



**FACTORS INFLUENCING THE SATISFACTION AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS OF RESTAURANT
CONSUMERS**

By

MAFOJANE MATHAPELO

Student number: 2010063283

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Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences

Department of Business Management

Supervisor: Dr Eugene T. Maziriri

Co-supervisor: Dr Tarisai F. Rukuni

University of the Free State

Bloemfontein,

South Africa

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DECLARATION

I, **Mathapelo Mafojane**, do hereby conscientiously declare that this dissertation with the title: *Factors influencing the satisfaction and behavioural intentions of restaurant consumers*, submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree Master of Commerce in Business Management at the University of the Free State, is solely my authentic work and that the adopted sources to realise the study have been indicated and consequently acknowledged using complete APA referencing style, and that this master dissertation has not been previously submitted in partial or full fulfilment as deemed mandatory for the attainment of a higher education qualification or equivalent at any other educational institution.



.....
December 2022

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving and supportive friends and family, especially my loving husband, Morena, and my adorable daughter, Naledi. I appreciate you all for the unconditional love and support I received daily. You were my light and motivation throughout the whole journey. Thank you.

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ABSTRACT

The increasingly competitive rivalry within the restaurant industry creates immense pressure among those within the industry. Many restaurants fail to survive or thrive in this industry, even though it is such a lucrative industry. There are many restaurants, differentiation becomes difficult, and competition is intense. The study sought to predict factors influencing the satisfaction and behavioural intentions of restaurant consumers through a blended approach by identifying factors that can help stimulate customer satisfaction, such as service quality factors (tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, empathy, assurance) and hygiene factors (personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment and surfaces, cleanliness of restrooms), and the study further predicts that the successful application of these factors by restaurants can lead to post-behavioural intentions, such as restaurant attachment, willingness to pay price premia, return patronage intention and positive word of mouth. Data was collected from 300 restaurant customers in Bloemfontein, South Africa. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used to analyse the results, and Smart-PLS to test and assess the validity of the hypothesised relationships in the model. It was precisely found that assurance positively and significantly impacted customer satisfaction. However, tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, and empathy were insignificant and did not influence customer satisfaction. In addition, only cleanliness of restroom under hygiene was found to have a positive and significant influence on customer satisfaction. However, personal hygiene and cleanliness of equipment and surfaces did not have a statistically significant influence on customer satisfaction. It was also found that customer satisfaction positively and significantly impacts restaurant attachment. Moreover, it was found that restaurant attachment has an impact on willingness to pay price premia, return patronage intention and positive word of mouth. This study recommends that a restaurant should use a blended approach of high service quality and proper hygienic conditions to secure and enhance customer satisfaction which ultimately leads to positive behavioural intentions. This study broadens the knowledge base currently in marketing and customer satisfaction in the restaurant industry. Lastly, the study concludes with identifying the limitations of the study and presents future research opportunities.

KEYWORDS: Service quality, personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment and surfaces, cleanliness of restrooms, customer satisfaction, restaurant attachment, willingness to pay price premiums, return patronage intention, positive word of mouth.

GLOSSARY OF STUDY TERMS

AMOS:	Analysis of moment structure
AVE:	Average Variance Extracted
ASSU:	Assurance
CAGR:	Compound Annual Growth Rate
CFA:	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CR:	Composite Reliability
CES:	Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces
CR:	Cleanliness of restrooms
CS:	Customer satisfaction
EMP:	Empathy
FASA:	Franchise Association of South Africa
GDP:	Gross domestic product
HTMT:	Heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations
PH:	Personal hygiene
PLS:	Partial Least Square
PWM:	Positive word of mouth
R:	Reliability
RA:	Restaurant attachment
RASA:	Restaurant association of South Africa
RPI:	Return patronage intention
RSP:	Responsiveness

SD:	Standard Deviation
SEM:	Structural Equation Modelling
SERVQUAL:	Service quality
SPSS:	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
T:	Tangibility
WHO:	World health organisation
WPPP:	Willingness to pay price premium.
UFS:	University of the Free State
VIF:	Variance Inflation Factor

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION OF THE STUDY

1.1 Background of the study

The fast food and restaurant sector in South Africa is showing steady growth, despite the tough economic climate that the country is facing (Marx-Pienaar, Rand, Fisher & Viljoen, 2020). In 2017, the Franchise Association of South Africa (FASA) reported that the fast food and restaurant sector consisted of 845 franchisors and over 40,000 franchisees, which resulted in an intensely competitive environment for players within the sector. According to reports by Business Tech (2019), the estimated turnover for the entire sector amounted to R721 billion by the end of 2018. This equals 15.7% of the total South African gross domestic product (GDP) and entails an increase of 3.3% over the previous year (Business Tech, 2019). The sector is clearly lucrative and competitive; therefore, differentiating oneself and gaining an advantage over the competition is paramount while preventing a restaurant's closure.

Service quality is a key tool to combat competition and enhance customer satisfaction (Vinod & Sushil, 2019; Mhlanga, Hattingh & Moolman, 2015). Numerous studies have been conducted exploring service quality and its impact on customer satisfaction (Maisya, Rahmat, Rina, 2019; Padlee, Thaw, Zulkiffli, 2019; Mensah & Mensah, 2018). For instance, a study carried out in Indonesia by Maisya et al. (2019) found that good quality services create high customer satisfaction in restaurants and in turn, result in customer loyalty. In addition, another study titled "*Relationship between service quality, customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions,*" exploring the hospitality industry, found that food quality was the dimension with the greatest influence on customer satisfaction (Padlee et al., 2019). Ha and Jang (2012) further added that food and service quality are essential in determining customer satisfaction and customers' future patronage towards the restaurant. Almohaimmed (2017) uncovered that all the restaurant quality dimensions (Tangibility, Reliability, Responsiveness, Empathy and Assurance) examined, significantly and positively influenced customer satisfaction. However, it is important to ensure a continuous delivery of high levels of service quality to sustain a competitive advantage.

It is evident from the aforementioned studies that the provision of service quality has the potential to build and enhance customer satisfaction and secure a competitive position in the market. However, previous studies have failed to provide a significant link between factors such as service quality, customer satisfaction and hygiene.

In contrast, the current study incorporates hygiene dimensions (personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment and surfaces of premises and lastly, restroom cleanliness) with service quality dimensions (tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, empathy and assurance) to investigate the influence on customer satisfaction and post-behavioural intentions (restaurant attachment, willingness to pay price premium, positive word of mouth and return patronage intention). This study investigates hygiene from the perspective of the customer, that is, tangible objects to which the customer is exposed and can observe, such as cleanliness of the restroom, cutlery, tables, staff, and many more.

Hygiene is a well-researched topic within the restaurant sector, to investigate the impact it has on consumers who visit restaurants and the post-behaviour intentions that result (Hassan, Hirsi & Ahmed, 2020; Abubakari, Mahammed & Iddrisu, 2019; Kim & Bachman, 2019; Park, Almanza, Miao, Sydnor & Jang, 2016; Tama, 2015; Srivastava, 2015; Eksoydan, 2007). In their study, Kim and Bachman (2019) found that restaurant cleanliness is one of the most important aspects when a customer evaluates restaurant quality and return intention, and that the restroom cleanliness and hygiene of staff have the greatest impact. This agrees with the findings of Tama (2015), who discovered that cleanliness in restaurants is also a predictor of customer satisfaction. Eksoydan (2007) mentions that hygiene factors of an eating place, such as personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment, surfaces and premises, and the temperature control of food were of paramount importance in creating satisfaction. Srivastava (2015) revealed that close to 60% of customers selected cleanliness of the rest room, dining room, personal hygiene of the staff, knowledge of the server, personal attention, and convenience of parking as important while selecting restaurants. It cannot be ignored that, despite the abundance of research on hygiene within restaurants, studies have failed to connect hygiene and service quality. It is for this existing gap in the body of knowledge that this current study seeks to link service quality, hygiene, customer satisfaction and post-behavioural intentions.

A combination of factors, such as service quality, hygiene, customer satisfaction and post-behavioural intentions create a more robust study and meaningful findings can be obtained, hence the purpose of the study. Lastly, literature suggest that truly satisfied customers tend to return frequently to the same restaurant, are willing to spend more, spread positive word of mouth, and remain loyal instead of switching to a competitor (Bae et al. 2018; Line et al., 2018; Mohsan, Nawaz, Khan, Shaukat, & Aslam, 2011; Bahri-Ammari, 2016).

1.2 Problem statement and research gaps

The increasingly competitive rivalry within the restaurant industry has created immense pressure among players (Marx-Pienaar et al., 2020). For instance, Businesses Tech (2019) reported on the reduction of sales in many restaurants and some having to close down due to the intense competition (Stats SA, 2019). One famous local grill house, ChesaNyama, found itself under fire and had to close 90% of its stores countrywide due to failure to keep up in such an intense competitive environment (Business Tech, 2019). Cutting down on operations within restaurants is detrimental to both the business and the employees who in turn, lose their jobs and add to the 34.9% unemployment rate in South Africa (Stats SA, 2021). Cloete (2015) points out that unemployment positively correlates with poverty in South Africa. The above-mentioned consequences also have a negative effect on the country's GDP (gross domestic product), which Stats SA (2019) reported to have decreased by 0.6% by the 3rd quarter of 2019. Therefore, ensuring restaurant success through satisfied customers is paramount for the industry, employees, and the country. Hence, the purpose of this study that seeks to investigate service quality and hygiene's influence on customer satisfaction and post-behavioural intentions.

Service quality is one of the keys to restaurant success and delivering the highest quality service to customers can be a winning strategy. A successful execution of service quality and hygiene within restaurants will result in customer satisfaction and positive post-behavioural intentions (restaurant attachment, willingness to pay more, return patronage intentions and positive word of mouth) (Padlee, et al 2019; Almohaimmeed, 2017; Tripathi & Dave, 2016).

Many international studies on hygiene in restaurants have been conducted in countries, such as Malaysia, Turkey, Honduras, the United States of America (USA), Ghana and China. For example, one study by Chow et al. (2019), in Malaysia, explored the influence of hygiene factors on customers' satisfaction in restaurants among Indian consumers and found it indeed leads to customer satisfaction. Another study was conducted on staff members of a private university in Ankara, Turkey (Aksoydan, 2007) on hygiene factors of a restaurant, such as personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment, surfaces and premises, and the temperature control of food were of paramount importance. In Madagascar, Sarter and Sarter (2012) investigated promoting a culture of food safety to improve hygiene in small restaurants in Madagascar. One study in the United States of America (USA) explored the reputational incentives for restaurant hygiene (Jin & Leslie, 2009). Another study in Ghana assessed the impact of sanitation on customer retention by testing hygiene variables, such as dining area cleanliness, employee hygiene, outside

environment cleanliness and food contact surface cleanliness (Abubakari, Mohammed & Iddrisu, 2019). Perhaps these informative results could be reproduced by conducting the current study in geographically distinct locations, such as Bloemfontein in the Free State.

Against the aforementioned background, little is known about the same in the developing parts of the world. For instance, prior restaurant research has been performed in different contexts in South Africa. For example, Murwira, Amosu and Nemathaga (2015) assessed food handler's compliance to personal hygiene practices in fast food outlets in Thohoyandou, in Venda. In one study conducted in Bloemfontein, Moolman (2011) found that food quality, quality service, restaurant ambience, the quality of facilities and the presence of management, are essential attributes in contributing to customers' overall customer satisfaction and return patronage in restaurants. Furthermore, Mhlanga and Tichaawa (2016) investigated the current factors affecting consumer selection criteria in formal full-service restaurants in Port Elizabeth, South Africa. Numerous studies pertaining to hygiene factors and their impact have been investigated in different sectors. For example, Hatakka (2000) investigated hygienic quality of foods served on aircrafts. Another study by Yardimci, Hakli, Cakiroglu and Ozcelik (2015) investigated the hygiene knowledge of food staff in the catering industry. A study done in Sriwijaya University in Indonesia by Hasyim, Widjajanati and Febry (2014) analysed personal hygiene and sanitation facilities in implementing food stalls on campus. Sharif, Obaidat and Al-Dalalah (2013) conducted a study on food hygiene knowledge, attitudes, and practices of the food handlers in the Military hospitals. Furthermore, Karthilingam (2020) conducted a study on customer satisfaction of the hygiene of star hotels, specifically, the star hotel in Madura.

Inferring from the aforementioned studies which have been conducted in various sectors, it can be stated that insightful discoveries could be generated by conducting a study within the restaurant sector. Although there is a profusion of studies on the service quality dimensions, there are deficiencies in research studies that have determined the influence of service quality and hygiene dimensions together in one study with the aim of predicting satisfaction within the restaurant setup. Hence, the need for further academic scholarly inspection.

1.3 Rationale and importance of choosing restaurants

The current study focuses on restaurants in South Africa. Restaurants include establishments primarily engaged in providing food services to customers who order, receive their food, and pay for it while seated (Stats SA, 2021). The restaurant industry is continually growing, with an estimated turnover of R721 billion for 2018 (Business Tech, 2019). According to research done by Murray (2017), most consumers visit

restaurants at least once a week due to consumer lifestyles becoming busier and the growing fondness for inexpensive food with little to no waiting time. South Africa is also said to be one of the emerging economies in Africa, and this is contributing to the sharp rise in the adoption of western fast food which will reinforce the global growth (Marx-Pienaar et al., 2020). Recent studies noted a significant increase in patronage among South African consumers from 66% in 2009 to over 80% in 2015, increasing the number of consumers to 42 million people by 2017–2018 (Marx-Pienaar et al., 2020; Murray, 2017). In South Africa, the restaurant sector or fast-food industry, is currently experiencing significant growth, resulting in intense competition, which forces restaurants to find unique strategies to serve their consumers to their best satisfaction.

This study used a blended approach of examining service quality and hygiene as factors that predict or stimulate customer satisfaction and post-behavioural intentions. It is expected that insightful results might be generated using this blended approach since there are deficiencies in literature on studies that have utilised service quality and hygiene together, as factors which may influence customer satisfaction.

1.4 Theoretical framework

This study is grounded in three theories: the hygiene and sanitation theory, the interpersonal attachment theory and service quality model (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1985; Perry, 1951; Bowlby, 1969). An overview of these three theories is addressed in the next sections.

1.4.1 Hygiene and sanitation theory

The hygiene and sanitation theory emanate from the works of Perry (1951) who came up with several food handling practices after several outbreaks of food-borne infections around 1946. Perry (1951) suggested that food industry operators teach hygiene standards and the importance of food handling to all people involved, to ensure all people involved in food handling are properly trained and instructed in cleaning methods, to ensure they have adequate facilities in all food premises to adhere to the set standards, to secure structurally sound buildings with surfaces that are easily cleaned and lastly, to secure the provision of suitable and adequate food storage accommodation to enable food stuff to be stored. Lack of basic infrastructure, poor knowledge of hygiene and practices in food service establishments can contribute to outbreaks of food-borne illnesses (Kibretl & Abera, 2012). South Africa experienced the largest recorded listeriosis outbreak in 2017 (WHO, 2018), which showed some limitations in the food safety policies in South Africa (Fri, Santi, Brandi, Giuditta, Schiavano, Giulia, Amagliani & Ateba, 2020). The

clean atmosphere of a food premise reflects its operator's commitment to complying with food safety standards (Fatimah, Boo, Sambasivan, & Salleh, 2011), thereby, ensuring that customers' expectations are met through proper hygiene standards and delivering as promised, at all times can create customer satisfaction (Chow et. al., 2019).

Inferring from the aforementioned explanations, restaurants need to make hygiene a priority, not only for the benefit of consumers who show great satisfaction as a result (Chow et at., 2019; Alhelalat et al., 2017), but for reputational incentives from which the restaurants also benefit (Bartsch, Asti, Nyathi, Spiker & Lee 2018; Jin & Leslie, 2009), hence the purpose for conducting the current study.

1.4.2 The interpersonal attachment theory

This study is supported in the framework of the interpersonal attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969), in order to provide an appropriate theoretical grounding and to clearly understand the context of the study. The theory was formulated by psychiatrist and psychoanalyst, John Bowlby, who described attachment as a deep and enduring emotional bond that connects one person to another across time and space (Bowlby, 1969). Attachment has further been described as a fundamental human need, leading to an emotion-laden, target-specific relationship between a person and a target (Bowlby, 1980). In marketing, this need can motivate consumers to become deeply committed to the restaurant (Schmalz & Orth, 2012). Therefore, it can be noted that if attachment theory is considered, it can assist restaurant managers to thoroughly understand what drives the consumers to be satisfied and attached to restaurants.

1.4.3 Service quality model

Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1988) explained service quality as a comparison between consumers' expectations and their perception of actual service performance. In the restaurant industry, service quality has been explained as the level of service provided by restaurant employees and workers, which depends upon the interactions between customers and restaurant workers (Petzer & Mackay, 2014). These interpersonal service experiences ultimately allow customers to evaluate the

quality of service offerings and form their overall quality perception of the restaurant (Petzer & Mackay, 2014).

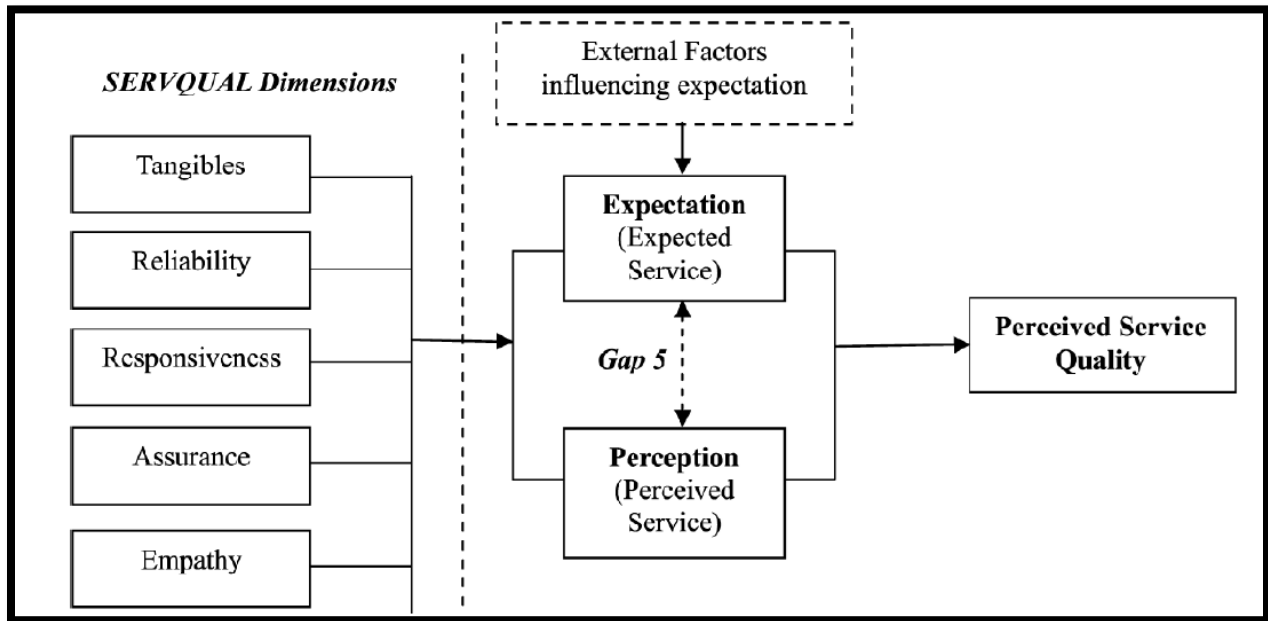


Figure 1.1: Servqual model

Source: Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988)

Developed by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985), the SERVQUAL instrument is a research-based set of general expectations that consumers have of their service providers. It therefore suggests that the key to ensuring service quality is understanding consumers' expectations of the service to meet or exceed these expectations. SERVQUAL was designed to measure the difference between customers' expectations of service performance before the service encounter and their subsequent perception of the service received and five dimensions; reliability, security, tangibility, empathy, and responsiveness were measured (Parasuraman, Zeithaml et al. 1985; Zeithaml, Parasuraman et al. 1990).

It is evident from the above explained studies that the provision of service quality in restaurants has the potential to build and enhance customer satisfaction and to secure a competitive position in the market. However, there is a lack of studies that have attempted to provide a link between service quality, hygiene, and customer satisfaction. This current study links service quality, hygiene, customer satisfaction and post-behavioural intentions to fill this existing gap in the body of knowledge. The current study extended the SERVQUAL model with hygiene factors, in order to obtain more meaningful results.

1.5 Conceptual model and hypothesis formulation

The conceptual theoretical framework provided in Figure 1.2 is grounded on three theories that included service quality model, sanitation and hygiene theory and interpersonal attachment theory. Based on these three theories, Figure 1.2 illustrates the conceptual framework reflecting the distinct paths and connections between the constructs under investigation. The subsequent sections provide the formulation of the hypotheses for the present research.

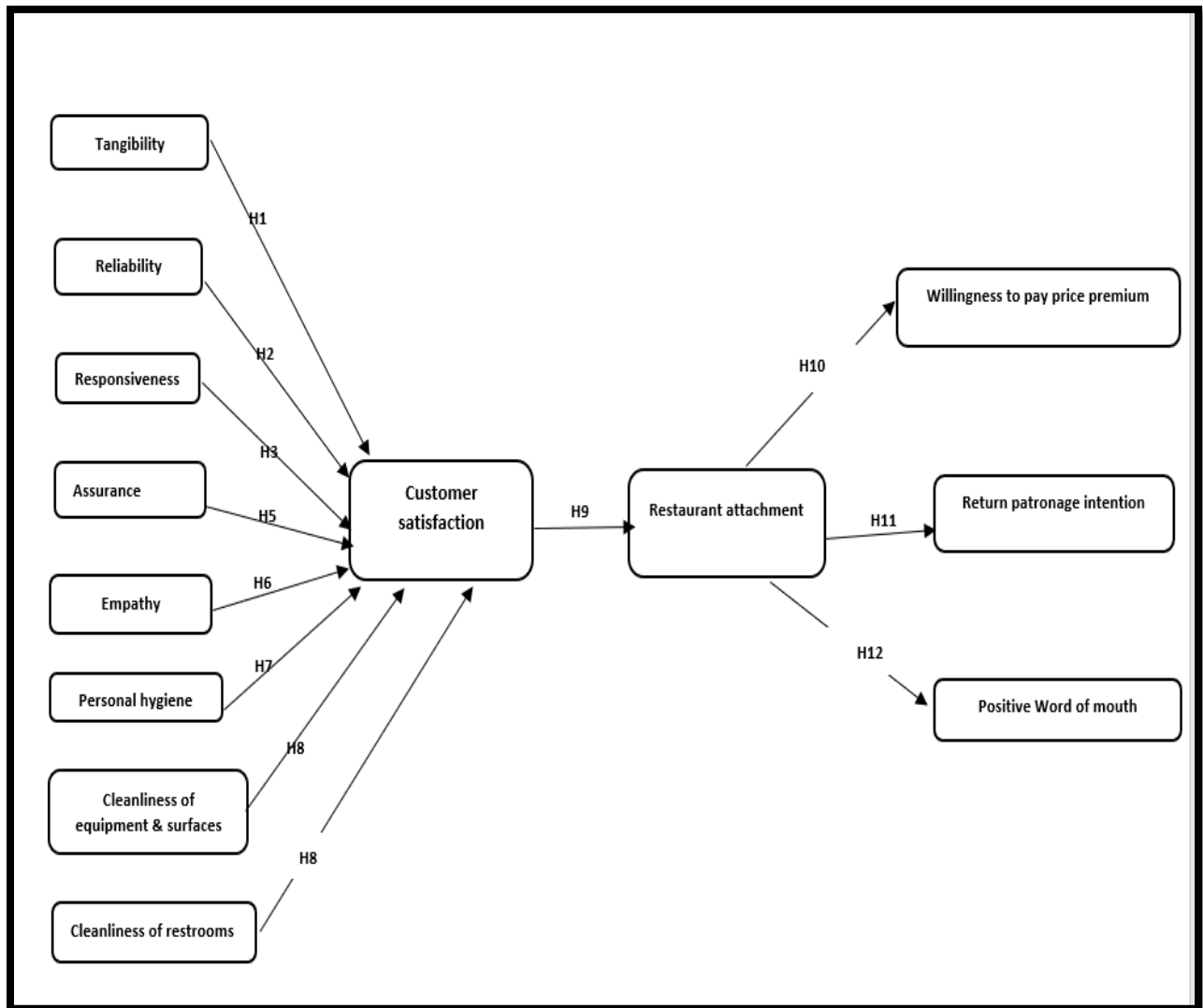


Figure 1.2: Conceptual model

Source: Developed by researcher

1.5.1 Hypothesis statements

H1: Tangibility has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

H2: Reliability has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

H3: Responsiveness has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

H4: Assurance has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

H5: Empathy has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

H6: Personal hygiene has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.

H7: Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.

H8: Restroom cleanliness has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.

H9: Customer satisfaction has a positive and significant impact on restaurant attachment

H10: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on willingness to pay a price premium.

H11: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on return patronage intention.

H12: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on positive word of mouth.

1.6 Objectives

1.6.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study is to examine the factors influencing the satisfaction and behavioural intentions of restaurant consumers.

1.6.2 Secondary Objectives

a. Theoretical objectives

In order to successfully address the primary objective, the theoretical objectives review literature on the following:

- Hygiene and sanitation theory

- The interpersonal attachment theory
- Service quality model
- Personal hygiene
- Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces
- Restroom cleanliness
- Customer satisfaction
- Restaurant attachment
- Willingness to pay a price premium
- Return patronage intention
- Positive word of mouth

b. Empirical objectives

To address the primary objective of this study, the following empirical objectives were formulated:

- To examine the impact of SERVQUAL dimensions on customer satisfaction.
- To determine the impact of hygiene variables on customer satisfaction.
- To investigate the impact of customer satisfaction on restaurant attachment.
- To ascertain the impact of restaurant attachment on customers' willingness to pay a price premium.
- To examine the impact of restaurant attachment on return patronage intention.
- To analyse the impact of restaurant attachment on positive word of mouth.

1.7 Research methodology and design

Research methodology signals to the reader how the research is going to be conducted and what philosophical assumptions underpin the research (Bryman & Bell, 2018). This part of the study explored the research plan and procedure to be followed in conducting the study. The current study was based on an objective ontology and was grounded within the positivism paradigm and therefore, a quantitative approach was deemed applicable for the current study, to determine causal relationships between the variables. This study adopted the quantitative approach which attempts to measure the precise measurement of something, normally measuring consumer behaviour, knowledge, opinions and/or attitudes (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Quantitative research attempts to test theory, whereas qualitative

research attempts to build theory (Hackett, 2019). Hence, quantitative approach is deemed appropriate for this study, as the stated hypotheses, based on literature, are put to test.

1.7.1 Sampling Design

For the purpose of this study, the sampling design consisted of the target population, sampling frame, sample size and sampling technique. These components are discussed in the next sections.

1.7.2 Target population

The target population in a survey is defined as the entire set of units for which the survey data are to be used to make inferences (Lohr, 2019). For this study, the target population consisted of restaurant consumers in Bloemfontein, precisely from the following restaurants: Longhorn grill, New York restaurant, Avanti, Euro Caffè, Braza, Spur, Ocean Basket, Bella Casa, Wimpy and McDonald's.

1.7.3 Sample frame

According to Lohr (2019), the sampling frame is a list, map or other specification of sampling units in the population from which a sample may be selected. There is no sampling frame for this study due to lack of an existing list of customers in the South African restaurant industry. Similar studies, such as those conducted by Petzer and Mackay (2014) and Mashao, Maziriri and Chuchu (2020), confirm the lack of an existing list of customers in the South African restaurant industry. The next section is centered on the sample size of the study.

1.7.4 Sample Size

Sample size refers to the number of respondents that make up the sample from which data are to be collected (Lohr, 2019). The historical evidence approach has been used to determine the sample size for this research (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2010). The average sample size of 300 was deemed adequate as it is consistent with other studies that have examined the behaviour of consumers within the restaurant environment (Anyasor, Okwuchukwu & Njelita, Chukwudi, 2020; Mashao, Maziriri & Chuchu, 2020; Murwira, Amosu, & Nemathaga, 2015; Moolman, 2011; Roberts-Lombard, 2009).

1.7.5 Sample Method

In the absence of an appropriate sampling frame, this study is confined to a non-probability sampling technique, primarily a convenience sampling technique. According to Saunders, Philip and Thornhill

(2015). Convenience sampling is a method that encourages data to be collected from the first available data point. The researcher took the sample restaurant consumers, i.e., consumers who purchase from Longhorn grill, New York restaurant, Avanti, Braza, Euro Caffè, Ocean basket, Spur, Bella Casa, Nandos and McDonald's. The current study adopted the convenience sampling method because respondents are found in the nearest and most convenient location (Bell et al., 2018), allowing voluntary participants. It is also the easiest and cheapest method of recruiting subjects and the least time consuming (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

1.7.6 Data collection method

Data collection methods refer to how data is gathered for a research project (Lohr, 2019). The data collection method that was used in this current study is a survey. Survey is a research strategy which involves the structured collection of data from a sizeable population, and this may take the form of questionnaires, structured observation, and structured interviews (Lohr, 2019) and because surveys are so widespread, people find it easy to understand and place a good deal of faith in the results which flow from surveys. Schadré Consulting was contracted by the researcher to objectively assist in the collection of data to increase the generalisability of the results. The current study used self-administered online surveys to collect data through the assistance of Schadré Consulting, a reputable research company in South Africa with an exceptional record enabling good research fundamentals. Online-based surveys were distributed to a convenience sample of restaurant customers in Bloemfontein.

1.7.7 Measurement instruments

The employed measurement instrument consisted of eight sections, of which seven involved measuring each of the seven constructs respectively. Section A of the measurement instrument consisted of questions about the respondents' demographic profile. Section B-N consisted of questions pertaining to the research variables under investigation; tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, empathy, assurance, personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment and surfaces, restroom cleanliness, customer satisfaction, restaurant attachment, willingness to pay a price premium, positive word of mouth and return patronage intention. The questions were assessed on a five-point Likert scale (rating scale) to measure participants' responses which will be anchored by 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree/neutral, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree.

1.7.8 Data analysis approach

Once the data was collected, the researcher organised and coded the data so that it could be analysed. Descriptive statistics were used to describe and present the data gathered for the research study. To make inferences of the data obtained, the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Smart-PLS packages were used for testing and confirming relationships among hypothesised variables.

1.7.9 Descriptive statistics

Wells, Burnett and Moriart (2008) illustrate that descriptive statistics may be presented graphically by means of histograms, bar diagrams and pie charts. For the purpose of this study, research frequency tables, pie charts and bar graphs were presented to explain the results. The descriptive statistics were obtained through SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) 26 software.

1.7.10 Inferential statistics: Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

The current study made use of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) and was performed using Smart-PLS version 4. SEM is a multivariate statistical framework that is used for modelling complex relationships between directly and indirectly observed variables (Fan, Chen, Shirkey, John, Wu, Park & Shao, 2016; Stein, Morris & Nock, 2012). SEM is regarded as a comprehensive technique and has become a favoured technique for researchers across disciplines (Byrne, 2012; Ngo & O’Cass, 2012). SEM employs a two-step process for its analysis - the confirmatory factor analysis and the path modelling or the structural modelling (Yuan et al., 2010).

1.7.11 Reliability and validity analysis

In this study, both reliability and validity tests were conducted to ensure that the appropriate research instrument were utilised. Tichaawa and Mhlanga (2015) define reliability as the extent to which test scores are accurate, consistent, or stable. Reliability verification includes testing for composite reliability and Cronbach alpha (Churchill & Brown 2007). Therefore, composite reliability and Cronbach alpha were used to measure internal consistency (Ha, Janda & Muthaly 2010). Malhotra (2010) and Zikmund and Babin (2010) suggests that the minimum accepted composite reliability values should be 0.70. The acceptable value for the Cronbach alpha coefficient should also be greater than 0.70 (Pietersen & Maree 2007). Validity is the extent to which a measure accurately and truthfully represents the measured characteristics (Burns & Bush 2010). In this study, convergent and discriminant validity were assessed.

- **Convergent validity:** Convergent validity is the extent to which a scale correlates positively and is related to the high association between constructs (Malhotra 2010). To assess convergent validity, factor loadings that were generated in Smart-PLS – (Confirmatory factor analysis stage) were assessed and item to total correlation values generated in SPSS were assessed. Malhotra (2010) emphasised that factor loadings should be above 0.5, and McDaniel and Gates 2010) explains that item to total correlation values should be above 0.5
- **Discriminative validity:** determines whether a scale does or does not adequately differentiate itself between groups that should or should not differ, based on theoretical reasons or previous research (Golafshani, 2003). The study measured discriminant validity using the Fornell-Lacker criterion (Hair et al., 2014) and the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) (Henseler et al. 2015). The goal of discriminant validity assessment is to ensure that a reflective construct has the strongest relationship with its own indicators compared to other constructs. Discriminant validity was assessed using the Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of Correlations (HTMT) recommended by Hamid, Sami and Sidek (2017). The exact threshold level of HTMT (0.85 or 0.90) has created a bit of a debate, and the study by Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt (2015) suggests an HTMT threshold value of 0.90 if constructs are conceptually very similar and 0.85 if the constructs are conceptually more distinct. For this study, the threshold of 0.85 was used to determine the discriminant validity of the PLS-SEM model of 0.85 (Henseler Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015).

1.7.12 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)/Measurement model assessment

The data collected on the research constructs was analysed using a two-step procedure, as suggested by Fan et al. (2016) and Byrne (2013). First, the accuracy of multi-item construct measures was assessed, followed by a test of the research model and hypotheses. In both data analysis stages, the current study made use of the structural equation modelling technique (SEM). A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed, using smart-PLS, to assess the measurement model. In addition, Smart-PLS was employed as the computation SEM software.

1.7.13 Path analysis/ (Structural model assessment)

Path modelling describes the relationships between observed or measured variables and theoretical constructs and tests the structural paths of the conceptualised research model (Fan et al., 2016; Roche, Duffield & White, 2011). In order to test the research hypotheses, a path analysis was performed to

indicate the path coefficient and significance levels of the posited eight linear relationships between the 13 research constructs.

1.8 Ethical Considerations

Ethics is the set of moral principles or values that defines right and wrong for a person (Lazenby, 2015). Therefore, this research study acted following the ethical standards of academic research, which include, among other things, protecting the identities and interests of respondents and assuring the confidentiality of information provided by the respondents. The researcher made it clear to the respondents that the research is only for academic research purposes and their participation is on a voluntary basis. Moreover, the researcher obtained the necessary ethics clearance from the University of the Free State ethics committee.

1.9 Study outline

The proposed study consists of six chapters, as outlined below

Table 1.1: Outline of the study

Chapter	Objective
Chapter 1: Introduction of the study	To provide an overview of the study.
Chapter 2: Literature Review	To provide an in-depth analysis of the context and variables under investigation.
Chapter 3: Development of the Conceptual model	To develop a conceptual model to realise the objective of the study.
Chapter 4: Research methodology and research design	To provide an overview of the methodology that were used to realise the study's primary objective.
Chapter 5: Results	To present the results of the data analysis.
Chapter 6: Findings, conclusions, and recommendations	To formulate findings and conclusions from the results of the data analysis and develop theoretical and managerial implications from the results.

Source: Developed by the researcher

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 outlines the purpose of the dissertation, and this current chapter (Chapter 2) delineates the research context and review of the literature. This chapter discusses the research context by providing background into the history of restaurants, the restaurant industry in Europe, the restaurant industry in Asia, the restaurant industry in America, the restaurant industry in Africa and lastly, the South African restaurant industry. In addition, this current research chapter also presents the empirical literature of the study, and it observes all the pertinent collected works found on the topic of the research. The remaining sections of the chapter also cover a literature review on the variables under investigation and this includes service quality dimensions, personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment and surfaces, restroom cleanliness, customer satisfaction, restaurant attachment, willingness to pay a price premium, return patronage intention and positive word of mouth.

2.2 Research Context

2.2.1 History of restaurants

The first restaurant ever was opened in France by a soup vendor named A. Boulanger, in 1756 (Olver, 2015). Initially, in France, restaurants were known as establishments where refreshments or meals could be obtained by the public and were referred to as public dining rooms, ultimately coming to be known as restaurants (Lang, 2021). The name 'restaurant' was derived from restoratives, which was initially an advertisement sign above Boulanger's soup vendor-written "restoratives" referring to the soups and broths available for sale. The name 'restaurant' denotes a public eating place in English, French, Dutch, Danish, Norwegian, Romanian, and many other languages, with some variations. For example, in Spanish and Portuguese, the word becomes restaurante, in Italian, it is ristorante, in Swedish, restaurang, in Russian, restoran, and in Polish, restauracja (Lang, 2021). Over the years, more restaurants opened in Paris, in 1782 Antoine Beauvilliers founded the first luxury restaurant in Paris, which had a combination of elegance in the room, smartly dressed waiters, a choice cellar and superior cooking (Olver, 2015). By 1804, Paris had more than 500 restaurants, producing most of the great chefs of history and creating many famous dishes.

During the 19th century, more fine dining restaurants were established in Paris, with the likes of Véry, a leading restaurant of the era, which listed a dozen soups, two dozen fish dishes, 15 beef entrées, 20

mutton entrées, and scores of side dishes and it was regarded as one of the finest restaurants in Paris (Freedman & Warlick, 2011). Another outstanding Paris establishment of the 19th century was the Café Foy, famous for hosting the rich and famous, the likes of the English novelist, William Makepeace Thackeray, and the Italian composer, Gioacchino Rossini. Another favourite eating place was the Rocher de Cancale, famous for its oysters and fish. The most illustrious of all 19th-century Paris restaurants was the Café Anglais, creating the most classic dishes. By the end of the 19th century, France had produced many of the world's finest chefs. In the 20th century, with the development of the automobile, country dining became popular in France and several fine provincial restaurants were established (Freedman & Warlick, 2011). The Restaurant de la Pyramide, regarded by many as the world's finest restaurant, was founded by Fernand Point (Lang, 2021). Other leading French provincial restaurants have included the Transgress, the Paul Bocus Restaurant, the Auberge de l'Ill, Alsace and the hotel Côte d'Or (Lang, 2021)

In 1926, selected restaurants throughout France started being evaluated annually by the Guide Michelin, a publication devoted to surveying eating establishments and hotels in more than 3,400 towns and cities and awarding one, two, or three stars, based on quality (Olver, 2015). Today, many restaurants are classified either as Bistro, Brasserie, a simple, informal, and inexpensive restaurant, medium-priced restaurants, and elegant grand restaurants, known to serve food in luxurious surroundings (Freedman & Warlick, 2011)

Several nations have also contributed significantly to the development of restaurants. Other European restaurants include Italian trattorie, which are taverns featuring local specialties. Coffeehouses in Austria also offered complete meals. In the beer halls of the Czech Republic, food is served with beer (Lang, 2021). The Spanish tapas bars serves a wide variety of appetisers. Asian restaurants include Japanese sushi bars and teahouses serving formal Kaiseki cuisine, as well as the noodle shops of China. Americans also significantly contributed to the development of restaurants, for American innovations, speed was the most important, hence the birth of Cafeterias which originated in San Francisco during the 1849 gold rush (Freedman & Warlick, 2011). Cafeterias focused on self-service and offered a variety of ready-made foods displayed on counters. The Americans also pioneered fast-food restaurants, such as White Castle (founded 1921) and McDonald's (Founded in 1955), Kentucky Fried Chicken (founded in 1956), and Pizza Hut (1958) which all operated as chains and offered limited menus (Freedman & Warlick, 2011).

In many modern restaurants, customers now prefer an informal but pleasant atmosphere and fast service. The number of dishes available, and the elaborateness of their preparation, have been increasingly curtailed as labour costs have risen and the availability of skilled labour decreased. The trend is toward

such efficient operations as fast-food restaurants, snack bars, and coffee shops. The trend in elegant and expensive restaurants is toward smaller rooms and an intimate atmosphere, with authentic, highly specialised, and limited menus.

2.2.2 European restaurants Industry

According to Lock (2020), one of the most popular leisure activities among Europeans is eating out, hence the significant growth in the restaurant and food industry. The type of restaurants found within the European restaurant industry includes fine dining restaurants, casual dining restaurants, fast-casual restaurants, contemporary casual restaurants, family-style restaurants, fast food restaurants, café, food trucks and food stands, pop-up restaurants, and many other food vendors. In 2016, the consumer food service market in Western Europe amounted to 427 billion euros and the Eastern European market was valued at 45.6 billion euros (Lock, 2020). According to reports by Statista (2020), the two biggest markets in the food and beverage service industry are found in the United Kingdom (UK) and in France, with a generated revenue of 87.8 billion euros and 63.2 billion euros respectively; in 2014, Italy and Spain were ranked highest in terms of the number of food service enterprises. According to Aaron Allen and Associates (2015), a study conducted by HOTREC (trade association for hotels, restaurants, and cafés in Europe) revealed that this industry was a key driver for job creation in Europe.

Furthermore, Khan, Laizet, Moulton, and Youldon (2020) report that post the Covid-19 crisis, European restaurants are seeing drastic shifts in consumer behaviour, such as acceleration in digitilisation, contactless ordering and a change in eating habits and consumer lifestyles. For instance, staying in is the new going out for most European households and with a lot of people working from home, restaurants experience less foot traffic and get more online orders, hence the high number of home deliveries (Khan et al., 2020). Moreover, due to the economic consequences of the pandemic, restaurant consumers have become more focused on getting value for their money as discretionary income decreased (Statista, 2020). Restaurants and delivery partners are responding to this by implementing promotional strategies to secure loyalty, discounts, or lower prices on selected items on the menus available through apps and websites (Khan et al., 2020).

One of the continuing and consistent food trends amongst European restaurant customers is the increased visibility and demand for healthier food (Khan et al., 2020). Restaurants are continuing to react to better meet consumer expectations in this area. One restaurant in the UK has introduced all-vegan menus and a plant-based substitute for meat (Khan et al., 2020). A study was done in Spain on evaluating

the Mediterranean Diet-Adherent, healthy and allergen-free meals offered in Tarragona Province restaurants and meaningful results were found (Mandraccchia, Llauredó, Valls, Tarro & Solà, 2021). Another study has been conducted in Europe on consumer perception of healthy menus at restaurants and meaningful results have been obtained (Zulueta, Esteve & Frigola, 2017).

Despite the growing demand for healthier alternatives, quick service and fast-food restaurants are a key segment of the restaurant industry in Europe. Statista (2020) reports that fast food brands, including Subway, McDonald's, Burger King, and KFC, dominate the landscape for restaurants in Europe. For instance, McDonald's is reported to be present in almost all European countries, however, there are still numerous successful fast-food chains. Lastly, within the European restaurant industry, the Michelin Guide is the most respected guide on restaurant quality, allocating star ratings to indicate the quality of a restaurant, with 1 star indicating a very good restaurant within its category, 2 stars indicating excellent cooking, worth visiting the restaurant and lastly, 3 stars indicating exceptional cuisine, worth a special journey to the specific restaurant.

2.2.3 Asian restaurants industry

Globally, Asian food and Asian restaurants have become one of the major trends in the restaurant industry in the world. It is evidenced that the Asian food and Asian restaurant market have grown rapidly through their presence in many international countries. Ma and Hsiao (2020) conducted a study titled *The making of top fine-dining Chinese restaurants: evidence from domestic and international customers in Australia* and found reports that show that Chinese food is Australia's favorite ethnic cuisine. Due to the popularity of Asian foods in America, Park, Jang, and Ok (2016) explored consumer perceptions of Asian restaurants by analysing Twitter responses. Thompson (2016) reports that Chinese and Asian-style food is booming in the UK due to the increasing number of Pan-Asian restaurants. According to Tiffany (2018), Chinese restaurants have been growing in major cities and suburbs in South Africa since 2000.

Asian foods and restaurants contribute significantly to the food industry globally due to their popularity. Asia is known for its rice and noodle culture and is home to some of the best food in the world. The Japanese, famous for their sushi, is loved around the world (Cheng, 2022). Arba (2022) reports that there are over a million restaurants in Japan, which leads to high competitiveness. The restaurant industry in Japan generates annual revenues amounting to trillions of Japanese Yen and provides work for millions of people (Arba, 2022). Dining out is common in Japan, even during the Covid-19 pandemic, Statista (2022) reported that around half of the population aged 20 and older still visited restaurants at-least once per

week. China is known for its dumpling, buns, and noodle rolls called Dim sum (Cheng, 2022). Blazyte (2022) reports that in 2021, the annual revenue in the restaurant industry amounted to 4.7 trillion yuan, which indicated an increase of 19% over the previous year 2020.

Korea is known for its fermenting and pickling of foods, and kimchi is at the top of the list. Kimchi is a classic side dish or starter to any Korean meal (Cheng, 2022). According to reports, Koreans spend more on eating out of their homes as their income level increases. South Korea is home to a lively food service industry, Koreans love to dine or order food online to be delivered straight to their homes (Statista, 2021). In 2019, the full-service restaurants generated 16.41 billion U.S. dollars in sales and the quick-service restaurants and foods followed with estimated sales amounting to 4.8 billion U.S. dollars. South Korea is estimated to have 727.4 thousand restaurants operating, the restaurant industry in South Korea is evidently lucrative. Thailand's favorite dish is Pad krapow, a Thai cuisine that is quick, delicious, and cheap (Cheng, 2022). In 2020, Thailand had 530 000 restaurants, and the restaurant sales value was forecast to reach 7.1 billion U.S. dollars in 2023 (Manakitsomboon,2022). The restaurant industry in Thailand has been prosperous and gradually rising, it contributed approximately 514.6 billion Thai baht to Thailand's GDP in 2021 (Manakitsomboon,2022).

India is famously known for biryani and their rich and flavorful spices (Cheng, 2022). In 2020, the Indian restaurant industry was valued at 188 billion Indian rupees in the financial year 2020 and is estimated to grow further by the year 2025 (Keelery, 2022). The Indian restaurant is divided into two segments, the organised, which is registered restaurants, and unorganised segment which accounts for the major share of the market size. The unorganised segment is those unregistered street vendors comprising individuals or families selling ready-to-eat food (Keelery, 2022). The Indian restaurant industry employed 7.3 million people in 2018-2019, the industry is lucrative and can contribute even more to the economy, if more of the unorganised street vendors could register their businesses (The Statesman, 2019).

2.2.4 American restaurants industry

The restaurant industry in the United States (US) has seen significant growth over the past few decades and is said to be a leading contributor to the global restaurant market (Lock, 2022). In 2017, the US restaurant industry generated \$800 billion and employed over 10% of the total U.S. workforce (Dixon, Miscuraca, & Koutroumanis, 2018; Industry Impact, 2017). According to Lock (2022), restaurants in America have a notable positive impact on the economy by generating significant revenue and employment. In 2021, the U.S had over 1.8 million waiters and waitresses, an estimate of 1.2 million cooks

and 485, 330 bartenders, a large number of Americans depend on this sector for employment (Statista, 2022).

According to the United States Census (2022), the restaurant and bar industry had lost up to \$280 billion in sales due to the Covid 19 pandemic. Lock (2022) reported that the number of employees also declined significantly in 2022. However, in the first quarter of 2022, the industry is trending in a positive direction, demonstrating resilience (Occchigrosso, 2022). Despite the harm caused by the Covid-19 pandemic, it however brought some positive trends to the restaurant industry which led to benefits such as a reduction in the number of employees required to service the customers and an increase in performance due to digitalisation (Occchigrosso, 2022; Lock (2022). Consumers in the United States switched to ordering online, restaurant operators responded by becoming tech-savvy and shifting menus online and increasing home deliveries.

There are several restaurant segments in America comprising quick-service restaurants, fast-casual restaurants, family dining restaurants or diners, casual dining restaurants, and fine dining restaurants (Dixon, Miscuraca & Koutroumanis, 2018). One of the leading restaurant chains in the United States in terms of sales is McDonald's, followed by Starbucks (Statista, 2022). In 2021, McDonald's had an estimated brand value of 155 U.S dollars and was to be the most valuable restaurant brand worldwide. According to Dixon et al. (2018), U.S customers search for restaurants that provide convenience due to hectic lifestyles and dual-working households, hence restaurant segments that provide services such as take-out, drive-through, and delivery thrive more than restaurants that do not.

According to Dixon et al. (2018), three of four diners opt for eating healthier as opposed to previous years in America. StudyCorgi (2022) reported that due to illnesses directly linked to obesity, Americans are realising the importance of living healthier lifestyles by staying active and choosing healthier food options. The rise in health-conscious restaurants has given a rise in quick-service restaurants that target a market segment that is more careful about what they consume (Talty, 2011). Numerous restaurants such as, Burger king, McDonald's, KFC, and many other restaurants, have joined forces to offer more nutritional options on their menus (Talty, 2011). Despite the growing need for healthier options, the consumer still prefers tasty offerings and high unique flavour profiles, in addition to the healthy component (Walker, 2016). Jun, Kang, and Arendt (2014) conducted a study in the United States entitled the *Effects of health value on healthful food selection intention at restaurants: Considering the role of attitudes toward taste and healthfulness of healthful foods*, and one of their findings revealed that to meet consumers desires, restaurants should still continue to focus on great tasting healthy foods.

2.2.5 African restaurant industry

The African food-service market is highly competitive and comprises full-service restaurants, quick-service restaurants, casual restaurants, cafes and bars, 100% home delivery, and other types. Eating out is an important piece of the African lifestyle in the food-service industry with consumers regularly visiting restaurants. According to Mordor Intelligence (2021), the African food-service market is projected to register a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 7.99% during the forecast period of 2022-2027. One of the driving forces of the food-service market in Africa is rising tourism spending (Mordor Intelligence, 2021). The World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2019) reported a 2% increase in international tourist arrivals in 2019, especially in destinations such as Morocco and South Africa, where tourism is a rapidly growing industry which then led to an improvement in the restaurant industry. However, in 2020, the restaurant industry experienced a negative blow due to the lockdown restrictions imposed through the Disaster Management Act of 57 of 2002 to contain the spread of Covid-19 (South African Government, 2021). In consequence, this resulted in a loss in sales and the closure of some big restaurant names in South Africa and other African countries (Goldman, 2020).

Numerous studies have been conducted in Africa on restaurants and customer satisfaction and the influence on behavioural intention. In South Africa, Mtshokotshe (2020) conducted a study in East London to measure customer satisfaction in restaurants. In Bloemfontein, Maziriri et al. (2021) researched factors influencing food consumption satisfaction and purchase decisions of restaurant consumers. Murwira, Amosu and Nemathaga (2015) did an assessment of food handlers' compliance to personal hygiene practices in fast food outlets in Thohoyandou, in Venda. In other parts of Africa, Githori, (2016) studied the influence of physical environment on customer satisfaction and return intention in Kenyan rated restaurants. In Zimbabwe, Fungai (2017) investigated factors influencing customer repurchase intention in the fast-food industry. Chukwunwem and Ndubueze (2021) looked into the effect of product innovation on customer satisfaction and customers' behavioural intentions in upscale quick service restaurants in Aba, Abia State, Nigeria. In Egypt, Baiomy, Jones, and Goode (2019) investigated the influence of menu design, menu item descriptions and menu variety on customer satisfaction.

Inferring from the aforementioned studies which have been conducted in various parts of Africa, it can be stated that insightful discoveries could be generated by conducting a study within the restaurant sector in a geographically distinct area, such as Bloemfontein, South Africa. Furthermore, this study uses a blended approach of examining service quality and hygiene as factors that would predict or stimulate customer satisfaction and post-behavioural intentions. It is expected that insightful results might be

generated by using this blended approach since these are deficiencies in literature on studies that have utilised service quality and hygiene together, as factors which may influence customer satisfaction.

2.2.6 The South African restaurant industry

The South African (SA) restaurant industry has always shown steady growth and survived in the tough economic climate in the country (Marx-Pienaar, Rand, Fisher & Viljoen, 2020). However, recently due to the Covid-19 pandemic and looting of shops and businesses, resulted in a loss in sales and the closure of many restaurants (Business Tech, 2021).

Prior to Covid-19, numerous restaurants were already suffering due to intense competition within the industry and the tough economic environment in which they operate (Marx-Pienaar et al., 2020). For instance, Business Tech (2019) reported on the reduction of sales in many restaurants and some having to close down due to the competition (Stats SA, 2019). One famous local grill house, ChesaNyama, found itself under fire and had to close 90% of its stores countrywide due to failure to keep up in such an intensely competitive environment (Business Tech, 2019). Post Covid-19, numerous restaurants suffered massive losses in sales and some big restaurants closed due to severe lockdown regulations (Caboz, 2021). The Restaurant Ssociety of South Africa (RASA), with 11 000 members, estimates that a cumulative 33% of restaurants (3,630) in their database have closed as a direct result of the heavy lockdown restrictions (Purdon, 2021).

Cutting down on operations within restaurants is detrimental to both the business and the employees who in turn lose their jobs and add to the 34.9% unemployment rate in South Africa (Stats SA, 2021). Cloete (2015) points out that unemployment has a positive correlation with poverty in South Africa. The survival and growth of restaurants is beneficial to the economy, the employees, and the business itself. Stats SA (2021) reported a rise in the gross domestic product (GDP) in the second quarter of 2021, together with the easing of lockdown regulations. This leaves hope for restaurants that survived the storm to find unique strategies, such as service quality, and hygiene as factors that would predict or stimulate customer satisfaction and post-behavioural intentions.

This chapter also focuses on the empirical literature which considers service quality dimensions, customer satisfaction, restaurant attachment, willingness to pay price premium, patronage intention and positive word of mouth.

2.3 Empirical literature

This section is centered on reviewing literature pertaining to the research variables under investigation namely: Service quality dimensions, Personal hygiene, Cleanliness of equipment, Cleanliness of surfaces, Restroom cleanliness, Customer satisfaction, Restaurant attachment, Willingness to pay a price premium, Return patronage intention, Positive word of mouth.

2.3.1 *Service quality dimensions*

According to Parasuraman et al. (1985), customers evaluate overall service quality by five empirical dimensions, namely, tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy.

Responsiveness is the willingness to help customers and provide prompt service (Rudansky-Kloppers, 2016). Responsiveness is communicated to customers by the length of time they must wait to be served, attention to problems, or answers to questions. **Reliability** refers to the ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately (Rudansky-Kloppers, 2016). Reliability may be characterised by accurate reservations of tables and accurate billing (Kasapila, 2006). **Assurance** is defined as the knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence (Rudansky-Kloppers, 2016). Assurance is especially important if customers are uncertain about certain aspects of the service offering. **Empathy** is defined as the caring, individualised attention the business provides to its customers (Rudansky-Kloppers, 2016). In a restaurant setting, it is important to make the customers feel as if they are receiving personal attention. **Tangibility** is defined as the appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel, and communication materials (Rudansky-Kloppers, 2016). The tangibles represent the restaurant's physical attributes, which are usually noticed first by customers when they enter the restaurant (Lee, Park, Park, Lee & Kwon, 2005). Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal, and Voss (2002) posit that the physical factors of a store, such as architecture, style, and layout, are known to have an impact on a consumer's quality, value inferences, and behaviours.

Numerous studies have been done on service quality and the impact it has on customers satisfaction (Tuncer, Unusan, & Cobanoglu, 2021; Maisya, Rahmat, Rina, 2019; Padlee, Thaw, Zulkiffli, 2019; Mensah & Mensah, 2018; Almohaimmeed, 2017; Tripathi & Dave, 2016; Petzer & Mackay, 2014; Manwa, 2011; Polyorat & Sophonsiri, 2010). Within the restaurant industry, Mensah and Mensah (2018) discovered that service quality has a significant effect on customer satisfaction and repurchase intention. Petzer and Mackay (2014) did a study on dining atmospherics and food and service quality as predictors of customer satisfaction at sit-down restaurants and found that service quality is the second most important predictor.

Maisya et al, (2019) also did a study on the influence of service quality and customer satisfaction on customer loyalty in restaurants of the Tangerang area and the results revealed a positive correlation between service quality and customer satisfaction. Service quality and its impact on customer satisfaction is also a broadly researched in other countries. For instance, in Bangladesh, Masrurul (2019) did an empirical study on the impact of service quality on customer satisfaction in the Bangladesh Tourism Industry and the results demonstrate that service quality is a strong driver for customer satisfaction in all five dimensions of service quality. In Turkey, Tunser et al. (2021) researched service quality, perceived value, and customer satisfaction on behavioral intention in restaurants and discovered that service quality has a positive effect on customer satisfaction. A similar study done in Pakistan on the importance of service quality in customer satisfaction uncovered similar findings (Aftab, Sarwar, Sultan, & Qadeer 2016). There are also a number of studies done on service quality's impact on customer satisfaction found across different industries that yielded similar findings (Ali, Gardi, Othman, Ahmed, Ismael, Hamza, Aziz, Sabir, Anwar, G, 2021; Virima, Sandada, Ngoro & Chuchu, 2019; Getahun, 2019; Batouei, Iranmanesh, Nikbin, & Hyun, 2019; Behdioğlu, Acar, & Burhan, 2019; Putro & Rachmat, 2019).

Some research confirmed the link between service quality and customer satisfaction (Sivadas & Baker-Prewitt, 2000). Prior investigations said that service quality was a predictor of customer satisfaction and positively impacted customer satisfaction (Santouridis & Trivellas, 2010).

It is evident from the studies that quality service delivery is a vital strategic resource that can be leveraged to obtain a sustained competitive advantage in the restaurant industry and create customer satisfaction (Jin, Line & Goh, 2013). However, previous studies have failed to provide a significant link on factors such as service quality, customer satisfaction, hygiene factors, together with post behavioural intentions, hence the purpose of this study is to obtain more robust and meaningful results.

2.3.2 Personal hygiene

Personal hygiene in restaurants refer to employees keeping their fingernails clean, wearing clean uniforms or protective clothing, and employees wearing gloves while handling ready-to-eat food. Voon et al. (2013) proposes that personal hygiene factors include factors, such as neatly dressed staff who are equipped with sterile gloves and hair caps. Park et al. (2016) describes personal hygiene by paying attention to employee's uniform, nails, and accessories and adds that the behaviour of employees, such as touching food with bare hands, can be considered as unhygienic. Milicevic (2022) explains that personal hygiene in restaurants and the implementation of hygiene standards and procedures for employees is the best way

to gain the trust of customers and further adds that that each person working with food must maintain a high degree of cleanliness and a tidy external appearance.

A study by Liua and Lee (2018) found that employees keeping their fingernails clean, employees wearing clean uniforms or protective clothing, and employees wearing gloves while handling ready-to-eat food were of paramount importance to customers in influencing satisfaction and revisit intentions. Personal hygiene factors, such as neatly dressed staff who are equipped with sterile gloves and hair caps, as well as knowledge on food safety were found to be the determinants of satisfaction (Voon et al. 2013). According to Alhelalat, Habiballah and Twaissi (2017), customers also appreciate the basic grooming skills of servers, such as keeping nails, clothes, and hair in a clean condition. Chow et al. (2019) explored the influence of hygiene factors on customers' satisfaction in restaurants among Indian consumers and found it, indeed, leads to customer satisfaction, and personal hygiene was one of the strong predictors of customer satisfaction. Eksoydan (2007) also discovered that personal hygiene played a role in customers' selection of a restaurant and influences customer satisfaction. It is evident that proper personal hygiene in restaurants can secure customer satisfaction, the current study further proves that personal hygiene can positively affect both customer satisfaction and post-behavioural intentions.

2.3.3 Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces

Unlike health inspectors, consumers typically observe only the front of the house to assess the cleanliness of the restaurant, such as restaurant equipment and surfaces to which they are exposed. Park (2014) explains that it is important to understand consumers' assessments of the cleanliness in restaurants and their intention to eat in that restaurant. Kim, Almanza, Ma, Park and Kline (2021) conducted a study titled *The cleanliness of restaurants: ATP tests (reality) vs consumers' perception* and explained the cleanliness of equipment using factors such as plates, glassware, silverware, napkins, menu, counters, door handles, chairs, tables, salt and pepper containers. Mohammed, Ayansina, Mohammed, Oyewole, and Shaba (2018) posit that surfaces that food comes into contact with, are known as food contact surfaces which include utensils, worker's hands, worker's clothing, all equipment, facilities and packaging materials. Mohammed et al. (2018) further explain that these surfaces contribute to cross infection and run the risk of transferring micro-organism. Blackburn (2003) adds that these surfaces and food handlers' hands are an important means of pathogen transmission.

Several studies have been conducted on the impact of cleanness in restaurants on customer satisfaction (Kim et al., 2021; Abubakari et al., 2019; Mohammed et al., 2018; Tama, 2015; Srivastava, 2015; Park et

al., 2016; Park et al., 2016; Fatimah et al., 2011; Barber & Scarcelli, 2010; Aksoydan, 2007; Blackburn, 2003; Leach et al., 2001). For instance, Srivastava (2015) and Eksoydan (2007) found that hygiene factors of a restaurant, such as personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment, surfaces and premises, and the temperature control of food were of paramount importance in creating satisfaction. Tama (2015) also discovered that cleanliness in restaurants is also a predictor in determining customer satisfaction. Henson et al. (2006) found, in their study, that cleanliness of the kitchen, cutlery and dishes, eating areas and bathrooms were of significant importance to customers and influence satisfaction. Abubakari et al. (2019) adds that dining area cleanliness is also one of the most important hygiene issues that people consider when patronising restaurants and that it influences customer satisfaction and retention.

It is for this existing gap in the body of knowledge that this current study seeks to link service quality, hygiene, customer satisfaction and post-behavioural intentions.

2.3.4 Cleanliness of restrooms

A study by Park et al. (2016) measured restroom cleanliness using attributes, such as well-maintained and clean toilets and urinals, clean floors, hot water, soap, toilet paper, trash bins and available towels, clean sinks, mirrors and counters and no evidence of insects. Scarcelli and Almanza (2021) posit that if the restroom is clean, well-stocked with supplies, free from odour and litter, and in a good state of repair, it can have a profoundly positive impact on what the customer believes the kitchen is like since customers use the restroom as a predictive tool for measuring the cleanliness of the kitchen. Research conducted for Modern Restaurant Management by Kumar (2021) states that you can tell a lot about a restaurant from its facilities, thus, bathrooms set the standard for how consumers view the cleanliness of the restaurant.

Numerous researchers have determined cleanliness of the restroom to be a central factor driving the overall perception of cleanliness in restaurants (Kim & Bachman, 2019; Liu, 2017; Hunt, 2017; Yoo, 2012; Barber & Scarcelli, 2010). According to Yoo (2012), restaurant cleanliness is considered one of the most significant conditions when customers evaluate overall restaurant quality and determine satisfaction and includes factors such as restroom appearance, restroom personal hygiene, and employee behaviour/signage. Kim and Bachman (2019) explain that cleanliness of a restroom is one of the most significant factors for customer perception of the restaurant since the restroom is a visible place among the facilities of a restaurant. For example, dirty toilet seats may infer a lack of cleanliness in other areas in the restaurant where customers are not allowed access. Barber and Scarcelli (2010) evaluated restroom

cleanliness conditions using the attributes of insect evidence, toilet cleanliness, soap availability, paper availability, floor cleanliness, odour, ceiling condition, and hot water availability. If the cleanliness of a restroom is not good, customers will be concerned (Kim & Bachman, 2019). Additionally, Hunt (2017) posits that restroom cleanliness is a key indicator of overall restaurant cleanliness and indicates the sanitation of the overall food service operation.

A study by Kim and Bachman (2019) discovered that 88% of customers who experienced an unclean restroom at a restaurant believe that it also reflects poor sanitation of the entire restaurant, including the kitchen and other food preparation areas. In a more recent study, Rasin (2020) entitled “*Dirty Restrooms in Restaurants: How They Impact Your Business*”, it was found that 80% of consumers would avoid a restaurant with unclean restrooms and that a customer’s experience in the restroom will affect the perceived cleanliness of the whole facility which can last through the entire dining experience and long after. Srivastava (2015) did a study on attributes affecting selection of restaurants by selected customers and restroom cleanliness was an important item that customers considered.

2.3.5 Customer satisfaction

Customer satisfaction is one of the dominant themes in service marketing. Bitner and Hubbert (1994) defined it as both the outcome of individual service transactions, and the overall service encounter. In general, customers tend to compare their perceptions of actual service performance to expectations prior to purchase or consumption (Oliver, 1980). When service performance exceeds expectations (i.e., positive disconfirmation) customer satisfaction increases. Conversely, negative disconfirmation generates dissatisfaction (Andreassen & Lindestad, 1998). Furthermore, Kotler and Keller (2016) posit that customer satisfaction is the customers’ perceptions of happiness or frustration due to a comparison between the performance of a service and customers’ expectations. Within the service industry, customer satisfaction is explained as service performance countering or exceeding customer expectations (Tit, 2015; Kumar, 2012).

A dissatisfied customer is more likely to do damage than a satisfied customer, hence customer satisfaction holds paramount importance (Tripathi & Dave, 2016). Also, Yi and Nataraajan (2018) posit that customer satisfaction has both defensive effects on retaining customers by reducing defection and offensive effects of attracting new customers through positive word of mouth or referrals by satisfied customers.

Numerous studies have discovered that service quality has a significant positive impact on customer satisfaction and that service quality is a predictor of customer satisfaction (Mai Dam & Cuong Dam, 2021;

Maisya, Rahmat & Rina, 2019; Padlee, Thaw & Zulkiffli, 2019; Putro & Rachmat, 2019; Mensah & Mensah, 2018). Since, customer satisfaction is predicted by service quality factors, an in-depth inquiry is essential to understand which service quality factors are relevant for the restaurant business and among those, which have a significant influence on customer satisfaction.

The restaurant industry is so competitive hence, customer satisfaction is seen as a key differentiator and has increasingly become a key element of business strategy (Banerjee & Singhania, 2018). It is the goal of every restaurant to maximise the positive experience of the customer in order to enhance return patronage intentions. The obvious need for satisfying the customer is to expand the business and gain a higher market share which would lead to improved profitability (Banerjee & Singhania, 2018). The current study proposes that through the provision of quality service and hygiene conditions in place, this can positively impact satisfaction and post-purchase behaviours such as restaurant attachment, positive word of mouth, willingness to pay price premiums and return patronage intention.

2.3.6 Restaurant attachment

Attachment is described as an emotional bond between an individual and an object, which influences emotional, cognitive, and behavioural responses toward that object (Parker et al., 2010). In addition, Oneto (2014) defines attachment as an emotional connection between people and things. Oneto (2014) further explains that just as people can be attached to a person, they can also be attached to a restaurant (Oneto, 2014). On the other hand, Scannell and Gifford (2017) proposes that restaurant attachment can be directly linked to people's physical and psychological well-being, quality of life and satisfaction with life. Yuksel, Yuksel and Bilim (2010) define restaurant attachment as a process by which people form emotional bonds to restaurants and propose that the sense of physically being or feeling in place or at home can be regarded as an indication that an individual is forming an emotional tie to a restaurant.

Restaurant attachment can also be explained using four components; restaurant dependence, restaurant identity, restaurant affect and restaurant familiarity. Restaurant dependence is based on the functional qualities of the restaurant and how well they satisfy the customers' needs or goals compared to alternatives (Wua, Cheng, Ai, & Chen 2019; Yuksel et al., 2010). Restaurant identity implies customers' emotional link as a process of self-regulation within the restaurant setting, symbolic or affective attachment to a restaurant, customers' connections with the restaurant setting, their conscious or unconscious preferences for the restaurant, and a personal relationship with the restaurant (Wua et al., 2019; Brown, Smith, & Assaker, 2016; Yuksel et al., 2010). Restaurant affect is referred to as the emotions

and feelings of a customer towards a particular restaurant, and further, customers with greater experiences with restaurant environments may express stronger emotional attachment to those environments than those with lesser experiences (Wu et al., 2019; Halpenny, 2010). Lastly, restaurant familiarity facilitates the development of both cognitive, thus the ability to describe a restaurant, and affective images, that is positive or negative feelings and perceptions of restaurants (Wu et al., 2019; Manyiwa, Priporas, & Wang, 2018; Seo, Yun, & Kim, 2017). It is evident from the aforementioned studies that in order for a customer to be attached to a specific restaurant, their needs must meet, the customer must have positive interactions and positive experiences at the restaurant; in other words, the customer must be satisfied. Accordingly, it is proposed that the more satisfied a customer is with a restaurant, the more attached the customer will become to that restaurant (Line & Hanks, 2018).

Attachment goes deeper than loyalty or satisfaction and people with strong attachments influence other people around them (Mashao, Maziriri & Chuchu, 2020). Numerous researchers have found consequences of restaurant attachment in customers, including customer in-role behaviours, such as return patronage intention, willingness to pay a price premium, positive word of mouth and customer co-operation, and willingness to forgive (Badrinarayanan & Becerra, 2019; Bae et al., 2019; Line et al., 2018; Cheng, Luo, Yen, & Yang, 2016; Hyun & Han, 2015; Hyun & Kim, 2014; Parker et al. 2010). In addition, Park et al. (2010) add that when customers develop restaurant attachment, they view the restaurant as a part of their self and develop salient thoughts and feelings about the restaurant, resulting in the customers becoming more motivated to engage in relationship sustaining behaviours, such the willingness to expend their resources towards patronising the restaurant, positive word of mouth and willingness to pay price premia. The current study proposes that, through the provision of quality service and proper hygienic conditions in place, this can positively impact satisfaction and restaurant attachment.

2.3.7 Willingness to pay a price premium

The notion of “willingness to pay” was defined by Rodriguez, Lacaze and Lupín (2008) as the sum of money representing the difference between consumers’ surplus before and after adding or improving a food product attribute. In addition, Lim et al. (2014) explain that price premia are the excess prices paid over and above the fair price that is justified by the true value of the products, which may be indicators of consumers’ demand for that product. Willingness to pay a price premium is defined as the measure of how likely a consumer will engage in a purchase transaction and is based on an equitable distribution of benefits (Dutta, Parsa, Parsa & Bujisic, 2014).

According to Bae et al. (2019), a committed customer is ready to make a financial outlay in order to procure the product or service. Jeong and Jang (2019) studied fine dining restaurant consumers and found consumers were willing to pay up to 10% premium for higher quality menu items. Further, a study done in Hong Kong's high-end Japanese restaurants, listed in the Michelin guide, were being appreciated for their offer of the finest dining experience and guests had no objections to paying the price premium (Baldwin, 2018). Also, Park et al. (2010) note that restaurant attachment motivates consumers to perform difficult behaviours for relationship maintenance and engage in purchase behaviour. Voss, Parasuraman, and Grewal (1998) proposed that if marketers provide high quality at a low price in the hope of delighting customers, it will not affect customer satisfaction. If, on the other hand, they provide excellent services and charge above average prices for the same, it will result in enhanced performance perception and satisfaction by the customers, leading to willingness to pay a price premium.

Several researchers consider consumers' attachment to a brand as a vital condition for consumers to accept higher prices for that brand (Bae et al., 2019; Bahri-Ammari, 2016; Cheneg et al., 2016). Dwivedi, Nayeem and Murshed (2018) explain that when a seller, usually of high-quality products or services, can charge a price that is higher than the minimum average price of high quality, the difference between the high price and the competitive price can be perceived as a price premium (Rao & Monroe, 1996). This is in line with the findings of Dewar (2004), that a brand or restaurant can charge a premium for simplifying the purchase process and reducing consumer risk. When consumers are satisfied and attached to a restaurant, it is expected that customers may want to continue a favourable on-going relationship with a brand or restaurant, resulting in consumers becoming less price sensitive towards that restaurant (Dwivedi et al., 2018; Thomson, MacInnis & Park, 2005). Ladhari, Brun, and Morales (2008) did a study entitled "*Determinants of dining satisfaction and post-dining behavioral intentions*" and found satisfaction has a positive and significant effect on willingness to pay a price premium. Njite, Njoroge, Parsa, Parsa and van der Rest (2015) found that the provision of quality attributes in restaurants has a positive effect on the customer to willingly pay a price premium. Positive results were also found on the willingness to pay a price premium on quality and healthy food (Zhang, Fu, Huang, Wang, Xu & Zhang, 2018; Ankamah-Yeboah Nielsen, & Nielsen, 2016). Further, Kiatkawsin and Han (2019) discovered that customer involvement and knowledge of the quality of the restaurant and food positively impacts consumers to be willing to pay a price premium. Based on the aforementioned studies, the current study proposes that if customers are satisfied, then it can positively affect restaurant attachment and the willingness to pay a price premium.

2.3.8 Return patronage intention

Return patronage intention is defined as the likelihood that a current customer of a restaurant expects to return in the future for a dining experience (Bae, Slevitch, & Toma, 2018). Furthermore, Bae et al. (2018) explain that return behaviour can be easily compromised and difficult to restore if lost, hence the importance of ensuring the customer is satisfied through providing quality service. Literature suggest that truly satisfied customers tend to return frequently, spend more, spread positive word of mouth, and remain loyal instead of switching to a competitor (Bae et al. 2018; Mohsan, Nawaz, Khan, Shaukat, & Aslam, 2011).

Several researchers have found a positive link between satisfaction and return patronage intention (Cheng, Kuo, Chang & Wu, 2021; Ekeke, Akpan & Aderere, 2020; Njelita, Marcus and Anyasor 2020; Bae et al. 2018; Banerjee & Singhania 2018; Mensah & Mensah, 2018; Olise, Okoli, and Ekeke 2015; Nawaz, Khan, Shaukat, & Aslam, 2011). Bae et al. (2018) report that the success of a firm is largely dependent on enhancing customer satisfaction and encouraging future patronisation. This is in support of the findings of Njelita et al. (2020) and Olise et al. (2015) that customer loyalty and satisfaction increases the customer return patronage in the restaurant and which, in consequence, increases the profitability of the restaurant. Njelita et al. (2020) further posit that for the restaurant managers to gain competitive advantage, they must constantly make means to enhance the levels of customer satisfaction, which they found in their study, leads to return patronage intention. Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich and Iacobucci (2010) took it further and discovered that when customers develop restaurant attachment, they view the restaurant as a part of their self and develop salient thoughts and feelings about the restaurant, resulting in customers becoming more motivated to engage in relationship sustaining behaviours and be more willing to expend their resources toward patronising the restaurant.

When consumers are loyal and attached to a restaurant and are satisfied with the service experience, they are more likely to revisit the restaurant and purchase again and engage in positive word of mouth (Liu & Lee, 2016). It is evident from the aforementioned studies that satisfied customers will mostly likely patronage the same outlet again. The current study proposes that satisfied customers will lead to customer attachment which will also then influence return patronage intention, and perhaps more robust results will be obtained.

2.3.9 Positive word of mouth

Abd-Elaziz, Aziz, Khalifa and Abdel-Aleem (2015) define word of mouth (WOM) as the transmission of opinions, thoughts, ideas between two or many individuals without any individual as a marketing source. Milaković, Anić, and Mihić (2020) and Ansary and Hashim (2018) define WOM as a communication source and a process of personal influence that impacts consumers' attitudes, decision-making and purchases. Word of mouth can be either positive or negative, with consumers displaying a higher propensity to engage in negative WOM as opposed to positive WOM after an experience (Angelis et al., 2012). Khuong and Phuong (2017) add that word of mouth is an act of telling one friend or acquaintances about their satisfaction or dissatisfaction of a product or service. Positive word of mouth (WOM) refers to positive informal communications among consumers concerning evaluations of the brands, which includes actions such as delightful, meaningful, or off-beat experiences, recommendations to others (Japutra, Ekinci, & Simkin, 2014).

According to Filieria, Alguezaub and McLeaya (2015), positive word of mouth communication is more credible than advertisements in mass media because consumers are more reliant on other consumers' individual comments about a specific product or service. The general consensus is that consumers place more trust in WOM than in traditional media, particularly when seeking information about a product or service (Luoa, Bakerb & Donthua, 2019; Cheung & Thadani, 2012). Consumers trust other consumers more than other sellers; hence word of mouth is considered one of the most influential sources of information about products and services (Nieto, Hernández-Maestro & Muñoz-Gallego, 2014; Filieria Alguezaub & McLeaya; 2015; Lee & Youn, 2009).

Numerous researchers have explored word of mouth and the impact it has on businesses (Siqueira, Peña, Horstc, & Molinad, 2019; Konuk, 2019; Line et al., 2018; Filieria, et al., 2015; Jeong & Jang, 2011). Siqueira et al, (2019) found, in their study, that customer experience in physical stores still have a higher impact on consumer traditional word of mouth intention than on electronic word of mouth intention, hence the importance of securing customer satisfaction. Line et al. (2018) conducted a study on the relationship between place attachment and word of mouth, and the results reveal that high levels of attachment to a place or company can result in positive customer behaviours, such as spreading positive word of mouth. Filieria, et al. (2015) add that customer's emotional involvement, commitment and attachment increases the level of voluntary assistive behaviours, such as telling others about the company. The current study proposes that if customers are satisfied through the provision of service quality and hygiene factors, then

it can positively affect restaurant attachment and positive word of mouth, and perhaps more meaningful results will be obtained.

2.4 Summary

The chapter focused on the empirical research context and the empirical literature. The empirical literature reviewed the research constructs in detail. The research constructs included personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment and surfaces, restroom cleanliness, customer satisfaction, restaurant attachment, willingness to pay a price premium, return patronage intention, positive word of mouth. The next chapter focuses on the research design and methodology.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to establish a conceptual framework of the literature in Chapter two (2); a conceptual model and set of critical hypotheses of the study are formulated for further empirical examination. According to Gunzler and Morris (2015), a conceptual model serves as a basis for understanding the causal or correlational interconnection patterns across events, ideas, observations, concepts, knowledge, interpretations, and other components of experience. Gunzler and Morris (2015) add that a conceptual model describes the relationship between variables investigated in the study. Furthermore, Sekaran and Bougie (2016) explain that a schematic diagram of the conceptual model assists the reader to visualise the theorised relationships between the variables in the model, thus obtaining a quick idea about how one thinks that the management problem can be solved. Moreover, a conceptual model is arranged in a logical structure to help provide a picture or visual display of how ideas in a study relate to one another (Dickson, Emad, & Joe, 2018; Grant, & Osanloo, 2014).

In this study, the conceptual model suggests that tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, empathy, assurance, personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment and surfaces, and lastly, restroom cleanliness, are the independent or predictor variables. Andrade (2021) defines independent variables as those values which influence other variables and dependent variables as those values which are influenced by other variables. According to Flannelly, Flannelly, and Jankowski (2014), an independent variable, also known as a predictor, is a variable that can predict another variable, for instance, the magnitude of the predictor (independent variable) can predict the magnitude of another variable (dependent variable). Flannelly et al. (2014) further add that a dependent variable is, quite simply, dependent, in that it depends, in some sense, on an independent variable. The dependent or outcome variables for the current study model is customer satisfaction, restaurant attachment, willingness to pay a price premium, return patronage intention, and positive word of mouth. A dependent or outcome variable is the variable under investigation and is depicted by the letter γ (Flannelly et al., 2014; MacKinnon, 2001). The dependent variable is always the predicted or the estimated variable because they are the values that are predicted or assumed by the predictor or independent variable (Flannelly et al., 2014).

The study employed three theoretical frameworks, namely, the hygiene and sanitation theory, the interpersonal attachment theory and the service quality model. The theories were briefly discussed to justify the grounding theory of the study. A conceptual model was proposed to guide the empirical study

based on the literature related to the research variables. A detailed discussion of the development of the study's conceptual model was also presented. This chapter also comprehensively outlined findings from existing reviews of the literature concerning the theoretical framework used in the study. The study employed three theoretical frameworks, namely the hygiene and sanitation theory, the interpersonal attachment theory, and service quality model.

3.2 Theoretical framework

3.2.1 Interpersonal attachment theory

The interpersonal attachment theory was formulated by psychiatrist and psychoanalyst John Bowlby, who described attachment as a deep and enduring emotional bond that connects one person to another across time and space (Bowlby, 1969). Bowlby, (1969) further explained attachment as a fundamental human need, leading to an emotion-laden, target-specific relationship between a person and a target (Bowlby, 1980). Bowlby's theory grew out of his observations of children who had been separated from their parents in wartime England. Bowlby believed that attachment behaviours are instinctive and can become activated whenever actions or feelings such as fear, separation, or insecurity were triggered and would cause the attachment programming to activate, causing a child to seek out the individuals to whom it has been attached.

This supports the findings of Robertson and Bowlby (1952) who further discovered that a child experiences separation anxiety if the attachment figure is unavailable, especially in stressful situations and the child derives comfort and security from the attachment figure. According to Ismail and Ali (2013), the basic underlying premise of attachment theory is "Separation Distress," which refers to the extent to which consumers show their emotions when exposed to real or imagined separation from an object of strong attachment. Maziriri, Rukungiri and Chuchu (2021) add that, according to place attachment theory, people form affectionate or emotive ties to a specific location, which is an extension of the interpersonal attachment theory. Most people have at least one place attached to them (Low & Altman, 1992). In the marketing context, this need can motivate consumers to become deeply committed to the restaurant or brand (Schmalz & Orth, 2012).

Attaching consumers to a brand or a restaurant is a cornerstone of relationship marketing as attachment increases loyalty. Over the years, marketers have noticed the importance of the creation of brand attachment and its influence on post-purchase behaviours (Line & Hanks, 2019; Japutra, Ekinci, Simkin 2014; Schmalz & Orth 2012). Therefore, based on the above authors' explanations, it can be noted that if

attachment theory is taken into consideration, it can assist restaurant managers to thoroughly understand what motivates the consumers to be satisfied and to be attached to restaurants.

3.2.2 Hygiene and sanitation theory

The hygiene and sanitation theory lays emphasis on cleanliness and the absence of germs which enable hygiene to be achieved (Wasike, 2010). The hygiene and sanitation theory emanate from the works of Perry (1951), who developed several food handling practices after several outbreaks of food-borne infections around the year of 1946. Perry (1951) suggested that food industry operators teach hygiene standards and the importance of food handling to all people involved, to ensure all people involved in food handling are properly trained and instructed in cleaning methods, to ensure they have adequate facilities in all food premises in order to adhere to the set standards, to secure structurally sound buildings with surfaces to be easily cleaned and lastly, to secure the provision of suitable and adequate food storage accommodation to enable food stuff to be stored. Lack of basic infrastructure, poor knowledge of hygiene and practices in food service establishments can contribute to outbreaks of food-borne illnesses (Kibretl & Abera, 2012).

Globally, about 3.4 million people die each year from illness associated with contaminated water supplies and inadequate waste removal (Berman, 2009). There are numerous reasons that result in food poisoning in the fast food and restaurant industry, and these range from lack of hygiene education, proper sanitation, to poor attitude among staff working in the restaurants, lack of proper equipment, and even space for effective enforcement of laws which govern the hospitality industry. Hence the importance of following the practices Perry (1951) developed.

The provision of safe drinking water and the effective removal of bodily waste by suppliers and food handlers are vital for human health and well-being (WHO, 2019). Sanitation and hygiene in food service establishments has become a topic of the highest priority (Pestco Professional Services, 2018). A retail consumer study conducted by Marcresearch revealed that 14% of consumers indicated that they will not return to any kind of store if they felt it was unclean (Pestco Professional Services, 2018). South Africa experienced the largest recorded listeriosis outbreak in 2017 (WHO, 2018), which showed that there are some limitations in the food safety policies in South Africa (Tchatchouang, Fri, Santi, Brandi, Giuditta, Schiavano, Giulia, Amagliani & Ateba, 2020). The clean atmosphere of a food premise reflects its operator's commitment to complying with food safety standards (Fatimah, Boo, Sambasivan, & Salleh,

2011), thereby ensuring that customers' expectations are met, and through proper hygiene standards and delivering as always promised, this can create customer satisfaction (Chow et al., 2019).

Inferring from the aforementioned explanations, it is important for restaurants to make hygiene a priority, not only for the benefit of consumers who show great satisfaction as a result (Chow et al., 2019; Alhelalat et al., 2017) but for reputational incentives from which the restaurants also benefit (Bartsch, Asti, Nyathi, Spiker & Lee 2018; Jin & Leslie, 2009), hence the purpose for conducting the current study.

3.2.3 Service quality model

Service quality refers to a customer's assessment of the overall excellence or superiority of an organisation and its services in a service experience (Zeithaml, 1988). The superiority of the service is confirmed by what the service delivers, which is the outcome and is evaluated after the performance, and how the service is delivered, which is the process and is evaluated during delivery (Mmutle & Shonhe, 2017). Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) explained service quality as a comparison between consumer expectations with their perception of the actual service performance. Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) demonstrated that customers evaluate overall service quality by five empirical dimensions: tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy.

Gronroos (1982) explained the two types of service quality: technical quality, which entails what the customer is receiving from the service, thus how well the service performs as expected and as promised or what the customer receives in the end. Secondly, functional quality, which involves the perception of the way the service is delivered, that is, the employees' actions or the human interaction that takes place during the service encounter, it is the "how" a service is delivered or provided (Gronroos, 1984, 1990, 1992; Mel, Boshoff & Nel, 1997). The role of service quality plays a large role in creating customer satisfaction and customer retention. Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry (1990) posit that the effective investment in high service quality results in long-term increases in customer loyalty, and this in turn, leads to cost savings and improved profitability and market share (Zeithaml, Parasuraman, & Berry, 1990).

Within the restaurant industry in particular, service quality has been explained as the level of service provided by restaurant employees, which is dependent upon the interactions between customers and restaurant employees (Petzer & Mackay, 2014). These interpersonal service experiences ultimately serve as a way for customers to evaluate the quality of the service offering, and to form their overall quality perceptions of the restaurant (Petzer & Mackay, 2014).

The SERVQUAL instrument developed by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985) is a research-based set of general expectations that consumers have of their service providers, thus proposing that the key to ensuring service quality is meeting or exceeding what consumers expect from the service. Zeithaml et al. (2003) further explains that the customer's expectation of a particular service is determined by factors such as recommendations, personal needs, and past experiences. The expected service and the perceived service might not be equal, thus leaving a gap which is the difference, imbalance or disparity which exists between customer's perception of the organisation's performance and their prior expectation. The goal of the organisation is to minimise the gap between the customers' perceptions and expectations (Zeithaml et al., 2003).

SERVQUAL was designed to measure the difference between the customers' expectations for service performance prior to the service encounter and their subsequent perceptions of the service received and five dimensions; reliability, assurance, tangibles, empathy and responsiveness, were measured (Parasuraman, Zeithaml et al. 1985; Zeithaml, Parasuraman et al. 1990). Parasuraman et al. (1988) proposed that meeting or exceeding customer expectations in each of these key areas can improve customer satisfaction. According to Berry and Parasuraman (1991), these dimensions are defined as:

- **Tangibles:** The appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel, and communications materials. Tangibles in a restaurant include elements such as parking availability, seating availability, clean and comfortable dining areas, well-dressed staff members, easily readable menu, clean restrooms, adequate availability of sauces, salt, napkins, wet-wipes, and cutlery (Rudansky-Kloppers, 2016; Parasuraman, Zeithaml et al. 1985; Zeithaml, Parasuraman et al. 1990).
- **Reliability:** The ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately. Reliability in a restaurant include elements such as the speed of service as fast as promised, dependability and consistency, quick corrections to anything that is wrong, accurate billing, accuracy of customer's order (Monther and Mahadevan, 2019; 2016; Parasuraman, Zeithaml et al., 1985; Zeithaml, Parasuraman et al., 1990).
- **Responsiveness:** The willingness to help customers and to provide prompt service. Responsiveness in a restaurant include elements, such as, during the rush hours extra employees are provided to help maintain speed and quality of service, prompt and quick

service, employees willing to help and handle customers' special requests (Mahsyar and Surapati, 2020; 2016; Parasuraman, Zeithaml et al., 1985; Zeithaml, Parasuraman et al., 1990).

- **Assurance:** The knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence. Assurance in a restaurant includes elements, such as that customers feel comfortable and confident in dealing with the establishment, feel safe for financial transactions, employees are consistently courteous, employees have knowledge to answer customer questions (Aftab et al. 2016; Parasuraman, Zeithaml et al., 1985; Zeithaml, Parasuraman et al., 1990).
- **Empathy:** The provision of caring, individualised attention to customers. Empathy in a restaurant includes elements, such as employees are sensitive towards customers and can anticipate individual customer needs and wants rather than always relying on policies and procedures, the ability to make customers feel special, employees are sympathetic and reassuring if something is wrong and that they have customers' best interests at heart (Eresia-Eke et al. 2020; Parasuraman, Zeithaml et al., 1985; Zeithaml, Parasuraman et al., 1990).

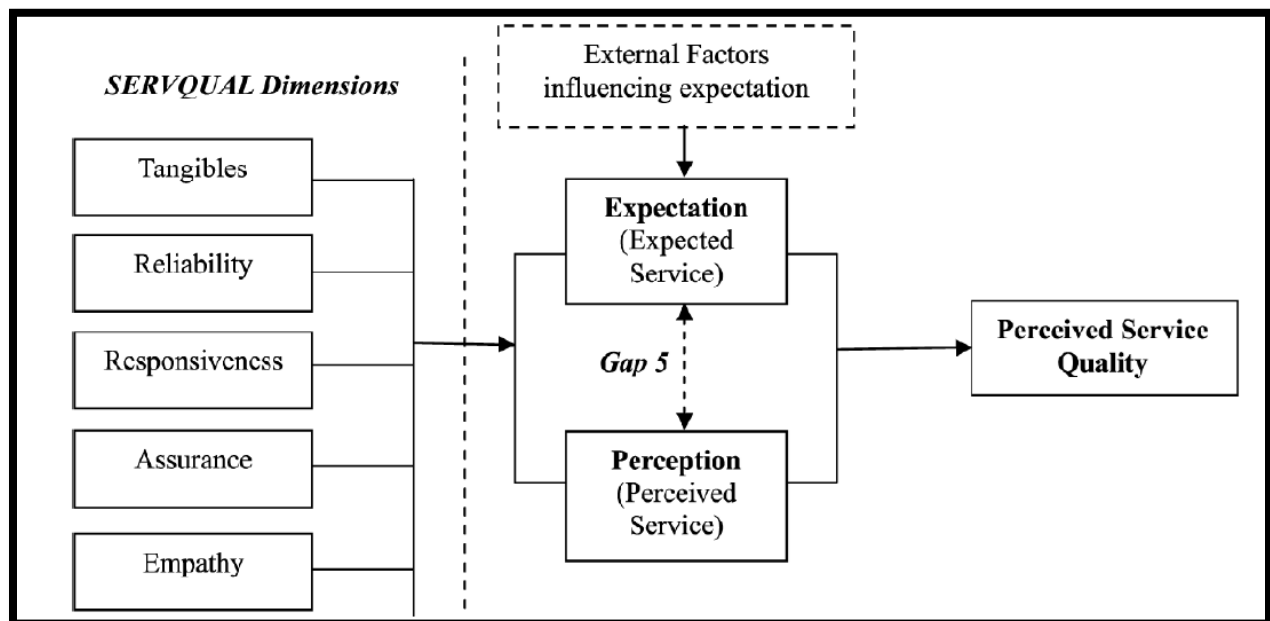


Figure 3.1: Service quality Model

Source: Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985)

Based on the above explanations, it is evident that the provision of service quality in restaurants can potentially build and enhance customer satisfaction and secure a competitive position in the market. The current study extended the SERVQUAL model with hygiene factors, and perhaps more meaningful results will be obtained.

The conceptual model for this study can be illustrated with a diagrammatic representation of the relationships between all the constructs and their order of influence, as shown in figure 3.1.

CONCEPTUAL MODEL

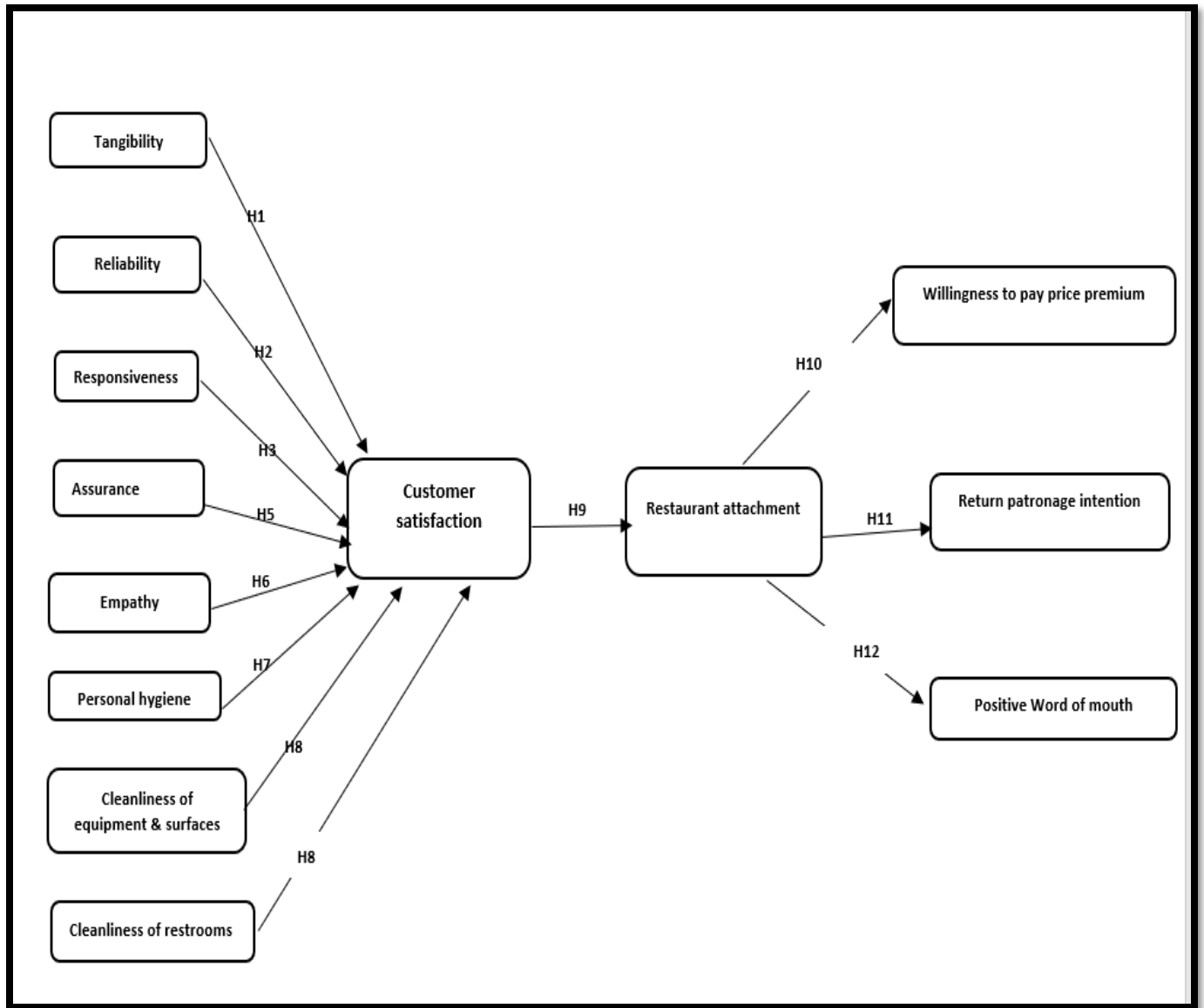


Figure 3.2: Conceptual model







Source: Developed by the researcher



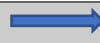



3.3 Hypothesis development

Price, Jhangiani, Chiang, Leighton and Cuttler (2019) explained an hypothesis as a specific prediction about a new phenomenon that should be observed if a particular theory is accurate. According to Smith, Densmore and Lener (2016), a hypothesis is an imaginative preconception of a factual relationship. Further, Matthews and Kostelis (2011) explain that, based on past research, a researcher will be able to develop a research hypothesis as to what will happen. Moreover, Price et al. (2019) add that an hypothesis must be testable and falsifiable, for instance, an hypothesis must be tested using methods of science and it must be possible to gather evidence to disconfirm the hypothesis if it is indeed false. Furthermore, an hypothesis must be logical thus, it should be informed by previous theories or observations and logical reasoning (Price et al., 2019). Finally, the hypothesis should be positive, that is, the hypothesis should make a positive statement about the existence of a relationship or effect, rather than a statement that a relationship or effect does not exist (Price et al., 2019).

Table 3.1 shows a summary of hypotheses for the study that constitute this study. The proposed hypotheses making up the conceptual model were primarily derived from prior studies that supported the relationships to motivate the propositions. The hypothesised relationships between the research variables are discussed hereafter

Table 3.1: Summary of hypotheses

No.	Hypothesis statement	Hypothesised Relationship
H1	<i>Tangibility has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.</i>	Tangibility  Customer satisfaction (+)
H2	<i>Reliability has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.</i>	Reliability  Customer satisfaction (+)
H3	<i>Responsiveness has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.</i>	Responsiveness  Customer satisfaction (+)
H4	<i>Assurance has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.</i>	Assurance  Customer satisfaction (+)
H5	<i>Empathy has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.</i>	Empathy  Customer satisfaction (+)
H6	<i>Personal hygiene has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.</i>	Personal hygiene  Customer satisfaction (+)

H7	<i>Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.</i>	<i>Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces</i> <i>Customer satisfaction (+)</i> 
H8	<i>Cleanliness of restroom has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.</i>	<i>Cleanliness of Restroom</i>  <i>Customer satisfaction (+)</i>
H9	<i>Customer satisfaction has a positive and significant impact on restaurant attachment</i>	<i>Customer satisfaction</i>  <i>Restaurant attachment (+)</i>
H10	<i>Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on willingness to pay a price premium.</i>	<i>Restaurant attachment</i>  <i>Willingness to pay price premium (+)</i>
H11	<i>Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on return patronage intention.</i>	<i>Restaurant attachment</i>  <i>Return patronage intention (+)</i>
H12	<i>Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on positive word of mouth</i>	<i>Restaurant attachment</i>  <i>Positive word of mouth (+)</i>

Source: Developed by the researcher

3.3.1 Service quality and customer satisfaction

The objective of service quality is to fulfil customers' satisfaction with the services given. According to Al-Tit (2015), service quality is measured by the difference between customer expectation and experience when going to a restaurant. Based on the SERVQUAL model, SERVQUAL was designed to measure the difference between customers' expectations for service performance prior to the service encounter and their subsequent perceptions of the service received and five dimensions; reliability, assurance, tangibles, empathy, and responsiveness were measured (Parasuraman, Zeithaml et al., 1985; Zeithaml, Parasuraman et al., 1990). Tripathi and Dave (2016) point out that customers do not depend solely on food quality to enhance satisfaction but that service quality dimensions are also contributors to enhancing customer satisfaction. The following section thoroughly explains each one of the service quality dimensions and the impact on satisfaction, moreover, the hypothesised relationship between the service quality variables and satisfaction is discussed.

3.3.1.1 Tangibility and customer satisfaction

Tangibility is the appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel, and communication materials (Naude & Rudansky-Kloppers, 2016; Ramseook-Munhurrun, 2012). Bitner (1999) proposes that the tangible environment has three components: design factors, social factors, and ambient factors. Omar, Arifin and Ahmad (2016) state that restaurants use tangibles to convey their picture and quality of signal to customers. If the tables are clean, the menus clear and neat, and the bathrooms tidy, it will complement the intangible service and contribute to a higher quality of service and can influence satisfaction (Naude

& Rudansky-Kloppers, 2016). In addition, Khan and Fasih (2014) refer to tangibles as equipment, physical facilities and their appearance (ambiance, lighting, air-conditioning, seating arrangement), and providing personnel of the organisation. Panda and Satyabrat (2014) explain 'tangible' as those visible aspects of the service that are used by the business to improve external customer satisfaction. Panda and Satyabrat (2014) posit that tangible elements of the service can be felt without actually purchasing the service. Naidoo (2014) explains that tangibles play an important role in developing strong, positive and inspiring customer association and experiences, through the firm's tangibles.

Previous research supports that customers generally pay attention to tangibles when evaluating the service quality of a business (Eresia-Eke, Milongo & Mogotsi, 2020; Ju, Back, Choi & Lee, 2019; Wang & Nicolau, 2017; Priporas, Stylos & Vedanthachari, 2017; Esmailpour, Mohamadi & Rajabi, 2016). Numerous studies have been done to test the influence of the tangible aspect of service quality on customers' satisfaction and meaningful results were obtained (Hoang & Suleri, 2021; Nyabundi, Aliata, & Odondo, 2021; Maisya, Rahmat & Rina, 2019; Padlee, Thaw & Zulkifli, 2019; Mensah & Mensah, 2018; Johnson & Karlay, 2018; Almohaimmeed, 2017 Tripathi and Dave, 2016; Aftab, Sarwar, Sultan & Qadeer, 2016; Naude & Rudansky-Kloppers, 2016; Panda & Satyabrat, 2014; Naidoo, 2014; Al-Tit, 2015; Ladhari et al., 2008)

Almohaimmeed (2017) conducted a study on restaurant service quality and customer satisfaction and uncovered that all service quality dimensions, including tangibility, have a positive impact on customer satisfaction. Hoang and Suleri (2021) found, in their research, that the physical environment, which is a tangible aspect, has the biggest impact on satisfaction; Ryu and Han (2011) also discovered similar results in their research. Ladhari et al. (2008) earlier mentioned that a pleasant environment and the ambiance of the restaurant encourages customers to spend more time and money at the restaurant, which is an indication of satisfaction, rather than a restaurant atmosphere that creates feelings of unpleasantness. Nyabundi, Aliata, and Odondo, (2021) studied the effect of tangibility on customer satisfaction and found a significant correlation between tangibility and customer satisfaction. In addition, Nyabundi et al. (2021) explain that customers are visual beings and what they see, touch, feel or smell has an impression on their satisfaction with a product or service. Panda and Satyabrat (2014) conducted a comparative study on the role of tangibility in service quality and its impact on external customer satisfaction and the result revealed that tangibility is an evident factor influencing customer satisfaction. Therefore, the following hypothesis is stated:

H1: Tangibility has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

3.3.1.2 Reliability and customer satisfaction

According to Monther and Mahadevan (2019) and Armstrong, (2012) reliability is defined as the extent of delivering an ensured service precisely and reliably, as well as the ability to deliver the promised service precisely and dependably. Kasapila (2006), characterises reliability by accurate reservations of tables and accurate billing. Moreover, Khan and Fasih (2014) explain that reliability is about providing a service truthfully and consistently. Hoang and Suleri (2021) add that the accuracy in service delivered determines the reliability of that restaurant, for instance, an accurate bill presented, or food items served. Omar, Ariffin and Ahmad, (2016) highlight that reliability is characterised by the restaurant's commitment to customer demands regarding the menu elements preparation, table reservations and accurate billing. Reliability means that an organisation fulfills its promises in terms of service offering, delivery, pricing, and solving problems for the customer. Aftab et al. (2016) note that being reliable is an exceptionally vital quality to have, particularly in the restaurant industry. Mmutle and Shonhe (2017) state that reliability is a critical dimension of service quality, since customers often switch to another service provider whenever the main service is not delivered as expected. This is likely to elicit customer satisfaction rather than complaints. Eresia-Eke et al. (2021) explain that reliability can elicit customer satisfaction rather than complaints when a business provides a service as promised.

Johnson and Karlay (2018) explored the impact of service quality on customer satisfaction, the results revealed that customers valued reliable and trustworthy service providers. Almohaimmeed (2017) investigated the relationship between service quality, price and customer satisfaction, and findings revealed that accuracy in serving the food ordered and speed of service were significantly associated with customer satisfaction. Moreover, Murad and Ali (2019) conducted a study entitled *the impact of service quality on customer satisfaction in the restaurant industry*. The results were confirmed by Naidoo (2014) that indeed, there is a significant relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction. Aftab et al. (2016) investigated the impact of service quality on customer satisfaction in fast-food restaurants and the results revealed that reliability plays an important role in enhancing customer satisfaction. Based on their findings, Johnson and Karlay (2018) are in agreement that the reliability dimension in service quality has an influence on customer satisfaction. Deducing from the aforementioned discussion and the empirical evidence, it could be posited that:

H2: Reliability has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

3.3.1.3 Responsiveness and customer satisfaction

According to Mahsyar and Surapati (2020), responsiveness can be defined as the willingness of employees to help customers and provide fast and responsive services, which includes readiness in serving customers, speed of handling transactions, and customer complaints. Hoang and Suleri (2021) explain that responsiveness is communicated to customers by the length of time they have to wait to be served, attention to problems or answers to questions, that is, the shorter the time, the better the solution, which leads to satisfied customers. The keenness to assist customers and offer quick service can be characterised by the willingness of service providers to accommodate customers and provide timely service (Aftab et al., 2016). Aftab et al. (2016) believe that customer satisfaction can be achieved in restaurants when employees are willing to assist their customers when required. According to Wu, Huang and Chou (2014), responsiveness is one of the most critical service quality dimensions considered by customers of people-based businesses, as opposed to machine-based or automated businesses. Customers tend to feel more valued if they sense that the business takes their expectations seriously and adequately responds to their needs (Alhkami & Alarussi, 2016).

In a study conducted by Mensah and Mensah (2018) to assess the effects of service quality and customer satisfaction on repurchase intention in restaurants on the University of Cape Coast campus, the results indicated that customers place a high premium on responsiveness and require prompt service. Monther and Mahadevan (2019) investigated the impact of service quality on customer satisfaction in Malaysia and the results revealed that responsiveness plays a pivotal role in enhancing customer satisfaction. In addition, Johnson and Karlay (2018) tested each of the service quality dimensions and their impact in customer satisfaction, the results revealed that responsiveness has a positive impact on customer satisfaction. Nguyen, Nisar, Knox and Prabhakar (2018) conducted a study aimed at understanding customer satisfaction in the UK quick service restaurant industry and the influence of the tangible attributes of perceived service quality, the results indicated that responsiveness plays the most crucial role in driving customer satisfaction. Therefore, it can be posited that:

H3: Responsiveness has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

3.3.1.4 Assurance and customer satisfaction

Naude and Rudansky-Kloppers (2016) define assurance as the knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence, it is especially important if customers are uncertain about certain aspects of the service offering. Mensah and Mensah (2018) state that assurance is an important factor of service quality since customers want to be safe and secure and be reassured that staff can deliver quality. Alhkami and Alarussi (2016) sum up assurance features as competence, politeness, effective communication, and a general attitude to serve customer effectively and efficiently. Aftab et al. (2016) characterise assurance as the extent to which service providers are proficient, polite, and able to inspire customer trust and certainty. Assurance depicts the restaurant as well-mannered, knowledgeable, and friendly employees that make customers feel safe when making financial transactions (Alhkami & Alarussi, 2016).

Nguyen, Nisar, Knox and Prabhakar (2018) conducted a study aimed at understanding customer satisfaction in the UK quick service restaurant industry and the influence of the tangible attributes of perceived service quality; the results indicated that responsiveness and assurance play the most crucial role in driving customer satisfaction. Ali et al. (2021) investigated the impact of service quality on customer satisfaction in hospitality and uncovered that assurance also has an impact on customer satisfaction. Hoang and Suleri (2021) evaluated customer behaviour in restaurants before and during COVID-19: A study in Vietnam obtained meaningful results. Furthermore, Murad and Ali's (2015) findings in their study indicate that there is a highly significant relationship between service quality (tangibles, assurance, responsiveness, reliability, empathy) and customer satisfaction in the restaurant industry. Mensah and Mensah (2018) found similar results in their study which investigated the effects of service quality dimensions and customer satisfaction on repurchase intention in restaurants on the University of Cape Coast campus. Aftab et al. (2016) conducted a study on fast food restaurants to determine the importance of service quality in customer satisfaction, assurance was revealed to influence customer satisfaction. In Iraq, Gabrow (2021) evaluated customer satisfaction and service quality using the SERVQUAL model of fast-food restaurants, the finding revealed that assurance also contributed significantly towards customer satisfaction. Drawing from the foregoing discussion, this study therefore, proposes the following hypothesis:

H4: Assurance has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

3.3.1.5 Empathy and customer satisfaction

Eresia-Eke et al. (2020) define empathy as the care and personal attention given to customers while rendering the service. Moreover, Gabrow (2021) describes empathy as the allocation of compassionate, one-on-one service to the customers. Toosi and Kohonali (2011) suggested that, for a service provider to be able to show empathy, they must try to understand situations from the customers' perspectives to get a clear picture of what is happening. Gabrow (2021) recommends that empathy in restaurants can be achieved by arranging working hours and educating staff to consider the unique needs of consumers. Alhkami and Alarussi (2016) state that empathy includes access, communication, and the needs of customers. Zeithaml and Bitner (2003) state that restaurant employees can show empathy to customers by welcoming them by name, and understanding their dietary needs, choices, and problems. Monther and Mahadevan (2019) state that the root of empathy is to express to customers, through personalised service, that they are unique and special.

The study of Alhkami and Alarussi (2016) revealed that there is a significant relationship between empathy and customer satisfaction. Tripathi and Dave (2016) assessed the impact of restaurant service quality dimensions on customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions. The findings reveal that empathy, ambient environment, reliability, and responsiveness positively correlate with satisfaction. According to Murad and Ali (2015), findings based on their study indicate a highly significant relationship between service quality (tangibles, assurance, responsiveness, reliability, empathy) and customer satisfaction in the restaurant industry. Eresia-Eke et al. (2020) found that service quality has an impact on repeat patronage of street vendors, which indicates customer satisfaction. Deducing from the discussion, as mentioned above, and the empirical evidence, it could be posited that:

H5: Empathy has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

3.3.2 Personal hygiene and customer satisfaction

Liu and Lee (2018) define personal hygiene as employees keeping fingernails clean, wearing clean uniforms or protective clothing, and employees wearing gloves while handling ready-to-eat food. Sembiring, Prabandari and Taviprawati (2021) explain that personal hygiene is a person's efforts to maintain personal hygiene and health to obtain physical and psychological well-being. Admin (2020)

recommends that to maintain personal hygiene, restaurants must implement strict handwashing rules for staff to prevent cross-contamination, as well as covering hair with nets and making use of food service gloves to prevent contamination. Furthermore, Sembiring et al. (2021) posit that personal hygiene is the application of a clean and healthy lifestyle aimed at oneself to maintain personal hygiene to increase body immunity against viruses and bacteria. Moreover, Andarmoyo (2012) stated that in everyday life, cleanliness is an essential thing that must be considered because cleanliness will affect the health, comfort, safety, and well-being of clients. According to Alhelalat, Habiballah and Twaissi (2017), customers also appreciate the basic grooming skills of servers, such as keeping nails, clothes and hair in clean conditions.

Chow et al. (2019), in Malaysia, explored the influence of hygiene factors on customer satisfaction in restaurants among Indian consumers. They found out that hygiene factors lead to customer satisfaction, and personal hygiene was one of the strong predictors of customer satisfaction. Sembiring et al. (2021) investigated the effect of personal hygiene on customer satisfaction at Aston Bellevue hotel, Jakarta, during the Covid-19 pandemic. The results reveal personal hygiene has a positive relationship on customer satisfaction. Eksoydan (2007) also discovered that personal hygiene played a role in customers' selection of a restaurant and influences customer satisfaction. Personal hygiene aspects, such as neatly dressed staff equipped with sterile gloves and hair caps, as well as knowledge on food safety were found to be the determinants of satisfaction (Voon, Jager, Chitra, Kueh & Jussem 2013). The next hypothesis is hereafter stated as:

H6: Personal hygiene has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.

3.3.3 Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces and customer satisfaction

The most important indicators of equipment and surfaces' cleanliness is related to the kitchen, cutlery, and dishes, eating areas, cleanliness of floors and tables, and any food contact surface area (Mohammed & Iddrisu, 2019; Yoo, 2012). Restaurant cleanliness is considered one of the most significant conditions when customers evaluate overall restaurant quality or decide on their satisfaction levels (Yoo, 2012). Admin (2020) explains that dirty floors can be depressing and lead to customers walking out of restaurants with a loss of appetite. In Addition, Admin (2020) states that unclean cutlery, crockery, and glassware create negative perceptions of the restaurant for customers.

Hygiene factors of a restaurant, such as personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment, surfaces and premises, and food temperature control were paramount in creating satisfaction (Srivastava, 2015; Yoo, 2012; Eksoydan, 2007). Eksoydan (2007) discovered that clean surfaces of a dining area was one of the factors that create satisfaction. Abubakari et al. (2019) add that dining area cleanliness is also one of the most important hygiene issues people consider when patronising restaurants and influences customer satisfaction and retention. Tama (2015) also discovered that restaurant cleanliness is a predictor of customer satisfaction. Henson, Majowicz et al. (2006) found, in their study, that the cleanliness of the kitchen, cutlery and dishes, eating areas and bathrooms were paramount to customers and influenced satisfaction. Reasoning from the previously mentioned discussion and the empirical evidence, it could be said that:

H7: Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.

3.3.4 Restroom cleanliness and customer satisfaction

Kim and Bachman (2019) evaluated restroom cleanliness using attributes, such as insect evidence, toilet cleanliness, soap availability, paper availability, floor cleanliness, odour, ceiling condition, and hot water availability. Kim and Bachman (2019) indicate that the cleanliness of the restroom and toilet has been shown as a critical factor driving the overall perception of cleanliness in a restaurant. According to results revealed by Scarcelli (2007), over 80% of consumers reflect a dirty restroom as an indication of overall level of cleanliness in a restaurant. Barber and Scarcelli (2009) found that consumers will eat up to 25% more in a restaurant where they are comfortable using the restroom and that the cleanliness of a restroom is critical to customers' perception of safety and satisfaction.

Numerous researchers have determined cleanliness of the restroom to be a central factor driving the overall perception of cleanliness in restaurants (Kim & Bachman, 2019; Park, Almanza, Miao, Sydnor & Jang, 2016; Liu, 2017; Yoo, 2012; Barber & Scarcelli, 2009). Park et al. (2016) investigated consumer perceptions and emotions about sanitation conditions in full-service restaurants. The results revealed that consumers use tangible sanitation conditions, such as restrooms and employees in their perceptions of sanitation in full-service restaurants, which influences customer satisfaction. Kim and Bachman (2019) examined customer perceptions of restaurant restroom cleanliness and their impact on satisfaction and intention to return. The results show that restroom cleanliness has an impact on customer satisfaction. Barber and Scarcelli (2009) conducted a study entitled "*Clean restrooms: how important are they to*

restaurant consumers?”, the findings revealed restrooms are an important factor to consumers when assessing the cleanliness of an eating establishment. According to Yoo (2012), restaurant cleanliness is considered one of the most significant conditions when customers evaluate overall restaurant quality and determine satisfaction, including restroom appearance, restroom personal hygiene, and employee behaviour/signage. Therefore, the following hypothesis is stated:

H8: Restroom cleanliness has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.

3.3.5 Customer satisfaction and restaurant attachment

According to Yaqub, Halim and Shahzad (2019), customer satisfaction is the ability of a product or service to meet or surpass the customers' expectations. Kotler and Keller (2016) posit that customer satisfaction is the customers' perceptions of happiness or frustration due to a comparison between the performance of a service and customers' expectations. If the performance received is much lower than expected, the customer will be dissatisfied. Conversely, if the performance received is in accordance with what was expected by the customer, then the customer will feel satisfied. Customers will feel very satisfied if the performance received exceeded expectations. Razak and Triatmanto (2016) add that customer satisfaction is customer feedback in the form of evaluation after purchasing goods or services compared to customer expectations. Tripathi and Dave (2016) state that a dissatisfied customer is more likely to damage than a satisfied customer, hence customer satisfaction holds paramount importance.

For Park et al. (2010), attachment is described as an emotional bond between an individual and an object, which influences emotional, cognitive, and behavioural responses toward that object. Oneto (2014) defines attachment as an emotional connection between people and things. Oneto (2014) further explains that just as people can be attached to a person, they can also be attached to a restaurant. Scannell and Gifford (2017) propose that restaurant attachment can be directly linked to people's physical and psychological well-being, quality of life and satisfaction.

According to Parker et al. (2010), consumers attached to a brand are generally satisfied by it, because satisfaction is the basis of emotional attachment. Customer satisfaction is also a key factor driving a customer's loyalty intentions. Bahri-Ammari et al. (2016) agree that satisfied customers do get attached to the restaurant based on the results found in their study. Guillard and Roux (2014) found that satisfaction is a determining factor of trust and a direct antecedent of attachment. According to Danjuma and Rasli (2012), customers who are more satisfied with the service they receive from a business will also

be more motivated to improve and sustain an effective bond with the business, culminating in attached customers. Line and Hanks (2018) propose that the more satisfied a customer is with a restaurant, the more attached the customer will become to that restaurant. Therefore, the following hypothesis is stated:

H9: Customer satisfaction has a positive and significant impact on restaurant attachment

3.3.6 Restaurant attachment and willingness to pay a price premium

Willingness to pay a price premium refers to the excess prices paid over and above the fair price that is justified by the true value of the products, which may be indicators of consumers' demand for that product (Lim et al. 2014). Willingness to pay a price premium is defined as the measure of how likely a consumer will engage in a purchase transaction and is based on an equitable distribution of benefits (Dutta, Parsa, Parsa & Bujisic, 2014). Jeong and Jang (2019) studied fine dining restaurant consumers and found consumers were willing to pay up to 10% premium for higher quality menu items. Kiatkawsin and Han (2019) discovered that customer involvement and knowledge of the restaurant's quality and food positively impacts consumers' willingness to pay a price premium.

Research has highlighted several consequences of brand attachment in customers, including customer in-role behaviours such as purchase intentions, willingness to pay a price premium, and customer co-operation (Cheng et al., 2016; Hyun & Han, 2015). Bae et al. (2019) posit that a committed customer is ready to make a financial outlay to procure the brand. Several researchers consider consumers' attachment to a brand as a vital condition for consumers to accept higher prices (Bahri-Ammari, 2016; Cheneg et al. 2016). Ladhari, Brun and Morales (2008) are support that a satisfied customer is willing to pay more, which is an indicator of loyalty and attachment to the restaurant.

Reasoning from the previously mentioned discussion and the empirical evidence, it could be said that:

H10: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on willingness to pay a price premium

3.3.7 Restaurant attachment and return patronage intention

Bae, Slevitch, and Toma (2018) define return patronage intention as the likelihood that a current customer of a restaurant expects to return in the future for a dining experience. Bae et al. (2018) further explain that return behaviour can be easily compromised and difficult to restore if lost, hence the importance of building customer loyalty and ensuring customers are satisfied (Bae et al. 2018). As a result, shoppers should become more motivated to engage relationship-sustaining behaviours and be more willing to

expend their resources toward patronising the restaurant. Bae et al. (2018) conclude that a firm's success is largely dependent on enhancing customer satisfaction and encouraging future patronisation.

According to Tripathi and Dave (2016), a satisfied customer will patronise the restaurant again to experience the service and recommend the restaurant to others. According to Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich, and Iacobucci (2010), when customers develop restaurant attachment, they view the restaurant as a part of themselves and develop salient thoughts and feelings about the restaurant and, concomitantly, are more willing to expand their resources toward patronising the store or restaurant. Bae et al. (2018) suggest that truly satisfied customers tend to return frequently, spend more, spread positive word of mouth, and remain loyal instead of switching to a competitor. Maziriri, Chuchu and Madinga (2019) investigated the antecedents that influence store patronage, apparel purchase decision and store attachment among the Generation Y cohort. One finding revealed that store patronage behaviour has a positive relationship on store attachment. Badrinarayanan and Becerra (2019) suggested that store attachment in turn, influences store patronage. The next hypothesis is hereafter stated as:

H11: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on return patronage intention

3.3.8 Restaurant attachment and positive word of mouth

According to Japutra, Ekinci, and Simkin (2014), positive WOM refers to positive informal communications among consumers concerning evaluations of the brands, which include actions such as delightful, meaningful, or offbeat experiences, and recommendations to others. Khuong and Phuong (2017) state that word of mouth is an act of telling one friend or acquaintances about their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with a product or service. Moreover, Lua, Bakerb and Donthua (2019) suggest consumers place more trust in WOM than traditional media, particularly when seeking information about a product or service. Filieria, Alguezaub and McLeaya (2015) earlier pointed out that word of mouth communication is more credible than advertisements in mass media because consumers are more reliant on other consumers' comments about a specific product or service.

Research on the relationship between place attachment and word of mouth suggests that a high level of attachment to a place or company can result in positive customer behaviours, such as spreading positive word of mouth (Line et al., 2018). Customer's emotional involvement, commitment and attachment increases voluntary assistive behaviours, such as telling others about the company (Filieria, et al., 2015). Tripathi and Dave (2016) add that a satisfied customer will recommend the restaurant to others. Bae et

al. (2018) state that a satisfied customer spreads positive word of mouth and remains loyal instead of switching to a competitor. Mashao, Maziriri and Chuchu (2020) explain that attachment somewhat goes deeper than loyalty or satisfaction and people with strong attachments influence others around them. In light of the literature, the accompanying hypothesis, concerning the connection between restaurant attachment and positive word of mouth, is derived:

H12: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on positive word of mouth.

3.4 Chapter summary

This chapter commenced by discussing the three theories to justify the grounding of the study and developing the conceptual model that guide this study. The chapter deliberated the empirical literature review of the conceptualised model for the research study that constitutes the dissertation. The review aimed to draw relevant insights for developing a conceptual model of the study. It presented the relationship among variables that have been hypothesised in the study's conceptual model. The aim of chapter five (5) is to test and analyse the proposed hypotheses. The next chapter (Chapter 4) discusses the methodology and research design that guides this study.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter (Chapter 3) provided an overview of the conceptual model developed for the study and identified theoretical relationships between the constructs of interest that enabled the formulation of hypotheses that guide this study. In Chapter 3, a thorough analysis of previous studies was done and it was found that the provision of service quality has the potential to build and enhance customer satisfaction. However, previous studies have failed to link factors such as service quality, customer satisfaction and hygiene significantly.

In chapter 3, it was proposed that an incorporation of hygiene dimensions (personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment and surfaces of premises and restroom cleanliness) with service quality dimensions (tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, empathy, and assurance) to investigate the influence on customer satisfaction and post-behavioural intentions (restaurant attachment, willingness to pay price premium, positive word of mouth and return patronage intention). This study proposes that new meaningful and robust findings can be attained from investigating potential outcomes from these novel relationships.

The current chapter (Chapter 4) discusses the study's research methodology and design. The chapter is divided into sections. The first section introduces the “research onion” approach adopted for the study as a guideline of the research methods and design. The second section investigates the population and sampling procedures of the study. Thereafter, section three focuses on the data collection procedures, including sub-sections pertaining to construct development, scale development, and the survey instrument. A section on statistical analysis and that of measures taken to ensure construct validity and reliability is provided. The last section discusses the ethical considerations that were observed in conducting the study. The chapter summary is then provided to give detail on the main outcomes deduced from the chapter.

4.2 The research onion approach

According to Saunders et al. (2016), the metaphor of a research onion can best explicate the research process. However, drawing from the typical arrangement of an actual onion plant organism that has cells that peel off from the cell wall, the procedure for conducting research is outlined. Thus, the scholars deduce that the research onion infers the different peripheral layers that should be unraveled to achieve the empirical research objective(s) set out at the beginning of a study. Without doubt, a systematic

process is needed for researchers to reach the central zone of the research onion, comprising the key data collection phase and subsequent analysis procedures. Figure 4.1 illustrates the research onion by Saunders and Tosey (2013).

The research onion

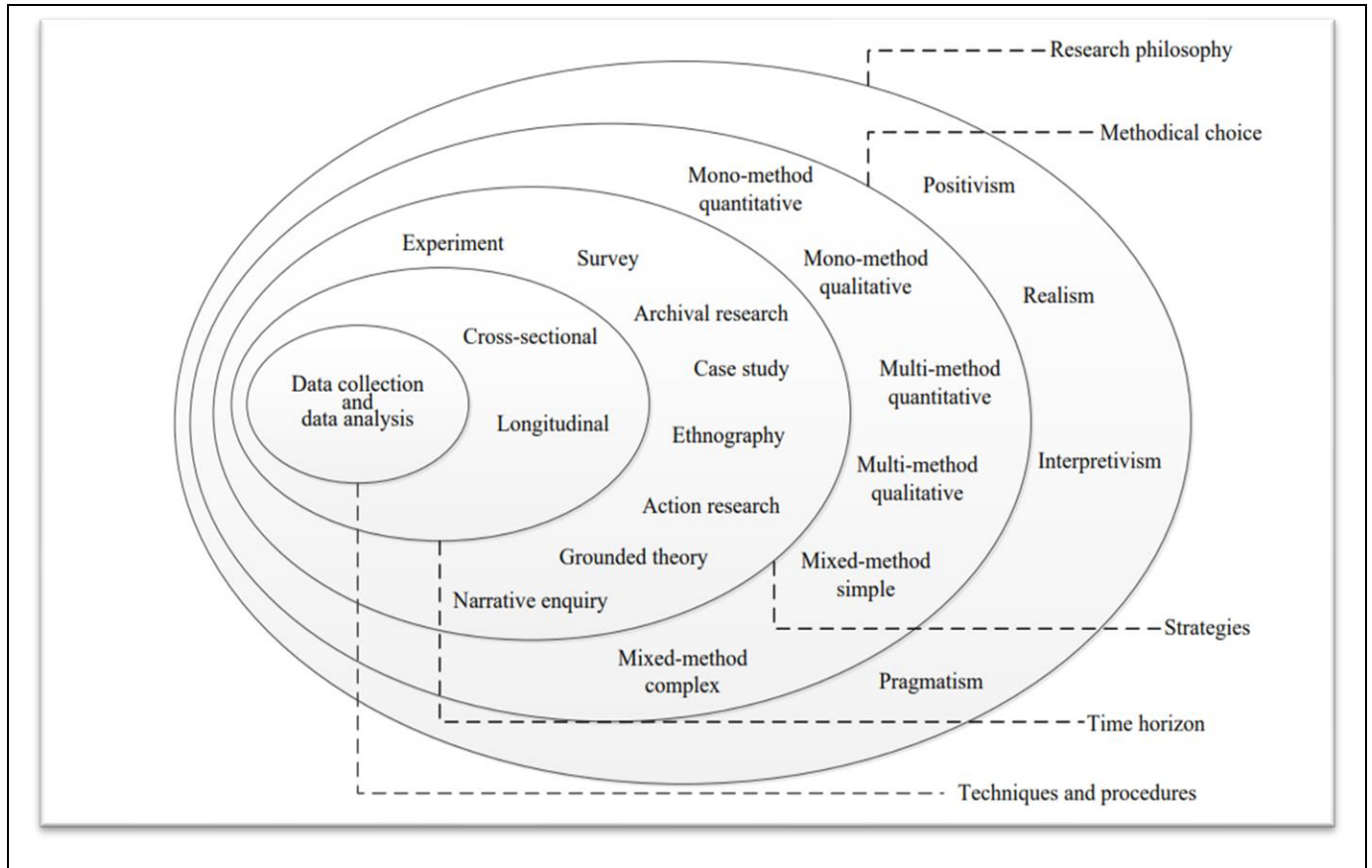


Figure 4.1: The research onion

Source: Saunders and Tosey (2013)

The decisions taken concerning the research philosophy, methodical choice, strategies, and time horizons enabled the narrowing down of the context and boundaries of this study to the selected data collection techniques and data analysis strategies that underpin this research. These layers are discussed next.

4.2.1 Research philosophy (research onion layer one)

Research philosophy is the first stage in a research process (Saunders et al., 2016). A research philosophy refers to beliefs concerning the nature of the reality being examined (Bilau, Witt & Lil, 2018). Research philosophy helps to determine the appropriate method by which research can be conducted (Bilau et al.

2018). As depicted in Figure 4.1 above, several research philosophies that one can adopt include positivism, realism, interpretivism, and pragmatism.

Newman (1998) states that positivism assumes that reality exists independently of the thing being studied, meaning that phenomena are consistent between subjects. In addition, Bilau et al. (2018) explain that the positivist research philosophy indicates that there is ultimately a single objective reality to any research regardless of the view of the researcher hence it takes the ontological assumption that the reality is external and objective in nature. Positivism is concerned with the discovery of law generalisations. The main goal of a positivist view is to enable recurrence and the methods used in positivism are therefore highly structured (Bilau et al., 2018). Furthermore, through a positivist philosophy, evidence can be interpreted as quantitative and measurable, enabling the researcher to determine clear cause and effect relations between variables through scientific methods (Saunders et al., 2016). Therefore, when using the positivism view, the focus is on the objective rather than subjective methods.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2012) say that one philosophy is not inherently better than another, although researchers may prefer to adopt one over the other. The chosen philosophy in a study essentially justifies the research methodology. The methodology needs to be informed by the nature of the observed phenomena. In line with this study, the positivist philosophical standpoint was adopted. The reason for selecting a positivism philosophical viewpoint is that the study aims to statistically test the hypotheses put forward (see Chapter 3). Further, constructs of interest in the study can be objectively measured using scales adapted from prior studies; for example, Cheng et al. (2021); Chow et al. (2019); Konuk (2019); Yu, Luo & Zhu (2018); Park et al. (2016); Fatimah et al. (2011); Ladhar et al. (2008).

The next stage in respect of the research onion principle entails the researcher's research approaches to undertake in the study

4.2.2 Approach to theory development

Approach to theory development refers to the type of reasoning adopted in a study. Saunders et al. (2016) highlight two main approaches to the reasoning for research: deductive and inductive (see Figure 4.2) The differences between the two approaches are explained further and diagrammatically illustrated as shown in Figure 4.2

4.2.2.1 Approaches to theory development

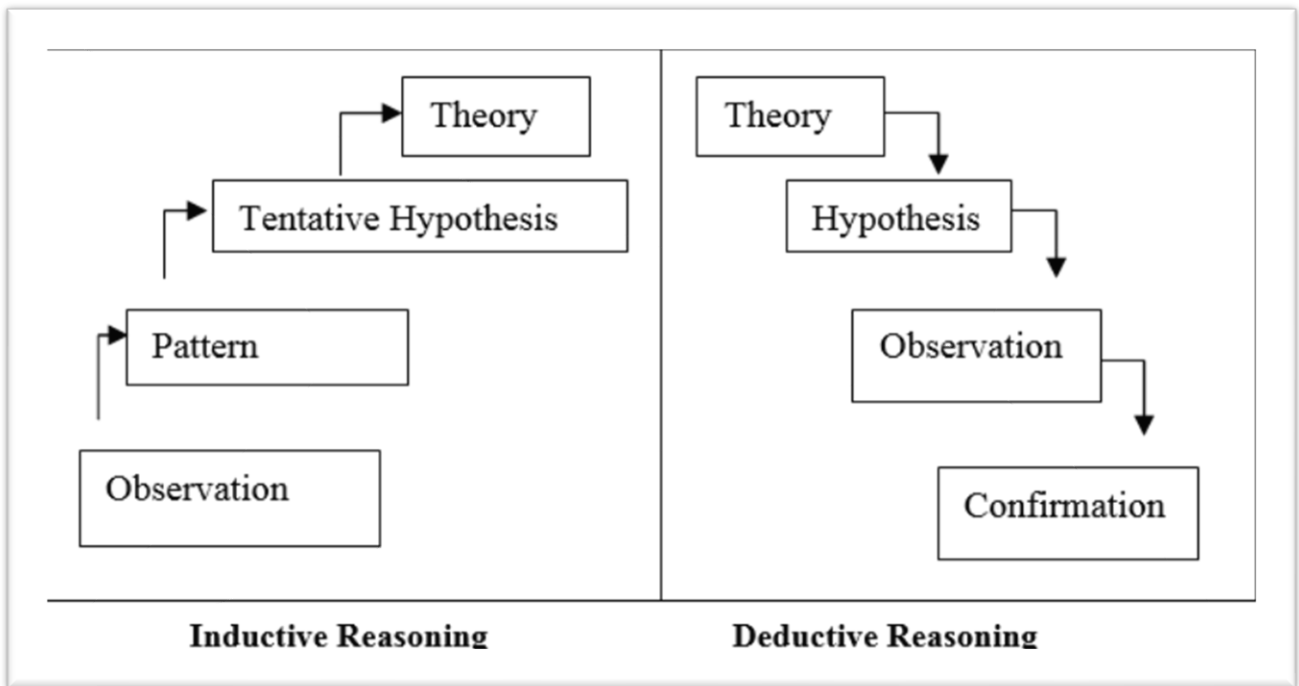


Figure 4.2: Deductive and inductive research approach

Source: Adopted from Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, (2016)

According to Walliman (2011), deductive reasoning starts with the formation of generalised statements (hypothesis statements), based on existing theory, whereby the use of a logical argument allows for specific conclusions to be developed, hence either confirming or rejecting the premise of the study. In addition, a deductive research approach is mainly associated with the positivist research philosophy. In contrast, an inductive approach allows the researcher to create a theory rather than adopting a pre-existing one as in deductive research (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The inductive approach has no framework that initially informs the data collection, and the framework can be formed after the data has been collected (Flick, 2011).

Based on the above research approach discussion, this study uses the deductive research approach. The rationale of this choice is that deductive research is best suited to contexts where the research is focused on examining whether the observed phenomena fit with expectation(s) based upon previous research (Wiles, Crow & Pain, 2011). Since a deductive approach is considered particularly suited to the positivist approach, it permits the formulation of hypotheses and the statistical testing of expected results to an acceptable level of probability (Walliman, 2011). It is, therefore, best suited for this study.

The following step or layer in the research onion principle signifies the research choices to be selected by the researcher

4.2.3 Methodical choice

As depicted in Figure 4.1, research choices are the fourth layer and require decisions when researching whether to opt for a mono, multi- or mixed method (Saunders et al., 2007). The first research choice is the **mono method** which requires the researcher to gather one type of information using either qualitative or quantitative methodology without combining the two (Flick, 2011). The second method is the **multi method**, the same as mixed method in the sense that the two both make use of quantitative and qualitative methodology in their study, the difference is that mixed method combines methodology to establish a particular set of data, whereas multi-method does not (Flick, 2011). Lastly, the **mixed method** permits a researcher to combine both qualitative and quantitative methodology to create a precise data set. Multi-method is used where the research is divided into several segments; with each producing a specific data set, while mixed method combines several methods to create a single dataset. (Flick, 2011). This study adopted the use of the mono-method in the form of quantitative measures to answer the research problem.

The next sub-section discusses the differences between quantitative and qualitative research for better understanding of the choice of quantitative measures for this study.

4.2.3.1 Quantitative versus qualitative research

Two main approaches can be followed when conducting research, qualitative and quantitative (Vijayalakshmi & Sivapragasam, 2008). Malhotra (2019) explains, in short, that qualitative research provides insights and understanding of the problem setting, while quantitative research seeks to quantify the data and, typically, applies some form of statistical analysis. Furthermore, Malhotra (2019) defines qualitative research as an unstructured, exploratory research methodology, based on small samples that provides insights and understanding of the problem setting. In addition, quantitative research is a research methodology that seeks to quantify the data and applies some form of statistical analysis. James (2015) points out that quantitative research breaks down data into numbers and is useful for larger populations; this methodology is very specific and uses well-defined variables. Alternatively, qualitative research focuses on aspects of reality as subjective and does not follow any fixed steps as the steps tend to evolve throughout the research process (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). Moreover, qualitative research emphasises the theoretical elements as empirical evidence compared to numbers in quantitative studies

(Malhotra, 2007); thus, qualitative research is mostly interested in gaining a better understanding of respondents' perceptions. Table 4.2 below indicates some common differences between quantitative and qualitative research approaches for additional differences in the two commonly used approaches.

Table 4.1: Comparison of quantitative and qualitative research approaches

Basis for Comparison	Qualitative Research	Quantitative Research
Qualitative		
Meaning	Qualitative research is a method of inquiry that develops understanding on human and social sciences, to find the way people think and feel.	Quantitative research is a research method that is used to generate numerical data and hard facts, by employing statistical, logical, and mathematical techniques
Nature	Holistic	Particularistic
Approach	Subjective	Objective
Research type	Exploratory	Conclusive
Reasoning	Inductive	Deductive
Sampling	Purposive	
Data	Verbal	Measurable
Inquiry	Process-oriented	Result-oriented
Hypothesis	Generated	Tested
Elements of analysis	Words, pictures, and objects	Numerical data
Objective	To explore and discover ideas used in the ongoing processes	To examine cause and effect relationship between variables.
Methods	Non-structured techniques like In-depth interviews, group discussions, etc.	Structured techniques such as surveys, questionnaires, and observations.
results	Develops initial understanding	Recommends final course of action

Source: Adapted from Ahmad, Wasim, Irfan, et al. (2019)

Quantitative research attempts to test theory, whereas qualitative research attempts to build theory (Hackett, 2019). Hence, quantitative approach is deemed appropriate for this study, as the stated

hypotheses (chapter 3) based on literature are tested. In addition, quantitative research focuses on research goals that are typically deductive, objective and general (Morgan, 2017). Moreover, quantitative research can answer scientific questions and formulate theory or verify if the hypothesis is true or not (Håkansson, 2013), hence quantitative methodology was appropriate for this research study.

4.2.4 Research strategies

Research strategy resembles the third layer in the research onion principle. The research strategy answers “how” the researcher intends to carry out the study (Saunders et al., 2016). The number of tested research strategies or design frames available can be included in a case study, surveys, action research, experiment, ethnography (Saunders et al., 2016). Sekaran and Bougie (2016) state that a research strategy will help you meet your research objective(s) and answer your study's research questions. Håkansson (2013) posits that research strategies are the guidelines for carrying out research, including planning, organising, designing, and conducting research. According to Bryman (2016), research strategy refers to a general orientation to the conduct of social research. Maziriri (2018) states that the election of a particular strategy relies heavily on the objectives of study, research questions employed, the degree of accessible information, available resources, as well as the philosophical foundation. Table 4.3 presents features of different research strategies.

Table 4.2: Features of different research Strategies

Research strategy	Description	Advantages	Disadvantages
Survey	<p>The survey design is a very popular strategy in any research type, it also allows a researcher to collect both quantitative and qualitative data on any type of research question. The survey includes:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Data collection 2. Designing the study 3. Prepare reliable and valid research instrument. 4. Administer survey 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Surveys are one-time. • The questions can be arranged into self-administered questionnaires • Other survey instruments like interviews can be used. • Surveys can be used on both probability and non-probability sampling. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Surveys lacks the in-depth investigation of a case study approach. • The researcher cannot ask follow-up questions on anonymous questionnaire.

	<p>5. Managing and analysing survey data.</p> <p>6. Report the results</p> <p>Surveys can be taken of an entire population, all students at a specific given college, that sample will be called census.</p>		
Experimental research	<p>Experimental research uses a larger sample size than case study. The strategy investigates the causes and effects of relationships. The theory needs to be developed first. Experimental strategy excludes all the factors that may influence an outcome in a particular way, then the researcher makes detailed observations of the outcome and notes the factors that when removed or introduced causes changes.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experimental research gives more answers to many questions than surveys and case studies. • Experiments are the only research strategy that can show evidence of casual relationships. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experiments are repeated as many times as possible. • Participants might change their behaviour along the process of research • Have difficulty in controlling all the necessary variables. • It is very difficult to recruit a required representative sample of participants
Ethnography	<p>Ethnography is a research strategy that has been developed for the study of different cultures and cultural sense making. It starts with general interest in a community or group of people or practical problems. Ethnography allows researchers to immerse themselves in a culture the research about so that they can understand it, depending on nature of the project.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It focuses on learning new information about human relationships. • Ethnography results in understanding of some aspects of a culture in great depth. • Ethnographer can combine formal and informal data collection techniques like interviewing or participant observation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The research takes a long time or after a year or more, which is a long period. • Conclusion of Ethnographers is always different.

Case study	A case study is a thorough investigation of a particular entity in order to generate knowledge. Case study tells a story in detail. Case studies are used to generate theories in the form of grounded theories, which arose from itself.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It requires a combination of multiple data-gathering techniques. • Both quantitative and qualitative data can be used to construct a case. • Hypothesis can be developed. • Researchers concentrate heavily on only handful participants (may be few as 3 or 4 to 5) • Case studies are suitable for theory testing and building. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is not useful when the research must be delivered within a short time frame. • The alternative hypothesis developed in most cases lacks support. • Researcher can interview few participants although interview can take more than 100 hours. • Researcher cannot change team's behaviour even if there is a need.
Action research	Action research stems from pragmatism philosophy, but it is also compatible with other philosophies like constructionist principles. In action research, the researcher is deeply involved and collaborates with participants and other researchers in the same field. Action research does not prefer any type of data collection method, although it allows a researcher to adopt multiple ways to gather data.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It helps to produce practical solutions to business problems. • It gives a researcher the opportunity to invent or bring changes to research. • Improves the way people solves problems. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Action research does not prescribe methods of data gathering or techniques of analysis to the researcher. • Positivist researchers do not recommend action research.

Sources: Adapted from Håkansson (2013); Sekaran and Bougie (2016); Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016)

A survey is a technique in which participants are questioned and their responses recorded for statistical analysis purposes (Gaiser & Schreiner, 2009). This study uses a survey strategy, considering that the earlier discussion highlighted the adoption of a positivist philosophical viewpoint. Surveys tend to be adopted in

quantitative research and involve sampling a representative population (Bryman & Bell, 2011) which the current study uses. Surveys are mostly used to examine causal variable relationships between different types of data or information. Therefore, from the types of strategy approaches mentioned, it can be justified that the most used strategy approach when a positivist philosophy is considered, is the survey strategy (Pang, 2021; Park, 2020).

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016), a survey research strategy requires a well-structured questionnaire. Moreover, Malhotra (2019) mentions that the various methods of administering a questionnaire can be through telephone, personal, mail or electronic. This study adopted electronic means since it is more convenient and ideal in the current Covid-19 pandemic conditions. Thus, abiding by the national Covid-19 protocols and reaching the targeted respondents using Schadré Consulting, the assigned consultancy firm responsible for distributing the online questionnaire.

Since it has been established that the study follows a quantitative research approach, a time frame for the research must be provided. Due to several factors, including that of scarce resources, research needs a time frame that allows scarce resources available for research to be completed in a timeous manner, thus the research onion principle provides two-time horizons that are to be considered by the researcher and are discussed in the next sub-section.

4.2.5 Research time horizons

A time horizon is the fifth layer in the research onion. Bryman (2012) describes the time horizon as the required time for the completion of the project work. Moreover, Bryman (2016) identified two types of time horizons within the research onion: the cross-sectional and the longitudinal.

In a cross-sectional study, information is collected on a population at a single point of time (Håkansson, 2013). In addition, Kumar (2011) points out that in a cross-sectional study, the researcher decides what they want to study about and identifies the study population. On the other hand, in longitudinal studies, data is collected over a long time and used in situations where the same group is examined at different time intervals (Håkansson, 2013). The longitudinal study design is regarded as a sequence of repetitive cross-sectional studies (Kumar, 2012).

Considering both time horizons, the researcher opted for the cross-sectional time horizon. Another reason why the cross-sectional time horizon was adopted was due to lack of financial resources that are not

available to pursue a longitudinal time horizon study. Since a longitudinal study would require data collection repeatedly over an extended period, this was impossible with scarce resources.

Table 4.3: Monthly and yearly timeline of the study

Time Month and year	Activity
January 2019	Commenced proposal development
June 2020	First presentation in the business department
January 2021	Second presentation in the business departments
June 2021	Approval by the business department
June 2021-April 2022	Writing of chapters 2,3 & 4
May and July 2022	Ethical Clearance and approval
August 2022	Commenced with data collected and completed
September 2022	Cleaning of raw data
October 2022	Data Analysis
October and November 2022	Writing chapter results and recommendation

Source: Developed by the researcher (2022)

4.3 Data collection, analysis techniques, and procedures

4.3.1 Sampling design

According to Creswell and Poth (2017), the sampling process comprises four interrelated steps; defining the target population, identifying the sampling frame, determining the sampling method and the sampling size. Grafstrom (2010) explains that a sampling design should be simple to execute, efficient and appropriate. Lohr (2019) posits that it is almost impossible to have a perfect sample inclusive of every characteristic of the population, however, a good sample is ultimately a representation and is one in which the characteristics of interest can be projected from the sample with a recognised degree of accuracy. For the purpose of this study, the sampling design consisted of the target population, sampling frame, sampling technique and sample size. These components are discussed in the next sections.

4.3.1.1 Defining the target population

The target population in a survey is defined as the entire set of units for which the survey data are to be used to make inferences (Lohr, 2019). A target population relates to individuals and/objects that meet

the requirements for inclusion in the overall population group (Brown et al. 2018). Burns et al. (2017) attest that a researcher needs to be prudent when defining the population as it helps create a clear-cut description of the population group under investigation. On the other hand, Hartely (1998) denotes that the procedure for drawing a sample from a population ought to be both logical and statistically defensible. Bearing this in mind, a prescription by Churchill and Iacobucci (2010) stipulates that a target population must be defined in terms of elements, units, time, and geographic boundaries. Moreover, the research objectives, as well as the scope of the study, should be considered in defining the target population. In this vein, the target population for this study consisted of restaurant consumers in Bloemfontein from the following restaurants: Longhorn grill, New York restaurant, Avanti, Euro cafe, Braza, Ocean basket, Spur, Bella Casa, Nandos, Wimpy, McDonald's.

4.3.1.2 Sample Frame

Identifying a sampling frame is a systematic process that allows the researcher to select adequate sample elements (Bernard, 2002). This ensures that relevant information regarding a phenomenon of interest is obtained. In this respect, numerous scholars refer to a sample frame as “a list of all the population elements with which units are selected” (McDaniel & Gates 2013; Brown et al. 2018). Notably, Tustin et al. (2010) and Burns et al. (2017) concur that a sampling frame is a master source that researchers consult to identify all sample units of the entire population or universe. In this vein, Babin and Zikmund (2016) refer to the sampling frame as a working population. Lohr (2019) defines the sampling frame as a list, map or other specification of sampling units in the population from which a sample may be selected. This prescription evokes the need to identify and work with a physical list that is complete and correct, accurate and up to date (Wiid & Diggins 2015). Examples of sampling frames include, but are not limited to, telephone directories, lists of registered voters, lists of email addresses, research company databases, online newsgroup postings and customer lists (Denscombe, 2014).

In the absence of a comprehensive list, a researcher can either re-define the target group or compile a new sampling frame by drawing upon a combination of existing lists (Saunders et al., 2016). Nevertheless, neither of the two options was feasible in this study because there was no populated physical list of customers in the South African restaurant industry. Similar studies such as those conducted by Petzer and Mackay (2014) and Mashao, Maziriri and Chuchu (2020) confirm the lack of an existing list of customers in the South African restaurant industry. Ultimately, this study proceeded to consider a non-probability-based sampling procedure.

4.3.1.3 *Selecting the sampling procedure*

According to Malhotra et al. (2017), selecting a sampling technique involves either the Bayesian sampling approach, sampling with or without replacement or the use of non-probability and probability-based sampling. The scholars indicate that the Bayesian approach involves selecting population elements sequentially, by incorporating prior information regarding population parameters and accounting for the probabilities associated with making the wrong decisions. The Bayesian approach works effectively if the researcher possesses prior information regarding the population parameters. On the other hand, sampling with replacement entails including an element in the sample more than once while drawing out a sample, whereas sampling without replacement requires that the element be drawn out only once (Kumar 2014). Nonetheless, Shiu et al. (2009) denote that it is conventional practice among marketing researchers to choose between probability and non-probability-based sampling procedures because they incorporate a high degree of accuracy while accounting for the available resources, as well as the scope of the study. Furthermore, marketing researchers prefer probability over non-probability sampling because it easily determines the choice of a sample size to be used in a study. According to Brown et al. (2018), probability sampling is concerned with a random component in how population elements are objectively selected, which means, while the chances of each member of the desired population group being investigated may, to some degree be unequal, every sample element has a chance of being part of the sample (Zikmund et al., 2013). This is because the population is known, and the population parameters are determinable from a finite sample frame (Denscombe, 2014). This means that in probability sampling, sample elements are drawn based on a known likelihood of estimation. In contrast, researchers can evoke statistical analysis measures, such as significance tests and confidence intervals, thereby minimising the occurrence of sampling error (Hair et al., 2013). While applying non-probability sampling techniques, a researcher utilises methods whereby there is an unknown probability in selecting sampling elements (Ang, 2014). This is because the methods used in non-probability sampling are subjective, owing to intrusion from the researcher's personal judgement (Tustin et al., 2010). Nonetheless, non-probability-based sampling procedures are pragmatic solely because they address a specific research purpose. They include, but are not limited to, convenience, quota, judgemental and snowball sampling (Babin & Zikmund, 2016).

Due to an absence of an appropriate sampling frame, this study was confined to a non-probability sampling technique, primarily a convenience sampling technique. Saunders, Philip and Thornhill (2015) define convenience sampling as a method that encourages data to be collected from the first available data point. The research used a sample of restaurant consumers who purchase from Longhorn grill, New

York restaurant, Avanti, Euro caffe, Braza, Ocean basket, Spur, Bella Casa, Nandos, Wimpy, McDonald's. Moreover, the current study adopted the convenience sampling method because respondents were found in the nearest and most convenient location (Bell et al. ,2018) and allows for voluntary participants. It is also the easiest and cheapest recruitment method and the least time consuming (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

4.3.1.4 Determining the sample size

McDaniel and Gates (2013) state that a sample size is the number of sample elements that account for inclusion in a study. Sample size refers to the number of respondents that make up the sample from which data are to be collected (Lohr, 2019). In addition, Bell et al. (2018) argue that it is vital for researchers to consider the sample size of their studies and that a large enough sample is required to ensure statistically significant results and efficient use of research resources. The larger the sample size, the more representative it is of that population.

While determination of an appropriate sample size is often an intricate step for many scholars, Burns et al. (2017) emphasise the consideration of practically feasible aspects about the research. This means that sample size decisions should pertain to the significance of the study and the parameters of the population (Brown et al., 2018). In this study, statistical sample size calculations could not be made due to the absence of a finite population size, determinable from a sampling frame. Instead, the historical evidence method was considered. Table 4.5 outlines the work of previous scholars who have investigated the behaviour of consumers within the restaurant environment in South Africa and their sample sizes.

Table 4.4: Historical evidence method

Authors' surname and initials	Year	Title	Sample size used
Moolman, H.J.	2011	Restaurant customer satisfaction and return patronage in a Bloemfontein shopping mall.	590
Roberts-Lombard, M.	2009	Customer Retention Strategies of Fast-Food Outlets in South Africa: A Focus on Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC), Nando's, and Steers.	550
Murwira, T.S., Amosu, A.M. & Nemathaga, L.H.	2015	Assessment of food handler's compliance to personal hygiene practices in fast food outlets in Thohoyandou, South Africa	122

Mhlanga, O.	2018	Measuring restaurant service quality in East London, South Africa: a comparison of restaurant customer expectations and perceptions.	250
Mashao, M, P., Maziriri, E.T. & Chuchu, T	2020	Multisensory Dimensions Effect on Affective Attitudes, Restaurant Attachment and Positive Word of Mouth of Quick-Service Restaurants	270

Source: developed by the researcher

Therefore, deducing from the above table, the historical evidence approach has been used to determine the sample size for this research (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2010). The average sample size of 300 has been deemed adequate as it is consistent with other studies that have examined the behaviour of consumers within the restaurant environment.

4.4 Questionnaire design

For this study, a self-administered online questionnaire was used to collect the necessary data. The employed measurement instrument consisted of eight sections, seven of which involve measuring each of the seven constructs respectively. Section A of the measurement instrument consisted of questions about the respondents' demographic profile. Section B-N consisted of questions pertaining to the research variables under investigation; tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, empathy, assurance, personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment and surfaces, restroom cleanliness, customer satisfaction, restaurant attachment, willingness to pay a price premium, positive word of mouth and return patronage intention. As with any empirical work, it is important to consider how the proposed variables should be measured. Hence, measurement scales were operationalised from previous studies. The questions were all assessed on a five-point Likert scale (rating scale) to measure participants' responses which were anchored by 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree/neutral, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree.

The next table 4.6 depicts each variable's scales, items, and reliability values. Proper modification was made for the questions to suit the context of the current study.

Table 4.5: Variable's scales, items and reliability values

Construct, scale item		SOURCES: Adapted from	Cronbach's alpha
Tangibility (T)-6 Items			
T1	Restaurant has a visually attractive parking area and building exterior.	Cheng, Y.S., Kuo, N.T., Chang, K.C., & Wu, H.T. (2021); Ladhari, R., Brun, I., & Morales, M. (2008).	0.886
T2	Restaurant has a visually attractive dining area.		
T3	Restaurant has staff members who are clean, neat, and appropriately dressed.		
T4	Restaurant has a decor in keeping with its image and price range.		
T5	Restaurant has a visually attractive menu that reflects the restaurant's image.		
T6	Restaurant has dining areas and restrooms that are thoroughly clean.		
Reliability (R)- 4 Items			
R1	Restaurant serves me in the time promised.	Cheng, Y.S., Kuo, N.T., Chang, K.C., & Wu, H.T. (2021); Ladhari, R., Brun, I., & Morales, M. (2008).	0.756
R2	Restaurant quickly corrects anything that is wrong.		
R3	Restaurant serves me food exactly as I ordered it.		
R4	Restaurant provides me with an accurate bill.		
Responsiveness (RESP)- 4 Items			
RESP1	Restaurant gives extra effort to handle my special requests.	Cheng, Y.S., Kuo, N.T., Chang, K.C., & Wu, H.T. (2021); Ladhari, R., Brun, I., & Morales, M. (2008).	0.770
RESP2	Restaurant provides prompt and quick service		
RESP3	Restaurant during busy times has employees shift to help each other maintain speed and quality of service.		

RESP4	Restaurant is dependable and consistent		
Empathy (EMP) 5 Items			
EMP1	Restaurant has employees who are sensitive to my individual needs and wants, rather than always relying on policies and procedures.	Cheng, Y.S., Kuo, N.T., Chang, K.C., & Wu, H.T. (2021); Ladhari, R., Brun, I., & Morales, M. (2008).	0.899
EMP2	Restaurant makes me feel special		
EMP3	Restaurant anticipates my individual needs and wants.		
EMP4	Restaurant has employees who are sympathetic and reassuring if something goes wrong.		
EMP5	Restaurant seems to have my best interests at heart.		
Assurance (ASS)-5 Items			
ASSU1	Restaurant has employees who can answer my questions completely.	Cheng, Y.S., Kuo, N.T., Chang, K.C., & Wu, H.T. (2021); Ladhari, R., Brun, I., & Morales, M. (2008).	0.899
ASSU2	Restaurant makes me feel comfortable and confident in my dealings with them.		
ASSU3	Restaurant has personnel who are both able and willing to give me information about menu items, their ingredients, and methods of preparation.		
ASSU4	Restaurant has personnel who seem well trained, competent, and experienced.		
ASSU5	Restaurant makes me feel comfortable.		
Personal hygiene (PH)- 4 Items			
PH1	The work staff wear proper attire (e.g., wear apron, gloves, covered hair).	Park, H., Almanza, B.A., Miao, L., Sydnor, S. & Jang, S. (2016); Kibret, M., & Abera, B. (2012).	0.838
PH2	The work staff appearance and uniform are neat and clean.		
PH3	The work staff demonstrate high standard of personal hygiene (e.g., no coughing or sneezing onto food or hands and then touching food, no biting nail, etc.).		

PH4	The work staff keep short and clean fingernails.		
Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces (CES)- 4 Items			
CES1	The tableware (e.g., glasses, plates, and cutlery) provided are clean.	Fatimah, U. Z. A. U., Boo, H. C., Sambasivan, M., & Salleh, R. (2011).	0.839
CES2	The equipment/utensils for preparing/serving food are clean.		
CES3	The service area and any surface in the restaurant are clean (e.g. floor, tables, counters).		
Cleanliness of restrooms (CR)- 7 Items			
CR1	Toilets and urinals are well maintained and clean.	Park, H., Almanza, B.A., Miao, L., Sydnor, S. & Jang, S. (2016)	0.914
CR2	Trash bins are available and not full.		
CR3	The floor is clean.		
CR4	Hot water, towels, toilet paper and soap are available.		
CR5	Walls are well maintained and clean.		
CR6	The sink, mirror, and counter are clean.		
CR7	There is no evidence of insects/rodents		
Customer Satisfaction (CS)- 5 Items			
CS1	I am pleased with my decision to dine in this restaurant	Chow, L.S, Krishnapillai, G., & Lee, C. Y. (2019).	0.930
CS2	Based on all my experiences with this restaurant, I am satisfied		
CS3	The restaurant assures cleanliness for the services offered		
CS4	I have enjoyed dining at this restaurant		
CS5	The overall feeling that I get from this restaurant is positive		
Restaurant attachment (RA)- 4 Items			
RA1	I identify strongly with this restaurant.	Jang, Kim, & Lee (2015).	0.930
RA2	I feel this restaurant is a part of me		
RA3	Visiting the restaurant says a lot about who I am.		

RA4	I am very attached to the restaurant.		
RA5	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this restaurant.		
RA6	This restaurant means a lot to me.		
Willingness to pay a price premium (WPPP)- 3 Items			
WPPP1	I would remain with this restaurant if the price had suddenly increased by 10 to 15 percent.	Dwivedia,	0.753
WPPP2	If the price of the service of this restaurant were somewhat increased, I would continue to frequent, nevertheless.	Nayeema, Murshe (2018); Bahri- Ammari, Van Niekerk, Ben- Khelil & Chtioui, (2016).	
WPPP3	I am ready to pay a little more expensive for this restaurant		
Return patronage intention (RPI)-3 items			
RPI1	The likelihood of eating at the same restaurant is high	Yu, Luo & Zhu (2018).	0.889
RPI2	The probability that I would consider eating at same the restaurant is high.		
RPI3	My willingness to eat at the same restaurant is high.		
Positive word of mouth (PWM)- 4 Items			
PWM1	I have told others about this restaurant	Konuk (2019);	0.960
PWM2	I would recommend the restaurant to others	Line, Hanks & Kim	
PWM3	I am willing to inform others if they ask me about the restaurant	(2018).	

Source: Developed by the researcher

4.5 Data collection process

Data collection methods refer to how data is gathered for a research project (Lohr, 2019). The data collection method that was used in this current study is a survey. Survey is a research strategy which involves the structured collection of data from a sizeable population, and this may take the form of questionnaires, structured observations, and structured interviews (Lohr, 2019) and because surveys are so widespread, people find it easy to understand and place a good deal of faith in the results which flow

from surveys. Schadré Consulting was contracted by the researcher to objectively assist in the collection of data to increase the generalisability of the results. The current study made use of a self-administered online survey to collect data through the assistance of Schadré Consulting, a reputable research company in South Arica with an exceptional record enabling good research fundamentals. An online-based survey was distributed to a convenience sample of restaurant customers in Bloemfontein.

4.6 Data preparation

The crucial part of a successful data analysis is data preparation, which prepares data for analysis. Sekaran and Bougie (2016) point out that after data are obtained through questionnaires, they need to be coded, keyed in, and edited. Malhotra (2019) states that the first step is checking for acceptable questionnaires, then editing, coding, and transcribing the data. A discussion of these aspects is explained briefly hereafter.

4.6.1 Data editing

Sekaran and Bougie (2016) maintain that data editing deals with detecting and correcting illogical, inconsistent, or illegal data and omissions in the information returned by the participants of the study. According to Malhotra (2019) the objective of editing is to review the questionnaire to increase accuracy and precision. It consists of screening questionnaires to identify illegible, incomplete, inconsistent, or ambiguous responses. In this study, the minimum quality standards imposed included discarding questionnaires where more than 10 percent of the responses were missing, and those with ambiguous responses such as two or more responses to questions that required a single response.

4.6.2 Data coding

Data coding is defined as assigning a code, usually a number, to the various responses to a question (Malhotra, 2019; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). According to Churchill and Brown (2007), coding is regarded as the technical procedure by which raw data are transformed into symbols and it involves specifying the alternative categories or classes into which the responses are to be placed and assigning code numbers to the class. For this study, a code book was prepared to successfully enter the information from the research questionnaire into the format that SPSS could understand. In this process, the researcher defined and labelled each of the research variables such as Restaurant customers' demographic profile, service quality, personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment, cleanliness of surfaces, restroom cleanliness, customer satisfaction, restaurant attachment, willingness to pay a price premium, return patronage

intention and positive word of mouth and assigned identification numbers to each of the possible responses. Table 4.7 shows an example of a code book for this study.

Table 4.6: Example of a code book

Variable	SPSS Variable name	Coding Instructions
Identification number	ID	The number assigned to each survey
1. Please indicate your occupation	A3	1. Employed 2. Self-employed 3. Student
2. Please indicate your gender	A2	1. Male 2. Female 3. Prefer not to say
Service quality	SQ	1= strongly disagree
Personal hygiene	PH	2 = disagree
Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces	CES	3 = neutral
Cleanliness of restrooms	CR	4 = agree
Customer satisfaction	CS	5 = strongly agree
Restaurant attachment	RA	
Willingness to pay a price premium	WPPP	
Return patronage intention	RPI	
Positive word of mouth	PWM	

Source: Developed by the researcher

4.6.3 Data capturing

Malhotra (2019) defines data capturing as a method of transferring coded information from the questionnaires, or coding sheets, directly into the computer by keypunching. In this study, the researcher, using the Microsoft Excel programme, performed data capturing whereby data was entered directly from the questionnaires with the use of a personal computer and then the results fed into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The captured data was then imported into SPSS and Smart-pls for data analysis purposes.

4.6.4 Data cleaning

Fourie (2015) states that the cleaning process consists of dealing with values that fall outside of a scale code and data that was left out. Data cleaning was done by using wild code checks to detect codes that are not defined for a particular variable, including extreme cases for responses to a variable that is far from ordinary. For example, a six used instead of a five on the Likert scale may have been entered on MS Excel.

4.7 Data analysis

Data analysis tests the goodness of the data and the hypotheses developed for the research by using descriptive statistics, reliability test, and others suitable for data analysis. Williman (2005) explains that data analysis and evaluation steps are carried out in relation to the research problem because analysing data unrelated to the research aim is a waste of time. Once the data was collected, the researcher organised, and coded the data to be analysed. A Microsoft Excel spreadsheet was used to enter all the data and to make inferences from the data obtained, and the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26 and the Smart-PLS version 4 were used to run the statistical analyses. Additionally, these statistical packages were used for testing and confirming relationships among hypothesised variables.

4.7.1 Descriptive statistics

Babbie (2010) and Babbie and Mouton (2010) define descriptive statistics as the statistical computation used to summarise and describe the sample's characteristics or the relationship between sample variables. Wilson (2010) posits that descriptive statistics describe and summarise data, while inferential statistics are used to make inferences in relation to a wider population. According to Zikmund, Babin, Carr, and Griffin (2013), descriptive statistics are techniques that help to state the characteristics or appearance of sample data. O'Leary (2010) adds that the main goal of using descriptive statistics is to describe and summarise the characteristics of a sample. Descriptive statistics for research purposes include variation measures (standard deviation, range), portions (percentages), counts (numbers, frequencies), and central tendency (median, mean, and mode) (Fink, 2006). This study adopted some of these measures to gain an overall understanding of the raw data and to enable the data to be presented using tables and figures. The various measures of distribution are described in the next section.

4.7.1.1 Measures of central location

Manikandan (2011) defines central location or central tendency as the statistical measure that identifies a single value as representative of an entire distribution. Moreover, central location aims to provide an accurate description of the data and is a numerical value that most represents the collected data (Manikandan, 2011). The mean, median, quartiles and mode are the commonly used measures of central tendency. The mean is the most used measure of central tendency. In this study, the mean or arithmetic was employed as the measurement of location. This statistical measure is explained as follows:

Arithmetic mean: The mean, or average of a set, is a measure of central tendency (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). According to Jankowski and Flannelly (2015), the mean considers all the information available in the data; the number of observations and the value of each observation. Manikandan (2011) notes that the arithmetic mean (or, simply, “mean”) is nothing but the average and it is computed by adding all the values in the data set divided by the number of observations in it. The following formula is presented to calculate the arithmetic mean value, as given by Manikandan (2011).

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

Where:

x_i = Individual observations
n = Sample size
\bar{x} = Sample mean
Σ = summation symbol meaning add up

4.7.1.2 Dispersion of variability

According to Manikandan (2011), a measure of dispersion known as variability, scatter, or spread is a statistic that indicates the degree of data variability or the differences between the variables in a data set. Commonly used measures of dispersion include range, interquartile range, variance, standard deviation,

and coefficient of variation (Franzese & Iuliano, 2019). In this study, the standard deviation was used as the measure of dispersion.

Standard deviation: standard deviation (SD) measures the average distance of the distribution values from the mean scores obtained from collected data. Standard deviation offers an index of the distribution spread or the data's variability (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). It is a very commonly used measure of dispersion and is simply the square root of the variance (Zikmund & Babin, 2013). McDaniel and Gates (2007) present the following formula to determine the standard deviation:

$$S = \sqrt{s^2}$$

Where:

$s^2 = \text{Variance}$

4.7.1.3 Frequency distribution

Walliman (2011) explains that frequency distribution allows researchers to graphically or statistically summarise large data sets, structured either in the form of graphs or tables where both distributions showcase two main elements: the first being the set of instruments that are used in the original measurement scale and the second being the number of individuals (record of frequency) per instrument. According to Zikmund (2003), frequency distribution is essentially the organisation of raw data in tabular form allowing the reader to make comparisons, determine the nature of distribution, and indicate average and spread. In a similar vein, Manikandan (2011) asserts that frequency distribution presents a picture of how the individual observations are distributed in the measurement scale. For instance, Gravetter and Wallnau (2007) explain that if for example, the highest score is $X=10$, the frequency distribution groups together all the 10s, then all the 9s, then the 8s, and so on. Thus, a frequency distribution allows the researcher to have a picture of the entire set of scores. This study employs charts and graphs to present the data and indicates frequency distribution.

4.8 Reliability

Quinlan (2011) explains reliability as the dependability of the research, to the degree to which the research can be repeated while obtaining consistent results. Tichaawa and Mhlanga (2015) define reliability as the extent to which test scores are accurate, consistent, or stable, thus it is used to examine the degree of error in order to obtain a more consistent result. Furthermore, Rubin and Babbie (2011) point out that reliability is a matter of whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object, would yield the same result each time. The main purpose of reliability is to provide consistent results and to minimise errors and bias (Hammond & Wellington, 2012). There are various general forms or classes of reliability estimates and these are summarised in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Forms of reliability and how they are administered

Stability of measures	Internal consistency of measures
<p>Test-retest reliability: The reliability coefficient obtained by repetition of the same measure on a second occasion under as nearly equivalent conditions as possible</p> <p>Parallel-form reliability: When responses on two comparable sets of measures tapping the same construct are highly correlated. Both forms have similar items and the same response format, the only changes being the wording and the order or sequence of the questions. What we try to establish here is the error variability resulting from the wording and order of the questions</p>	<p>Split-half reliability: a form of internal consistency reliability in which the items constituting the scale are divided into two halves and the resulting half scores are correlated.</p> <p>Cronbach's alpha: a measure of internal consistency reliability that is the average of all possible split-half coefficients resulting from the different splitting of the scale items.</p> <p>Inter-rater reliability: measures homogeneity, which involves administering the same form to the same people by two or more interviewers so as to establish the extent of consensus on the use of the instrument</p>

Source: Sekaran and Bougie (2016) and Garson (2007)

Reliability measures employed in this study were examined by computation of two different methods, namely, Cronbach's alpha reliability test and the composite reliability (CR) test. These research measures are discussed and described hereafter:

4.8.1 Cronbach's alpha reliability test

The Cronbach's alpha was developed by Lee Cronbach in 1951 to measure the internal consistency of a test or scale and is expressed as a number between 0 and 1 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Cronbach's Alpha is computed through a reliability test whereby it is an index that indicates the internal reliability of each variable. In this study, Cronbach alpha testing was adopted as the measure of internal consistency for the measurement scale and was used with a coefficient value of 0.7 as a cut-off point (Pietersen & Maree 2007). The higher the coefficients, the better the measuring instrument (Sekaran & Bougie 2016). Table 4.9 below presents commonly used guidelines in assessing the reliability of constructs.

Table 4.8: Cronbach’s alpha (α) interpretation and values

Cronbach’s alpha	Internal consistency “Reliability”
$\alpha \geq 0.9$	Excellent
$0.9 > \alpha \geq 0.8$	Good
$0.8 > \alpha \geq 0.7$	Acceptable
$0.7 > \alpha \geq 0.6$	Questionable
$0.6 > \alpha \geq 0.5$	Poor
$\alpha < 0.5$	Unacceptable

Source: Tavakol and Dennick (2011)

4.8.1.1 Composite reliability (CR) test

One of the measures of internal reliability is the composite reliability coefficient. Mkhathshwa (2015) states that composite reliability provides a robust measure of reliability by considering the contribution of each latent factor to each item and each item’s error. Interpreted the same as Cronbach alpha, Malhotra (2010) suggests that “the minimum accepted CR values should be 0.70, that is, values between the range of 0.70 and 0.90 can be accepted and deemed satisfactory. In contrast, values above 0.90 are not to be acceptable because they mean that the indicator variables are most likely measuring the same phenomenon and thus lack validity in the measurement of the construct (Sarstedt & Cheah, 2019). Composite reliability is calculated as the square of the summation of the factor loadings divided by the sum of the square of the summation of the factor loadings and the summation of error variances (Bewick, Cheek & Ball 2004). According to Hair et al. (2017), CR values of 0.60 to 0.70 are acceptable in empirical studies, in more advanced stages of research, values between the range of 0.70 and 0.90 can be accepted and deemed satisfactory. The formula adopted in measuring CR is illustrated in the following manner:

$$CR\eta = (\sum\lambda_{yi})^2 / [(\sum\lambda_{yi})^2 + (\sum\epsilon_i)]$$

Where:

$CR\eta$ = Composite reliability

$(\sum\lambda_{yi})^2$ = Square the sum of the factor loadings $(\sum\epsilon_i)$ = Sum of error variances.

4.9 Validity

According to Burns and Bush (2010), validity is the extent to which a measure accurately and truthfully represents the characteristics being measured. Cooper and Schindler (2014) define validity as the central measure of quality of the measuring instruments in research, which determines the degree to which a questionnaire was able to measure what it was intended to measure. In addition, Babbie (2010) explains validity as “the extent to which empirical measurement adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under study”. In this study, the scale was tested for convergent and discriminant validity as follows:

4.9.1 Convergent validity

Convergent validity is the extent to which a scale correlates positively and is related to the high association between constructs (Malhotra, 2010). According to Sireci and Sukin (2013), convergent validity refers to how well a test score converges with other variables based on what would be expected from theory. According to Hair et al. (2017), for adequate convergent validity to test the measurement model for discriminant validity, (1) the outer loading for each item should exceed 0.7 and be statistically significant, and (2) the average variance extracted (AVE) of the constructs should exceed 0.5.

Malhotra (2010) defines the AVE test as the variance in the indicators or observed variables that are explained by the latent construct. The Average variance extracted (AVE) test is also used to measure the validity and consistency of data in research. The current study used AVE to confirm convergent validity. Hair et al. (2017) posit that an AVE of 0.50 or higher indicates that the construct explains more than half the variance of the indicators, while an AVE that reveals less than 0.50 indicates that more variances exist in the error of the items than in the variance explained by the construct. The formula used in measuring AVE is as follows:

$$AVE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^M l_i^2}{M}$$

Where:

l = standardised outer loading of the indicator variable i

M = the number of items

4.9.2 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity determines whether a scale does or does not adequately differentiate itself between groups that should or should not differ, based on theoretical reasons or previous research (Golafshani, 2003). It indicates how divergent the scores of a test are from other variables that assess different constructs (Sireci & Sukin, 2013). The current study assessed discriminant validity using the Fornell-Lacker criterion. Discriminant validity using the Fornell-Lacker criterion compares the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) with the correlation of latent constructs (Hair et al., 2014). A latent construct should explain better the variance of its own indicator rather than the variance of other latent constructs. Therefore, the square root of each construct's AVE should have a greater value than the correlations with other latent constructs (Hair et al., 2014). Furthermore, discriminant validity was tested using Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT ratio) as recommended by Hamid et al. (2017) and Hair et al. (2021). Evidence of discriminant validity is when there is a ratio of not more than 0.85 (Henseler et al., 2015b; Sujati & Akhyar, 2020). The formula for HTMT proposed by Rönkkö and Cho (2022) is represented in formula 4.7 below:

$$HTMT_{ij} = \frac{\overline{\sigma_{ij}}}{\sqrt{\overline{\sigma_i} \overline{\sigma_j}}}$$

Where:

$\overline{\sigma_i}$ and $\overline{\sigma_j}$ denote the average within scale item correlation

$\overline{\sigma_{ij}}$ denotes the average between scale item correlation for two scales i and j .

The next sub-section provides a discussion on the assessment of the structural model

4.10 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was employed in the current study to analyse data. Stein, Morris and Nock (2012) define structural equation modelling (SEM) as a multivariate statistical framework that is used to model complex relationships between directly and indirectly observed (latent) variables. Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2017) explain that SEM is a set of statistical methods used to estimate relationships between constructs and indicators, while accounting for measurement error. Stein et al. (2012) add that SEM is a general framework that involves concurrently solving systems of linear equations and encompasses other techniques, such as regression, factor analysis, path analysis, and latent growth curve modelling. According to Washington, Karlaftis and Mannering (2020), SEM's ability to address numerous modelling difficulties, the endogeneity among constructs and composite underlying data structures found in various phenomena can be assumed to be part of the reason for its popularity.

Additionally, Maziriri (2018) points out that one of the benefits of using SEM is that it verifies the causal relationship between observed variables and latent variables or between each latent variable as the most suitable analytical technique to verify the causal relationship set by the researcher. Moreover, Sarstedt, Ringle, Smith, Reams and Hair (2014) are of the view that SEM has the capabilities to address research questions related to intricate causal relationships between unobserved variables with empirical data.

In addition, Iriondo, Albert and Escudero (2003) explained that SEM provides support for examining and validating hypotheses of causal relationships due not only to its ability to model measurement error, but also to its ability to do away with bias and distortion. Furthermore, Nachtigall, Kroehne, Funke, and Steyer (2003) posit that SEM allows the analysis of latent variables and their relationships, thus offering the opportunity to analyse the dependencies of constructs without measurement errors. This study makes use of the PLS-SEM version 4, also known as variance-based SEM in testing the inner model. By testing the inner model, it can be ascertained whether to accept or reject the proposed hypotheses for the main effects and the mediation effects. PLS-SEM is a two-stage process, first, the outer model is assessed and then the inner model. The outer model evaluates construct validity, whereas the inner model focuses on the direct and indirect effects. The justification of using PLS-SEM is because researchers recommend it in studies that involve predictive circumstances and when cause-effect-relationship models that are complex exist (Hair et al., 2010). In addition, PLS-SEM is also deemed appropriate in instances in which data is not normally distributed (Groß, 2018). Moreover, it is less restrictive than other software in terms of sample size, distributional assumption, and model complexity (Sarstedt et al., 2012).

The following section provides a detailed assessment of the measurement model.

4.10.1 Measurement model

The measurement models describe the relationships between the latent variables (In essence, independent and dependent) and their measures (i.e., their indicators). Reisinger and Mavondo (2007) state that the measurement model's main purpose is to provide the overall fit of the factor model. On the other hand, Rahman and Kamarulzaman (2016) and Aliyua, Abubakar, Yakasaic and Garba (2018) state that the purpose of the measurement model is to evaluate the reliability and validity of variables.

The measurement model can be performed either as an exploratory factor analysis or confirmatory factor analysis. In exploratory factor analysis, all measured variables are related to every latent variable (Thompson, & Loughheed, 2012), whereas in a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), researchers can specify the number of factors required in the data and which measured variable is related to which latent variable (Schumacher, Houze, & Kraucunas, 2004; Blunch, 2008;). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a tool that is used to confirm or reject the measurement theory. The current study employed confirmatory factor analysis as the measurement model.

4.10.2 Assessment of the structural model (Inner model)



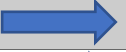

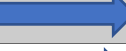






Once the outer model assessment shows adequate construct validity, it allows for testing the hypotheses under study. Before SEM is calculated, it is important that collinearity issues are checked. Collinearity issues are assessed using the variance inflation factor (VIF) and items should have a VIF lower than 3 for them to be considered free from collinearity (Hair et al., 2017). After VIF has been assessed, it is also important to ensure that R-squared for the dependent constructs are lower than 0.95 (Hair et al., 2017). According to Frost (2018), R-squared is a goodness-of-fit measure for linear regression models. R-squared is used to measure the sample predictive accuracy. This statistic indicates the percentage of the variance in the dependent variable that the independent variables explain collectively. Lastly, structural equation modelling was calculated using bootstrapping on a sub-sample size of 5000. According to Shmueli, Sarstedt, Hair, Cheah, Ting, Vaithilingam, and Ringle (2019), bootstrapping is non-parametric, which allows for testing the statistical significance of various PLS-SEM results, including path coefficients. The strength of the relationship between constructs was measured using Beta on a statistically significance level (p -value) of equal to or less than 0.05 and t -statistics equal to or larger than 1.96 (Ringle et al., 2005).

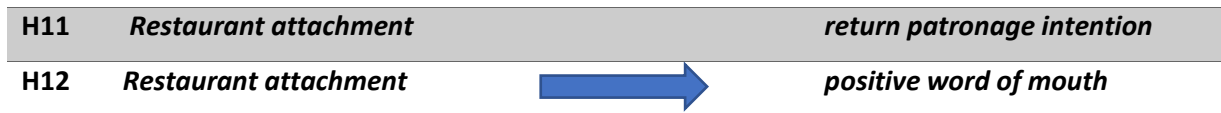
4.10.3 Path analysis/ (Structural model assessment)

According to Hair et al. (2017), the structural model is used to explain the relationship between the constructs. Aliyua, Abubakar, Yakasaic, and Garba (2018) explain the structural model as a model that expresses the associations in the hypothesised model. According to Wentzel (2012), the structural model in SEM is essentially a path analysis, which is a statistical technique used to examine causal relationships between two or more variables. Path modelling describes the relationships between observed or measured variables and theoretical constructs and tests the structural paths of the conceptualised research model (Fan et al., 2016; Roche, Duffield & White, 2011). In addition, Kline (2005) explains that path analysis involves the specification of a model by researchers in an attempt to explain the reasons for the correlations between variables X and Y. And so, to test the research hypotheses, a path analysis was performed to indicate the path coefficient and significance levels of the posited linear relationships between the research constructs.

The structural equation modelling (SEM) procedure was carried out to demonstrate and test the theoretical underpinnings of the study and the significance of the relationships between model constructs (Jenatabadi & Ismail, 2014). The study's structural model was evaluated by examining the p-values and standardised coefficients (Matzler & Renzl, 2006). The linear connections between the unobserved variables reflect the proposed research hypotheses. In this study, there are twelve linear connections between the thirteen variables, and these are shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Theorised Variable Paths

Hypothesis		Theorised variable paths	
H1	<i>Tangibility</i>		<i>customer satisfaction</i>
H2	<i>Reliability</i>		<i>customer satisfaction</i>
H3	<i>Responsiveness</i>		<i>customer satisfaction</i>
H4	<i>Assurance</i>		<i>customer satisfaction</i>
H5	<i>Empathy</i>		<i>customer satisfaction</i>
H6	<i>Personal hygiene</i>		<i>customer satisfaction</i>
H7	<i>Cleanliness of equipment & surfaces</i>		<i>customer satisfaction</i>
H8	<i>Restroom cleanliness</i>		<i>customer satisfaction</i>
H9	<i>Customer satisfaction</i>		<i>restaurant attachment</i>
H10	<i>Restaurant attachment</i>		<i>willingness to pay a price premium</i>
			



Source: Developed by the researcher

The structural model combines the measurement model and path model. This means that the structural model provides the overall fit of the factor model and tests the research hypothesis. The ethical considerations of the study are discussed in the next section.

4.11 Ethical considerations

Ethics is the set of moral principles or values that defines right and wrong for a person (Lazenby, 2015). This research study follows the ethical standards of academic research, which include, among other things, protecting the identities and interests of respondents and assuring confidentiality of information provided by the respondents. Ansah (2016) believes that ethical consideration is the protection of the respondents' rights, getting informed consent, and the institutional assessment procedure of the ethical authorisation. Ethical clearance in research strives to ensure that the researcher does not engage in behaviours that may harm any party involved in the study process, both intentionally and accidentally, while conducting research.

The UFS has devised a 'Research Ethics Policy' and Research Ethics Committee, which aims at creating and promoting good ethical practice of conduct in academic research. This has been considered with completing a student's ethical clearance application for research approval, to comply with UFS policies. The application process was conducted within a specific timeframe with appropriate documentation submitted to the Research Ethics Committee to review for approval. In adhering to the ethical conduct prescribed by UFS, all the respondents were well informed of the nature and background of the study and their rights in terms of participation or non-participation

The University assigned Number: **UFS-HSD2022/0346/22** as an ethics clearance number for verification purposes that this study has applied and followed all the due processes for ethical clearance to be granted. The process of obtaining ethical clearance entails firstly that the researcher needs to apply for clearance. The application requires general information regarding the study (see Chapter 1). The application also focuses on the methodology part of the study and any interaction between the respondents. The application form is then sent back to the relevant faculty with the following attachments:

- The researcher's proposal (approved by the department),

- Ethical risk assessment form,
- Research study information leaflet and informed consent form,
- The study questionnaire (see Appendix A) and,
- A short curriculum vitae (CV) of all research contributors and/or assistants.

Although there were no issues relating to confidentiality, as respondents' names and identities were not sought, the researcher still made sure that the study followed the requirements stipulated by the UFS guidelines. The respondents were reassured of confidentiality in the questionnaire leaflet to relieve the concerns of those who might not have realised that confidentiality threats are absent from the study.

4.12 Chapter summary

In conclusion, this chapter has presented a broad description of the research design and methodology employed in the current study. It commenced with research philosophies or the research paradigm; after which the discussion of the methodology was placed into headings, such as the sampling design which consists of: the target population, sampling frame, sample size and sampling method which were all discussed. The statistical technique used was structural equation modelling (SEM), where partial least squares software was used to assess both validity and reliability while the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and the path modelling were also done with Smart-PLS version 4. The account of how thresholds were met, and their ultimate interpretations of the data was systematically explained. A detailed description of how the university's ethics was adhered to was also presented. In the next chapter (Chapter 5), the findings of the analysed empirical data are described in detail to provide the empirical research results.

CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter covered the research design and methodology of the study. The current chapter (chapter 5) contains the empirical results obtained from the data collection process that aims to reach the objective of the study. The chapter firstly provides the results of the descriptive statistics, followed by the inferential results which include the evaluation of the structural model using Smart-PLS 4. The chapter concludes with hypotheses results using Smart-PLS version 4, with a summary of the hypotheses testing results.

5.2 Demographic profile of the study respondents

Demographic data indicates socio-economic descriptors of the participants involved in the survey, which is referred to as the classification of information (Malhotra, 2010). The data collected is presented by means of tables. Section A of the survey questionnaire is made up of demographic data of the sample, which elicited information about age, gender, employment status, disposable income per month, how often do you eat at restaurants, most visited restaurant, reason for visiting restaurants. The biographic profile of these respondents is shown in Table 5.1 and charts as follows:

Table 5.1: Biographical profile of respondents (n = 300)

Biographical profile		Frequency	Per cent
Age	25 – 34 years	78	26
	35 – 44 years	133	44.3
	45 -54 years	66	22
	55 years+	18	6
Gender	Male	90	30
	Female	210	70
Employment status	Employed	152	50.7
	Self-employed	24	8
	Retired	2	0.7
	Student	111	37

Disposable income per month	Less than R1000	33	11
	R1000 -30000	79	26.3
	R30001 -R5000	47	15.7
	R5001 -R7000	15	5
	R7001 -R8000 and above	126	42
How often do you eat at restaurants	Everyday	2	0.7
	Once a week	43	14.3
	2-3 times a week	32	10.7
	Once a month	129	43
	2-3 times in a month	94	31.3
Most visited restaurant	Longhorn grill	37	12.3
	New York restaurant	33	11
	Avanti	26	8.7
	Euro Caffe	70	23.3
	Braza	55	18.3
	Spur	33	11
	Ocean basket	13	4.3
	Bella casa	4	1.3
	Nandos	9	3
	Wimpy	9	3
	McDonald's	11	3.7
Reasons for visiting restaurants	I visit restaurants to eat breakfast/ lunch/dinner.	130	43.3
	I socialise in restaurants.	62	20.7
	I visit restaurants to get take-away.	34	24.7
	I visit restaurants on special occasions	74	24.7

Source: Developed by the researcher

5.2.1 Age

The respondents' age ranged from 25 to 55 years and above. In figure 5.1, evidence shows that the majority of respondents were in the category of 35-44 years of age (44.3%), followed by the younger category in the category of 25-34 years of age (2%). The 45-54 year old respondents accounted for 22%. The lowest category in response was in the category 55 years old and above with 6%. Overall, respondents ranging from 25-54 years of age seemed to be those frequenting restaurants more often, based on the results.

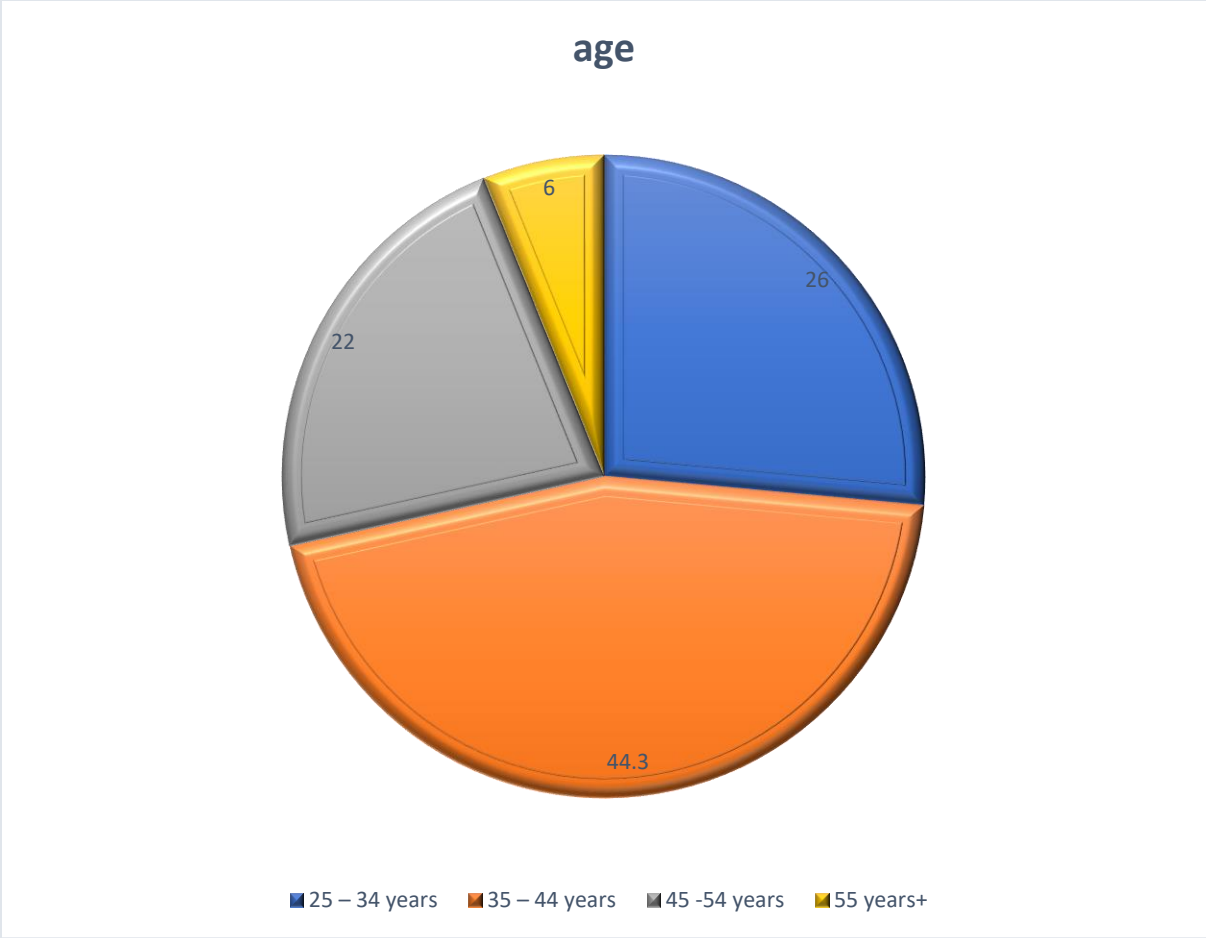


Figure 5.1: Respondents’ Age distribution

Source: Developed by the researcher

5.2.2 Gender

Figure 5.2 depicts the gender distribution of the respondents. The results show that 70% of the respondents were female, while 30% of the respondents were male. In the sample, there were more females than males.

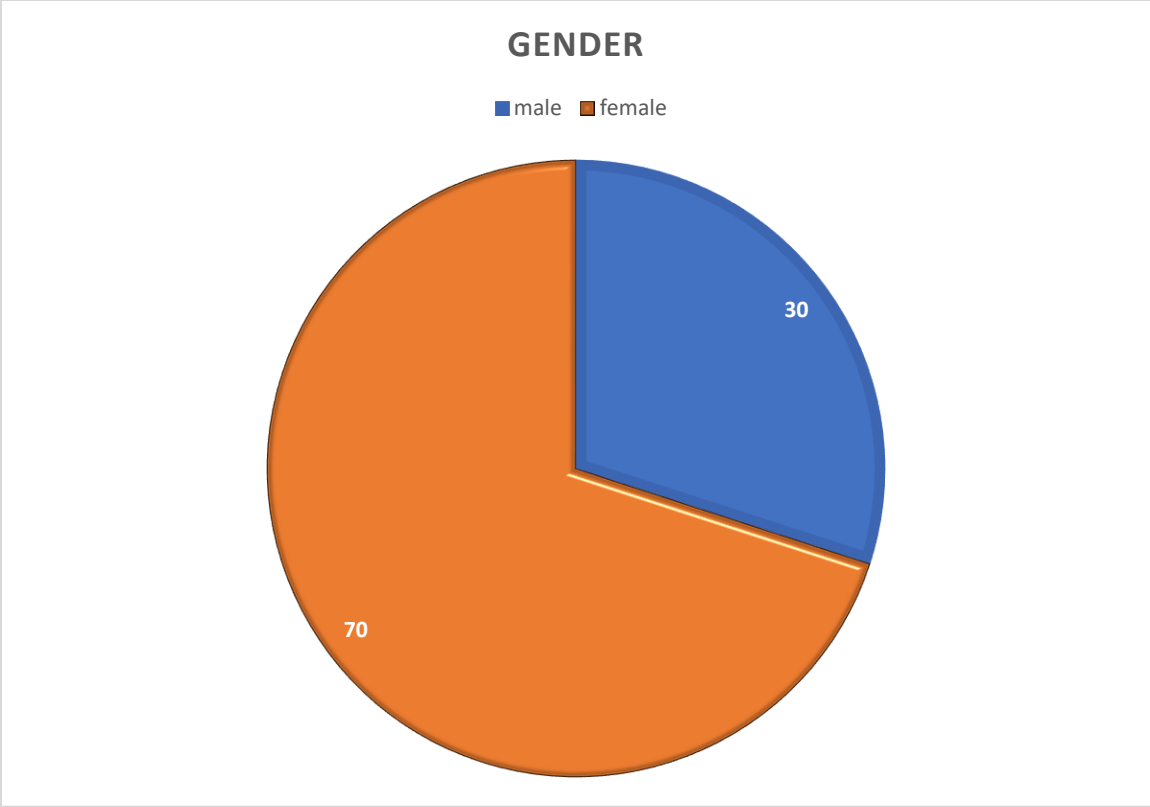


Figure 5.2: Respondents' gender distribution

Source: Developed by the researcher

5.2.3 Employment status

In terms of employment status, the results, as depicted in figure 5.3, show that 50.7% of respondents are employed and 37% respondents were students. This was followed by 8% of self-employed respondents and the lowest category was of retired respondents with about 0.7%.

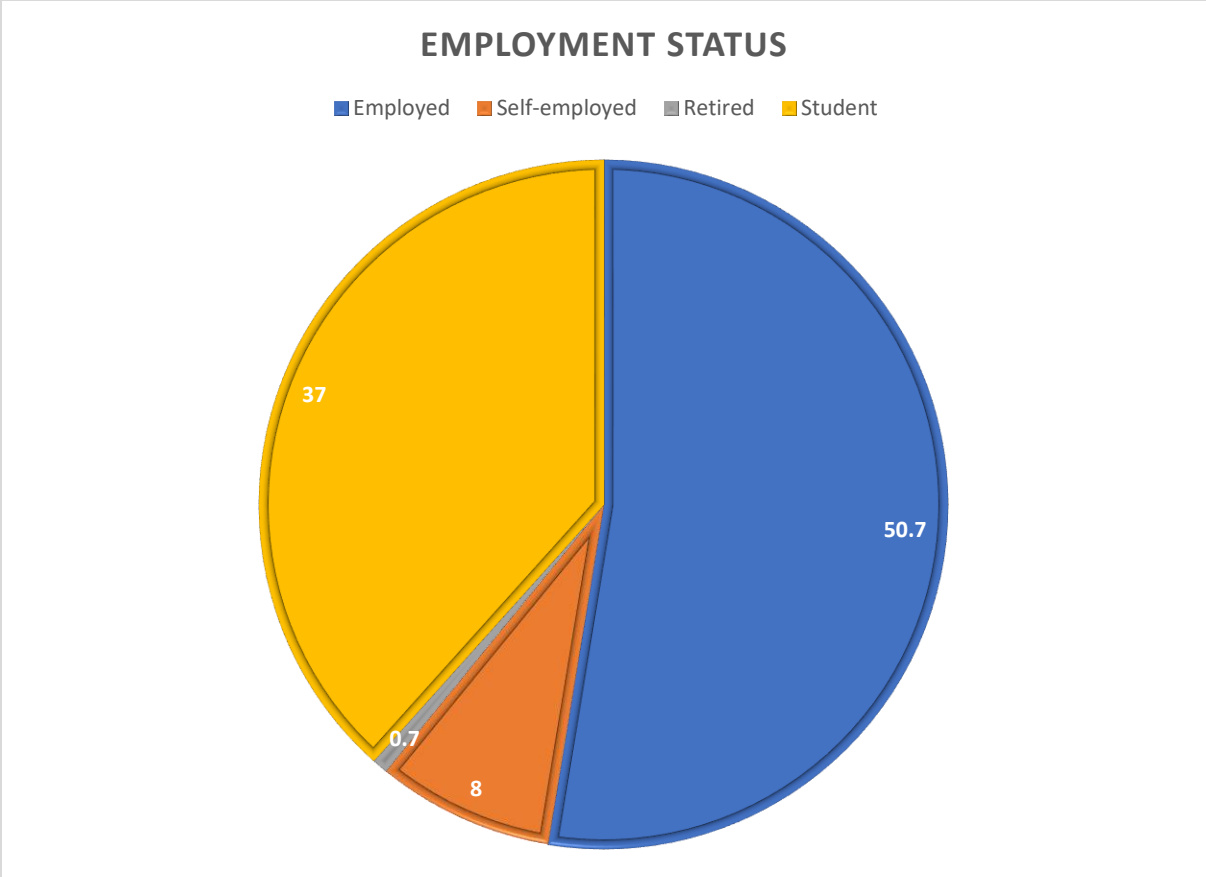


Figure 5.3: Respondents’ distribution on employment status

Source: Developed by the researcher

5.2.4 Disposable income per month

As illustrated in Table 5.1 and figure 5.4, the disposable income per month results for restaurant users was: For those with a disposable income per month of less than R1000 (11%), followed by R1000-R3000 category with (26%) respondents. The R3001-R5000 category (15.7%). Those with a disposable income per month of R5001-R7000 had the lowest results of (5%) and lastly, the largest number of t respondents have a disposable income per month of R7001-R8000 and above at (42%).

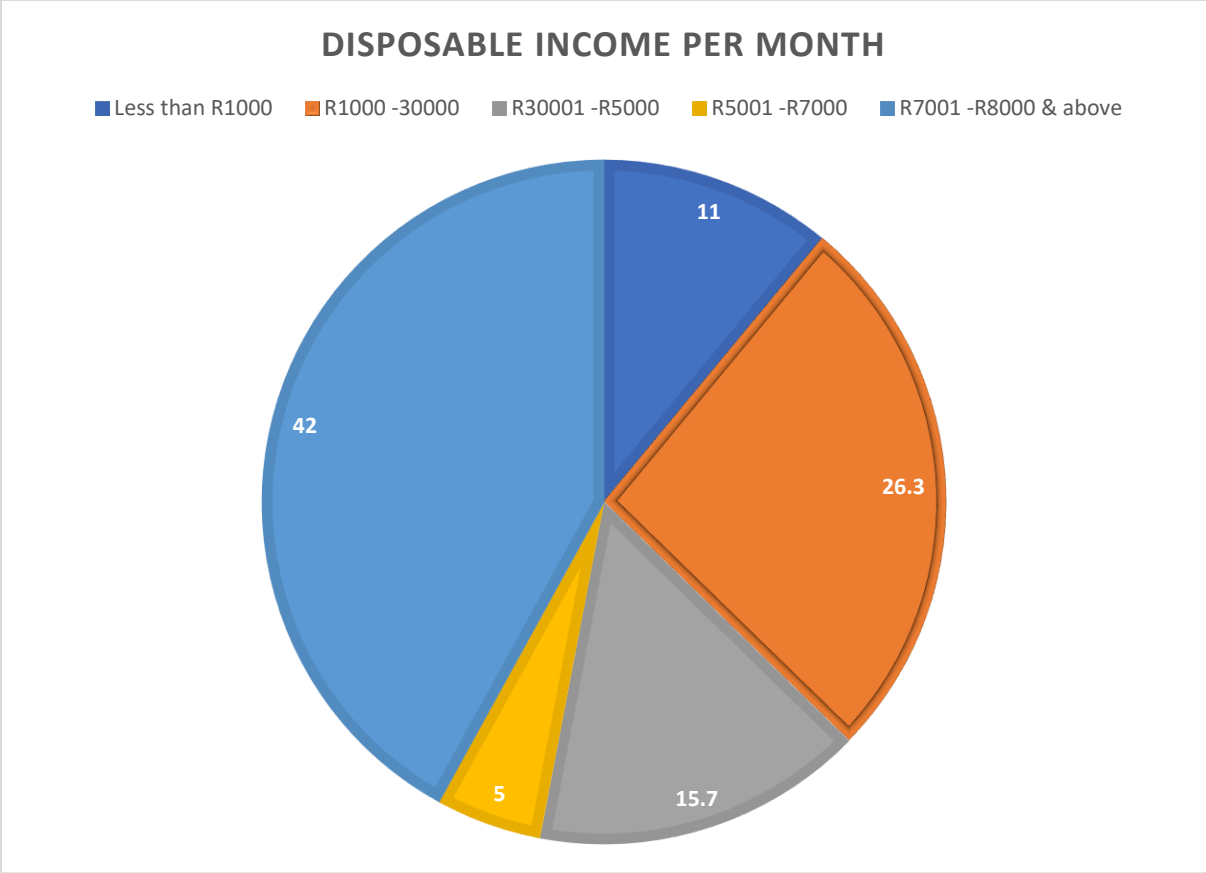


Figure 5.4: Respondents’ distribution disposable income

Source: Developed by the researcher

5.2.5 How often do you eat at restaurants

In terms of how often respondents eat at restaurants, results are as follows, as depicted in table 5.1 and figure 5.5. The highest percentage of respondents indicated they eat out once a month (43%), followed by those who indicated eating out 2-3 times a month (31.3%). Respondents who indicated eating out once a month was at (14.3%) and those eating out 2-3 times a week was (10.7%) lastly, the lowest category was those who indicated eating out every day at (0,7%)

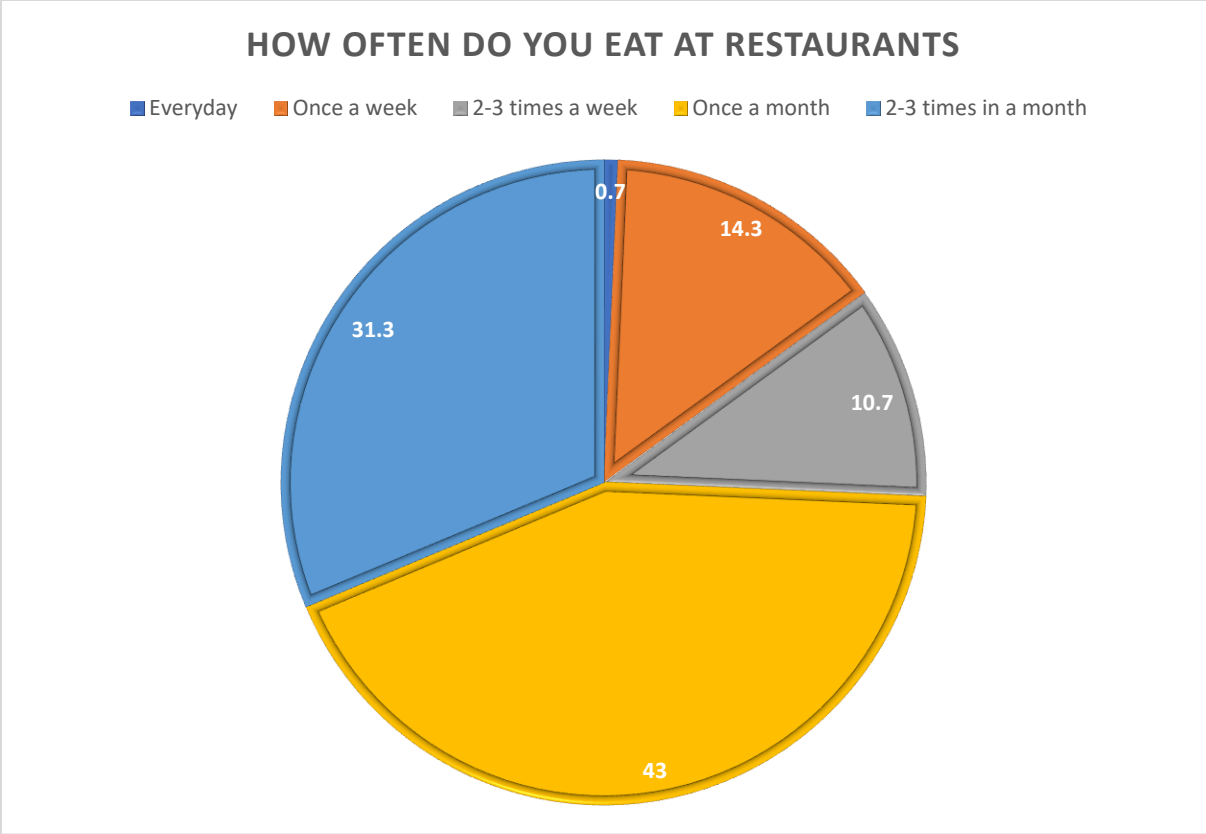


Figure 5.5: Respondents distribution on how often do you eat at restaurants

Source: Developed by the researcher

5.2.6 Most visited restaurant

Table 5.1 and figure 5.6 reports respondents’ distribution on the most visited restaurants. Euro café has the highest percentage of customers who have dined at the restaurant, with 23.3%, followed by Braza at 18%, then, Longhorn grill has 12.3% of customers that have visited the restaurants, followed by New York and Spur both at 11%. Lastly, Ocean Basket at (4.3%), McDonalds (3,7%), Nandos and Wimpy both at (3%) and Bella Casa last, with the lowest number of people who have visited at 1.3%.

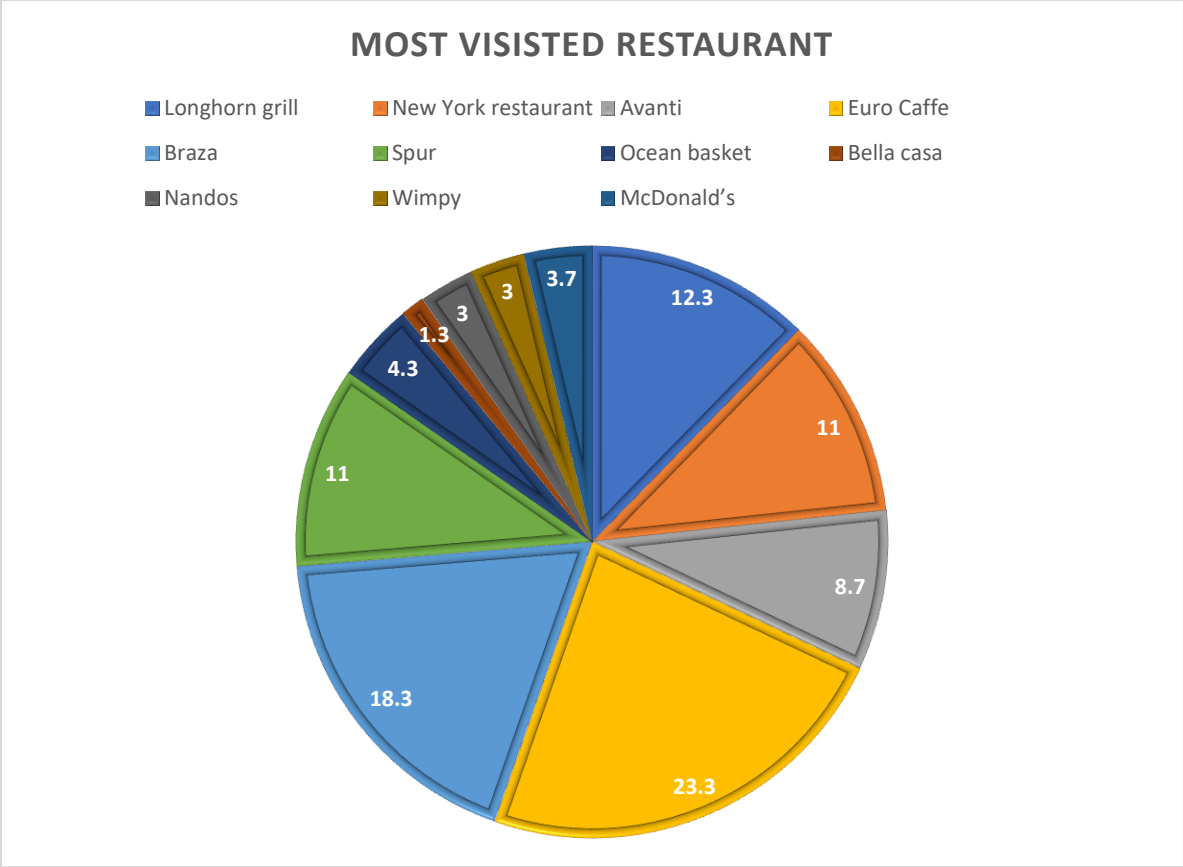


Figure 5.6: Respondents distribution on most visited restaurant

Source: Developed by the researcher

5.2.7 Reasons for visiting restaurants

Respondents were asked reasons for visiting restaurants and 43.3% indicated that they visit restaurants to eat breakfast, lunch, and/or dinner. Furthermore, 24,7% of respondents indicated they visit restaurants on special occasions. In addition, 24,7%, also indicated they visit restaurants to get take-aways, i. e., food not consumed on the premises, the same number as to those who visit restaurant on special occasions. Lastly, 20,7%. revealed that they visit restaurants to get take-aways. The results are graphically presented in table 5.1 and figure 5.7.

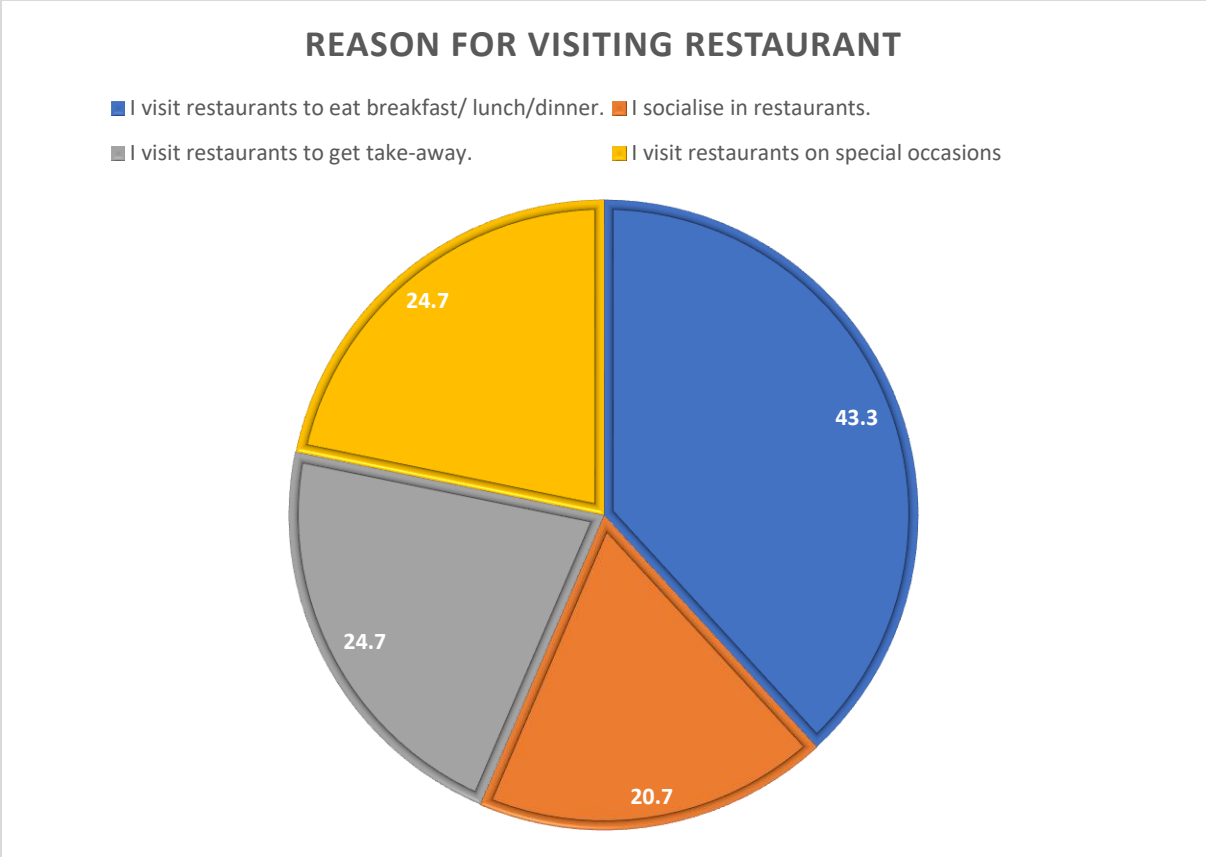


Figure 5.7: Respondents distribution on reason for visiting restaurant

Source: Developed by the researcher

5.3 Descriptive statistics

This section discusses the descriptive analysis of the measures of the constructs used in the study. These constructs were tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, empathy, assurance, personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment and surfaces, cleanliness of restrooms, customer satisfaction, restaurant attachment, willingness to pay price premium, return patronage intention and positive word of mouth. The analysis proceeded to determine the level of respondents' agreement or disagreement for each construct. Tables 5.2 - 5.13 report on the basic descriptive statistics comprising the means and standard deviations of the predetermined constructs. Mean values were computed as the measures of central tendency for this study. All the tables, presented below, reveal that the mean value for all the items ranges between three and four, indicating that the majority of the respondents had either a neutral standpoint ('3' on the Likert scale) or they agreed ('4' on the Likert scale) with the statements provided. Standard deviation values were computed to measure the variance of responses on each variable. As posited by Lee et al. (2015), the relationship between the mean and the standard deviation is that a small estimated

standard deviation (SD) denotes that respondents' responses were consistent and that the response distributions lay close to the mean. Conversely, a large standard deviation indicates that the responses are varying, making the response distribution values fall away from the mean of the distribution (Lee et al., 2015). Moreover, the standard deviation value "should be less than 1 but it is recommended to at least include a value of less than 2 to ensure that there is no issue of outliers" (Merza & Mohammed, 2021; Chuchu & Maziriri, 2020; Drost, 2011).

Table 5.2: Descriptive statistical analysis of Tangibility

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
T1	300	1	5	3.73	.941
T2	300	1	5	4.06	.830
T3	300	1	5	4.24	.848
T4	300	1	5	4.07	.764
T5	300	1	5	4.12	.788
T6	300	1	5	4.11	.818

Source: Developed by the researcher

Tangibility, which constituted Section B of the questionnaire, had the highest mean score of 4.24 (T3) and the lowest mean score of 3.73 (T1) giving a range of 0.51. The lowest mean of 3.73 indicated that customers agree that their restaurant is attractive, clean and has a menu that reflects the restaurant's image, while results from Section B of the questionnaire highlighted the fact that the highest mean score was 4.24 (T3). Most of the respondents admitted to their restaurants being attractive, clean and had a menu that reflects the restaurant's image. Table 5.1 reveals that the Tangibility scale had the highest standard deviation value reported at 0.941 (T1) and the lowest standard deviation value was 0.764 (T4). This information indicates that the data points are clustered around the mean. The SD values are below two (2), hence an indication that there are no issues of outliers.

Table 5.3: Descriptive statistical analysis of Reliability

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
R1	300	1	5	3.82	.861
R2	300	1	5	3.96	.781
R3	300	1	5	4.20	.781
R4	300	1	5	4.33	.741

Source: Developed by the researcher

Reliability which constituted Section C of the questionnaire had the highest mean score of 4.33 (R4) and the lowest mean score of 3.82 (R1), giving a range of 0.51. The lowest mean of 3.82 indicated that customers agree that their restaurant provides them with an accurate bill and serves food exactly as ordered, while results from Section C of the questionnaire highlighted the fact that the highest mean score was 4.33 (R4). Most of the respondents admitted to their restaurants providing accurate bills and serving them food exactly as ordered. Table 5.2 reveals that the reliability scale had the highest standard deviation value reported at 0.861 (R1) and the lowest standard deviation value was 0.741 (R4). This information indicates that the data points are clustered around the mean. The SD values are below two (2), hence an indication that there are no issues of outliers.

Table 5.4: Descriptive statistical analysis of Responsiveness

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
RSP1	300	1	5	3.90	.809
RSP2	300	1	5	3.87	.852
RSP3	300	1	5	3.73	.880
RSP4	300	1	5	4.08	.713

Source: Developed by the researcher

Responsiveness, which constituted Section D of the questionnaire, had the highest mean score of 4.08 (RSP4) and the lowest mean score of 3.73 (RSP3), giving a range of 0.35. The lowest mean of 3.73 indicated that customers agree that their restaurants provide prompt and quick service, while results from Section D of the questionnaire highlighted the fact that the highest mean score was 4.08 (RSP4). Most of the respondents admitted to their restaurants providing prompt and quick service. Table 5.3 reveals that the responsiveness scale had the highest standard deviation value reported at 0.852 (RSP2) and the lowest standard deviation value was 0.713 (RSP4). This information indicates that the data points are clustered around the mean. The SD values are below two (2), hence an indication that there are no issues of outliers.

Table 5.5: Descriptive statistical analysis of Empathy

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
EMP1	300	1	5	3.76	.881
EMP2	300	1	5	3.86	.829
EMP3	300	1	5	3.76	.848
EMP4	300	1	5	3.93	.744
EMP5	300	1	5	3.93	.782

Source: Developed by the researcher

Empathy, which constituted Section E of the questionnaire, had the highest mean score of 3.93 (EMP5) and the lowest mean score of 3.76 (EMP1), giving a range of 0.17. The lowest mean of 3.76 indicated that customers agree on the importance of employees who are sympathetic and reassuring if something goes wrong, while results from Section E of the questionnaire highlighted the fact that the highest mean score was 3.93 (EMP5). Most of the respondents admitted to their restaurants having employees who are sympathetic and reassuring if something goes wrong. Table 5.4 reveals that empathy scale had the highest standard deviation value reported at 0.881 (EMP1) and the lowest standard deviation value was 0.782 (EMP5). This information indicates that the data points are clustered around the mean. The SD values are below two (2), hence an indication that there are no issues of outliers.

Table 5.6: Descriptive statistical analysis of Assurance

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
ASSSU1	300	1	5	4.01	.745
ASSSU2	300	1	5	4.05	.766
ASSSU3	300	1	5	4.01	.858
ASSSU4	300	1	5	4.11	.745
ASSSU5	300	1	5	4.19	.675

Source: Developed by the researcher

Assurance which constituted Section F of the questionnaire had the highest mean score of 4.19 (ASSU5) and the lowest mean score of 4.01 (ASSU), giving a range of 0.18. The lowest mean of 4.01 indicated that customers agree on personnel who are both able and willing to provide information about menu items, their ingredients, and methods of preparation and answer questions completely, while results from Section F of the questionnaire highlighted the fact that the highest mean score was 4.19 (ASSU5). Most of the respondents admitted to personal hygiene. Table 5.6 reveals that personal hygiene scale had the

highest standard deviation value reported at 0.858 (ASSU3) and the lowest standard deviation value was 0.675 (ASSU5). This information indicates that the data points are clustered around the mean. The SD values are below two (2), hence an indication that there are no issues of outliers.

Table 5.7: Descriptive statistical analysis of Personal hygiene

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
PH1	300	1	5	4.09	.845
PH2	300	1	5	4.16	.756
PH3	300	1	5	4.07	.751
PH4	300	1	5	3.94	.801

Source: Developed by the researcher

Personal hygiene, which constituted Section G of the questionnaire, had the highest mean score of 4.16 (PH2) and the lowest mean score of 3.94 (PH4), giving a range of 0.22. The lowest mean of 3.94 indicated that customers agree to the importance of restaurant employees demonstrating high standards of personal hygiene such as no coughing or sneezing onto food or hands and then touching food, no bitten nails and uncovered hair, while results from Section G of the questionnaire highlighted the fact that the highest mean score was 4.16 (PH2). Most of the respondents admitted to personal hygiene. Table 5.7 reveals that personal hygiene scale had the highest standard deviation value reported at 0.845 (PH1) and the lowest standard deviation value was 0.751 (PH3). This information indicates that the data points are clustered around the mean. The SD values are below two (2), hence an indication that there are no issues of outliers.

Table 5.8: Descriptive statistical analysis of Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CES1	300	1	5	4.20	.688
CES2	300	1	5	4.09	.731
CES3	300	1	5	4.17	.722

Source: Developed by the researcher

Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces, which constituted section H of the questionnaire, had the highest mean score of 4.20 (CES1) and the lowest mean score of 4.09 (CES2), giving a range of 0.11. The lowest mean of 4.09 indicated that customers agree on the cleanliness of equipment and surfaces, thus service areas and any surface in the restaurant are clean, such as the floor, tables, counters and utensils, while results from Section H of the questionnaire highlighted the fact that the highest mean score was 4.20

(CES1). Most of the respondents admitted to cleanliness of equipment and surfaces. Table 5.8 reveals that cleanliness of equipment and surfaces scale had the highest standard deviation value reported at 0.731 (CES2) and the lowest standard deviation value was 0.688 (CES1). This information indicates that the data points are clustered around the mean. The SD values are below two (2), hence an indication that there are no issues of outliers.

Table 5.9: Descriptive statistical analysis of cleanliness of restrooms

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CR1	300	1	5	4.01	.752
CR2	300	1	5	3.95	.720
CR3	300	1	5	4.10	.752
CR4	300	1	5	3.94	.762
CR5	300	1	5	4.13	.722
CR6	300	1	5	4.07	.702
CR7	300	1	5	4.16	.695

Source: Developed by the researcher

Cleanliness of restrooms, which constituted section I of the questionnaire, had the highest mean score of 4.16 (CR7) and the lowest mean score of 3.94 (CR4), giving a range of 0.22. The lowest mean of 3.94 indicated that customers agree on the cleanliness of restrooms, thus clean sinks, mirrors, walls, and counters were clean, while results from Section L of the questionnaire highlighted the fact that the highest mean score was 4.16 (CR7). Most of the respondents admitted to the cleanliness of restrooms. Table 5.9 reveals that cleanliness of restrooms scale had the highest standard deviation value reported at 0.762 (CR4) and the lowest standard deviation value was 0.695 (CR7). This information indicates that the data points are clustered around the mean. The SD values are below two (2), hence an indication that there are no issues of outliers.

Table 5.10: Descriptive statistical analysis of customer satisfaction

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CS1	300	1	5	4.27	.667
CS2	300	1	5	4.26	.623
CS3	300	1	5	4.20	.714
CS4	300	1	5	4.29	.690

CS5	300	1	5	4.25	.703
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Source: Developed by the researcher

Customer satisfaction, which constituted section J of the questionnaire, had the highest mean score of 4.29 (CS4) and the lowest mean score of 4.20 (CS3), giving a range of 0.09. The lowest mean of 4.20 indicated that customers agree to being pleased and satisfied with the restaurant after their experience while results from Section L of the questionnaire highlighted the fact that the highest mean score was 4.29 (CS4). Most of the respondents admitted to customer satisfaction. Table 5.10 reveals that the customer satisfaction scale had the highest standard deviation value reported at 0.714 (CS3) and the lowest standard deviation value was 0.623 (CS2). This information indicates that the data points are clustered around the mean. The SD values are below two (2), hence an indication that there are no issues of outliers.

Table 5.11: Descriptive statistical analysis of restaurant attachment

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
RA1	300	1	5	3.90	.806
RA2	300	1	5	3.64	.959
RA3	300	1	5	3.57	1.056
RA4	300	1	5	3.51	1.033
RA5	300	1	5	3.65	1.013
RA6	300	1	5	3.56	1.015

Source: Developed by the researcher

Restaurant attachment, which constituted section K of the questionnaire, had the highest mean score of 3.90 (RA1) and the lowest mean score of 3.51 (RA4), giving a range of 0.39. The lowest mean of 3.51 indicated that customers agree to being very attached to the restaurant while results from Section L of the questionnaire highlighted the fact that the highest mean score was 3.90 (RA1). Most of the respondents admitted to restaurant attachment. Table 5.11 reveals that restaurant attachment scale had the highest standard deviation value reported at 1.056 (RA3) and the lowest standard deviation value was 0.806 (RA1). This information indicates that the data points are clustered around the mean. The SD values are below two (2), hence an indication that there are no issues of outliers.

Table: Descriptive statistical analysis of Willingness to pay price premia

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
WPPP1	300	1	5	3.43	1.075
WPPP2	300	1	5	3.50	.931
WPPP3	300	1	5	3.41	1.051

Source: Developed by the researcher

Willingness to pay price premia which constituted section L of the questionnaire had the highest mean score of 3.50 (WPPP2) and the lowest mean score of 3.41 (WPPP3) giving a range of 0.09. The lowest mean of 3.41 indicated that customers agree to remaining with the same restaurant even if the price of the service of the restaurant were somewhat increased, while results from Section L of the questionnaire highlighted the fact that the highest mean score was 3.50 (WPPP2). Most of the respondents admitted a willingness to pay a price premium. Table 5.12 reveals that willingness to pay a price premium scale had the highest standard deviation value reported at 1.075 (WPPP1) and the lowest standard deviation value was 0.931 (WPPP2). This information indicates that the data points are clustered around the mean. The SD values are below two (2), hence an indication that there are no issues of outliers.

Table 5.12: Descriptive statistical analysis of Return patronage intention

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
RPI1	300	1	5	3.99	.791
RPI2	300	1	5	3.94	.809
RPI3	300	1	5	3.97	.851

Source: Developed by the researcher

Return patronage intention, which constituted section M of the questionnaire, had the highest mean score of 3.99 (RPI1) and the lowest mean score of 3.94 (RPI2), giving a range of 0.05. The lowest mean 3.94 indicated that customers agree to the likelihood of eating at the same restaurant again, while results from Section M of the questionnaire highlighted the fact that the highest mean score was 3.99 (RPI1). Most of the respondents admitted to returning patronage intention, thus the consideration of eating at the same restaurant was high. Table 5.13 reveals that returning patronage intention scale had the highest standard deviation value reported at 0.851 (RPI3) and the lowest standard deviation value was 0.791 (RPI1). This information indicates that the data points are clustered around the mean. The SD values are below two (2), hence an indication that there are no issues of outliers.

Table 5.13: Descriptive statistical analysis of Positive word of mouth

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
PWM1	300	1	5	4.05	.883
PWM2	300	1	5	4.22	.747
PWM3	300	1	5	4.28	.715

Source: Developed by the researcher

Positive word of mouth, which constituted section N of the questionnaire, had the highest mean score of 4.28 (PWM3) and the lowest mean score of 4.05 (PWM1), giving a range of 0.23. The lowest mean of 4.05 indicated that customers agree to recommend the restaurant to others, while results from Section N of the questionnaire highlighted the fact that the highest mean score was 4.28 (PWM3). Most of the respondents admitted to positive word of mouth, thus sharing, and recommending the restaurant to others. Table 5.14 reveals that the positive word of mouth scale had the highest standard deviation value reported at 0.883 (PWM1) and the lowest standard deviation value was 0.715 (PWM3). This information indicates that the data points are clustered around the mean. The SD values are below two (2), hence an indication that there are no issues of outliers.

5.4 Evaluation of the measurement model

5.4.1 Assessment of the measurement model

The measurement model results were checked to see if they met the required threshold and criteria, as explained in chapter 4. The results of the reliability and convergent validity are presented in Table 5.2. All the constructs assessed for Cronbach's Alpha and Composite reliability values met the minimum threshold of 0.7, as recommended by Hair et al. (2019). Furthermore, all outer loadings were statistically significant and only two outer loadings, T1 and CR7, were less than 0.7 and were deleted to avoid threatening the reliability and convergent validity of the constructs. Average variance extracted (AVE) was assessed to measure convergent validity and all constructs reached the minimum threshold of 0.5. Based on the results in Table 5.2, the measurement model showed adequate reliability and convergent validity to continue with the assessment of the measurement model for discriminant validity.

Table 5.14: Evaluation of measurement model

Constructs	Items	Loadings	CA	CR	AVE
	T2	0.845			
	T3	0.841			
	T4	0.765			
	T5	0.732			
	T6	0.791			
Reliability	R1	0.710	0.817	0.828	0.647
	R2	0.834			
	R3	0.848			
	R4	0.817			
Responsiveness	RSP1	0.860	0.827	0.842	0.658
	RSP2	0.766			
	RSP3	0.783			
	RSP4	0.832			
Empathy	EMP1	0.751	0.862	0.864	0.645
	EMP2	0.847			
	EMP3	0.811			
	EMP4	0.785			
	EMP5	0.818			
Assurance	ASSU1	0.820	0.881	0.892	0.679
	ASSU2	0.866			
	ASSU3	0.724			
	ASSU4	0.833			
	ASSU5	0.869			
Personal hygiene	PH1	0.894	0.900	0.914	0.770
	PH2	0.904			
	PH3	0.915			
	PH4	0.792			
Cleanliness of equipment & Surfaces	CES1	0.916	0.910	0.910	0.847
	CES2	0.926			
	CES3	0.918			
Cleanliness of restrooms	CR1	0.768	0.891	0.897	0.648
	CR2	0.759			
	CR3	0.804			
	CR4	0.742			
	CR5	0.845			
	CR6	0.856			
Customer satisfaction	CS1	0.870	0.927	0.929	0.775
	CS2	0.883			

	CS3	0.858			
	CS4	0.907			
	CS5	0.882			
Restaurant attachment	RA1	0.724	0.923	0.924	0.727
	RA2	0.866			
	RA3	0.848			
	RA4	0.894			
	RA5	0.892			
	RA6	0.877			
Willingness to pay price premium	WPPP1	0.903	0.908	0.912	0.844
	WPPP2	0.922			
	WPPP3	0.932			
Return patronage intention	RPI1	0.878	0.896	0.909	0.828
	RPI2	0.916			
	RPI3	0.935			
Positive word of mouth	PWM1	0.900	0.881	0.920	0.805
	PWM2	0.926			
	PWM3	0.864			

Source: Developed by the researcher

5.4.2 Assessment of discriminant validity

In assessing discriminant validity, the Fornell-Larcker technique (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) (Hair et al., 2021) techniques were used. Discriminant validity is achieved when the square root of the AVEs is higher than the inter-factor correlations, as stated by Hair et al. (2014). The results of the Fornell-Larcker technique for discriminant analyses was represented in Table 5.15, and it was established that the diagonal AVE were larger than their corresponding correlations coefficients, evidenced in Table 5.15, presenting evidence of discriminant validity between the constructs.

This study measurement model has also confirmed discriminant validity using the HTMT (Hetero-trait-Monotrait-ratio). Assessing HTMT, as a criterion, includes comparing it with a stated threshold. If the value of the HTMT is above this threshold, it can be said that there is a lack of discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015). Evidence of discriminant validity is when there is a ratio of less than, and not more than 0.85 (Hair et al., 2012; Ringle et al., 2005). The HTMT ratios of correlations for the measurement model are summarised in Table 5.16. All ratios were less than 0.85, therefore, confirming the theoretical uniqueness of each variable in this study

Table 5.15: Discriminant validity – Fornell-Larker Criterion

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
ASSU	0.824												
CES	0.709	0.920											
CR	0.564	0.663	0.805										
CS	0.634	0.695	0.704	0.880									
EMP	0.734	0.583	0.517	0.503	0.803								
PH	0.678	0.758	0.683	0.661	0.605	0.878							
PWM	0.584	0.489	0.526	0.598	0.508	0.447	0.897						
R	0.708	0.715	0.549	0.635	0.676	0.694	0.496	0.804					
RSP	0.668	0.636	0.493	0.556	0.720	0.641	0.461	0.726	0.811				
RA	0.426	0.307	0.399	0.402	0.585	0.374	0.473	0.363	0.486	0.852			
RPI	0.492	0.414	0.454	0.526	0.382	0.388	0.477	0.391	0.383	0.480	0.910		
T	0.629	0.734	0.601	0.632	0.561	0.650	0.480	0.674	0.593	0.354	0.440	0.801	
WPP	0.322	0.145	0.276	0.231	0.370	0.194	0.381	0.191	0.329	0.548	0.506	0.229	0.919

Where: ASSU= Assurance; CES= Cleanliness of equipment & Surfaces; CR= Cleanliness of restrooms; CS= Customer satisfaction; EMP= Empathy; PH=Personal hygiene; PWM= Positive word of mouth; R= Reliability; RSP= Responsiveness; RA= Restaurant attachment; RPI= Return patronage intention; T= Tangibility; WPP= Willingness to pay price premium

Source: Developed by the researcher

Table 5.16: Discriminant validity- HTMT (=Hetero-trait-Monotrait-ratio)

	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1	ASSU	0.701												
2	CES	0.646	0.722											
3	CR	0.776	0.748	0.672										
4	CS	0.653	0.782	0.594	0.567									
5	EMP	0.649	0.587	0.822	0.441	0.435								
6	PH	0.568	0.430	0.501	0.338	0.429	0.271							
7	PWM	0.726	0.480	0.777	0.737	0.382	0.351	0.307						
8	R	0.312	0.272	0.093	0.130	0.351	0.188	0.357	0.571					
9	RSP	0.157	0.131	0.196	0.128	0.131	0.146	0.578	0.452	0.543				
10	RA	0.354	0.241	0.414	0.454	0.526	0.382	0.388	0.477	0.391	0.328			
11	RPI	0.234	0.341	0.734	0.601	0.632	0.561	0.650	0.480	0.674	0.231	0.434		
12	T	0.426	0.437	0.649	0.587	0.822	0.649	0.312	0.272	0.093	0.130	0.351	0.188	
13	WPP	0.542	0.652	0.568	0.430	0.501	0.568	0.157	0.131	0.196	0.128	0.131	0.146	0.157

Where: ASSU= Assurance; CES= Cleanliness of equipment & Surfaces; CR= Cleanliness of restrooms; CS= Customer satisfaction; EMP= Empathy; PH=Personal hygiene; PWM= Positive word of mouth; R= Reliability; RSP= Responsiveness; RA= Restaurant attachment; RPI= Return patronage intention; T= Tangibility; WPP= Willingness to pay price premium

Source: Developed by the researcher

5.5 Evaluation of the structural equation model and hypotheses testing

Hair, et al. (2019) recommend assessing the variance inflation factor (VIF) to check for collinearity issues. Collinearity issues are assessed using the variance inflation factor (VIF) and items should have a VIF lower than 3 for them to be considered free from collinearity. The VIFs for model are reported in table 5.4. A few items, as seen in the model, had reached 3 plus and above, CES2, CES3, CS4, CS5, PH1,PH2,PH3, PWM2, RA2,RA4, RA5,RA6, RPI3 and WPPP3 and were all removed to eliminate any collinearity issues.

Table 5.17: Variance inflation factor (VIF)

	ASS	CE	CR	CS	EMP	PH	PWM	R	RA	RPI	RSP	T	WPPP
ASSU1	2.298												
ASSU2	2.806												
ASSU3	1.614												
ASSU4	2.143												
ASSU5	2.620												
CES1		2.891											
CES2		3.217											
CES3		3.044											
CR1			2.225										
CR2			2.175										
CR3			2.067										
CR4			2.107										
CR5			2.526										
CR6			2.695										
CS1				2.842									
CS2				3.124									
CS3				2.525									
CS4				3.801									
CS5				3.261									
EMP1					1.551								
EMP2					2.302								
EMP3					2.072								
EMP4					1.813								
EMP5					2.064								
PH1						3.075							
PH2						3.367							
PH3						3.343							
PH4						2.037							
PWM1							2.146						
PWM2							3.727						
PWM3							2.772						
R1								1.634					
R2								2.075					
R3								2.109					
R4								1.907					
RA1									1.913				
RA2									3.075				
RA3									2.611				
RA4									4.363				
RA5									4.529				
RA6									4.324				
RPI1										2.327			
RPI2										2.997			
RPI3										3.276			
RSP 1											2.139		
RSP2											1.583		
RSP3											1.831		
RSP4											1.739		
T2												2.253	
T3												2.292	
T4												1.873	
T5												1.667	
T6												1.799	
WPPP1													2.777
WPPP2													2.959
WPPP3													3.427

Where: ASSU= Assurance; CES= Cleanliness of equipment & Surfaces; CR= Cleanliness of restrooms; CS= Customer satisfaction; EMP= Empathy; PH=Personal hygiene; PWM= Positive word of mouth; R= Reliability; RSP= Responsiveness; RA= Restaurant attachment; RPI= Return patronage intention; T= Tangibility; WPP= Willingness to pay price premium

Source: Developed by the researcher

After collinearity is assessed using variance inflation factor (VIF), it is also important to ensure that R-squared for the dependant constructs are lower than 0.95. In this study, R-squared for customer satisfaction was 0.58 and for restaurant attachment, willingness to pay price premium, return patronage intention and positive word of mouth were 0.19, 0.19, 0.17 and 0.24, respectively. Hence, it was appropriate to proceed to SEM. The R-squared measures are firstly indicated in Table 5.5.

Table 5.18: R-Squared measure

ITEMS	R- SQUARED VALUES
Customer satisfaction	0.58
Restaurant attachment	0.19
Willingness to pay price premium	0.19
Return patronage intention	0.17
Positive word of mouth	0.24

Source: Developed by the researcher

5.6 Hypothesis results

The Hypothesised relationships were tested using bootstrapping on a sub-sample size of 5000. The strength of the relationship between constructs was measured using Beta on a statistically significance level (p-value) of equal to or less than 0.05 and t-statistics equal to or larger than 1.96.

Table 5.19: Structural model

Hypothesis	β	t-statistics	p-values	Result
H1: Tangibility has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction	0.044	0.668	0.504	Positive and insignificant
H2: Reliability has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction	0.122	1.621	0.105	Positive and insignificant
H3: Responsiveness has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction	0.028	0.419	0.676	Positive and insignificant
H4: Assurance has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction	0.258	3.314	0.001	Positive and significant

H5: Empathy has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction	-0.081	1.140	0.254	Negative and insignificant
H6: Personal hygiene has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.	-0.043	0.683	0.495	Negative and insignificant
H7: Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.	0.092	1.224	0.221	Positive and insignificant
H8: Cleanliness of restrooms has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.	0.453	4.887	0.000	Positive and significant
H9: Customer satisfaction has a positive and significant impact on restaurant attachment	0.438	5.872	0.000	Positive and significant
H10: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on willingness to pay a price premium.	0.445	8.173	0.000	Positive and significant
H11: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on return patronage intention.	0.419	6.020	0.000	Positive and significant
H12: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on positive word of mouth.	0.492	8.306	0.000	Positive and significant

Source: Developed by the researcher

Structural model analysis with path coefficients and R² estimates

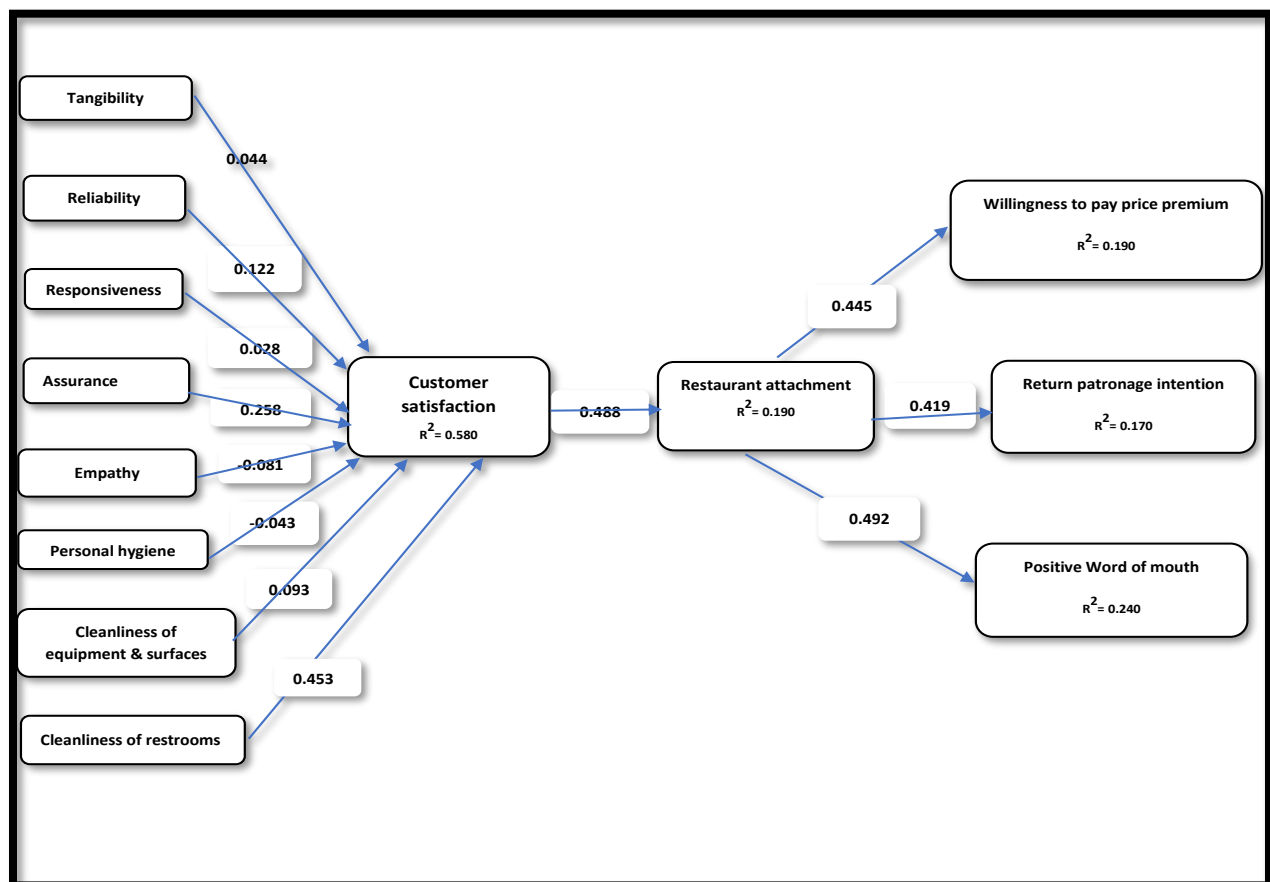


Figure 5.8: Structural model analysis with path coefficients and R² estimates

Source: Calculated from survey results

Structural model with path coefficients with p-values

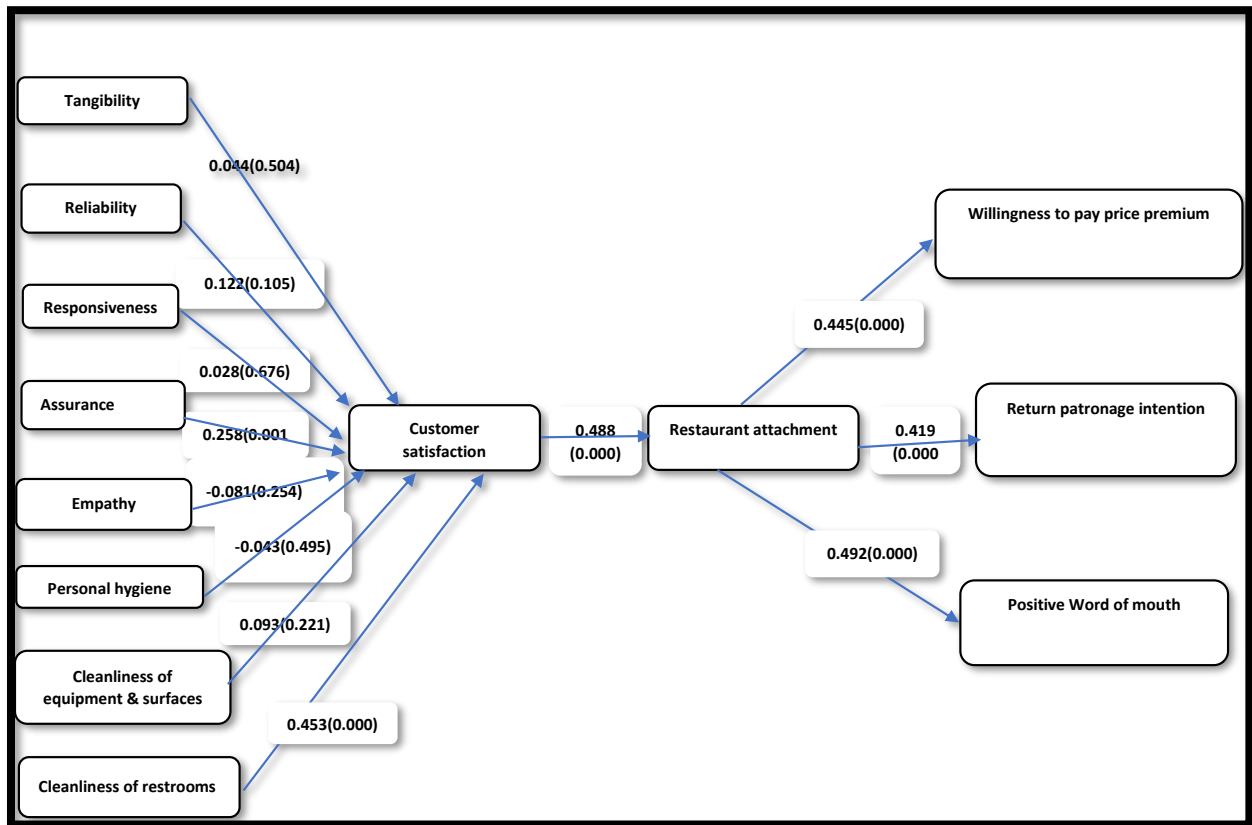


Figure 5.9: Structural model with path coefficients with p-values

Source: Calculated from survey results

5.6.1 Outcome of hypotheses testing: H1: Tangibility has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

The first hypothesis states that tangibility positively and significantly impacts customer satisfaction. This study rejected this hypothesis. It can be observed from Figure 5.9 and Table 5.19 that even though tangibility has a positive influence ($\beta = 0.044$), it is however, not statistically significant (p-value= 0.504) for customer satisfaction. The results suggest the more pleased the customer is with the tangibility aspects of the restaurant, this will not be a guarantee of an increase in customer satisfaction. These outcomes are disagreeing with the research of Nyabundi, Aliata, and Odondo (2021), who studied the effect of tangibility on customer satisfaction and found a significant correlation between tangibility and customer

satisfaction. A similar study done by Nguyen et al. (2018) found contrasting results from this study, that the tangibles variable is the most important factor driving customer satisfaction. Additionally, Kincaid, Baloglu, Mao, and Busser (2010) studied the impact of tangible quality on effect and intention for casual dining restaurant patrons and found positive and significant results as well. Aftab et al. (2016) also found similar results that oppose the findings of this study that tangibility has the highest level of correlation with customer satisfaction.

5.6.2 Outcome of hypotheses testing H2: Reliability has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

The second hypothesis states that reliability positively and significantly impacts customer satisfaction. This study rejected this hypothesis. It can be observed from Figure 5.9 and Table 5.19 that reliability has a positive influence ($\beta = 0.122$); it is however not significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.105$) in customer satisfaction. The results revealed that a reliable restaurant or service provided is not a guarantee to increase or lead to customer satisfaction. These outcomes are in accordance with the research of Lau, Cheung, Pires and Chan, (2019), that the reliability dimension in service quality has no significant impact on customer satisfaction. Jan, Arfat Manzoor, Tholia and Ishrat (2022) also found similar results that reliability has no significant impact on customer satisfaction. However, Aftab et al. (2016) who studied the importance of service quality in customer satisfaction, found different results that reliability positively and significantly impacts customer satisfaction. This is also in agreement with the study of Nguyen et al. (2018) who found that the influence of the tangible attributes of perceived service quality and reliability has a positive impact on customer satisfaction.

5.6.3 Outcome of hypotheses testing H3: Responsiveness has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

The third hypothesis states that responsiveness positively and significantly impacts customer satisfaction. This study rejected this hypothesis. It can be observed from Figure 5.9 and Table 5.19 that even though responsiveness has a positive influence ($\beta = 0.028$), it is however, not statistically significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.676$) for customer satisfaction. The results suggest the responsiveness of the restaurant will not guarantee an increase in satisfaction among the customers. These outcomes are disagreeing with the research of Monther and Mahadevan (2019), who investigated the impact of service quality on customer satisfaction and whose results revealed that responsiveness plays a pivotal role in enhancing customer satisfaction. The findings obtained in this study are not in line with literature, where Nguyen et al. (2018) found that the responsiveness variable impacts customer satisfaction. Aftab et al. (2016) found

responsiveness to impact customer satisfaction significantly, unlike the findings of this study. It is also imperative to note that the results of this study contradict the findings of Omar, Ariffin, and Ahmad (2016) who found responsiveness to have a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction. Moreover, the results obtained in this study are in line with literature by Bungatang and Reynel (2021), who found responsiveness to have a negative effect on customer satisfaction.

5.6.4 Outcome of hypotheses testing H4: Assurance has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

The fourth hypothesis states that assurance positively and significantly impacts customer satisfaction. This study supported this hypothesis. It can be observed from Figure 5.9 and Table 5.19 that assurance has a positive influence ($\beta = 0.258$) and is statistically significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.001$) in customer satisfaction. The results suggest the more assurance customers receive from the restaurant, the more satisfied the customer will be. These outcomes are in accordance with the research of Aftab et al. (2016) who conducted a study on fast food restaurants to determine the importance of service quality in customer satisfaction, and assurance was revealed to influence customer satisfaction. The results obtained in this study are in line with literature by Nguyen et al. (2018) who assert that assurance significantly and positively impacts customer satisfaction. Omar, Ariffin and Ahmad (2016) conducted a study on service quality, customers' satisfaction and the moderating effects of gender: A study of Arabic restaurants, the results are in line with the finding of this study. Moreover, the results obtained in this study are in line with literature, for instance, Janahi and Mubarak (2017) assert that assurance has a strong positive relationship with customer satisfaction. Moreover, Diab, Mohamed, Shidwan, and Mansour (2016) found similar results.

5.6.5 Outcome of hypotheses testing H5: Empathy has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

The fifth hypothesis states that empathy positively and significantly impacts customer satisfaction. This study rejected this hypothesis. It can be observed from Figure 5.9 and Table 5.19 that empathy has a negative influence ($\beta = -0.081$) and is not statistically significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.254$) in customer satisfaction. The results suggest that empathy will not impact customer satisfaction in a positive way or increase customer satisfaction. These outcomes disagree with the research of Alhkami and Alarussi (2016), whose findings revealed that there is a significant relationship between empathy and customer satisfaction. It is also imperative to note that the results of this study contradict the findings of Aftab et al. (2016), who discovered that empathy has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction. Omar, Ariffin and

Ahmad (2016) studied service quality, customers' satisfaction and the moderating effects of gender: a study of Arabic restaurants and found contrasting results to this study. However, Janahi and Mubarak (2017) found results that are in line with this study, that showed empathy had an insignificant effect on customer satisfaction.

5.6.6 Outcome of hypotheses testing H6: Personal hygiene has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

The sixth hypothesis states that personal hygiene positively and significantly impacts customer satisfaction. This study rejected this hypothesis. It can be observed from Figure 5.9 and Table 5.19 that personal hygiene has a negative influence ($\beta = -0.043$) and is not statistically significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.495$) in customer satisfaction. The results suggest that personal hygiene will not impact customer satisfaction in a positive way or increase customer satisfaction. These outcomes are disagreeing with the research of Eksoydan (2007), who discovered that personal hygiene played a role in customers' selection of a restaurant and influences customer satisfaction. The study by Sembiring (2021) agrees with this study's results that personal hygiene does not have an impact on satisfaction. However, Barber and Scarcelli (2010) found contradicting results that personal hygiene does have a significant impact on customers satisfaction. It is also important to note that the results of this study contradict the findings of Liua and Lee (2018), who found that employees keeping their fingernails clean, employees wearing clean uniforms or protective clothing, and employees wearing gloves while handling ready-to-eat food were of paramount importance to customers in influencing satisfaction and revisit intentions. Moreover, Chow et al. (2019) found that personal hygiene was one of the strong predictors of customer satisfaction, which contradicts the finding of this study.

5.6.7 Outcome of hypotheses testing H7: Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction

The seventh hypothesis states that cleanliness of equipment and surfaces positively and significantly impacts customer satisfaction. This study did not support this hypothesis. It can be observed from Figure 5.9 and Table 5.19 that the cleanliness of equipment and surfaces has a positive influence ($\beta = 0.092$) however, is not statistically significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.221$) in customer satisfaction. The results suggest cleanliness of equipment and surfaces, is not a guarantee for an increase in customer satisfaction. These outcomes are in disagreement with the research of Eksoydan (2007) and Abubakari et al. (2019), both of whom found in their research that clean surfaces of a dining area are one of the most important hygiene issues people consider when patronising restaurants and influences customer satisfaction and retention.

Barlan-Espino (2017) found several factors that influence customer satisfaction, including ambiance, price, quality of products, and services. Cleanliness and hygiene of the overall dining area was ranked as the most important component that influenced customer satisfaction, which contradicts the findings of this study. Moreover, findings obtained from this study are not in line with literature; for instance, Vos, Galetzka, Mobach, van Hagen and Pruyn (2019) and Barber and Scarcelli (2010) found cleanliness of the restaurant, thus dining area, utensils, walls, cutlery, dishes have an impact on customer satisfaction.

5.6.8 Outcome of hypotheses testing H8: Restroom cleanliness has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.

The eighth hypothesis expresses that restroom cleanliness positively and significantly impacts customer satisfaction. This study supported this hypothesis. It can be observed from Figure 5.9 and Table 5.19 that restroom cleanliness has a positive influence ($\beta = 0.453$) and is statistically significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.000$) in customer satisfaction. The results suggest the more a customer is satisfied, the more attached they will get to the restaurant. These outcomes are in accordance with the research of Kim and Bachman (2019), who examined customer perceptions of restaurant restroom cleanliness and their impact on satisfaction and intention to return. Research by Barber and Scarcelli (2010) is in agreement with this study that restroom cleanliness has an impact on customer satisfaction. Vos, Galetzka, Mobach, van Hagen and Pruyn, (2019) measured the perceived cleanliness in service environments and found positive and significant results on the impact they play on customer satisfaction, including restroom cleanliness. Moreover, findings obtained from this study are in line with literature where Liu (2017) and Hunt (2017) have found cleanliness of the restroom to be a central factor driving the overall perception of cleanliness in restaurants and in turn, positively impacting customer satisfaction.

5.6.9 Outcome of hypotheses testing H9: Customer satisfaction has a positive and significant impact on restaurant attachment

The ninth hypothesis expresses that customer satisfaction positively and significantly impacts restaurant attachment. This study supported this hypothesis. It can be observed from Figure 5.9 and Table 5.19 that customer satisfaction has a positive influence ($\beta = 0.438$) and is statistically significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.000$) in predicting restaurant attachment. The results suggest the more a customer is satisfied, the more attached they will get to the restaurant. These outcomes are in accordance with the research by Bahri-Ammari et al. (2016) who found in their research that satisfied customers do get attached to the restaurant. This further extends the findings of previous studies conducted by Parker et al. (2010), who found consumers attached to a brand are generally satisfied by it, because satisfaction is the basis of emotional attachment.

Furthermore, the result obtained from testing this hypothesis is also coherent with a survey conducted by Line and Hanks (2018) who found that the more satisfied a customer is with a restaurant, the more attached the customer will become to that restaurant. Moreover, findings obtained from this study are in line with literature where Guillard and Roux (2014) found that satisfaction is a determining factor of trust and a direct antecedent of attachment. Danjuma and Rasli (2012) found similar results that satisfied customers with business services are more motivated to improve and sustain an effective bond with the business which results in attachment.

5.6.10 Outcome of hypotheses testing H10: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on willingness to pay a price premium

The tenth hypothesis states that restaurant attachment positively and significantly impacts willingness to pay a price premium. This study supported this hypothesis. It can be observed from Figure 5.9 and Table 5.19 that restaurant attachment has a positive influence ($\beta = 0.445$) and is statistically significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.000$) in predicting willingness to pay a price premium. The results suggest the more a customer is attached to the restaurant, the higher they will be willing to pay a price premium. The results obtained in this study are in line with the work of Brun and Morales (2008) that a satisfied customer is willing to pay more, which is an indicator of loyalty and attachment to the restaurant. The results obtained in this study are in accord with literature; Bae et al. (2019) posit that a satisfied and committed customer is ready to make a financial outlay to procure the brand. In addition, Ladhari, Brun and Morales' (2008) findings are in support that a satisfied customer is willing to pay more, which is an indicator of loyalty and attachment to the restaurant, as well as Bahri-Ammari (2016) and Cheneg et al. (2016) who consider consumers' attachment to a brand is a vital condition for consumers to accept higher prices.

5.6.11 Outcome of hypotheses testing H11: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on return patronage intention

The eleventh hypothesis states that restaurant attachment positively and significantly impacts return patronage intention. This study accepted this hypothesis. It can be observed from Figure 5.9 and Table 5.19 that restaurant attachment has a positive influence ($\beta = 0.419$) and is statistically significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.000$) in predicting return patronage intention. The results suggest the more a customer is attached to the restaurant, the higher the chances of return patronage intention. The results coincide with those of Maziriri, Chuchu and Madinga (2019) who investigated the antecedents that influence store patronage, apparel purchase decision and store attachment among the Generation Y cohort and one of the findings revealed that store patronage behaviour has a positive relationship with store attachment.

The results obtained in this study are in accord with literature; Bae et al. (2018) found that a firm's success is largely dependent on enhancing customer satisfaction and encouraging future patronisation. In addition, the results obtained in this study are in accord with Tripathi and Dave (2016), who found that satisfied customers will patronise the restaurant again to experience the service and recommend the restaurant to others. Moreover, the result obtained from testing this hypothesis is also coherent with a survey conducted by Badrinarayanan and Becerra (2018), who discovered that store attachment, in turn, influences store patronage; Park et al. (2010) found similar results.

5.6.12 Outcome of hypotheses testing H12: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on positive word of mouth

The twelfth hypothesis states that restaurant attachment positively and significantly impacts positive word of mouth. This study supports this hypothesis. It can be observed from Figure 5.9 and Table 5.19 that restaurant attachment exerts a positive influence ($\beta = 0.492$) and is statistically significant ($p\text{-value} = 0.000$) in predicting positive word of mouth. The results suggest the more a customer is attached to the restaurant, the more the customer will spread positive word of mouth about the restaurant. The results are in agreement with the work of Bae et al. (2018), who found that a satisfied customer spreads positive word of mouth and remains loyal instead of switching to a competitor. The results obtained in this study are in accord with literature; Tripathi and Dave (2016) found that the satisfied customer will recommend the restaurant to others. Furthermore, the result obtained from testing this hypothesis is also coherent with a survey conducted by Mashao, Maziriri and Chuchu (2020), who found that attachment somewhat goes deeper than loyalty or satisfaction and people with strong attachments influence others around them. In addition, Filieria, et al. (2015) discovered that the customer's emotional involvement, commitment and attachment increases voluntary assistive behaviours, such as telling others about the company. Similar results by Line et al. (2018) also revealed that attached customers result in positive customer behaviours, such as spreading positive word of mouth.

5.7 Chapter summary

The chapter started with the description of the demographic profile of the respondents, descriptive statistics of the individual variables were discussed. The measurement model of the conceptual model was confirmed to be reliable and valid, which allowed for the results of the structural model to be interpreted to answer the hypotheses developed in chapter 3. The test for the reliability comprised the Cronbach alpha, the composite reliability, as well as the average variance extracted. The validity was

assessed through the convergent and discriminant validity. The determination of the model fit was then evaluated for confirmation through the application of thresholds and indices to conclude that the collected data fit the model. It was then followed with the structural model fit testing, using the various indices to determine the model fit for the structural analysis. The determination of the structural model fit was followed by a summary of the first twelve hypothesised relationships – subject to how they were stated or how they were represented in the study's conceptual model. Five out of the twelve hypotheses were rejected, while seven of the stated hypotheses supported the study. The next chapter (Chapter 6) provides a discussion on the findings of the results, recommendations, suggestions for future research, and the conclusion of the study.

CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH, AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter (Chapter 5) provided the statistical analysis, discussions, and interpretations of the empirical results from the collected data. This Chapter reviews the research conducted in this dissertation and connects it in order to present conclusions. The purpose of the study was to determine the impact of factors influencing the satisfaction and behavioural intentions of restaurant consumers. Arising from the theory and the empirical study, recommendations are made for restaurant marketers and managers. It concludes with the benefits, limitations, and implications for future research.

6.2 Overview of the study

The study is made up of six chapters. In order to draw the relevant recommendations and conclusions to this study, it is important to have an overview of the six chapters that were covered in this study. Chapter one provided the introduction and background overview of the study, which informed the research problem and proposed the research methodology. Chapter two covered the context of the study, theoretical groundings of the study and lastly, empirical literature related to the study. In chapter three, the conceptual research model and hypothesis development were formulated. In chapter four, the research methodology employed in the study was discussed. In chapter five, the statistical analysis and survey results obtained from the data collected were presented. Lastly, chapter six, concludes the study by drawing conclusions, based on the findings in Chapter five and the reviewed literature.

6.2.1 Primary objective

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of factors influencing the satisfaction and behavioural intentions of restaurant consumers.

6.2.2 Theoretical objectives

The theoretical objectives as set out in Chapter 1 under Section 1.6.2, are outlined and reviewed. For restaurant managers, marketers, and researchers to make informed decisions and derive value from this study, all research objectives were addressed based on the data generated from the survey in order to ensure that the initial purposes of the study were achieved.

6.2.2.1 To review the literature on hygiene and sanitation theory

This objective was achieved under Section 3.2.1 of chapter 3. This theory explored the importance of hygiene and sanitation in business premises (restaurants) and how it can yield customer satisfaction. A combination of academic journal articles, textbooks and other literature sources were useful to the researcher when merging information on this theory.

6.2.2.2 To review the literature on the interpersonal attachment theory

To achieve this objective, the interpersonal attachment theory was reviewed in Section 3.2.2 of chapter 3. This theory explained the importance of interpersonal attachment theory for the business (restaurants) when customers are satisfied and how it can lead to post-behavioural intentions, such as willingness to pay price premia, return patronage intention and positive word of mouth. A combination of academic journal articles, textbooks and other literature sources were useful to the researcher when merging information on this theory.

6.2.2.3 To review the literature on service quality model

This objective was achieved under Section 3.2.3 of chapter 3 and section 2.3.1 of chapter 2. An extensive literature review was undertaken to comprehensively understand the importance of the service quality model for the business (restaurants) and how service quality dimensions such as tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy can lead to customer satisfaction. A combination of academic journal articles, textbooks and other literature sources were useful to the researcher when merging information on this theory.

6.2.2.4 To review the literature on personal hygiene

This theoretical objective was covered under Section 2.3.2 of Chapter 2. This section explained the concept of personal hygiene and the role it plays in influencing customers in businesses where food is served.

6.2.2.5 To review the literature on cleanliness of equipment and surfaces

This theoretical objective was covered under Section 2.3.3 of Chapter 2. The section explained what is meant by cleanliness of equipment and surfaces and its contribution to customer satisfaction in restaurant businesses.

6.2.2.6 To review the literature on cleanliness of restrooms

This theoretical objective was dealt with under Section 2.3.4. of Chapter 2. This section explained what cleanliness of restrooms is and how it can possibly affect customer satisfaction in restaurants.

6.2.2.7 To review the literature on customer satisfaction

This theoretical objective was covered under Section 2.3.5 of Chapter 2. This section explored the concept of customer satisfaction and the role it plays in restaurant attachment.

6.2.2.8 To review the literature on restaurant attachment

This theoretical objective was dealt with under Section 2.3.6 of Chapter 2. This section explained the concept of restaurant attachment as a source of post-behavioural intentions, such as willingness to pay price premia, return patronage intention and positive word of mouth

6.2.2.9 To review the literature on willingness to pay a price premium

This theoretical objective was covered under Section 2.3.7 of Chapter 2. This section explained what willingness to pay price premium is and its benefits to the business when customers are satisfied and attached to the business.

6.2.2.10 To review the literature on return patronage intention

This theoretical objective was covered under Section 2.3.8 of Chapter 2. This section explained the concept of return patronage intention and the important role it plays in businesses when customers are satisfied and attached to the business.

6.2.2.11 To review the literature on positive word of mouth

This theoretical objective was covered under Section 2.3.9 of Chapter 2. This section explained the concept of positive word of mouth and how it is of great benefit to the business when customers are satisfied and attached to the business.

6.2.3 Empirical objectives

The empirical objectives, as set out in Chapter 1, Section 1.6.2 of this study, are revisited in the next section.

6.2.3.1 To examine the impact of SERVQUAL dimensions on customer satisfaction

The first empirical objective set out in Chapter 1, was to determine whether the SERVQUAL dimensions positively impact customer satisfaction. SEM was used to determine whether tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy positively impacts customer satisfaction (refer to Table 5.6). The results of structural equation model analysis revealed that tangibility positively and insignificantly impacts customer satisfaction with a path coefficient of 0.044 and p-value of 0.504. Reliability with a path coefficient of 0.122 and p-value of 0.105 positively but insignificantly impacts customer satisfaction. Responsiveness with a path coefficient of 0.028 and p-value of 0.676 positively and insignificantly impacts customer satisfaction. Assurance with a path coefficient of 0.258 and p-value of 0.001 positively and significantly impacts customer satisfaction. And lastly, empathy with a path coefficient of -0.081 and p-value of 0.254 negatively and insignificantly impact customer satisfaction.

6.2.3.2 To determine the impact of hygiene variables on customer satisfaction.

The second empirical objective set out in Chapter 1 was to determine whether hygiene variables positively impact customer satisfaction. SEM was used to determine whether personal hygiene, cleanliness of equipment and surfaces and cleanliness of restrooms positively impacts customer satisfaction (refer to Table 5.6). The results of the structural equation model analysis revealed that personal hygiene negatively and insignificantly impacts customer satisfaction with a path coefficient of -0.043 and p-value of 0.495. Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces with a path coefficient of 0.092 and p-value 0.221 positively but insignificantly impact customer satisfaction. Cleanliness of restrooms and surfaces with a path coefficient of 0.453 and p-value 0.000 positively but significantly impact customer satisfaction.

6.2.3.3 To investigate the impact of customer satisfaction on restaurant attachment.

The third empirical objective set out in Chapter 1 was to determine whether customer satisfaction positively impacts restaurant attachment. SEM was used to determine whether customer satisfaction positively impacts restaurant attachment (refer to Table 5.6). The results of the structural equation model analysis revealed that customer satisfaction positively and significantly impacts customer satisfaction with a path coefficient of 0.438 and p-value of 0.000.

6.2.3.4 To ascertain the impact of restaurant attachment on customers' willingness to pay a price premium

The third empirical objective set out in Chapter 1 was to determine whether restaurant attachment positively impacts willingness to pay a price premium. SEM was used to determine whether restaurant attachment positively impacts willingness to pay a price premium (refer to Table 5.6). The results of the structural equation model analysis revealed that restaurant attachment positively and significantly impacts willingness to pay price premium with a path coefficient of 0.445 and p-value of 0.000.

6.2.3.5 To examine the impact of restaurant attachment on return patronage intention

The fourth empirical objective set out in Chapter 1 was to determine whether restaurant attachment positively impacts return patronage intention. SEM was used to determine whether restaurant attachment positively impacts return patronage intention (refer to Table 5.6). The results of structural equation model analysis revealed that restaurant attachment positively and significantly impacts return patronage intention with a path coefficient of 0.419 and p-value of 0.000.

6.2.3.6 To analyse the impact of restaurant attachment on positive word of mouth

The fifth empirical objective set out in Chapter 1 was to determine whether restaurant attachment positively impacts positive word of mouth. SEM was used to determine whether restaurant attachment positively impacts positive word of mouth (refer to Table 5.6). The results of the structural equation model analysis revealed that restaurant attachment positively and significantly impacts positive word of mouth with a path coefficient of 0.492 and p-value of 0.000.

6.3 Major study findings

In the following section is the discussion of results that arose from testing the research's formulated hypotheses. The main findings are presented in Table 6.1, as shown by the hypotheses.

Table 6.1: Hypothesised Relationships and Resulting Outcomes

Hypothesis	β	t-statistics	p-values	Decision
H1: Tangibility has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction	0.044	0.668	0.504	Positive and insignificant

H2: Reliability has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction	0.122	1.621	0.105	Positive and insignificant
H3: Responsiveness has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction	0.028	0.419	0.676	Positive and insignificant
H4: Assurance has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction	0.258	3.314	0.001	positive and Significant
H5: Empathy has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction	-0.081	1.140	0.254	Negative and insignificant
H6: Personal hygiene has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.	-0.043	0.683	0.495	Negative and insignificant
H7: Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.	0.092	1.224	0.221	Positive and insignificant
H8: Cleanliness of restrooms has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.	0.453	4.887	0.000	Positive and Significant
H9: Customer satisfaction has a positive and significant impact on restaurant attachment	0.438	5.872	0.000	positive and Significant
H10: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on willingness to pay a price premium.	0.445	8.173	0.000	Positive and Significant
H11: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on return patronage intention.	0.419	6.020	0.000	Positive and Significant
H12: Restaurant attachment has a positive and significant impact on positive word of mouth.	0.492	8.306	0.000	Positive and Significant

Source: Developed by the researcher (2022)

6.4 Implications of the study

The following section discusses the implications of the study, based on the results which were obtained in chapter 5.

6.4.1 Implications based on Tangibility and customer satisfaction

The research results confirmed that the relationship between tangibility and customer satisfaction was positive but not significant. This implies that tangibility has no impact on customer satisfaction. This could mean that customers do value the tangibility aspects of the restaurant, hence the positive influence however, tangibility is not strong enough on its own to impact customer satisfaction.

6.4.2 Implications based on Reliability and customer satisfaction

The empirical study revealed that reliability has a positive but not significant impact on customer satisfaction. This could be an indication that customers do appreciate a reliable service from the restaurant such as accurate reservations of tables, correct customer orders and accurate billing, however, view it as mandatory service to be provided, hence there no significant impact on customer satisfaction. Reliability means that a restaurant fulfils its promises in terms of service offering, delivery, pricing, and solving problems for the customer. This is deemed as manducatory service to customer hence it has a positive relationship with customer satisfaction but not significant.

6.4.3 Implications based on Responsiveness and customer satisfaction

The research results confirmed that the relationship between responsiveness and customer satisfaction was positive but not significant. This could be an indication that customers do appreciate the responsiveness of the restaurant, thus the restaurant's willingness of employees to help customers and provide fast and responsive services, which include readiness in serving customers, speed of handling transactions, and customer complaints but view it as mandatory service to be provided, hence there no significant impact on customer satisfaction. Restaurant managers must ensure employees are responsive to customers since customers might view this factor as a basic mandatory service to be provided by restaurants.

6.4.4 Implications based on Empathy and customer satisfaction

The research results confirmed that the relationship between empathy and customer satisfaction was negative and not significant. Empathy is the care and personal attention given to customers while rendering the service. This implies that customers receiving care and attention from employees will not, on its own, impact customer satisfaction. This could be due to the fact that customers might view empathy as a standard and mandatory factor that comes with the service. Regardless of the results, restaurant managers must still ensure that employees provide care and individualised attention to customers.

6.4.5 Implications based on Assurance and customer satisfaction

The research findings confirmed that the relationship between assurance and customer satisfaction was positive and significant. This implies that restaurant managers ensure that customers feel safe, secure, and reassured through employees who show competence, politeness, effective communication, and a

general attitude that serves customers effectively and efficiently as they are aiming to enhance and secure customer satisfaction.

6.4.6 Implications based on Personal hygiene and customer satisfaction

The research results confirmed that the relationship between personal hygiene and customer satisfaction was negative and not significant. This might imply that customers regard employees keeping fingernails clean, wearing clean uniforms or protective clothing, and employees wearing gloves while handling ready-to-eat food as a standard and mandatory factor that comes with the service and will not enhance or impact customer satisfaction in any way as the results reveal that the personal hygiene of employees does not have a positive or a significant impact on customer satisfaction.

6.4.7 Implications based on Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces and customer satisfaction

It was also discovered that cleanliness of equipment and surfaces positively, but not significantly, impacts customer satisfaction. Cleanliness of equipment and surfaces cleanliness is related to the kitchen, cutlery, and dishes, eating areas, cleanliness of floors and tables, and any food contact surface area. This implies that customers might view this factor as a standard and mandatory factor to be present when visiting a restaurant, as the customers will not even consider purchasing at the restaurant if the restaurant looks unclean. Restaurant managers still need to ensure the factor is provided.

6.4.8 Implications based on Restroom cleanliness and customer satisfaction

The research findings confirmed that the relationship between restroom cleanliness and customer satisfaction was positive and significant. This implies that the provision of no-insect evidence, toilet cleanliness, soap availability, paper availability, floor cleanliness, odour, ceiling condition, and hot water availability can impact customers to be attached to the restaurant. Restaurant managers need to ensure that the restrooms are always clean and odour free in order to enhance and secure customer satisfaction as the results reveal.

6.4.9 Implications based on Customer satisfaction and restaurant attachment

The empirical study revealed that customer satisfaction has a positive and significant impact on restaurant attachment. This implies that restaurant managers must ensure that their service meets or surpasses the customers' expectations, as the results reveal that customer satisfaction has a positive influence on restaurant attachment, thus, the more satisfied a customer is with a restaurant, the more attached the

customer will become to that restaurant. Restaurant managers have to ensure customers leave the restaurant happy and satisfied to secure attachment as a guarantee they will come back to the restaurant.

6.4.10 Implications based on Restaurant attachment and willingness to pay a price premium

It was also discovered that restaurant attachment had a positive and significant impact on willingness to pay a price premium, as previously suggested in the proposed hypothesis linking these two. This implies that a committed, happy, and attached customer is ready to make a financial outlay to procure their purchase at the restaurant. Restaurant managers should implement all strategies to secure customers to keep them satisfied which in turn, influences attachment that eventually leads to customer attachment.

6.4.11 Implications based on Restaurant attachment and return patronage intention

The research findings confirmed that the relationship between restaurant attachment and return patronage intention was positive and significant. This implies that the satisfied customer will patronise the restaurant again to experience the service. In addition, when customers develop restaurant attachment, they view the restaurant as a part of themselves and develop salient thoughts and feelings about the restaurants and, concomitantly, are more willing to expand their resources toward patronising the store or restaurant. Restaurant managers must be aware that return behaviour can be easily compromised and difficult to restore if lost, hence the importance of building customer loyalty and ensuring customers are satisfied. The results have revealed that indeed, restaurant attachment has an impact on return patronage behaviour.

6.4.12 Implications based on Restaurant attachment and positive word of mouth

The research findings confirmed that the relationship between restaurant attachment and positive word of mouth was positive and significant. Restaurant managers must be aware that attachment goes deeper than loyalty or satisfaction and people with strong attachments influence others around them, satisfied customers will recommend the restaurant to others. This implies that restaurant managers have strategies in place that enhance satisfaction and restaurant attachment in order to get their customers spreading the word about the restaurant.

6.5 Contributions of the study

The study's contribution was structured into two categories: the theoretical contribution and the practical or managerial contribution.

6.5.1 Theoretical contribution

Since the current study is centred on the service quality model, sanitation and hygiene theory and interpersonal attachment theory, the study's results have a significant theoretical contribution towards the knowledge base that currently exists in the field of marketing, within the restaurant sector, in terms of service quality, sanitation and hygiene and customer attachment in restaurants. Based on the results obtained, researchers and academics will use the study as a reference to further their studies and attempt to improve on the areas that are not covered by the researcher in the future, within this field of marketing on satisfaction and behavioural intentions of restaurant consumers. The theory of service quality model, hygiene and sanitation and the theory of interpersonal attachment were used to complement each other to examine the proposed conceptual framework and meaningful results were obtained. The results revealed positive and significant results for some of the service quality factors, hygiene factors and interpersonal attachment factors that indeed, they have a positive and significant impact on satisfaction which further impacts restaurant attachment and behavioural intention (willingness to pay a price premium, return patronage intention and positive word of mouth) in a positive and significant way.

Moreover, it is anticipated that the findings will be of value to future researchers and scholars who may use this study to conduct further studies.

6.5.2 Practical contribution

The findings of this study have significant practical contributions for marketing managers. The results of the study will greatly contribute to enhancing customer satisfaction and securing behavioural intentions through the provision of quality service and the implementation of hygiene standards in restaurants. One of the elements of service quality that proved to impact satisfaction was assurance, meaning restaurant managers have to ensure that customers feel safe, secure, and reassured through employees who show competence, politeness, effective communication, and a general attitude that serves customers effectively and efficiently as they are aiming to enhance and secure customer satisfaction, and the results revealed indeed, assurance has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction.

Furthermore, the study identified for marketers those hygiene factors that have a positive and significant influence on customer satisfaction. The results revealed that the cleanliness of restrooms, such as no-insect evidence, toilet cleanliness, soap availability, paper availability, floor cleanliness, odour, ceiling condition, and hot water availability, can impact customer satisfaction and lead to customer attachment. Another practical contribution that can benefit restaurant managers is that, through the study, it was determined that truly, customer attachment leads to customers who are willing to pay price premia, spread positive word of mouth about the restaurant and repeatedly visit the same restaurant, and this was revealed in the results of the study through positive and significant results.

6.6 Recommendations

The results of this study cannot be overlooked and may be available as opportunities for marketing purposes for restaurant managers. Therefore, based on the analysis of the literature, and more specifically, in the light of the findings of the empirical research, the following recommendations are offered:

- From the management perspective, restaurant owners and managers need to look into enhancing, improving, and providing service quality by ensuring they excel in all service quality elements (tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, empathy, and assurance). As seen from the results, assurance definitely impact customer satisfaction in a positive and significant way, and then reliability, tangibility and responsiveness positively impact customer satisfaction even though the results were not significant. If all five elements are present and provided for, this will have a strong capability to strengthen the quality of service provided and can lead to customer satisfaction.
- As the study results show, the cleanliness of restrooms has a positive and significant impact on customer satisfaction. Restaurant owners and managers need to devise strategies and approaches that will ensure restrooms are always clean and kept to a standard that is pleasing to customers in order to retain customers and keep them satisfied. As the results reveal, customers value clean restrooms and this is an important hygiene factor in influencing customer satisfaction.
- Restaurant owners and managers need to devise strategies and approaches to improve customer satisfaction, as the results revealed that this positively and significantly impacts restaurant attachment. This implies that restaurant managers must ensure that their service meets or surpasses the customers' expectations, as the results reveal that customer satisfaction has a positive influence on restaurant attachment, thus, the more satisfied a customer is with a

restaurant, the more attached the customer will become to that restaurant. As the results have shown, providing high-quality service and the provision of hygienic conditions in restaurants lead to customer satisfaction, which has further been proved to positively and significantly impact restaurant attachment.

- Post-behavioural intentions are great marketing strategies for any business, including restaurants, in order to secure customers. As the results reveal, customers attached to a restaurant are willing to pay a price premium, return patronage intention, and positive word of mouth. This is all an indication of a satisfied customer, who is attached and loyal to a restaurant, which leads to such post-behavioural intentions that benefit restaurants in the long run through better profit margins than competitors through a secured customer base that will always be willing to pay a little extra just to patronise the restaurant again and even spread positive news about the restaurant.

6.7 Limitations of the study and future research

Despite producing meaningful results, the study was subjected to several limitations. Some of these limitations were used to discover opportunities for research in future. The first most obvious restriction of the study is that it was restricted to restaurant customers in Bloemfontein within the Free State province of South Africa. This limits the possibility to generalise the results to include all restaurant customers in South Africa. In addition, extending the research to other regions in South Africa would be a valuable future research direction.

This study could be used by other business management and marketing scholars as a point of departure for future research on customer satisfaction and post-behavioural intentions of customers in South Africa. However, the findings of this study are restricted to the restaurant industry, which is only one sector. Therefore, this presents a challenge for researchers to extend their future studies into other sectors of the economy.

Additionally, the study adopted a non-probability convenience sampling drawn from a sample of restaurant customers in South Africa and not that of probability sampling. Consequently, results should be interpreted with caution, as non-probability sampling limits the generalisability of the research findings. Another limitation concerns the use of a single method of data collection. This study employed a quantitative research approach. Future researchers may benefit from exploratory qualitative

approaches as well. Lastly, it should be noted that the aforementioned limitations do not necessarily negate the contributions of this study but open up avenues for future research.

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APPENDIX A: STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear respondents

You are invited to participate in this research project. The study investigates “**FACTORS INFLUENCING THE SATISFACTION AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS OF RESTAURANT CONSUMER.**” Should you have any questions or concerns about the study, you can contact Ms. Mathapelo Mafojane (the principal investigator) at 078 465 1074 or m.mafojane@yahoo.com / mafojanemf@ufs.ac.za. The findings of the study will be disseminated for MCom in Business Management study and in academic journals.

To participate in the study, you must meet the following criteria:

- You must be 18 years of age or older.
- You must have dined or eaten at the listed restaurant in the questionnaire found in Bloemfontein.

The complete information sheet about the study can be read by clicking on the information sheet link.

The main aspects relating to the study discussed in the information sheet are the following:

- The purpose of the study is to identify factors influencing the satisfaction and behavioural intentions of restaurant consumer.
- This study has received approval from the General Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Free State Protocol Number: UFS-HSD2022/0346/22
- Your participation only requires of you to complete the online questionnaire that follows if you consent to participate in the study. It will take not more than 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

- The completion of the questionnaire poses no inconvenience or any risk to a participant. Participants can complete the online questionnaire at a time that does not lead to loss of work time.
- Participation in the study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation. You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason during the completion of the questionnaire by clicking the 'Exit survey' link on any page or by closing the browser window.
- The questionnaire does not include any question that provides information that can be used to identify a respondent. Also, no personal information of respondents will be shared by Schadré Consulting as such information is not required for the purpose of the study.
- The electronic captured data from the completed online questionnaires will be stored on a password protected computer, to be destroyed after a 5-year period.
- The findings of the study will only be used for the disclosed purposes that is the dissemination of the findings only for academic purposes.

Thank you in advance for your willingness to participate in the research study.

Sincerely,





Researcher (Masters 'student)	Supervisor	Co-supervisor
Mathapelo Mafojane Business Management Faculty: Economic and Management Sciences PO Box 339, Bloemfontein, 9300, Republic of South Africa Cell: 078 465 1074 Email: MafojaneMF@ufs.ac.za	Dr Eugene T. Maziriri Business Management Faculty: Economic and Management Sciences PO Box 339, Bloemfontein, 9300, Republic of South Africa Email: Euginemaziriri@gmail.com	Dr Tarisai F. Rukuni Business Management Faculty: Economic and Management Sciences PO Box 339, Bloemfontein, 9300, Republic of South Africa Email: rukunitf@ufs.ac.za

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*** CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY**

- I confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has informed me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits, and anticipated inconvenience of participation.
- I have read and understood the study as explained on the previous page. I had the opportunity to ask questions and I am prepared to participate in the study.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty. I am aware that the findings of this study will be anonymously processed for only academic purposes.

SECTION A

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

This section includes general biographical questions. Please indicate your answer by selecting in the appropriate box.

A1. Please indicate your age

1	18-24 years	
2	25-34 years	
3	35-44 years	
4	45-54 years	
8	55 years old and above	

A2. Please indicate your gender

1	Male	
2	Female	
3	Prefer not to say	

A3. Please indicate employment status

1	Employed	
2	Self-employed	
3	Retired	
4	Student	

A4. What is your disposable income per month?

1	Less than R1000	
2	R1001 – R3000	
3	R3001-R5000	
4	R5001-R7000	
5	R8000 and above	

A5. How often do you eat at restaurants? Please indicate below:

1	Everyday	
2	Once a week	
3	2-3 times a week	
4	Once a month	
5	2-3 times in a month	

A6. Which ONE of the following is your most visited restaurant? Please indicate below

1	Longhorn grill	
2	New York restaurant	
3	Avanti	
4	Euro Caffè	
5	Braza	
6	Spur	

7	Ocean basket	
8	Bella casa	
9	Nandos	
10	Wimpy	
11	McDonald's	

If other, please specify: _____

A7. Reason for visiting restaurants

Please select only **ONE** below

1	I visit restaurants to eat breakfast/ lunch/dinner.	
2	I socialise in restaurants.	
3	I visit restaurants to get take-away.	
4	I visit restaurants on special occasions	

For all the following sections. Please indicate the extent to which you disagree/agree with the following statements, your answers are based on the ONE restaurant you selected above.

SECTION B: TANGIBILITY

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
T1	Restaurant has a visually attractive parking area and building exterior	1	2	3	4	5
T2	Restaurant has a visually attractive dining area	1	2	3	4	5
T3	Restaurant has staff members who are clean, neat, and appropriately dressed	1	2	3	4	5
T4	Restaurant has a decor in keeping with its image and price range	1	2	3	4	5

T5	Restaurant has a visually attractive menu that reflects the restaurant's image	1	2	3	4	5
T6	Restaurant has dining areas and restrooms that are thoroughly clean	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: RELIABILITY

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
R1	Restaurant serves me in the time promised	1	2	3	4	5
R2	Restaurant quickly corrects anything that is wrong	1	2	3	4	5
R3	Restaurant serves me food exactly as I ordered it	1	2	3	4	5
R4	Restaurant provides me with an accurate bill	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D: RESPONSIVENESS

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
RSP1	Restaurant gives extra effort to handle my special requests	1	2	3	4	5
RSP2	Restaurant provides prompt and quick service	1	2	3	4	5
RSP3	Restaurant during busy times has employees shift to help each other maintain speed and quality of service	1	2	3	4	5
RSP4	Restaurant is dependable and consistent	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION E: EMPATHY

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
EMP1	Restaurant has employees who are sensitive to my individual needs, rather than always relying on policies and procedures	1	2	3	4	5
EMP2	Restaurant makes me feel special	1	2	3	4	5
EMP3	Restaurant anticipates my individual needs or wants	1	2	3	4	5
EMP4	Restaurant has employees who are sympathetic and reassuring if something goes wrong	1	2	3	4	5
EMP5	Restaurant seems to have my best interests at heart	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION F: ASSURANCE

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
ASSU1	Restaurant has employees who can answer my questions completely	1	2	3	4	5
ASSU2	Restaurant makes me feel comfortable and confident in my dealings with them	1	2	3	4	5
ASSU3	Restaurant has personnel who are both able and willing to give me information about menu items, their ingredients, and methods of preparation	1	2	3	4	5
ASSU4	Restaurant has personnel who seem well trained, competent, and experienced	1	2	3	4	5
ASSU5	Restaurant makes me feel comfortable	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION G: PERSONAL HYGIENE (PH)

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
PH1	The work staff wear proper attire (e.g., wear apron, gloves, covered hair)	1	2	3	4	5
PH2	The work staff appearance and uniform are neat and clean	1	2	3	4	5
PH3	The work staff demonstrate high standard of personal hygiene (e.g., no coughing or sneezing onto food or hands and then touching food, no biting nail, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
PH4	The work staff keep short and clean fingernails	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION H: CLEANLINESS OF EQUIPMENT AND SURFACES

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
CES1	The tableware (e.g., glasses, plates, and cutlery) provided are clean	1	2	3	4	5
CES2	The equipment/utensils for serving food are clean	1	2	3	4	5
CES3	The service area and any surface in the restaurant are clean (e.g floor, tables, counters)	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION I: CLEANLINESS OF RESTROOMS (CR)

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
CR1	Toilets and urinals are well maintained and clean	1	2	3	4	5
CR2	Trash bins are available and not full	1	2	3	4	5
CR3	The floor is clean	1	2	3	4	5

CR4	Hot water, towels, toilet paper and soap are available	1	2	3	4	5
CR5	Walls are well maintained and clean.	1	2	3	4	5
CR6	The sink, mirror, and counter are clean.	1	2	3	4	5
CR7	There is no evidence of insects/rodents	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION J: CUSTOMER SATISFACTION (CS)

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
CS1	I am pleased with my decision to dine in this restaurant	1	2	3	4	5
CS2	Based on all my experiences with this restaurant, I am satisfied	1	2	3	4	5
CS3	The restaurant assures cleanliness for the services offered	1	2	3	4	5
CS4	I have enjoyed dining at this restaurant	1	2	3	4	5
CS5	The overall feeling that I get from this restaurant is positive	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION K: RESTAURANTS ATTACHMENT (RA)

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
RA1	I identify strongly with this restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5
RA2	I feel this restaurant is a part of me	1	2	3	4	5
RA3	Visiting the restaurant says a lot about who I am.	1	2	3	4	5
RA4	I am very attached to the restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5

RA5	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5
RA6	This restaurant means a lot to me.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION L: WILLINGNESS TO PAY A PRICE PREMIUM (WPPP)

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
WPPP1	I would remain with this restaurant if the price had suddenly increased by 10 to 15 percent.	1	2	3	4	5
WPPP2	If the price of the service of this restaurant were somewhat increased, I would continue to frequent, nevertheless.	1	2	3	4	5
WPPP3	I am ready to pay a little more expensive for this restaurant	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION M: RETURN PATRONAGE INTENTION (RPI)

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
RPI1	The likelihood of eating at the same restaurant is high	1	2	3	4	5
RPI2	The probability that I would consider eating at same the restaurant is high.	1	2	3	4	5
RPI3	My willingness to eat at the same restaurant is high.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION N: POSITIVE WORD OF MOUTH (PWM)

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
PWM1	I have told others about this restaurant	1	2	3	4	5
PWM2	I would recommend the restaurant to others	1	2	3	4	5
PWM3	I am willing to inform others if they ask me about the restaurant	1	2	3	4	5

*Thank you for your time and
patience in completing this
survey.*

APPENDIX B: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



GENERAL/HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (GHREC)

13-Jun-2022

Dear Miss Mathapelo Mafojane

Application Approved

Research Project Title:

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE SATISFACTION AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS OF RESTAURANT CONSUMERS

Ethical Clearance number:

UFS-HSD2022/0346/22

We are pleased to inform you that your application for ethical clearance has been approved. Your ethical clearance is valid for twelve (12) months from the date of issue. We request that any changes that may take place during the course of your study/research project be submitted to the ethics office to ensure ethical transparency. Furthermore, you are requested to submit the final report of your study/research project to the ethics office. Should you require more time to complete this research, please apply for an extension. Thank you for submitting your proposal for ethical clearance; we wish you the best of luck and success with your research.

Yours sincerely

Dr Adri Du Plessis

Chairperson: General/Human Research Ethics Committee

Dr Adri
du
Plessis

Digitally
signed by Dr
Adri du Plessis
Date:
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07:35:51
+02'00'

205 Nelson Mandela
Drive
Park West
Bloemfontein 9301
South Africa

P.O. Box 339
Bloemfontein 9300
Tel: +27 (0)51 401
9337
duplessisA@ufs.ac.za
www.ufs.ac.za



APPENDIX C: LANGUAGE EDITING

CONFIRMATION OF PROOFREADING

This serves to confirm that I have proofread this research report and have made the necessary corrections, suggestions, and emendations:

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE SATISFACTION AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS OF RESTAURANT CONSUMERS


By

MAFOJANE MATHAPELO

I have been proofreading articles, Honours, Masters and Doctoral dissertations, research reports and theses for the past 16+ years for, *inter alia*, the following institutions: University of the Witwatersrand; GIBS; University of Cape Town; Milpark; Mancosa; University of KwaZuluNatal; University of Johannesburg; Unisa; Tshwane University of Technology; Stellenbosch; Henley Business School, Regenesys, University of Pretoria, University of Zululand, University of the Free State, Vaal University of Technology, Nelson Mandela University, the Da Vinci Institute and, more recently, the Stadio Group.

I have also undertaken proofreading for publishers, such as Oxford University Press, Knowledge Resources and Juta & Company, companies, institutions, and non-governmental organisations.

I have a major in English, and excellent knowledge of Afrikaans.



Jennifer Croll

BA(Wits); H.Dip.Lib. (UCT); B.Tech.(LIS), B.Inf.Sc.(Hons)(Unisa); MM(Research), MM(Strategic Marketing)(Wits).

Email: crolljennifer@gmail.com

Mobile: 072-351-7997

Date: 27th November, 2022

APPENDIX D: TURN IT IN REPORT

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