร	าย ราชา	่1ู่รู ระยอ	ง ภูเก็ต แ	ละ กาญจนบุรี เป็นต้น)
กรุณาเลือกคำตอบที่ตรงกับตัว	วคุณมากที่สุ	′ค				
หมายเหตุ: "โรงแรมหรือรีสอ	ร์ทขนาดเล็เ	ก" ในแบ	เบสอบถ	ามนี้หมา	ายถึง โรงแ	เรมหรือรีสอร์ท ระดับ 1–
3 คาวเท่านั้น						
1. ฉันมักจะเลือกพักที่โรงแรม	ม/รีสอร์ท ข น	เาคเล็ก ขึ	เม็การต _ร	าแต่งสวย	บงาม	
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
 ฉันมักจะเลือกพักที่โรงแร 	ม/รีสอร์ทข	นาดเล็ก	ที่มีประเ	เภทห้องา	พักที่หลาก	หลาย (เช่น ห้องติคริมน้ำ
หรือทะเล, ห้องวิวภูเขา และ	ห้องพักธรร	มดา)				
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
3. ฉันรู้สึกสนุกสนานเมื่อมาข	งักโรงแรม <i>โ</i> ร	ริสอร์ทข	นาดเล็ก	ที่มีกิจกร	รมที่หลา	าหลายให้แขกทำ (เช่น ให้
เช่าจักรยานปั่นรอบๆเมือง, ล่เ	องแพ, คูปะเ	การัง หรื	อ มีที่ให้	ปึ้งบาบิคิ	ე)	
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	ท่ามกลางธร	รมชาติเร	มื่อฉันพัก	าที่โรงแร	าม/รีสอร์ท	ขนาดเล็ก
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	ขนาคเล็ก มี	การบริก	ารที่อบอุ	นและเป็	นกันเอง	
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สด	0	0	0	\circ	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สด

6. ฉันชอบโรงแรม/รีสอร์ท				เล้กษณ์คั	่วยของท้อ	เงถิ่นในจังหวัดนั้นๆ (เช่น
ภาพวาค, ไม้หอม ตระกร้าไร	ม้ใส่สิ่งของ ห	เรือ เฟอร์				
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
7. ฉันมักจะพักที่โรงแรม/รีถ	สอร์ทขนาดเล็	ก่ เมื่อไา	ไเที่ยวพร้	้อมเพื่อน	ๆ และ/ห์	รื่อครอบครัว
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
8. ฉันชอบโรงแรม/รีสอร์เ	ทขนาดเล็ก	ที่มีห้องท	พักกว้างข	เวางสำห	รับมาพักต	ง่อนกับเพื่อนๆ และ/หรือ
ครอบครัว ซึ่งทำให้ไม่รู้สึกอึ	เ เดอัดหรือคับ	แคบเกิน	ไป			
	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
9. ฉันรู้สึกผ่อนคลายและได้	ไส้งสรรค์กับเ	พื่อนๆ แ	เละ/หรือ	ครอบครั	้ว เมื่อมาเ	พักที่โรงแรม/รีสอร์ทขนาด
เล็ก						
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
10. ฉันสามารถนอนหลับให	ล้อย่างเต็มที่ เ		ที่โรงแร	ม/รีสอร์เ	าขนาคเล็ก	า
	1	2	3	4	5	
 เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
11. ฉันสามารถใช้น้ำ และไ	ฟฟ้าในห้องพ์	iักได้ตาม	เปกติ เมื่	อมาพักที่	โรงแรม/รี	์ สอร์ทขนาคเล็ก
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
12. ฉันให้ความสำคัญกับ	การบริการที่เ	 ถูกต้องจ <i>า</i>	 ากทางโร	 งแรม/รี่ c	 ชอร์ทขนา	คเล็ก (เช่น ได้รับห้องพั _้
ถูกต้องตามที่จองไว้ บริการเ	ชคอิน และเข	_ู รคเอาท์มี	ความถูก	ต้อง)		
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด

13. โดยรวมแล้ว ฉันรู้สึกพอใจกับ	บเงินที่จ่	่ายไป เมื่	อฉันมาพ็	เ ้กที่โรงแ	เรม/รีสอร์	้ทขนาดเล็ก
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
- 14. โคยรวมแล้ว ฉันรู้สึกพอใจกับ	มห้องพั	้ก เมื่อฉัน	มาพักที่ใ	โรงแรม <i>โ</i>	รีสอร์ทบเ	มาคเล็ก
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
15. โดยรวมแล้ว ฉันรู้สึกพอใจกับ	บการบริ	ริการ เมื่อ	ฉันมาพัก	าที่โรงแร	เม/รีสอร์ท	าขนาดเล็ก
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
16. ฉันมักจะพักที่โรงแรม/รีสอร์เ	าขนาด	เล็ก ที่ฉัน	เคยพักค	รั้งก่อน		
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
17. ฉันกำลังจะไปพักที่โรงแรม/รี	สอร์ทฯ	บนาคเล็ก	ในเร็วๆโ	į		
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
18. ฉันจะไปพักที่โรงแรม/รีสอร์เ	าขนาด	เล็กนี้ถี่ขึ้า	มในปีถัด	ๆไป		
	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นค้วยน้อยที่สุค 	0	O	O	O	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด

ปัจจัยสำคัญเกี่ยวกับการใช้บริการโรงแรมหรือรีสอร์ทขนาดเล็ก (ระดับ 1–3 ดาว)

ส่วนที่ 3: คำถามต่อไปนี้ เกี่ยวข้องกับปัจจัยต่างๆที่มีผลต่อการใช้บริการโรงแรมหรือรีสอร์ทขนาดเล็ก (ระดับ 1–3 คาว) เพื่อการพักผ่อน ตามเมืองท่องเที่ยวต่างๆที่มีชื่อเสียงในประเทศไทย (เช่น สมุทรสาคร สมุทรปราการ เชียงใหม่ เชียงราย ราชบุรี ระยอง ภูเก็ต และ กาญจนบุรี เป็นต้น)

กรุณาเลือกกำตอบที่ตรงกับตัวคุณมากที่สุด

1. วิวทิวทัศน์รอบๆ โรงแรม/รีสอร์ทขนาดเล็ก มีความสวยงาม

หมายเหตุ: "โรงแรมหรือรีสอร์ทขนาดเล็ก" ในแบบสอบถามนี้หมายถึง โรงแรมหรือรีสอร์ท ระดับ 1–3 ดาวเท่านั้น

	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
- 2. โรงแรม/รีสอร์ทขนาคเล็ก ตกแ	เต่งด้วยชิม	ที่เป็นเอก	เล้กษณ์ที่เ	แตกต่างจ	ากโรงแรม	J/โฮสเทลอื่นๆ
	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	์ทขนาดเ _ช ็	ก็ก อยู่ใก	ล้แหล่งท่	่องเที่ยว		
	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
- 4. ฉันสามารถเดินทางไปโรงแร	ม/รีสอร์ท	าขนาคเล็	กได้สะด	าวก โดย:	รถโดยสาร	รสาธารณะ หรือ รถบริการ
รับส่งแขก						
	1	2	3	4	5	
 เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
	ัทขนาดเล็	ก๋ก มีควา	ามกระติ๋	อรื่อร้น เ	และคอยช่	รวยเหลือแขกที่มาพักตามทิ
แขกต้องการ						
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
-						

6. พนักงานของโรงแรม/รีส	ชอร์ทขนาคเล็ _้	ก มีหน้าต	าายิ้มแย้น	เอยู่เสมอ		
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
7. ราคาของโรงแรม/รีสอร์เ	าขนาคเล็ก มีร	าวามเหม	าะสม			
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
8. โรงแรม/รีสอร์ทขนาดเล็	ก มีความปลอ	คภัย				
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
9. ห้องพักของโรงแรม/รีสต	อร์ทขนาดเล็ก	ดูใหม่				
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
10. ห้องพักของโรงแรม/รีส	ชอร์ทขนาดเล็ _้	ก มีความ	เสะอาค			
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
11. ไฟในห้องพักมีความส	ว่างเพียงพอ					
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
12. โรงแรม/รีสอร์ทขนาดเ	ล็ก มีสิ่งอำนว	ยความส	ะควกพื้น	เฐานสำห	เร้บแขกที่ม	มาพัก เช่น แชมพู สบู และ
อื่นๆ						
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
13. โรงแรม/รีสอร์ทขนาดเ	ล็ก มีกิจกรรม	พูเนค เหฺ	น ให้แขก	าที่มาพัก	ทำของที่ระ	ะลึกด้วยตัวเองเพื่อนำกลับ
บ้าน						
	1	2	3	4	5	
	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด

14. โรงแรม/รีสอร์ทขนาดเ	ล็ก มีบริการเลิ	ี่ ใร์ฟอาห า	ารท้องถิ่า	ม ให้กับเ	เขกที่มาพั	้ำ
	1	2	3	4	5	
เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด
15. โรงแรม/รีสอร์ทขนาดเ	ล็ก มีบริการเซ	เอร์ไพส์เ	และสร้าง	າຄວາມບັາ	มเทิง ให้แ	ขกที่มาพัก (เช่น มีการ์ควัเ
เกิดให้แขก, ช่วยจัดงานวันเ	กิค, และอื่นๆ))				
	1	2	3	4	5	
- เห็นด้วยน้อยที่สุด	0	0	0	0	0	เห็นด้วยมากที่สุด

ע	•	9
ขอม	ิลสว	นตว

ช่วนที่ 4: คำถามต่อไปนี้เกี่ยวข้องกับข้อมูลส่วนตัวของคุณ กรุณาตอบคำถามที่ตรงกับตัวคุณมากที่สุด
·
หมายเหตุ: ข้อมูลนี้จะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับและใช้ในงานวิจัยนี้เท่านั้น
1. เพศ
🗌 ชาย
🗌 หญิง
2. อายุ
🗌 น้อยกว่า 20 ปี
□ 20-24 1 □
่ 25-34 ปี
☐ 35-44 1 1
่ 45-54 ปี
🔲 มากกว่า 55 ปี
3. สถานภาพ
่∐โสด
่
4. การศึกษา
🔲 ต่ำกว่ามัธยมศึกษาตอนปลาย
🔲 มัธยมศึกษาตอนปลาย
🗆 อนุปริญญา
🔲 ปริญญาตรี
🔲 ปริญญาโท หรือสูงกว่า
🗌 อื่นๆ
5. อาชีพ
พนักงานราชการ

🔲 ธุรกิจส่วนตัว

🗌 แม่บ้าน
🗌 นักเรียน
🗌 เกษียณ
🗌 อื่นๆ
6. รายใด้ต่อเดือน
🔲 น้อยกว่า 10,000 บาท
่ 10,000-15,000 บาท
่ 15,001-20,000 บาท
่ 20,001-25,000 บาท
่ 25,001-30,000 บาท
🔲 มากกว่า 30,000 บาท
7. คุณพักอาศัยอยู่ที่ไหน
🗌 กรุงเทพมหานคร
🗌 อื่นๆ
8. อีเมลล์

ขอบคุณที่ตอบแบบสอบถามค่ะ

Appendix I: Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) for Thai and Japanese Participants (LOV Model)

Table I KMO Results (Thai group)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.811
Bartlett's Test of Approx. Chi-Square Sphericity		845.126
a parametry	df	36
	Sig.	.000

Table II Communalities (Thai group)

Values	Communality
Excitement	0.67
Fun and enjoyment of life	0.73
Warm relationship with others	0.65
Self-fulfillment	0.69
Self-respect	0.37
Sense of belonging	0.68
Being well respected	0.67
Security	0.62
Sense of accomplishment	0.53

Table III Component Score Coefficient Matrix (Thai group)

Assessment Item	Factor1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Warm relationship with others	0.300	0.206	-0.291
Sense of belonging	0.410	-0.095	-0.081
Being well respected	0.417	-0.140	-0.057
Security	-0.001	-0.206	0.528
Self-fulfillment	-0.253	0.194	0.552
Self-respect	0.245	-0.055	0.042
Sense of accomplishment	.122	052	.298
Excitement	-0.092	0.522	-0.083
Fun and enjoyment of life	-0.133	0.512	0.063

Note: Factor 1 = Society-related values, Factor 2 = Enjoyment-related values, Factor 3 = Individual-related values

Table IV KMO Results (Japanese group)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.766
Bartlett's Test of Approx. Chi-Square Sphericity		1380.66
~ F	df	36
	Sig.	.000

Table V Communalities (Japanese group)

Values	Communality
Excitement	0.74
Fun and enjoyment of life	0.75
Warm relationship with others	0.74
Self-fulfillment	0.72
Self-respect	0.73
Sense of belonging	0.72
Being well respected	0.69
Security	0.76
Sense of accomplishment	0.72

Table VI Component Score Coefficient Matrix (Japanese group)

Assessment Item	Factor1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Warm relationship with others	0.298	0.027	0.057
Sense of belonging	0.296	0.029	-0.046
Being well respected	0.292	0.040	0.002
Security	0.304	0.028	-0.009
Self-fulfillment	0.043	0.400	0.013
Self-respect	0.022	0.393	0.034
Sense of accomplishment	0.122	-0.052	0.298
Excitement	-0.011	0.014	0.573
Fun and enjoyment of life	0.052	0.401	-0.030

Note: Factor 1 = Society-related values, Factor 2 = Individual-related values, Factor 3 = Enjoyment-related values

Appendix J: Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) for Thai and Japanese Participants (Restaurant Attributes Model)

Table I KMO Results (Thai group)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.758
Bartlett's Test of Approx. Chi-Square Sphericity		944.110
1 ,	df	55
	Sig.	.000

Table II Communalities (Thai group)

Restaurant Attributes	Communality
Price	0.45
Brand reputation	0.49
Convenient location	0.57
Atmosphere	0.54
Brand originality	0.58
Signature dish	0.60
Customized menu	0.53
Low calorie menu	0.53
Food quality	0.59
Energetic employee	0.67
Standardized service	0.63

Table III Component Score Coefficient Matrix (Thai group)

Assessment Item	Factor1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Price	0.002	0.348	-0.116
Brand reputation	-0.128	0.364	0.052
Convenient location	-0.020	0.389	-0.063
Atmosphere	-0.031	0.356	0.017
Brand originality	0.342	-0.040	-0.008
Signature dish	0.343	-0.050	0.004
Customized menu	0.356	-0.048	-0.071
Low calorie menu	0.368	-0.036	-0.116
Food quality	-0.034	-0.023	0.397
Energetic employee	-0.060	-0.091	0.454
Standardized service	-0.080	0.015	0.417

Note: Factor 1 = Unique attributes, Factor 2 = Basic attributes, Factor 3 = Food and service quality attributes

Table IV KMO Results (Japanese group)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin N	0.726	
Bartlett's Test of Approx. Chi-Square Sphericity		965.122
1 7	df	55
	Sig.	.000

Table V Communalities (Japanese group)

Restaurant Attributes	Communality
Price	0.43
Brand reputation	0.61
Convenient location	0.62
Atmosphere	0.50
Brand originality	0.60
Signature dish	0.59
Customized menu	0.57
Low calorie menu	0.58
Food quality	0.41
Energetic employee	0.62
Standardized service	0.75

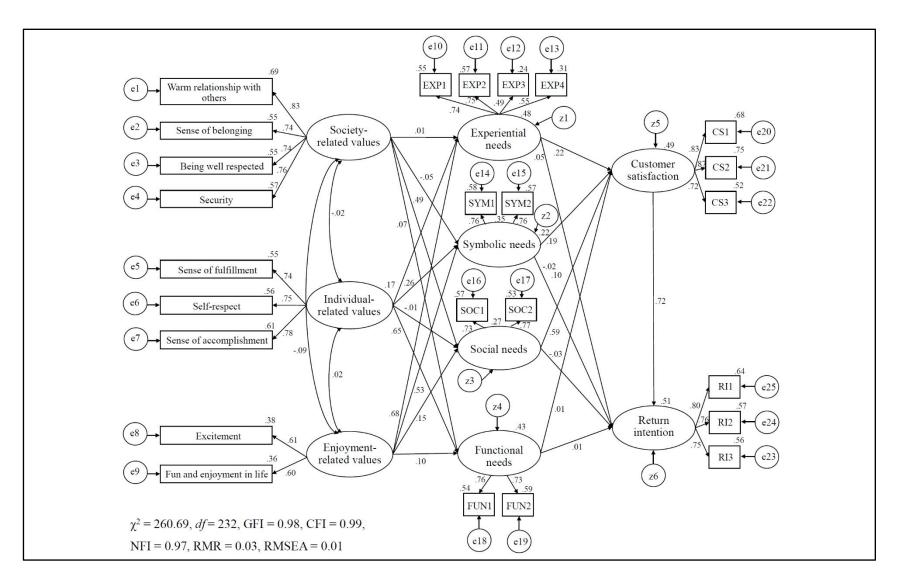
Table VI Component Score Coefficient Matrix (Japanese group)

Assessment Item	Factor1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Price	0.308	-0.016	-0.017
Brand reputation	0.368	0.006	-0.085
Convenient location	0.370	-0.045	0.001
Atmosphere	0.324	-0.036	0.026
Brand originality	-0.038	0.392	-0.085
Signature dish	-0.040	0.392	-0.102
Customized menu	0.013	-0.038	0.378
Low calorie menu	-0.019	-0.051	0.408
Food quality	-0.058	-0.067	0.459
Energetic employee	-0.017	0.357	-0.021
Standardized service	0.012	0.259	0.047

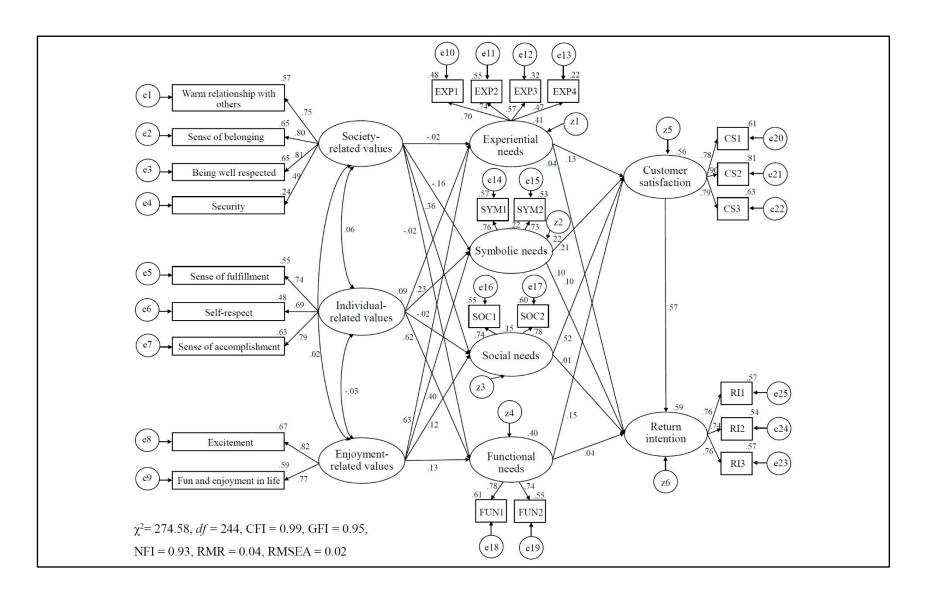
Note: Factor 1 = Unique attributes, Factor 2 = Basic attributes, Factor 3 = Food and service quality attributes

Appendix K. AMOS (Chapter 4)

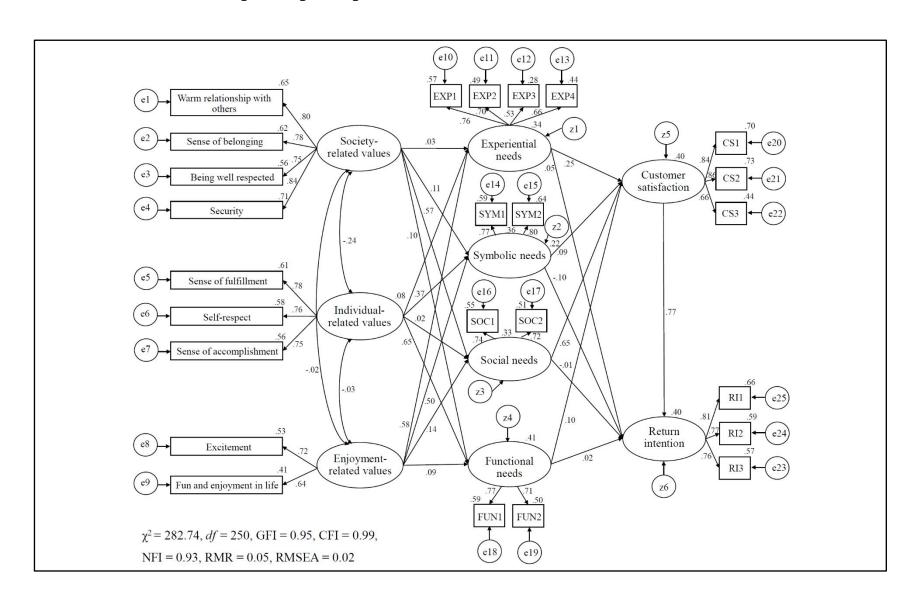
Chapter 4: Structural Results of All Participants from AMOS (LOV Model)



Chapter 4: Structural Results of Thai Participants from AMOS (LOV Model)

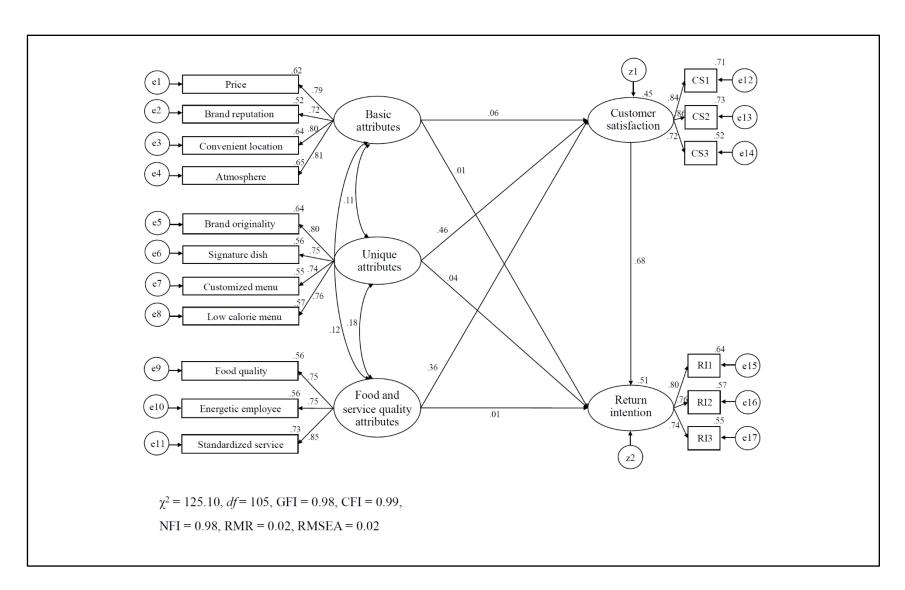


Chapter 4: Structural Results of Japanese participants from AMOS (LOV Model)

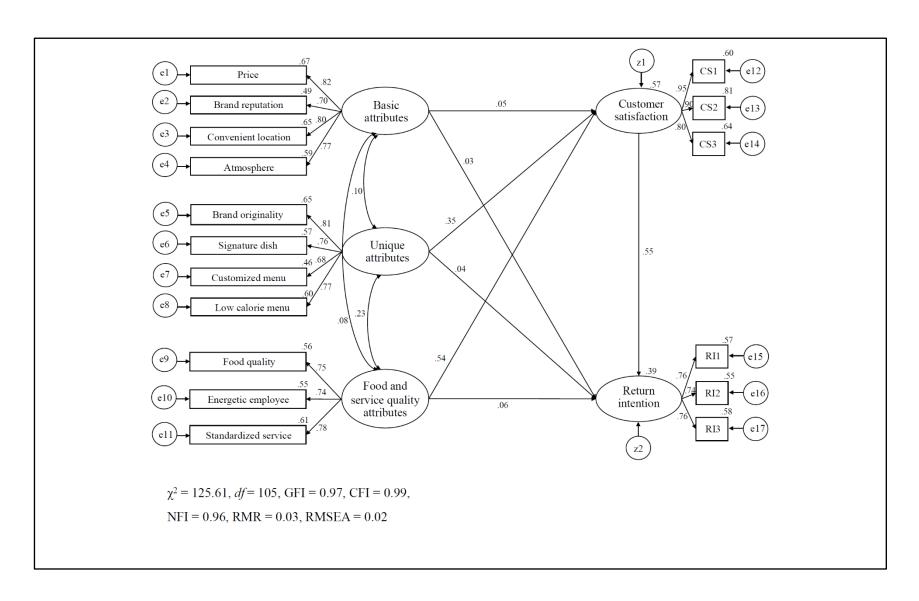


Appendix L. AMOS (Chapter 5)

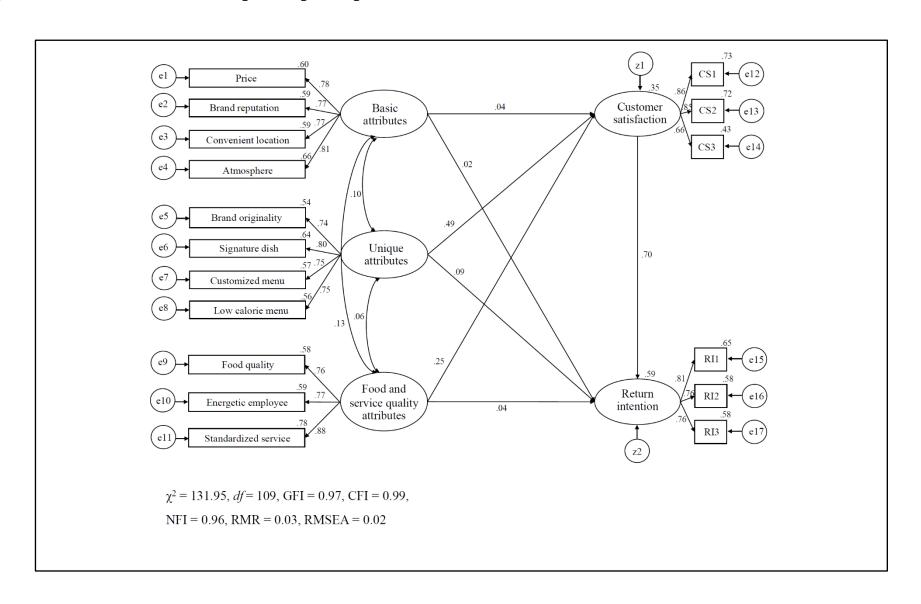
Chapter 5: Structural Results of All Participants from AMOS (Restaurant Attributes Model)



Chapter 5: Structural Results of Thai Participants from AMOS (Restaurant Attributes Model)

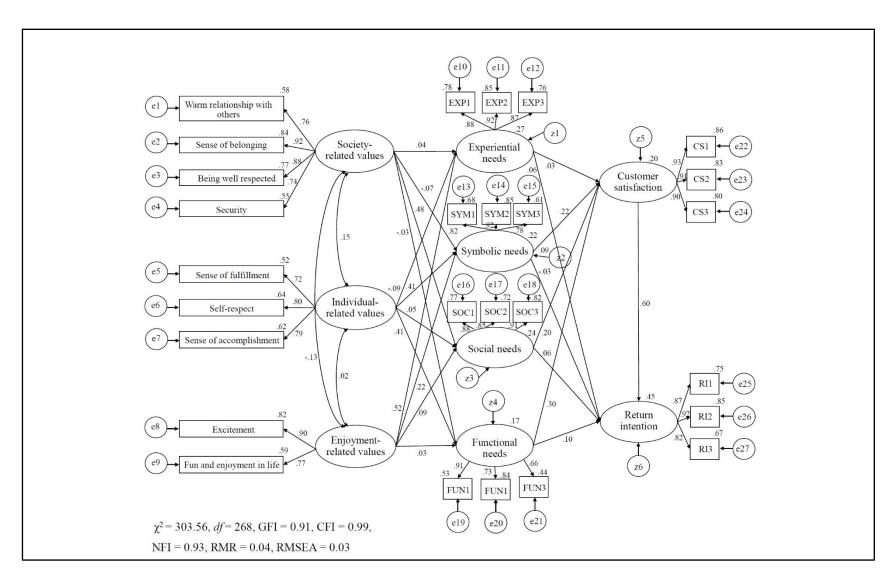


Chapter 5: Structural Results of Japanese participants from AMOS (Restaurant Attributes Model)



Appendix M. AMOS (Chapter 6)

Chapter 6: Structural Results of Thai Participants from AMOS (LOV Model)



Chapter 6: Structural Results of Thai Participants from AMOS (Restaurant Attributes Model)

